



## Masterarbeit / Master Thesis

Titel der Masterarbeit / Master Thesis Title

### **Football: Origins, Paths and New Dimensions**

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Angestrebter Akademischer Grad / Academic Degree Aspired

**Master (MA)**

Wien, Mai 2010

Studienkennzahl : A 067 805

Studienrichtung: Individuelles Masterstudium:  
Global Studies – A European Perspective

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## Acknowledgement

There are many people I would like to thank for their help during the research stages and writing of this thesis. Foremost among these are Colonel Carlos Menendez from the Colombian National Police, Mr. Jerome Champagne, FIFA director for International Relations, Mrs. Bettina Schulte, program officer for the United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace and Mrs. Maria Elvira Garavito, director of the *Colombianitos* foundation, for their valuable input during the interviews I conducted at their respective organizations. For allowing me access to the FIFA library, thanks are also due to Mrs. Marta Mulero. There are a number of other individuals to whom I owe my gratitude: Mr. Alvaro Gomez from the *Matiambolumba* Foundation and Mrs. Carmenza Trujillo, coordinator for *Proseder* for their help during the activities of the project Goals for Peace in Ciudad Bolivar, Bogota, Colombia and to Mrs. Karen Villanueva and her staff as well the Elmaco family for their support in the second Goals for Peace project in the Philippines. I would also like to express my gratitude to the members of the academic body and staff of the EMGS program at the Universities of Leipzig and Vienna, to Dr. Siegfried Mattl for supervising this thesis and to my classmates at both institutions for having contributed to my personal and academic growth as well as to all those who made possible my participation in the Global Studies program. On a personal note, I would like to thank my family for their unconditional love and support and for instilling in me, the important values in life and to Mrs. Jenn Elmaco, for her priceless support in this journey. My final gratitude goes to my guides and to all the people in the football constellation I have come across over the years.

## Index

AFC	Asian Football Confederation
BCE	Before Common Era
CAF	Corporación Andina de Fomento
CAF	Confédération Africaine de Football
CE	Common Era
CONCACAF	North and Central America Soccer Federation
CONMEBOL	Confederación Suramericana de Futbol
EURO	European Football Championship
FA	Football Association
FARE	Football Against Racism in Europe
FC	Football Club
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
INGO	International Non-Government Organization
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NGO	Non-Government Organization
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNOSDP	United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace
UEFA	Union of European Football Association
UK	United Kingdom

## Abstract

Keywords: Football History, Soccer, Globalization of Sports, FIFA, Hooliganism, Football and Business, Sport for Development and Peace, Goals for Peace.

Football's consolidation as the world's most popular sport is a result of both the inherent attributes of the game, that is its simplicity and universality, as well as the historical processes that have contributed to the unprecedented expansion of the geography of the sport throughout time. Today, football represents a professional activity, an instrument to mobilize the masses, a profitable business, a focus of violence and unrest and most recently, a tool for social development and peace. Although the sport has undergone very little structural transformation in the last decades, the major development in the world of soccer has taken place in the new application of the sport as a tool for social change. This has generated a true global social movement encompassing a multitude of actors such as national governments, the private sector, international organizations and NGOs around the issues of development and peace through the power of the sport. With this background, the purpose of this thesis is two-fold: 1) to provide an overview of the history and evolution of football and to analyze the processes that contributed to its emergence and consolidation as a global phenomenon and 2) to bring to light the recent transformation experienced by the sport as a social movement and as an agent for transformation and change. This part includes the grassroots project "Goals for Peace" in Colombia and the Philippines which aims at assessing the ways and extent to which the sport can be a transformative tool.

Die Einfachheit und die unvergleichliche geographische Verbreitung von Fußball, haben beide dafür gesorgt, dass diese Sportart so berühmt geworden ist. Heutzutage ist Fußball sowohl eine professionelle Sportart, als auch ein Instrument zur Mobilisierung der Menschenmassen, ein wirtschaftlich vorteilhaftes Geschäft, eine Ablenkung von Gewalt, und in letzter Zeit auch ein Mittel für Frieden und Entwicklung. Obwohl sich der Sport in den letzten Jahrzehnten sehr wenig verändert hat, hat er sich als Mittel sozialen Wandels entwickelt, was eine sozial-globale Bewegung generiert hat, verursacht durch Regierungen, den Privatsektor internationale Organisationen und NGOs. Der Ziel dieser Diplomarbeit ist wie folgt: 1) einen Überblick über die Geschichte und Entwicklung des Fußballs zu sichern und die Prozesse, die zu ihrer Entstehung und Konsolidierung als globales Phänomen beigetragen zu analysieren und 2) die jetzige Transformation des Sports als soziale Bewegung und als Agent für Transformation und Wandel zu präsentieren. Dieser Teil umfasst das Grassroot-Projekt „Goals for Peace“ in Kolumbien und auf den Philippinen, das den Ausmaß der Wirkung von Fußball, als Transformationsinstrument bewertet.



## **1. Introduction**

In the summer of 2010, football's greatest event and perhaps, the most important sporting event in the planet, the World Cup, will be celebrated for the first time on the African continent. While critical voices argue that the billion of Rands spent on the World Cup could have been channeled to solve pressing issues affecting South Africa today- such as poverty, HIV, lack of infrastructure, crime or education - preparations continue under way to make South Africa 2010, the most memorable celebration ever to have taken place on this side of the globe. Regardless of the economic and social consequences this mega-event will have on the host nation, the vote of confidence granted to South Africa by the international community is before anything else, an acknowledgement of the recent developments and achievements of the African football in the international arena. The consolidation of football whether in Africa or elsewhere in the planet, however, is a result of both the appealing nature of the game itself as well as it is a consequence of the historical forces that have come to play and that have contributed to the remarkable expansion of the geography of the sport throughout time. On the football side of the equation, simplicity and universality are perhaps the most noteworthy elements that characterize the game. These aspects of the sport have allowed soccer to cross languages and nations to make football a pastime, a professional activity, a business or even a peculiar way of life often times associated with violence and hostility. Through time, football has transformed itself into a mechanism to join nations and most recently, it has served as a platform for the fight against social injustice and as a tool for social development and change. It is the many issues associated with the sport, its universality and simplicity, its appealing nature, the business it has become, the violence and the uncontrollable passions it generates as well as the rich historical processes it embodies, what calls for an study of the beginnings, spread and consolidation of football as the planet's most favorite sport. In this connection, the purpose of this investigation is to provide an overview of the history and evolution of football and to analyze the processes that contributed to its emergence and consolidation as a global phenomenon. Furthermore, this paper attempts to bring to light the recent transformation experienced by the sport as a social movement and as an agent for transformation and change.

## **1.1 Structure of the Thesis**

Chronologically ordered, this master thesis has been divided into three sections each dealing with particular issues related to the development and consolidation of football in the global arena (see table 1). Section One presents the origins of the sport in different world civilizations, that is, the prehistory and history of football to the advent of modern soccer in England. This section also deals with the first bans imposed on soccer through history and which almost lead to its disappearance as well as the earliest attempts to codify the rules of the game. Finally, the first section covers the emergence of football as a professional activity. Section Two examines the means by which football spread to the world and the main issues affecting the sport in recent times. The chapter “Global Explosion of Football” illustrates how through imperial, educational and trade routes, football became England’s most notable export and, as many would argue, Britain’s most remarkable contribution to the world. Emphasis is placed on the arrival of football in Colombia, my home country, and the establishment of the first soccer clubs in the nation. This section also introduces the International Federation of Football Association (FIFA) as football’s only governing body and its efforts to consolidate the sport in the international scene. The business side of the sport is also presented in the section as one of the most significant issues characterizing the sport today. Finally soccer-related violence is addressed in this section with interviews conducted with the Colombian National Police as well as with fan club members and football aficionados on issues related to security at soccer venues and hooliganism. The last section introduces the newly conceived concept of football as a tool for social transformation. Section Three examines the ways in which football may contribute to the betterment of societies, especially of those suffering from social conflict and unrest and introduces the most notable actors and strategic partnerships in the era of soccer for change. Extensive fieldwork which includes expert interview, characterize this section. The last part of this section is devoted to Goals for Peace, a project that also served as a case study to analyze the impact of the sport as a tool for social transformation.

**Table 1: Thesis Structure**

Section	I			II			III
Topic	Prehistory and History of Football			Global Explosion of Football			Football for Development and Peace
Issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ancient practice of the game</li> <li>• Bans on football</li> <li>• Codification of the rules in England</li> <li>• Professional Football league in Britain</li> </ul>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Trade, education and Football, global expansion (South America, Africa, Asia)</li> <li>• Int. Institutions (FIFA)</li> <li>• Globalization of the Sport</li> <li>• Business, TV</li> <li>• Hooliganism</li> </ul>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Emergence of INGOs using football as a means for conflict transformation, development and community building</li> </ul>
Methodology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Secondary Sources</b></li> </ul>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Secondary Sources</b></li> <li>• <b>Primary Sources: Documents Interviews</b> FIFA, Colombian National Police, Football aficionados</li> </ul>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Secondary Sources</b></li> <li>• <b>Primary Sources: Documents: UNOSDP Interviews: UNOSDP, FIFA, Colombianitos, Participatory Observation: Goals for Peace Project</b></li> </ul>
Timeline	<b>2500 BCE</b>	<b>1600 BCE</b>	<b>1888 CE</b>	<b>1900's</b>	<b>1970's</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>Late 1990's to Present</b>
Place and Developments	China	Meso-America	England	Trade and Education routes	World Cup 1974, TV Brand sponsorship	Premier League England	Partnerships between National Governments, UN, Private sector and INGOs on a world-wide basis

Source: Own Table

## **1.2 Research Methods**

Several research methods were applied in this paper. Multiple sources of data have been used in order to create a triangulation of evidence: books, documentation and archival records and relevant publications by key actors, particularly in the development field, open ended interviews, participant-observation conducted during field work and a case study.

### **1.2.1 Data Triangulation**

Data triangulation has been used as a fundamental application in this research. Triangulation of data, as pointed out by Flick (2009) is a combination of a variety of methods, local and temporal settings, study groups and theoretical perspectives in dealing with a particular phenomenon. This method can also be used to describe the relation between quantitative and qualitative research as well as a strategy to advance the quality of qualitative research. Triangulation was initially conceptualized as a strategy to validating results achieved with individual research methods. The focus of this research strategy, however, has increasingly shifted towards enriching and complementing knowledge and towards expanding and furthering the potential of individual methods. Moreover, triangulation may be utilized as an approach to further expand and complement the possibilities of knowledge produced or obtained with qualitative methods increasing scope, depth and consistency of methodological undertakings. Triangulation means that researchers take diverse perspectives on a chosen issue. These perspectives can be validated using several methods or several theoretical approaches. Furthermore, this approach refers to the practice of combining different kinds of data on the background of the theoretical approach. Equally, the combination of different methods should allow for a surplus of knowledge. That is, triangulation should generate results at several levels which means, this knowledge obtained should extent far beyond the knowledge achieved by the application of one approach alone. However, as Flick points out, triangulation requires more resources and effort thus, the benefit if using this technique must be evident (pp. 444-452). In this connection, the following sources have been deployed for this thesis:

- 1) Secondary sources such as books, academic papers and magazine articles and official documents and websites. In this regard, a visit was made to the

International Federation of Football Association (FIFA) library in Zurich, Switzerland, which holds one of the most extensive collections on soccer literature in the world. Additionally, special publications by the United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace were accessed during the field trip to Geneva, Switzerland in April 2009.

- 2) Primary sources such as open ended interviews, participant observation and photographs as a way to collect and analyze data.

### **1.2.2 Interviews**

One of the principal methods used was open-ended interview with distinguished people involved in the football constellation. Yin (1984) explains that open-ended interviews expand the depth of data gathering as well as it increases the number of sources of information. Interviews were conducted with the director for international relations at FIFA (see annex 3) and a representative from the United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) (see annex 4) located in Zurich and Geneva respectively in April of 2009. In Colombia, interviews were carried out with Coronel Carlos Alberto Melendez in order to address the efforts made by the Colombian National Police to face soccer-related violence (see annex 5) and with the director and staff of *Colombianitos*, an organization that promotes social inclusion in the country through soccer (see annex 6). Additionally, soccer aficionados and members of fan club were interviewed between February and March of 2009.

### **1.2.3 Photographs**

Photographs are used in this research as a way to present recording of facts and to represent in a holistic manner, the lifestyles and circumstances of people and situations involved in the football constellation. Collier and Collier (1986) indicate that photographs are accurate proof of material reality that can be fitted into diagrams as well as extracted into statistical designs proving in this way, their validity as a research tool (p. 10).

### **1.2.4 Participant Observation**

Participant observation is a research method appropriate for studies in which human meaning and interaction are imperative. As explained by Jorgensen (1989), through participant observation it is possible to depict what is going on, where and when things take place, why and how they occur and what and who is involved in a particular

situation. Participant observation constitutes a form of stressing interpretation and understanding of human existence (p. 12). The methodology of participant observation, for the purpose of this paper, was practiced in the form of a case study for which a joint project was developed.

### **1.2.5 Case Study**

Case studies accentuate the holistic inspection of a phenomenon as they seek to avoid the separation of particular components from the larger context to which they are related. As pointed out by Jorgensen (1989), case studies conducted through participant observation attempt to describe a phenomenon that requires intense and exhaustive investigation (p. 19). In this connection, a project was designed to serve as a case study and aims at assessing the viability of football as a tool for social transformation and change. In collaboration with Jenny Lind Elmaco, the research project Goals for Peace was developed in Ciudad Bolivar, Colombia on February 28 and March 7, 2009 and in Bais City, Philippines on August 22 and 23 of the same year. The results of the project, mainly of qualitative nature, are thus presented as a joint effort by both researchers. Two main research methods were deployed within case study: open-ended interviews, and participatory observation. In addition, photographs are used as a valuable research tool in interpreting and recording the people and situations involved during the course of the project. In regard to interviews, Yin (1984) explains that open-ended interviews expand the depth of data gathering as well as it increases the number of sources of information. The interviews were conducted with participants in Goals for Peace, both children and adults, during and after the course of activities. Participant observation, on the other hand, provides several advantages as this method combines, according to Denzin (1989b), document analysis, interviewing of respondents and informants, direct participation and observation and introspection (pp. 157-158). Interviews yielded significant qualitative results and therefore, not all results were amended to statistical analysis. This allowed for analytical conclusion to be drawn regarding the assumption that football is indeed a tool for social transformation. However, a few quantitative figures that provided information about the project participants were generated in the form of tables and charts.

## **2. Origins of the Sport**

### **2.1 The Initial Kick: Prehistory and History of Football**

*“Whoever invented football should be worshipped as a God”.*

*Hugo Sanchez*

*Mexican soccer player and coach*

*“The roots of our Soccer Tribe lie deep in our primeval past”.*

*Desmond Morris*

*British writer and artist*

The origins of football can be found in every major civilization throughout the world. Although the earliest forms of the sport and the rules that applied to it may be radically different from the modern practice of our days, the act of kicking a ball -or whatever object that may resemble one- for recreational or ritualistic purposes is, as archaeological evidence suggests, as old as civilization itself. Among complex societies the earliest records of the game come from the Chinese civilization. David Golblatt (2006) in his book, *“The Ball is Round”*, provides a comprehensive history of the game from its beginnings, which he opines, most likely to originate from ancient China, to the advent of modern soccer in England. *Caju*, which translates kick ball, a game very similar to modern soccer was widely practiced during the Han dynasty (206 BCE – 221 CE). *Caju* was played using a leather ball filled with feathers or fur and is believed to have emerged as early as the third millennium BCE. There was a marked pitch and two teams attempt to score through the goals located at opposite ends of the field. Kicking was the main means to move the ball around the pitch and, as some accounts suggest, the goal would take the form of two bamboo posts holding a silk net with a small hole in the middle. To score a goal the ball had to pass through the hole. Although the game was widely played by the imperial family, it was particularly popular among the army personnel as it became not only a recreational activity but most importantly a military training element (p. 5). The act of scoring alone suggests the complexity of the game and the mastery the players should have reached to achieve, given the relatively educe size of the hole, the difficult task of scoring.

Technical and tactical changes in the way the game was played were experienced during the subsequent Tang (618-907 CE) and Song (960-1279 CE) dynasties. The players adapted to the lighter and more easily controllable hollow ball which allowed for a more stylized way of playing. The ball would be passed among the members of a team until it reached a designated player who was the only one allowed shooting at the target. The possession of the ball, which meant another chance at shooting, was achieved only if the shooting team was able to keep the ball in the air regardless of whether they had scored or not in its previous attempt. If the ball touched the ground, however, the shooting turn would be passed on to the other team (Goldblatt 2006, p. 6).

In Japan, a game called *Kemari*, which resembled the Chinese *Caju*, was played in medieval times. Although Japanese historians claimed the indigenous roots of the game to go as far back as the sixth century BCE, earliest written records of *Kemari* date from the twelfth century (Goldblatt 2006, p. 7). The game of *Kemari* was played in a dirt pitch marked by four trees placed on every corner of the field. Eight players would stand in pairs next to the trees. The ball was hollow made of deerskin and the game's objective was trying to keep the ball in the air for as long as possible and using the trees themselves to bounce the ball of *Kemari* became a more stylized game than its Chinese predecessor. In fact, the officials in charge of the game would allocate additional points for impressive and innovative kicks. Etiquette and decorum were equally important in the *Kemari* as the skills and the aptitude shown by the players on the pitch. *Kemari* became an important hobby of the ruling elite in medieval Japan and soon the rules of the game were written down and the first true masters of the game appeared. Houses of *Kemari*, schools that would teach particular techniques and styles of playing, emerged throughout the empire. The game remained popular and widely played for approximately six centuries. By the time the wave of industrialization hit Japan, *Kemari* started a rapid decrease in both the popularity of its practice as well as in its importance in the social life of the Japanese ruling elite. In spite of the imperial efforts to keep the game alive *Kemari* had virtually disappeared by the end of the Second World War (Goldblatt 2006, p. 8).

Indigenous peoples around the world played their own version of the game too. When the colonizers of the new world arrived in present day North America they found the Iroquois and Seneca Indians playing with a ball made of deerskin. Teams of six to

team members were chosen to test their skill on the field. The game was played by periods and it consisted of throwing and kicking the ball between stools which served as goals posts. There were apparently few set rules to follow which must have allowed for a great deal of improvisation (Dewey 1930, pp. 736-739). Football, among the peoples of the Connecticut and Rhode Island tribes was called *Pasuckuakohowanog*, according to Foulds and Harris (1979) this may be translated as “they gather to play football” (p. 8). Painting the players’ faces before the game was common which could have meant an association of the game to a war-like activity (Dewey 1930, pp.736-739).

In Mesoamerican cultures the game was taken into a superior ritualistic stage: Not only was the ball game the center of the political and social life but most importantly it was an earthly representation of the cosmological vision of the highly advanced civilizations that once occupied present day Mexico<sup>1</sup> and Central America. By playing the ball game harmony and cosmic order were maintained, life was regenerated and the connection with the underworld established. Every time the ballgame was played life itself was sustained and perpetuated, the gods were appeased and the certainty of the future life guaranteed.

Spencer and Wren (2005) point out that although the game was played for many reasons including competition and entertainment it also served as a way to reenact war as practices of human sacrifice<sup>2</sup>were also associated with the ball game. But above all the game was charged with cosmological meaning: The motion of the Sun, moon and Venus which rise in the sky and sink in the underworld were represented by the trajectory of the ball. The ring through which the ball had to pass represented the ways in which the underworld could be accessed. The cosmological relevance of the ball game was recorded in the *Popol Vuh*, the sacred book of the Mayas. Participants of the ball game

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<sup>1</sup> The opening ceremony of the 1986 Football World Cup celebrated in the *Estadio Azteca* of Mexico D.F. presented a multicolor reenactment of the ancient ball game. Today, soccer is by far in Mexico, as in most of Latin America, the most popular sport.

<sup>2</sup> There are contrasting opinions among researchers of the human sacrifice aspect of the ball game in Mesoamerica. Some authors argue that it was the losers and captives or war who were sacrificed as a ritualistic offering to the gods so that life itself could continue. Other explanations of this practice present the winners of the game as the victims of sacrifice. In this regard, paying the ultimate price was the highest honor a ball player could be bestowed upon

were able to recreate the heroic crusade of the hero Twins who had defeated the lords of Xibalba on the underworld ball court. The game itself was an earthly representation of life, death and rebirth. The ball court, the place where theatrical representation of the battle for life took place, was seen as an entry point for the underworld. The most famous and spectacular of these fields known in Mesoamerica is found in the archaeological complex of Chichen Itza. The court, which is located in present day Southern Mexico, is 156 meters long and 36 meters wide, that is, almost twice the size of a modern football field (pp. 195-196).

The Mesoamerican ball game was unique in its nature as it was a game of life and death. Moreover, it possessed other characteristics that made this early football ancestor, the only one in its kind in this part of the world. The ball, the most important element in the game, bounced like no other thanks to the mastery of the Mayan artisans but most importantly due to the materials used in the elaboration of the ball. Galeano (2007) highlights the fascination expressed by the Emperor Charles and his court when conqueror Hernan Cortez bounced a Mexican ball high in the air (p. 20). The Spanish were both delighted and struck by the way the Mesoamerican ball moved and bounced. The answer for such an enigmatic behavior was not the reasoning the Spanish invaders applied to explain the unexplainable that is, sorcery or witchcraft or perhaps, the devil living inside the ball, but rather rubber, a material only to be found, or at least used, in this part of the world. According to Goldblatt (2006), archaeological records suggest that the manufacturing of the ball dates back as early as 1500 BCE thanks to the Olmecs. The ball varied in size between a softball and a basketball and like the Mayans, the ball game was played in squares or in large areas of temple complexes. Later, the game spread east to the present day islands of Puerto Rico and Hispaniola and north where the Indian cultures of Arizona took up the Mesoamerican game (pp. 11-12).

The Romans <sup>3</sup>also played an early version of football and it is believed that with the expansion of their empire, the game was introduced to the peoples they conquered. They were particularly attracted to the indoor version of the game which was played in a

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<sup>3</sup> The comedies of the prolific Greek writer Antiphanes contain records of the ball game being played by the early Romans. They argue that Emperor Julio Caesar was fast with both his feet and that Nero was not able to score at all. *See Galliano 2007, P.22.*

court called *Sphaerista* for *Expulsum Ludere*. This competitive game was characterized by catching, throwing and dodging the ball. Variations of the game were also played outdoors in fields or *Palaestras*. (Goldblatt 2006, p.13). In the British Isles, Sugden and Bairner (1993) point out that folk football emerged approximately a thousand years ago being the game particularly popular among the Celtic tribes in Ireland. Evidence suggests that Celtic tribes may have played a large scale and very violent form of the sport (p. 71). The game was played between two teams formed by innumerable participants, usually members of nearby villages, and consisted of trying to get the ball into a designated area across open fields under a few set rules. (Goldblatt 2006, p.16). Folk football was also played on continental Europe. Bromberger (1995b) points out that the violent ball game of *Soule*<sup>4</sup> was being played by the French since medieval times. (p. 276). In Florence, the ball game was called *Calcio*<sup>5</sup> as it is known today in Italy. Both Machiavelli and Leonardo da Vinci were enthusiastic followers of the sport. Matches were held in the largest plazas as well as on frozen rivers. Players were allowed to use both hands and feet to manipulate the ball. *Calcio* was a popular sport not only among ordinary people but it proved to be an attractive pastime among members of the influential Catholic Church: Popes Clement VII, Leo IX and Urban VIII succumbing to the earthly charm of the game played *Calcio* on the holy Vatican gardens (Galeano 2007, p. 23).

## **2.2 Bans on the Game**

The practice of football, although a game widely accepted and practiced worldwide, has also encountered opposition and resistance especially in its early days. With the exception of the great Mesoamerican cultures, the game generated disbelief and unrest among the ruling elites, resulting in occasions of violent and aggressive practice.

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<sup>4</sup> W.B. Johnson in his anthropological writings of 1929 relates the origins of football with an early pagan rite. In his view, it was common for primitive cultures to associate the Sun with a spherical object to represent the “giver of life, the provider for all living beings”. His view is supported by the fact that *Soule*, the early form of football played in Brittany and Normandy, is the Latin word for Sun. In an earlier hypothesis proposed by E.K.Chambers, football represents not the Sun but rather the head of a beast which the participants of the game have to capture and bury to guarantee successful crops. This practice still survives in Lincolnshire, UK. See *Erick Dunning, 1994, P.1.*

<sup>5</sup> The ancient game of *Calcio* is played yearly in Florence during the June Festival where three exhibition matches are held.

Due to both the lack of set rules and organization, the game defied the established order and generated animosity among players, spectators and authorities alike.

In 1314 a decree by king Edward II condemned the game as unruly and uncontrollable: “ Forasmuch as there is there is great noise in the city caused by hustling over large balls, from which many evils may arise which God forbids” (Galeano 2007, p. 22).

In 1349 Edward III classified the game as senseless and stupid and laws to prohibit it were signed by Kings Henry IV and Henry VI in the first half of the 15<sup>th</sup> century (Galeano, 2007, p. 22). Dunning (1994) asserts that between 1330 and 1660 the British authorities issued at least 30 orders prohibiting football. Apart from the argument that the practice of football posed a threat to public order it was argued that the game was causing undesirable effects on military preparedness. It was suggested by the authorities that the people should focus their energies into what they thought would be a more noble and useful activity such as military training (p. 3). Marples (1954) presents a 1365 prohibition act enacted by Edward III which read as follows:

“To he Sheriff of London. Order to cause proclamation to be made that every able bodied man of the said city on feasts days when he has leisure has in his sports use bows and arrows or pellets and bolts ... forbidding them under pain of imprisonment to meddle in the hurling of stones, loggats and quoits, handball, football...or other games of no value; as the people of the realm... used heretofore to practice the said art in their sports when by God’s help came forth honor to the kingdom and advantage to the king in his action of war; and now the said art is almost wholly disused and the people engaged in the games aforesaid and in other dishonest, unthrifty or idle games, whereby the realm is likely to be without archers” (Cited in Ekblom 1994, p. 6).

Although the game was still practiced by minority groups, the banned imposed on football was successful in suppressing its practice in urban areas. By the eighteenth-century football had been replaced by sporting activities such tennis and cricket. Moreover, boxing and horse racing had by then become the sport of the masses as well as the favorite gamblers pastime (Goldblatt 2006, p. 18).

The world was entering into a new era. The global empires were experiencing a rapid transformation affecting every aspect of the lives of millions of people across the

globe. The gap between the civilized people and the barbarians became more evident and the European powers of the time consolidated themselves as the model for the rest to follow. In this light, football became the sport of the uncivilized, the barbarians, the ignorant that, due to the lack of clear rules and the absence of an organizational body that supervised the development of the games, appealed to violence as the only arbiter of the vicious encounters. The football pitch had become, in the eyes of the civilized, a battlefield where countless numbers of warriors would defend the honor of their territories. Some of them would not survive the battle to tell their achievements or the way in which they made their way to the goal marching across the field while kicking and knocking down the enemies they would encounter. For some others, marks and scars left on the body would be the only testimony of the sanguinary battles. Little by little, the game became less practiced and more condemned. But the fervor with which the early martyrs-stars played the game would bring back to life the almost extinct practice. It would be in England, the place that more ferociously condemned the early sport, where modern football as we know it today was to be born.

### **2.3 Modern Football: Britain's Contribution to the World.**

*“Rugby is a beastly game played by gentlemen; soccer is a gentlemen's game played by beasts; football (American) is a beastly game played by beasts”.*  
*Henry Blaha*  
*Rugby Player*

The transition of football's early rough and violent form into the almost homogeneous, global sport of our days started in England in the 19<sup>th</sup> century - a period characterized by numerous cultural and political upheavals particularly in Europe and the U.S. England, the leading industrial and economic global power at that time, was a society in the making. In this era, it was experiencing the multiple economic and political outcomes derived from the advent of the industrial revolution during the late 18<sup>th</sup> century. High levels of economic growth as well as an urbanization process never experienced before characterized this era which was also marked by the emergence of a massive working class. New principles aimed at guaranteeing the superior education of Britain's

youth elite were developed to include sports as a crucial component of the country's educational system. And it was precisely in the teaching institutions where football's great transformation would take place.

At the time when cultural marginalization of football had reached its peak in England, new forms of the game, more suitable to the emerging social conditions of the newly industrialized nation, began to emerge in public schools. Central to this transformation are the processes of the initial writing of the rules of football, the delimitation of the size of the pitch, the reduction of the number of participants and the imposition of restrictions regarding both the duration of the matches and the kind of physical force to be used in the game. From this period of modernization of the game two distinct ways of playing emerged: On the one hand the Rugby style of playing which allowed carrying of the ball. And on the other, the Association Football way which did not permit hand manipulation of the ball (Dunning 1994, p. 10). Giulianotti (1999) identifies the splitting currents of the game as the students forming the clubs known as the *Old Rugbeians* and *Etonians* which favored a hackling and handling game and the *Harrovians* which prohibited these actions. The first official football club, Sheffield FC, a team formed by students as well as by the emerging industrial and merchant class, adopted the rules of the *Harrovians* in 1854 (p. 18). Murray (1996), however, points out that the first attempt to establish a standardized set of rules came from a Cambridge initiative in 1848. Representatives of various schools who held a formal meeting in Trinity College were asked to write down their own school's rules. The "Cambridge Rules" would provide the basis for football rules later to be enacted by the Football Association (pp. 4-5).

In November 1863 in a meeting held at the Freemason's Tavern in central London representatives from eleven teams, among which were the Kennington School, Cristal Palace and Blackheath School, intended to establish, once and for all, a set of definitive rules to govern the game of football. Although the game has been subject to modifications since the year 1863, this historic meeting marked the birth of modern football as we know it today. The Football Association (FA) created during the meeting, came to be the entity in charge of the regulation and development of the game. This development away from Rugby proved to be an irrevocable one: by 1871 the clubs

advocating handling and hackling created the Rugby Football Association. The final split between the once-same sports had taken place (Goldblatt 2006, pp. 31-32).

The new rules adopted by the FA in 1863, according to Green (1953), marked a decisive development in the homogenization of the game. Among the most significant laws of the FA were these:

1. The delimitation of the size of the pitch. The maximum length of the field should be 200 yards long (168 m) by 100 yards wide (84). The pitch shall be properly marked by flags. The goals shall be defined by two upright posts eight yards apart.
2. The winner of the toss will have the choice of goals. The game will begin by placing the ball in the centre of the field. Members of the opposite team shall not approach within ten yards until the ball is finally kicked off.
3. After a goal is won, the losing team shall kick off and goals shall be changed.
4. A goal shall be won when the ball passes between the goal posts.
5. No player shall carry the ball.
6. Neither tripping nor hacking shall be allowed.
7. No player shall take the ball with his hand from the ground while it is still in play.
8. No player should be allowed to wear projecting nails or iron plates on the soil of his boots.
9. The concept of off side was introduced<sup>6</sup>.

(pp. 36-38)

Although rules 5 and 6 clearly marked a considerable development away from the “Rugby school”, the norms continued to be modified and new ones are introduced to provide the game with the necessary framework to guarantee that it stays true to its roots, while giving football an identity of its own.

The number of players being fixed at eleven on each side was already a familiar development by the 1870’s. However, there were only two officials called empires who were confined to the sidelines of the field. A third official was introduced in the late 1870’s in case of a disagreement between the two empires. In 1881 the third official was

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<sup>6</sup> The early offside law penalized any attacking player ahead of the ball. This law made it very difficult for both advancing and the passing of the ball. Later the rule was modified so that an attacker was in offside only when positioned in front of the third-last defender. See *FIFA website*: [www.fifa.com/classicfootball/history/law/summary.html](http://www.fifa.com/classicfootball/history/law/summary.html).

to be known as the referee but only until 1881 was he given total control of the game. The compulsory marking of the football field was introduced in 1882 and well as the halfway line to locate both the area in which each goalkeeper could control the ball as well as the kick off point; it was only until 1912 the goalkeeper was restricted to handle the ball within his own area. By 1887 the penalty line was presented and the penalty kick was awarded for fouls committed within this area. The central circle was introduced at the same time to demarcate the necessary distance the opposition team should keep before the initial kick off and after a goal was scored. The size of the ball was stipulated in 1872 to be limited between 27 and 29 inches (68.5 – 73.6). Players' uniforms also experienced a transformation in the 1870's. Up until this decade players had based their dressing code on cricket kits which was replaced by shirts of different colors, designs and patterns. Shirts were not numbered and goalkeepers did not wear yet a distinct uniform from the other members of his team. Shirt numbers were first used in 1928 and only became compulsory until 1938. Cup designs became popular as they were by then the only way by which players could be distinguished on the pitch by spectators and colleagues. Football boots were made of tough leather often featuring metal toecaps. (Goldblatt 2006, pp. 33-35).

Having succeeded in developing a homogeneous set of rules for the game, the Football Association consolidated itself as football's governing body to which every club had to be affiliated. This great "leap forward" led not only to the spread of football all over Britain but the enormous popularity enjoyed by the sport proved to be a vital factor in establishing a new sporting culture that, all throughout identified itself less with the students and the ruling elites and more with the emergent working class.

The first FA Cup, known as "The Challenge Cup", a natural way to introduce the game in Britain, was first held in 1871. Golblatt (2006) points out that although fifty teams were qualified as members of the FA to play in the cup, only fifteen, due to diverse reasons, entered into the competition. Some teams declined the invitation due to the high costs involved in traveling across the nation to attend the challenge while some others did not go beyond the registration process. The Wanderers, a team composed mostly by upper-class players, was crowned in front of two thousand spectators as the brand-new

**Table 2: Significant Developments in the Rules of the Game**

**1863:** *The Cambridge Rules are rewritten to provide the game's first uniform regulations.*

□ **1866:** *The offside law is changed to allow players to be onside provided there are three players between the ball and the goal.* □

**1882:** *The associations in Great Britain unify their rules and form the International Football Association Board (IFAB) to control the laws of the game.*

**1891:** *Introduction of the penalty-kick.* □

**1913:** *FIFA becomes a member of the IFAB.* □

**1925:** *Amendment of the offside rule from three to two players.* □

**1958:** *Substitutes are permitted for the first time, albeit only for an injured goalkeeper and one other injured player.*

□ **1970:** *The system of red and yellow cards is introduced for the 1970 World Cup finals.* □

**1990:** *The offside law is changed in favor of the attacker, who is now onside if level with the penultimate defender.*

□ **1992:** *Goalkeepers are forbidden from handing back-passes.* □

**1994:** *The technical area is introduced into the Laws of the Game, with the Fourth Official following the next year.* □ □

**1992:** *Goalkeepers are banned from handling deliberate back-passes.*

**1998:** *Fierce tackle from behind became a red-card offence.*

FA Cup champion. A year later, the Wanderers retained the title when they beat Oxford University in the final by 2-1. During the next seven years the FA cup was to be won by teams based on the South of England and mainly representing either University students or teams affiliated with the armed forces. However, as years passed the popularity of the game reached

**Source:** <http://www.fifa.com/classicfootball/history/index.html>

all corners of Britain and in different sectors of society. Soon enough the Old Etonians, a student's team, would face Blackburn Rovers, a team composed by the industrial working class, in the final game of the 1882 FA Cup. Although the Old Etonians won the cup, the game had proved to be the turning point in overcoming social and class issues. This, along with the later professionalization of the sport would commence an unstoppable wave of football popularity both inside Britain and abroad (pp. 32, 37).

The statement that "Britain had quickly fallen in love with game", can be swiftly reaffirmed not only by the growing number and diversity of football followers and players but also by the number of teams that joined the FA in its first years of operation. Murray (1996) points out that by 1867 the FA had ten member teams; in 1871 the number

had risen to fifty. By 1888, 1,000 teams were members and by 1905 it had reached the spectacular record of 10,000 affiliated teams. . The FA Cup was certainly becoming spectacle for the masses. In 1901 it attracted a crowd of 110,820 spectators to watch the final between Tottenham Hotspur and Sheffield United. In addition, the FA introduced in 1872 the match against Scotland, first of which was played in Glasgow and watched by some 3,000 spectators. The regular matches were extended into a British Home Championship starting in 1883 with the addition of Wales and Ireland. This was to become the longest-lasting football competition in the world, which was running until 1989 (pp. 6-9).

Football spread quickly from England's South where it was played mainly by students and the upper class elite into the north - a traditional rugby stronghold. The game was also being adopted by the working class and its popularity soon went beyond national frontiers. In Scotland the game became particularly popular and by the early 1880's football had reached the status of an incipient national phenomenon. Scotland's contributions to the game, although often overshadowed by those of England, have proved to be vital in both the tactic development of the game as well as in their valuable contribution in the campaign for the professionalization of the sport.

## **2.4 Professionalization of Football**

*"Some people tell me that we professional players are soccer slaves. Well, if this is slavery, give me a life sentence".*

*Bobby Charlton* □

*English player and 1966 World Cup winner*

In football, players' technical skills as well as the team's tactical dispositions on the pitch are both fundamental components for success. Accomplished teams throughout the history of the game have enriched football by developing new tactical schemes directed towards making a more efficient use of the possession of the ball while creating the most possible opportunities to score. After all, games are won by scoring more goals than the adversary. But these developments in football did not happen overnight. They were a consequence of a transformation in the game which favored the collective way of

playing over the individualistic possession of the ball. The Scots, first to practice a more collective football similar to the one we are all familiar with, changed dramatically the nature of the game not only in its tactical and technical forms but these improvements, in turn, triggered the arrival of professionalism in the sport.

The Scottish approach to playing soccer was a simple, yet a very accurate one: the ball travels faster and more efficiently than a man. This principle allowed for a redistribution of players on the field to keep more players on defense, include two wingers in attack, reinforce the middle and learn a more accurate way to pass the ball. The “passing of the ball” development instead of the old “Kick and Rush” a tactic often associated with the English footballers, also contributed to a more precise short passing of the ball while keeping it on the ground so that the game looked more elegantly played and more dynamic in essence. This, in turn, led the players to develop new technical skills to control and pass the ball (Murray 1996, p. 8).

Prior to the Scottish development of the game and because of the earlier version of the offside rule, football had become a “dribbling game” where chaos and disorder reigned on the pitch. The FA had adopted the following rule regarding the off-side position: “When a player has kicked the ball anyone in the same team is regarded as off-side is he is nearer to the opponent’s goal-line than the kicker”. As a consequence and to avoid offside, most of the players had to adopt attacking positions even though it was very difficult to score. In 1886, the rule was changed so that a player was not in offside if three opponents were nearer to their own goal line. Queen’s Park, a popular team in Glasgow, was the first to make use of the tactical advantages that the new rule presented. The team proposed a scheme composed of two fullbacks, two halfbacks and six attackers. In fact, the team was so successful with the application of the new formation that it went unbeaten and without a goal scored against them from the date of its founding on July 9 1867 until January 16 1875, (Bolling 1994, p. 20).

Up until the 1880’s it was common for English teams to display a 2-1-7 formation, that is two defenders, one player in the middle and seven attackers, an unconceivable arrangement for the modern times. A later 2-3-5 formation was widely adopted by English teams which allowed for a smooth movement of the ball across and along the pitch. The role of the wing was emphasized on this new model as it permitted

an efficient use of empty spaces of the soccer field, usually crowded by players in the center <sup>7</sup>(Golblatt 2006 p. 37).

Due to the technical skills and the elegant display of the game by the Scottish, these players became the most wanted in the powerful English Cup. Although many of them had migrated to escape the precarious economic situation of their former industrial towns, their priority was to play for one of the mythical teams of the English league. Golblatt (2006) argues that Scottish players could be found almost in any English team. Sometimes their presence was of such magnitude, as in the case of the club Preston North End, where they occupied ten of the first's team eleven places. In addition, Scots could be found in teams such as Aston Villa, Blackburn, Sheffield and Bolton. It was soon a normal practice that teams would compensate in some way their Scottish stars, a new development that raised the issue of the professionalization of the sport. Although the FA initially condemned this practice arguing that the sport should be played on "Olympian Virtues", the association agreed to legalize the employment of football players in 1885. Some teams, however, such as the Corinthians, a team founded in 1882 did not share the imperative needs of most clubs to support the new professional status of football. The Club, which was formed by the best of the British aristocracy, university and public school students, although a bearer of the amateur game, provided England several times with most of the players for international competitions: In a game against Scotland nine of the eleven players were Corinthians and in 1894 and 1895 the whole English team that played Wales came from the amateur team. Corinthians attracted many followers not only across the country but also internationally thanks to the many tours that included continental Europe, South Africa, Brazil and Australia. Opposition to professionalism also came from the liberal elite of the Manchester Guardian Newspaper concerned by the moral consequences of an eventual change of status of the sport as well as from the

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<sup>7</sup> The classical formation in modern soccer is 4-4-2, that is, four defenders, four midfielders and two attackers. The 4-3-3 formation is also widely used across the globe. However, the growing emphasis on having a strong defense with and only 2 or 3 strikers has translated into a decrease in the number of goals scored per game as compared to previous formations which displayed more players in the forward positions.

conservative and aristocratic sector of society that felt the displacement by the inferior working class on the practice of football (pp. 46-49).

The advent of football as a professional activity led to a monumental social transformation particularly in three specific areas: First, the inevitable acceptance of football as a professional activity meant not only that football players would obtain a regular income to complement their earnings from other activities especially industrially-related, but in the case of top players football would become the main source of their earnings. This meant that the newly created professional clubs had to come up with the means to generate income not only for their players but also for the administrative bodies in charge of the clubs. As a consequence, business strategies were implemented to transform the sport into a profitable activity in which the wages of the working class football enthusiasts played a central role. Secondly, the increasing size of crowds led to an expansion of the transportation infrastructure (Golblatt 2006, p. 53). And thirdly, sporting facilities were developed in order to cater for the soccer masses which in turn covered for the expenditure of the facilities. (Szymanski and Kuypers 1999, p. 4).

Establishing a payment for football players has always been a major issue throughout the history of professional football (See Annexes 1 and 2). Since the early days of the FA where money was believed to corrupt the spirit of the game to our days in which top players generate astronomical amounts of money every year, payment of footballers has certainly caused a great deal of debate. Hardin and Taylor (2003) identify four major eras regarding the payment of players: from the late 1870's to 1901, when clubs were able to pay whatever they considered appropriate; 1901 to 1961, when a maximum wage was implemented; 1961 to 1995 when the retain and transfer system coexisted alongside with the wage freedom; and the post-1995 when players were able to negotiate new contracts after the expiration of their original ones. For the purpose of this section, emphasis will be placed on the first and second period of players' payment (p. 15).

The acceptance of football as a professional activity meant that the players would receive a regular salary which in turn, would depend on the footballer's constant participation in football tournaments. Although the FA Cup was still by the late 1880's the main football tournament, the elimination from the competition in an early round

would mean that players would end up without anything to do for a prolonged period of time, hence affecting his ability and that of his team to generate income. To cope with this recurrent dilemma, an additional tournament, the Football League, was introduced in 1889. Members of the Football League were mainly small business owners and industrialists with a clear business mindset but who also made valuable contributions to the development of the league such as the introduction of promotion into the first league by the top teams in the lower division and relegation to the lower division by the bottom teams of the professional league. The Football League was made up of a group of selected teams that compromised on giving the league games preference over any other competition. After much debate, the FA was left to manage the FA Cup, international and amateur football while the league was to be in control of the organization of league competitions (Murray 1996 pp. 10, 11)

In the late nineteenth century, prior to the development of the maximum football wages, a professional football player would earn anything between 10s per match and 7 Pounds week added to signing-on deals for top players. The reason for such “inflation” was according to Hardin and Taylor (2003), the establishment of the FA as the new league’s regulations stipulated a minimum of 25 players on a team’s pay role. Otherwise the clubs would face heavy fines. Clubs began to offer players elevated salaries and other monetary incentives to guarantee that the team would comply with the required minimum of players while making sure that the most skilled footballers would be part of their pay role. In Sunderland, for example, footballers were played 5 Pounds per match, a salary far above the average of the time while at Aston Vila players would be guaranteed a 6.10 Pound-a-week salary all year round. There were, however, tremendous salary gaps between top and bottom players’ salary even within established football teams such as in the case of Aston Villa. During the late 1890’s second team players would only receive 15s to 1 Pound with increases only possible if they were part of the first eleven. In order to cope with such salary inconsistencies as well as to impose a regulation of footballers’ wages, the maximum wage of 4 Pounds was introduced in 1901. Top players would be awarded under this regulation the maximum salary plus some under-the-counter economic stimulus. After 1910 bonus payments were allowed to be paid by football clubs to players and in the 1920’s the sliding pay scale was introduced. Under this concept new

players would be started on 5 pounds a week salary and earn annual increases of 1 Pound a week over four years (pp. 15-17).

By the end of the 1890's football had experienced a remarkable transformation in several areas. The aristocracy had lost the hegemony in the practice of the sport as the British working class had virtually colonized football making it the "sport of the masses". Emergence of real wages coupled with the establishment of the Saturday-half-day-off for workingmen prompted the mass attendance of football games (Golblatt 2006, p. 53). Although cricket remained vastly popular, by the First War World football had become England's national sport. Vamplew (1988) shows the average attendance increase of football matches during the late Victorian period: In 1888 spectators rose from 4,600 to 7,900 in 1895; By 1905 they reached 13,200 and on the eve of the First War World the average number of fanatics filling the stadiums was 23,100 (pp. 63). Football became a social phenomenon that had conquered Britain by the early 20<sup>th</sup> century. It would not take long for "football mania" to spread all around the world: first to the countries closest to England and later to virtually every corner of the world. In the next section, I will present the global explosion of soccer and the implications for the development of the "beautiful game".

### **3. The Global Explosion of Football**

#### **3.1 From Britain with Love: Football's First Wave of Expansion**

*"Some people believe football is a matter of life and death. I'm very disappointed with that attitude. I can assure you it is much, much more important than that".*

*Bill Shankly*

*English Soccer Manager.*

The global expansion of football took place in a time when cultural, political and economic domination of the British Empire had no parallel in the world. Britain's dominant position in trade and military technology allowed for direct rule over its many colonies while exerting indirect control on a significant number of free countries across the globe. Football, then, became Britain's most illustrious product of export; a product that crossed oceans in the British quest for world supremacy and that would soon prove to have conquered the world on its own.

##### **3.1.1 The Colonial World**

The export of football to the world took place through three main outlets: 1) through imperial links; 2) through missionaries (Darby 2002, pp. 10-11) and 3) through trade connections (Murray 2006, p. 18). (Guilianoti 1999), however, observes that trade connections rather imperial links were the most effective channels for the expansion of football in the late 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> century (p. 6). The early outcomes of the attempts at introducing the game in British colonial societies such as Canada, South Africa, Australia or New Zealand, where football, an equivalent of the British rule, was severely rejected, resisted or replaced (Golblatt 2006, p. 87), proves the validity of such a claim. Furthermore, in Canada, for example, although the game had already been introduced by early Scottish migrants immediately after the game's codification in Britain, cultural pressures to establish national sport traditions forced the adoption of local games such as ice hockey. In Australia the game lost its rank among the aristocracy due to the emergence and quick spread of Australian football. (Guilianoti 1999, p. 7). In India, where the game was sporadically played in Calcutta and other major cities between British troops and local officers and clerks, the aristocratic sport of cricket remained the favorite pastime (Murray 2006, p. 18).

Two cases in which the colonial legacy of the British Empire seemed to have been the means by which the practice of football was successfully initiated are the occupied territories in Africa and Asia.

### **3.1.2 Africa**

In Africa, according to Darby (2002), the game was clearly a legacy of European colonialism. Colonial links and also the European educational system played a significant role in the introduction of the game into the continent. Schools were established for the African elite which, through the cultural imitation of their colonial masters, would afford a higher social status. Therefore, participating in football depended on specific contacts with the European settlers leading to the development of the game into an elitist practice. Later, the working-class populations were also able to play the game as a result of the contact with new settlers and traders in urban centers. The work of the missionaries both on the African continent and in the most isolated corners of the British Empire was also a vital force for the diffusion of football. In Africa, the aim of the church was to civilize the native populations not only through the instruction of the Christian religion but also through the practice of other Western values such as games in which football was included. This factor was to remain crucial for the diffusion of football throughout the continent because the game was seen as possessing educative and civilizing characteristics both core values of the missionary crusade (p. 11).

### **3.1.3 Asia**

In the same token, the development of soccer in Asia during the late 19<sup>th</sup> century was a consequence of the imperial undertakings of the British in this part of the world. Murray (2006) points out that the European colonizers had set up their elite sports in China as early as 1843 and that by 1879 Football games were already being played in Shanghai. In November 1887 the Shanghai Football Club was formed initiating in this way regional, national and even international competitions such as the International Cup (1907) where Scottish teams dominated other teams made up of Germans, English, Portuguese, Jews and French players. The Hong Kong FC was founded in 1886 and a few years later the club set up competitions between civilians and military groups. The Shanghai Football Association was created in 1910. Football was particularly popular in Beijing where in addition to the British, Americans, Austrians and French participated in

regular competitions. Missionaries, such as in Africa, also played an important role in converting local people into Christianity in Asia through the use of the sport (pp. 18, 19).

### **3.1.4 Europe**

In other parts of the world such as Europe and Latin America, British sailors, educationalists, traders and workers became the best means to spread the game (Armstrong and Giulianotti 1999, p. 5). In Europe the game spread very rapidly and successfully due in large part to traders and, most notably students that returned to their countries of origin with footballs and written copies of the rules of the game. In Switzerland the first football clubs were established by British teachers and pupils as early as 1860's. Grasshoppers, the most popular Swiss team, was formed by English students in 1876, year that also witnessed the foundation of Denmark's most popular team: the KB Copenhagen. In the Netherlands, Pier Mulier, a Dutch who has studied in England founded Holland's first club, Haarlemse FFC, in 1879. In Sweden, the game was introduced by Scottish workers in Gotemborg and other shipbuilding ports and in Norway football was also introduced through main ports cities. In France, football, a game as popular as rugby was played by British expatriates and local French students. The first club was founded in 1892 by French pupils educated in England. In Germany although the game was mainly played by students and colleges, British travelers and engineers were notorious in the promotion of the game as well as in the founding of the earliest football clubs such as the Football Club Dresden and Fussball-Club Britannia in 1892. However, the British origins of football created unpleasant reactions particularly among nationalists as well as mixed feelings and emotional conflict among followers of the game. In Fact, among German intellectuals of the late 19<sup>th</sup> century football was referred as the "English sickness" and several papers were written to discredit the practice of the sport. In a piece titled "Football Loutishness" by Karl Planck<sup>8</sup>, it was argued that football reduced humans to the levels of the apes. In spite of the growing opposition to the sport, football became widely practiced especially among students in the first decades of the

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<sup>8</sup> Karl Plank was a well-known leader of the Turner movement which promoted the practice of gymnastics through the ideal of a common European origin. The Turner movement turned into a political force in the late 19<sup>th</sup> Century.

20<sup>th</sup> century to whom the game proved to be extremely appealing (Murray 2006, pp. 23-26).

In Central Europe the game became particularly popular due to the concentration of football clubs and passionate crowds in Vienna, Budapest and Prague. In Vienna the numerous British community was composed of engineers, a large diplomatic staff, banks and trading companies which promoted significantly the spread of the game across the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The first game took place in 1894 between the Vienna Cricket Club and a club formed by the Scottish Gardeners of the Baron Rothschild. The Cricketers became the Wiener Amateur in 1911 and the gardeners became First Vienna, as they are still known today. In 1897, *Der Challenge Cup* was opened to teams from all corners of the Empire (Golblatt 2006, p. 139). In Russia the sport was introduced through major city ports and in industrial areas and in 1912 the Russian Football Federation was formed (Walvin 2001, p. 73). In Latin countries, the first to adopt the game was Portugal where the game was played by students as early as 1866. The first team, Lisbon FC, was founded in 1875. British miners engineers encouraged the game in the Basque Region of Spain where the first team, Athletic Bilbao, was created in 1898. In Madrid and Valencia the game was fostered through British Military personnel but it was in Barcelona where the game was most practiced. FC Barcelona, the main team of the Catalonian region, was founded in 1899 by the Swiss Joan Gamper. The team was the first to be made up of foreign players (Murray 2006, p. 23). From its early days in Spain to our present time, football has served as a platform to express sentiments of regional autonomy and separatism in the self-proclaimed autonomous communities such as and the Basque region and to some extent in the Catalonian community. In Italy, as pointed out by Guttmann (1994), British traders and sailors introduced the game to Milan, Genoa, Naples and Turin (p. 54). The first organized game was arranged by an Italian businessman who sustained commercial links with Britain. In 1891 the *Internazionale* Football Club was created and in 1893, Genoa Cricket and Football Club, the first official football team was founded in Genoa, (Murray 2006, p. 31).

### **3.1.5 Latin America**

In Latin America the roots of soccer developed in major cities between 1860's and 1880's. British influence on the region (particularly on the south of the continent)

was notorious not only because of the intensive commercial links maintained between South America and Britain but also due to the important number of British migrants who settled permanently in the region by the late 19<sup>th</sup> Century<sup>9</sup>. Schools were the main means to expand the game and under the tutelage of British schoolteachers, football was promoted as a projection of the British style of living in far away lands (Walvin, 2001 p. 74). This style of living, however, generated contrasting opinions among those who had never experienced the game before. In *The Rio de La Plata Region*, football, as Galeano (2007) points out, “a crazy man’s game”, was initially seen with distrust due to the many different sentiments and emotions it generated among the British players and spectators. Soon enough the football fever would become a contagious phenomenon among the natives and gentlemen of the region principally in Argentina and Uruguay (p. 28). In Argentina, the National Football league was organized in 1893 by Watson Hutton, a schoolteacher who arrived in Buenos Aires in 1882 and who would become a national figure because of his remarkable contributions to the Sport. Although the first clubs emerged before the establishment of the National League, the most celebrated and legendary teams such as Boca Juniors and River Plate would appear in the capital city in the first years of the 20<sup>th</sup> century: *Club Atletico River* (1901) formed by students and Boca Juniors (1905), the team of the Italian immigrants, would write a legendary chapter in the history of South American football. Outside of Buenos Aires, successful clubs were established in Quilmes by British workers in 1887 and in the province of Rosario by the railroad company administrators in 1889 (Murray 2006, p. 32). Similar patters in the development of the game were followed in Uruguay where several high schools were founded by the British community in Montevideo. Organized Football Association (1893) became possible through the work of William Leslie Poole, a Scottish educator at the English School. Poole also founded the first team in Uruguay, the Albion Cricket Club, in 1891 (Golblatt 2006, p. 128). The most renowned teams in Uruguay, *Penarol*

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<sup>9</sup> According to Golblatt in *The Ball is Round* (2006, p. 126) by 1880 there were more than 40,000 Britons living in Buenos Aires, capital of the Republic of Argentina. Smaller but influential British communities in Santiago, Sao Paulo, Montevideo and Lima also contributed enormously to the growth of football as well as the founding of soccer clubs in the places they settled.

and *Nacional*, both from the capital, Montevideo, play the “*Super Clasico*”, the “super derby”, one of the most intense rivalries in the history football.

In Brazil the wealthy class, who by the end of the century had formed several sailing clubs, decided to form a separate section of their clubs devoted to football. Soon, the sport became so popular and its practice so widely spread among the poorest sector of society that independent football clubs had to be introduced. *Fluminense*, one of the most famous football clubs in Brazil was founded in 1902 by Oscar Cox while its archenemy, *Flamengo*, was formed in 1911. From its early days *Flamengo* was associated with the poorer Rio inhabitants, mainly blacks and many of whom were just enjoying the privileges of freedom with the abolition of slavery in 1888. *Flamengo Vs. Fluminense*, commonly known as *Fla-Flu*, is today, as it has been for almost a century, one of the most famous derbies in the world of football. In fact, the derby set a new world record for a local league game when in 1963 177,656 fans packed the mythical *Maracana* Stadium (Murray 2006, p. 34).

In Sao Paulo, the richest and most populous city in Brazil, football was introduced by Charles Miller, a Brazilian national who returned to the country in 1894 from education in England. He soon formed a team in the Railway Company, his workplace, and persuaded other companies to do the same. In 1901, Miller creates The Sao Paulo Championship and one year later in 1902, more than 60 clubs had been established in the region. In the first years of the 20<sup>th</sup> century the game remained associated with its English origins as the celebrations often included the singing of British songs and even the toasting of the British monarch. But football in Brazil had to cut not just through class barriers but also through racial ones, as black players were banned participation in certain games during the first decades of the century. It is difficult to imagine a Brazilian national team without the magic touch of Pele<sup>10</sup> or the brilliance of Carlos Alberto, both black players and world champions in 1970. But in 1921 black footballers were not allowed to participate in the national team that represented Brazil in a South American Championship. Earlier in 1920, *Vasco Da Gama*, a popular team in Rio, faced continuous harassment by other clubs as they fielded several black footballers. Nonetheless, football

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<sup>10</sup> Edson Arantes Do Nascimento, best known by his nickname of Pele, is a Brazilian football player who is considered by many as the best footballer of all times.

began to rise as a passion among the urban poor and chiefly among black players for whom the game provided one of the few, if not the only route out of poverty (Walvin 2001, p. 74).

Football-mania of South America's southern cone quickly spread to Chile, Bolivia and Paraguay, the countries closest to Argentina and Uruguay. In Chile, where the British presence was the strongest of the three, sailors were closely involved in spreading the game (Armstrong and Giulianotti 1999, p. 5). Football was played by the early 1890's in the port of Valparaiso, where Anglo and mixed teams were organized. The game rapidly reached the capital Santiago and Vina del Mar and the Chilean association was founded in 1895. In Paraguay, the first football was introduced in the late 1890's by William Paarts, a Dutch educator, and the *Clubs Olimpia* and *Guarani* were the first to be founded. In Bolivia, a mixture of local elites and British established in 1896 the *Oruro Royal Club* and a year later railroad workers create the *Northern Sport Club*. In the Andean countries of Colombia, Ecuador and Peru, football arrived later due to the fact that British influence on the region was not as strong as in the Southern cone of the continent. In Colombia<sup>11</sup> football was most likely introduced through the port of Barranquilla in 1906. Nevertheless, due to the difficult geography of the country, the game would remain a coastal sport for some time and only until 1924 the National Federation was created in the capital city of Bogota. In Ecuador, English-educated students formed in the coastal city of Guayaquil the Guayaquil Sport Club in 1899. In Peru football was introduced through Lima, the capital city and main port of the country, where the British community was significant. British were playing football by the start of the 1890's and by the end of the century local elite had adopted the game (Golblatt 2006 pp. 133-134). The first recorded football game took place in Peru in 1892 and in 1893 two elite clubs were established: Lima Cricket and Football Club, formed by foreigners and the Union Cricket, composed of both the sons of the local elite and foreigners residents in Lima. In 1901 the first workers team was formed under the name of Club *Sport Alianza*. The team, which is known today as *Alianza Lima*, is one of the most

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<sup>11</sup> In a later section an account of the history and spread of football in the country will be presented. In addition, Colombia will serve as an example to illustrate several issues related to the sport such as the violent side of football and the use of football as a tool for social inclusion and conflict transformation.

successful teams in Peruvian history. The first decade of the century also witnessed the emergence of a significant workers teams such as *Miraflores Sporting Club*, *Sport Inca*, *Club Atletico de Lima* and *Sport Progreso* among many others. Football became the most informal pastime in Lima as well as a tangible expression of the urbanization and modernization process that, as in major South American urban centers, took place during the first decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Football had become a channel to represent not only the sporting culture of the country but it also consolidated as “the sport of the masses” as evidenced by the fact that more than 20,000 people would gather in a Lima Stadium to watch a football game by the early 1920’s. (Stein 2002, pp. 11-13). In all of the South American societies where the game arrived football underwent a transformation from being a British game to the game of the Creole masses. But this transformation, like in no other place in the world, was taken into a completely new level: a lifestyle, an obsession, the opium and the stimulant of the masses, a passion and a national sentiment and, sometimes, a matter of life and death. Football was first played by presumptuous elites in schools but it flourished in the slums of Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires and Montevideo where the game was adopted by the urban poor. For the blacks of Brazil, the game was a way to reaffirm their identity as well as a way to find their place in a society that lagged behind the banning slavery. This diversion turned into a channel for self-expression and cultural identification as well as a way to communicate with the outside world. Football became the common language of both the creoles of the Americas as well as of the European which toured the continent in an attempt to show the world their superior skills in the art of football. But they found that football was no longer a European invention, it was now a universal expression which had been perfected, improved and beautified by the skillful Argentineans, the talented and courageous Uruguayans and the creative Brazilians. Although Brazil was no match for the Rio de la Plata countries<sup>12</sup> during the early years of the game in the new world, it would be in Brazil where the most spectacular football was to be born. Famous for its trickery and its rhythmic style of playing, the game was enriched and shaped by the musical traditions of samba and

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<sup>12</sup> Argentina and Uruguay, separated by the Rio de la Plata River, are known as the Rio de la Plata countries.

capoeira<sup>13</sup>, both cultural legacies of the African continent. The early South American masters of the game would create a unique way to communicate with the ball: “On the feet of the first Creole *Virtuosos del Toque*”<sup>14</sup>, as Uruguayan writer and football aficionado Eduardo Galeano (2007) describes, “the touch was born: the ball was strummed as it were a guitar, a source of music” (p. 31).

### 3.1.6 Football Arrives in Colombia

*"In Latin America the border between soccer and politics is vague. There is a long list of governments that have fallen or have been overthrown after the defeat of the national team."*

*Luis Suarez*

*Spanish soccer player*

In Colombia, as in most of the Andean nations, football arrived late and developed much slower than in the south of the continent where the British influence was more notorious. Although the precise date of arrival of football to Colombia as well as the means by which the game was first introduced remain a mystery because of the lack of written historical records, there are several cities that claim to be the “birthplace” of Colombian football.

Barranquilla, Colombian’s largest industrial port located on the Atlantic coast, is the city that claims more firmly to be the place where the first football game was played in the country. Known as “*La Puerta de Oro de Colombia*”, Colombia’s Golden Gate, the port experienced the arrival of British merchants and sailors between the late 1890’s and the first decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. It is believed that football was introduced by British workers at the service of the Colombian Railway Company during the construction of the railway that connected Barranquilla and the nearby city of Puerto Colombia. In their time of leisure William Matheus, L.J. Smith and John Chegwin formed two teams that included both British and local workers who were taught the rules and the dynamics of the game. Once the first teams were organized, the first football game, as claimed by the “Barranquilla School”, was played in August 1904. It is also

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<sup>13</sup> Capoeira is a Brazilian art form that combines dance and martial arts.

<sup>14</sup> Spanish for virtuous of the touch.

argued that it was in Barranquilla where the rules of the game were reproduced and made public. Furthermore, the spread of the game in Colombia was possible, as it happened in most of Europe, through educational links with England. A student from Barranquilla, Arturo de Castro, had returned to the country from Great Britain where he attended University. De Castro brought with him the original rules of the game and built the first professional field on which football was first played in an organized manner. He also founded Barranquilla F.B.C. and helped in the organization of two other teams. Football historians argue, in defense of Barranquilla as the birthplace of the game, that the first official match was played in this city on March 6 1908 at 4:30 pm between a “blue” and a “white” team. Soon open fields all over the city became a common place for those early spectators that were attracted to the game. It did not take long for each *barrio* to create its own team prompting the first organized football tournament in the region. From this city, according to the Barranquilla school, the game spread southwards to Bucaramanga, where Diego Silva along with Simon Aspiroz, a Catholic priest, organized *Claverianos* FBC, the first football team of the city. In Cali, football arrived through Francisco Belaviso, a Spanish trainer. In Medellin, Sporting, the first football team was formed by two foreigners, Juan Heinningen and Jorge Herzig. Santa Marta, a costal city located in the vicinity of Baranquilla also claims to be the originator of the game in the country on the argument that sailors at the service of the United Fruit Company introduced the game in the early 1900’s. Pasto, a city located on the south west coast of the country is another likely birthplace of football in Colombia. A British citizen by the name of Leslie O. Spain played in 1909 along with his workers the first official game in the region (Ruiz 2008, pp. 9-11).

However, acclaimed Colombian Journalist Enrique Santos Molano (2005) refutes the argument of the Coastal City of Barranquilla as the place that witnessed for the first time the arrival of football in Colombia and proposes Bogota, the country’s capital as the birthplace of the sport in the nation. According to Santos, football arrived in Colombia in 1892 by an initiative of colonel Henry Rown Lemly, an American in charge of the military Academy in Bogota. Rown Lemly established the rules of the game in accordance with the British manual and published them in *El Telegrama*, a popular Bogota newspaper. On June 22 1892, two military academy teams organized by Colonel

Rown himself would play the very first football game in Colombia. The match was played on an improvised field of the academy and only a few spectators, including the president of the nation Miguel Antonio Caro, were present for the historic moment. Santos maintains that it was also in Bogota where the second football game was to be played. It was 1902 when the *Guerra de los Mil Dias*, the thousand-day war was coming to an end that a group young upper class students, some of them returning from studies in England, created El Polo Club of Bogota. The club promoted the practice of football, organized regular competitions and published in the tabloid *El Nuevo Tiempo* an updated version of the rules of the game. Jose Maria and Carlos Obregon, members of the Polo Club founded the Football Club of Bogota and built the field where the first official game (and second in the country's history) was to be played on September 7 1902 between the "Red " and the "White" teams. The match was divided into two halves of 35 minutes each and a break of 15 minutes. In order to win the match, a team should be victorious in both halves. In case of a draw, a second game was to be played and so until one of the teams defeats the rival on both halves. After three games the red team was declared the champion of the first football tournament in Colombia. By 1912 football had consolidated itself as both a sport and a show and two years later in 1914 the San Bartolome school established a competition with the participation of nine teams: *Tequendama, Bartolino, American, London, La Salle, Sporting, Polo, Internos Bartolinos* and *Pio X*. In addition, the first intercity games were also an initiative of the San Bartolome school who played several times in the city of Medellin (pp. 23-28).

The National Football Federation was founded only until 1924 year that also witnessed the emergence of the national league (Goldblatt 2006, p. 134), and by 1936 the National Federation is recognized by FIFA and CONMEBOL. As football became a recognized sporting activity the first and most emblematic football teams began to emerge: In February of 1927 the *Club America de Cali* champion of the national tournament in 13 opportunities was born in the southwest of the country. In 1944, *Deportivo Pereira* was created in this city known for its exquisite coffee. By the beginning of this year the two most competitive teams of the region, *Otun and Vidriocol* decided to join forces in order to compete against the strong teams of Bogota, Cali and Medellin. In 1947 the club *Atletico Nacional* was founded in Medellin. The club, one of

the most representative teams of the country was the first Colombian team to win the prestigious *Copa Libertadores de America* in 1989. Club *Independiente Santa Fe* from Bogota was founded by students of the elite school *Gimnasio Moderno* in 1941. In 1937, students of the San Bartolome School and La Salle Institute founded *Deportivo Municipal*, later to become the mythical *Club Deportivo los Millonarios* of the capital city of Bogota. *Millonarios* Spanish for “Millionaires” owes its name to the important contracts the club established with the first Argentinean footballers to play in the team: Oscar Sabransky, Vicente Lucifero, Antonio Ruiz, Alfredo Cuezco and Luis Timon. The club also recruited Carlos Alvares, the best Colombian goalkeeper of the time, as well as Tomas Emilio Meier and Ricardo Granados, football starts in the north of the country. In order to recriminate the team for such an astronomical expenditure of money, Luis Camacho Montoya, a sports journalist for *El Tiempo*, a Bogota paper, denominated the club as the “new rich” or the “millionaires”. Ever since the team was to be known for its nickname and on June 18 1946, the club officially adopted the name of *Millonarios* (Ruiz 2008, p. 17). This club is regarded as the most successful football team of all time, in Colombia as it has won, along with *Club America*, the national tournament 13 times. However, the first *Millonarios* title in 1949 would open a period in football history known as “El Dorado”. This was the most spectacular era of professional football in the history of the nation, which resulted in the consolidation of the Colombian league as the most competitive one in the world.

### **3.1.7 El Dorado**

“*El Dorado*”, “the Golden One”, is a legend that originated with the story of a South American tribe chief who covered himself in gold in a ritual that involved the offering of precious stones and valuable objects to the forces of nature. Upon their arrival into the new world, the Spanish conquistadores encountered the same legend all over the newly conquered territory but it was believed that *El Dorado* was to be found in the present day territory of Colombia. Imagined as a place, the search for the mythical “kingdom of gold” took the European invaders all around the Colombian territory until they finally reached the most sacred place of the *Muisca civilization*: Lake *Guatavita*. There, the chief or *Cacique* would cover himself in gold dust and would go to the center of the lake where precious stones and gold artifacts were thrown into the lake in order to

maintain the balance and the harmony between the gods and the mortals<sup>15</sup>. Nevertheless, *El Dorado*, has come to be used as a metaphor for a place where wealth can easily be made or found. In this connection and due to an unusual combination of both external and internal factors, *El Dorado* was to be found in Colombia's professional football league.

In 1948 the *Divison Mayor del Futbol Colombiano*, better known as DiMayor, football's governing body in Colombia was created with the objective of introducing a professional league in the country. April of the same year had been the chosen month to start the first professional tournament in the country but before it could begin tragedy struck the nation (Santos 2005, pp. 23-28). On April 9 1948 Jorge Eliecer Gaitan, presidential candidate for the liberal party was assassinated in what still remains mysterious circumstances. His assassination led to an outbreak of civil unrest known as *El Bogotazo* with days of uprising leaving thousands of peoples dead and the city partially destroyed. Although the government managed to reinstate public order in the cities, the conflict spread to rural areas where *La Violencia*, one of the most sanguinary periods in Colombian history and which extended until 1958, claimed the lives of more than 200,000 people (Morris 2002, p. 253). Gaitan, who by 1948 was the mayor of Bogota, was the voice of the oppressed and the leader of the marginalized. Of humble origins, Gaitan rose from regional representative to minister of education and was by far the most likely winner of the presidential seat. He was a remarkable speaker and his discourse was provocative: Gaitan's favorite slogan was, "*El Pueblo es superior a sus dirigentes*", the people are superior to their leaders. His charismatic figure as well as his mestizo features set him apart from the traditional ruling elite. Colombia's unstable political and social situation resulted, in football terms, not only in the delay in the opening of the professional league scheduled for April of that year but most importantly it forced FIFA to suspend the country from international competitions and friendly games with foreign clubs. Alfonso Senior Quevedo, founder of DiMayor and president of *Millonarios* realized that because the country was temporally not a member of FIFA, DiMayor was no longer bound to FIFA regulations such as those concerning the transfer of players from one club to another. Senior Quevedo sent *Millonarios'* manager to Argentina where footballers had gone on strike in order to push for better working

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<sup>15</sup> See more in *The Making of Modern Colombia* by David Bushnell 1993.

conditions to sign a leading player. Because there was no transfer fee the resulting outcome was the ability to increase the salary of football players considerably. A week later *Millonarios* presented Adolfo Pedernera, nicknamed “the Master”, one of Argentina’s best players of all times who would be paid \$18,000 pesos per match, more than five times the average money for a player of his conditions. Soon, players from all over South America signed for Colombian teams: *Millonarios* recruited nine Argentineans, several Brazilians and one Chilean. Then, Deportivo Pereira signed Paraguayans, Cucuta had Uruguayans, including eight of the winners of the 1950 World Cup in Brazil and Medellin hired several Peruvians (Golblatt 2006, pp. 277-278).

The numerous advantages experienced by footballers during El Dorado contrasted diametrically with the situation of Europe’s football leagues, particularly that of England. Not only were the salaries extremely low compared to those of Colombia’s league but also the ability of players to transfer from one club to another was severely restricted by tough regulations. Golblatt (2006), points out that such was the case of Neil Franklin, an English footballer for Stoke City, whose petition for transfer was denied. The news of this incident reached Cambridge educated and owner of *Santa Fe*, Luis Robledo, who approached Franklin with a more than generous signing fee of 1,500 Pounds while the equivalent fee in England would have been only 10 Pounds. Robledo also offered Charlie Mitten, who was playing for Manchester on a 10 Pound- a-week salary, a contract that paid ten times as much this amount as well as travel expenses and bonuses. This extraordinary investment on Colombia’s professional league, however, was not only a way to bring to the country the best football players of the time, but it was purely a political strategy to cope with the unsustainable political situation of the late 1940’s. The Colombian senate was supportive to the cause and offered a 10,000 peso as a prize for the winning team of the tournament (p. 279). In addition to this, the government, forced to bring back peace to the country, supported the importing of foreign players and gave money to the clubs so that the stadiums would be filled with football spectators and the animosity of the angry crowds would be softened by the extraordinary performance of the best footballers in the world.

This strategy worked to perfection and in addition to Franklin and Mitten five other British players signed for Colombian teams. Their salaries were considerably

higher than in Britain as reported by the exceptional Santa Fe goalkeeper Charlie Mitten who claimed to have earned in his first year in Colombia more than 3,500 Pounds as opposed to the average 700 Pounds he earned in his previous year in England. In addition to this amount, Mitten also obtained a season bonus of 750 Pounds plus 25 Pounds for each win and 8 Pounds for draws. Doing the math, Mitten earned more in one year in Colombia than in all the 14 years he played for Manchester United. Both Bogota teams *Santa Fe* and *Millonarios* took advantage of *El Dorado* and made unprecedented contracts with football stars from Europe and South America. However, the most important player to have emerged during this era was *Millonarios* attacker Alfredo Di Stefano. Di Stefano, born in Argentina in 1926, is regarded as the first truly universally recognized football player in the globe. The attacker played in Bogota from 1950 to 1953 and then moved to Spain where he played for Real Madrid. During his time in Europe, Di Stefano finished top scorer in the Spanish league for five consecutive years and scored 49 goals in European competitions which made him the best scorer of the world (Cashmore 2000, pp. 51, 87).

Led by Di Stefano, *Millonarios* won four championships in five years and the team was unbeaten throughout 1951 playing a fascinating football. The team became to be known as the “*Ballet Azul*”, the Ballet in Blue, in reference to the incredible coordinated and precise style of playing of this team whose strip is color blue. In 1952 *Millonarios* embarked on a world tour. The club delighted football spectators in Chile, Bolivia, Argentina, Peru and Uruguay. Its wins in Madrid, Seville and Valencia consolidated *Millonarios* as the best football team of the world in the early 1950’s. Upon their arrival in Colombia, the team won the 1953 tournament before the dream of *El Dorado* vanished forever. Later that year FIFA lifted the ban on DiMayor a decision that was accepted by the organization’s executive committee. This development forced the shining football stars who had arrived in the country in search of *El Dorado* to return to their places of origins or, like Di Stefano, to migrate to other latitudes in their constant quest for glory (Golblatt 2006, pp. 277-278). Having suffered from the inevitable exodus of world-class players to more competitive leagues, the Colombian football clubs experienced a severe crisis which prolonged for almost 30 years. Colombian football nearly disappeared from the international arena dominated in South America by

Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay. The crowds that once filled stadiums all over the nation during El Dorado remained an anecdote of the past. It would only be until the early years of the 80's that the brilliance of the Colombian soccer was to return to the glory of the past.

### **3.2 FIFA and the World of Soccer**

*"I had the vote of the people. Pele won by the book."*

*"If he thinks he's the best player of the century that's his problem."*

*Diego Maradona on FIFA's best player ever award*

*"FIFA's goal of making the world a better place through football cannot be achieved through our efforts alone - equally important is the power which every fan of the beautiful game has at their disposal".*

*Joseph Blatter, Current FIFA president on the role of the organization*

Like no other organization in the world of soccer the *Fédération Internationale de Football Association*, most commonly known as FIFA<sup>16</sup>, has made some of the most important contributions for the consolidation of soccer as the global phenomenon of our times. The influence that the Federation has exerted on the world of soccer ranges from the basic introduction and refinement of existing regulations - task carried out during its early days, to the present-day commercialization and marketing of the sport and of the FIFA brand on a global scale - through a series of complex business alliances and partnerships. Through the establishment of the FIFA World Cup, the Federation brought the sport to the international scene and has made this tournament, which takes place every four years, the most important sporting event on the planet.

FIFA was founded in 1904 by seven European nations as a way to guarantee political and administrative leadership in the sport. Although initially the British had maintained control on all aspects of the game, their policy of isolationism, added to an arrogant attitude with respect to the practice of the sport outside of Britain's territory created numerous conflicts between the creators of modern soccer and other European nations. Thus, a tempestuous relationship developed between FIFA and the British Football Associations who slowly joined the Football Federation only to leave FIFA

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<sup>16</sup> French for International Federation for Association Football

membership a few years later to finally rejoin in the years after World War II (Sugden and Tomlinson 1998, p. 18).

As administrative control was transferred from Britain to continental Europe, so was the soccer supremacy in the twentieth century displaced to Europe's soccer emerging powers and Latin America's three powerhouses: Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay. On the administrative side, FIFA quickly evolved into a bureaucratic organization managed through a complex and rationalized pyramid of authorities who controlled the intricacy of the new soccer landscape. In order to avoid competition, FIFA approved the formation of continental football federations as mediating agents between the national and the global. Through these confederations, smaller nations in Africa and Asia were empowered and represented in soccer's international scene by being granted the right of voting. Soccer regional and national federations were established as a consequence of FIFA's international projection: In 1954, *the Union des Associations Européennes de Football* (UEFA) was formed to take charge of European soccer and joined the already existing *Confederación Suramericana de Fútbol* (CONMEBOL) founded in 1916 as the main administrative body in South America. Subsequently, the Asian Football Confederation (AFC) was formed in Manila followed by the formation of *Confédération Africaine de Football* (CAF). North and Central America Soccer Federation (CONCACAF) was established in 1961 and the Oceania Football Confederation was set up a few years later. In this connection, the unit of analysis for FIFA membership was clearly the nation-state. Upon recognition as a member nation by the UN, a nation-state can be granted FIFA membership<sup>17</sup>. Therefore, internal ethnic conflict or disputes, particularly those on the basis of cultural identity -such as Catalonia and the Basque region in Spain - are set aside when it comes to country participation in any of the international FIFA matches or tournaments (Giulianotti 1999, p. 21)

The creation of organized soccer federations across the globe, however, was part of a master plan conceived by the founding members of FIFA to promote the game at the global level. In a personal interview with Mr. Jerome Champagne, current FIFA director

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<sup>17</sup> It has been argued that granting of FIFA membership by this body is only upon full recognition of a nation –state by the United Nations. However, this is not always the case as today FIFA has acknowledged at least provisional membership by states such as Palestine or Bosnia. In fact, FIFA member associations outnumber members of the UN.

**Picture 1: FIFA Headquarters in Zurich**



**Source: Own Photo**

for International Relations, he discussed the importance and the repercussions of this and other strategies for the promotion and consolidation of soccer in the international arena. Furthermore, he also elaborated on issues such the universal character of football, the role of soccer in promoting peace and development and the coming World Cup in South Africa 2010 as well as the political, social and economic consequences of this event on the African continent. In regard to the objectives and the overall purpose of FIFA, Mr. Champagne pointed out:

FIFA was conceived to address four basic issues: (1) to harmonize the rules of the game; (2) to expand football around the world by creating an organization of football Federation; (3) to create international federations and competitions and (4) to deal with what was starting to become a problem: the issue of transfer of players. If we read today the FIFA statutes we see that the purpose of the organization remains basically the same: to serve as football's governing body. Furthermore, in order to accomplish this function, there exist two kinds of regulations: structuring regulations, that is the normative side of the game that deals with for example, the size of the ball and the pitch, transfer regulations etc. and the competition regulations which means that every football federation is in charge of its own competitions. In fact, this has been a

very successful model as today there are 208 federations associated with FIFA.

Since its foundation in 1904, FIFA has contributed more than any other institution to consolidating soccer as the most practiced sport in the planet. As football's governing body, the federation organizes a variety of worldwide tournaments, most notably the World Cup which is held every four years featuring the participation of 32 nations that compete for the most prestigious football trophy. The World Cup is the most watched sporting event in the world. In 2006, more than 30 billion viewers in 214 countries watched the World Cup on TV and more than 3.3 million spectators attended the 64 games of the tournament held in Germany (Wong 2008, p. 130). In Murray's view (1996) however, statistics of these kind tell nothing about the game; it suggest only facts about people who play and watch football. Soccer's popularity by far surpasses that of any other sport and its great achievements are based, according to Murray on:

...the game's simplicity, its economic democracy and its appeal to the poor, the illiterate, the working class- those who cannot afford a polo pony, a yacht, a squash racquet or a set of golf clubs; whose games take place on streets and beaches and spare lots, not in expensive leisure centers or well-manicured lawns; and who are more likely to settle their difference and express their grievances with blows rather than by recourse to lawyers and letters to the editor (p. 168).

The success of the sport in breaking through all types of social, political, geographical and economic barriers lies precisely in football's universal nature. In relation to the characteristics that make football the universal phenomenon that it is, Mr. Champagne added:

The main reasons in my view that make football a global sport are: (1) football is a very cheap sport to play and we can play it very simply. You only need a ball or whatever resembles one, you put two stones... every one has played like this at the beach, on the street, anywhere; (2) the rules of football are simple and they have not changed a lot since the sport's regulations were created. This makes the sport very malleable and also very easy to understand; (3) there are eleven positions in soccer which allows for people of every shape and physical condition to find a place on the pitch. Contrary to other sports that are more physically demanding, soccer can be played by anyone no matter the height, age, whether he or she is fast or slow, there is always a position you can play in; (4) in addition, the sport has become a global phenomenon thanks to the ways soccer is

transmitted, that is the communication channels used by soccer especially radio and TV which have prompted the expansion of the sport all over; and (5) because of the initial success of soccer in spreading all over the globe, football has also become a tool for national prestige as well as for political activity and on this there are many examples. For instance, in South Africa football teams were established to fight racism, in Algeria soccer players organized teams to defend their concept of national identity and independence and so on.

**Picture 2: Pick Up Game. Construction workers play “Un Picado”, a pick up game during lunchtime. Bogota, Colombia.**



**Source: Own Photo**

On the same token, Mr. Champagne pointed out on the position of FIFA in the world of soccer that:

One of football's greatest strengths is the universality of the rules. Today football is played the same way in Bolivia as it is played in Vietnam or Canada. Providing a clear set of regulations that can be easily applicable anywhere in the world is our main goal. That is the responsibility of FIFA and we are here to make sure that the values of the game are protected.

### **3.3 Football's Second Wave of Expansion**

#### **3.3.1 Joao Havelange in FIFA: The Federation Goes Global**

*“With his body glued to the throne, he reigns in his palace in Zurich surrounded by a court of ferocious technocrats, he governs more countries than the United Nations, travels more than the pope and has more medals than any war hero”.*

*Eduardo Galeano on Joao Havelange*

The first decades of FIFA as the international soccer regulator body did not produce any major political changes. The list of FIFA presidents before 1974 shows a clear English and French dominance reflecting the European-centered nature of the organization. However, the era of transformation and expansion for FIFA would only begin during the presidency of the Englishman Sir Stanley Rous from 1961-1974. Rous conceived it was of vital importance to divide FIFA into confederations as a way to avoid the federation from becoming a vast bureaucracy based in Europe and completely out of touch with areas such as the Americas, Africa and Asia (Sugden and Tomlinson 1998, p. 19). Although important progress was made especially in the efforts to consolidate the organization in the international scene as the only soccer regulator body as well as in affiliating new member states to FIFA, the great leap forward came during the presidency of the Brazilian Joao Havelange. Havelange's presidency opened a golden chapter in the history of the organization as he was not only the first non-European to head FIFA but the revolutionary ideas and concepts he introduced would forever change the way soccer is played, perceived and understood all over the globe.

Havelange, whose family roots were from Belgium, was trained as a lawyer before making fortunes in the chemical, transportation and insurance industries. As an athlete, the Brazilian represented his country in swimming at the 1936 Berlin Olympics and later, in 1952, at the Helsinki games as a member of the water polo team. As a sports administrator, Havelange became president of the Brazilian sports federation and subsequently, head of the Brazilian football federation where he introduced various changes aimed at forming a national championship out of several regional competitions. His later success at the Brazilian soccer federation provided the ideal platform for Havelange's candidature to the FIFA presidency. By 1955 he was member of the

Brazilian Olympic Committee and in 1963 he was elected to the International Olympic Committee. It was Brazil's international soccer success added to Havelange's impeccable sports management career what allowed the Brazilian to promote himself as a suitable candidate to FIFA's top position. In addition, several international Football officials had supported Havelange's intentions in Argentina and Uruguay to become the South American candidate for the FIFA presidency. In a nutshell, Havelange's proposal comprised an eight-point program:

1. Increase in numbers of participants in the World Cup finals, to 24 in 1982.
2. The creation of a junior under-20 soccer World Championship.
3. The construction of a new FIFA headquarters.
4. Provide materials and support to developing nations.
5. Help underdeveloped associations to improve stadia.
6. Provide technical teaching to underdeveloped nations.
7. Intensify courses for sport professionals.
8. The introduction of an Inter-continental club championship.

In preparation for the 1974 FIFA election, Havelange visited eighty-six member countries focusing on Africa and Asia and also lobbied intensively in Europe and South America (Sugden and Tomlinson 1998, pp. 36-38). On his election, to be able to fulfill his proposed program, Havelange placed particular importance on finding the most effective ways to fund his ambitious plans. And it is precisely, FIFA's new financial and branding strategies, what has been ever since the late seventies both a source of fierce criticism -by the more conservative and romantic soccer followers - as well as an admirable and effective business and marketing model -to the most progressive and visionary entrepreneurs and soccer fanatics.

It is often been said that under Havelange, FIFA followed a completely new direction, that of globality, of applying strategies that have been successful in the art of "business-making" to the world of soccer. In his first years as the FIFA head, Havelange implemented revolutionary measures giving FIFA truly global dimensions. Mr. Jerome Champagne, FIFA director for international relations, elaborates on the visionary character of Joao Havelange and his contributions to the sport:

Mr. Havelange decided a very strong program of development for FIFA

and for the affiliated federations. Before him there was barely no development program in FIFA but when he came in 1974 and recruited Mr. Blatter (FIFA's current president), a lot of development programs were launched. His vision was to make of football, the number one sport and he succeeded for example by incorporating China, by helping to solve the issue of apartheid through the banning of the White Football Federation of South Africa and by developing the game on a worldwide basis.

As a successful businessman, the Brazilian's approach to the managing of FIFA included the involvement of business and key business partnerships as vital component of his administration. Funding for the monumental operational changes proposed by Havelange required equally monumental solutions that would only materialize if key business actors including world-known brands were engaged in the process. It is with this in mind that the concept of corporate sponsorships came about as the key that would open the doors to FIFA's new strategic approach in the era of corporate dominance and economic globalization.

The decisive moment in Havelange's presidency of FIFA came, according to David Goldblatt (2006), at the first official dinner he had attended as head of the federation. Together with Host Dassler, the son of Adi Dassler founder of the sports brand Adidas and Patrick Nally, a sport marketing entrepreneur with key international sponsorship connections dating back to the late 1960's, Havelange designed a successful model of sporting commercialization. This model, which has provided a template for every major global sports sponsorship exercise, comprised four basic components. First, only the largest multinational corporations whose astronomical budget capacities could match the demands and logistics involved in TV campaigning should be approached as sponsors. Second, sponsorship would be segmented by product type, that is, there could only be one product of its category as FIFA sponsor. Third, FIFA would have total control over TV rights and advertising, within and outside stadia. Fourth, Marketing and TV rights would not be handled by FIFA but in stead they would be handed over to an intermediary who would in turn sell them on. Among the global brands signed for FIFA, was the giant soft drink company Coca-Cola. The exact amount of money put into the deal is impossible to determine as secrecy clauses forbid companies from revealing such details. But what is not a secret is that both Coca-Cola and Adidas, in particular, were

instrumental in delivering the promises made by Havelange of expanding technical assistance to soccer's developing countries. Dassler for example, was key in developing the first World Youth Cup first held in Tunisia in 1977. In addition, thanks to the support of these multinational giants, new FIFA member states were such as Granada, Belize, St Lucia and St Vincent from the Caribbean; San Marino and the Faeroe Islands from Europe; Salomon Islands, Samoa and Tahiti from the Pacific, to mention a few. Joao Havelange had evolved, by the end of the twenty-century from being the well-known and successful FIFA head to becoming a figure of international political dimensions. In fact, it was such the level of influence exerted by Havelange, that his name was put forward by Switzerland for the Nobel Peace Prize in 1998 (pp. 524-527).

**Picture 3: Football and Globalization. Football's popularity has extended to all corners of the planet breaking through all kind all social and geographical barriers. In this image, a soccer field is located at the entrance of a famous Hindu temple in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.**



**Source: Own Photo**

The success of Havelange in bringing soccer all over the world through a series of business and marketing alliances with the private sector is undeniable. However, the Brazilian has fiercely been accused of over-commercializing the sport to the extent of

transforming soccer into a mere product of exploitation whose astronomical revenues benefit exclusively private companies involved in the soccer industry, official sponsors and the FIFA itself. As a matter of fact, Havelange has been all but shy in acknowledging the tremendous economic potential that the sport has to offer. Eduardo Galeano in his classic “Soccer in Sun and Shadow” (2007), points out that Havelange confessed, while speaking about the power of FIFA before a group of business man in New York in 1994, that soccer generated a total of US \$225 billion world wide every year. In order to put this amount in perspective, General Motors, the world’s largest multinational corporation generates about US \$136 billions in sales a year. In the same meeting the Brazilian addressed soccer as a commercial product that needed to be sold as wisely as possible. Since the beginning of his presidency back in 1974 to his last year as FIFA head in 1998, Joao Havelange has exercised, for good or for evil, absolute control over the world of soccer. Eduardo Galeano, a controversial and prolific Uruguayan writer and soccer fanatic longs for the days when the sport was not the commercial package that it is today. In this regard, he points out about Havelange: “With his body glued to the throne, he reigns in his palace in Zurich surrounded by a court of voracious technocrats. He governs more countries than the United Nations, travels more than the Pope and has more medals than any war hero” (pp. 145-147).

### **3.4 The Media and the Markets**

*“The rest of the world loves soccer. Surely we must be missing something. Uh, isn't that what the Russians told us about communism? There's a good reason why you don't care about soccer - it's because you are an American and hating soccer is more American than mom's apple pie, driving a pick-up and spending Saturday afternoon channel-surfing with the remote control”.*  
*Tom Weir, Scottish Writer*

The media, in particular TV, has functioned as a multiplying agent in FIFA’s campaign to make soccer international competitions true global events. The explosion in communication and broadcasting technologies has been instrumental in bringing sport competitions such as the Soccer World Cup to every corner of the planet, making the broadcasting of these mega-events, one of the most profitable businesses in this field.

Because of its undeniable success in bringing major soccer events all around the globe, the soccer-media association era can therefore be considered, as the second and most influential in soccer's global expansion wave.

The 1990 soccer World Cup held in Italy registered vast viewing audiences without parallel in the history of the sport thanks not only to the growing popularity of the soccer but most notably, because of the spread of television sets particularly in the poorest of the developing nations. Through television, the legendary performances of the greatest soccer players and teams could now be enjoyed by millions around the world. Television, for good or for worst, became an indispensable part of the soccer world (Murray 1998, pp. 152-153).

### **3.4.1 The Profitable Business of Soccer**

*"Everything I know about morality and the obligations of men, I owe it to football."  
Albert Camus on football*

The television rights for the 2002 and 2006 World Cups in Korea-Japan and Germany respectively, were awarded by FIFA in 1996 after careful consideration of seven bids. Among the bidders, offers for these mega events were received from the United States, Hong Kong and Switzerland. The winners of the 1998 World Cup, an event whose world wide rights were valued at 230 million Swiss Francs, was a European broadcaster which had previously covered the 1990 and 1994 competitions. However, the media's approach towards the profitable business of soccer broadcasting also meant the partial monopolization of certain top games particularly in the most competitive European leagues through per-per-view coverage or through limited access to games by subscription to particular satellite and cable companies. In England, one of the world's top soccer league, the broadcasting company Sky paid the Premier League 670 million Pounds for the renewal of a four-year contract between 1996 and 2001. With the soccer-media marriage, are people now able to enjoy top matches and international tournaments in TV. sets in any part of the world. Subscription to cable and satellite broadcasting companies multiplied exponentially after the 1990's and specialized soccer channels emerged as a way to keep up with the demand for international soccer. The huge sums

involved in this business began to multiply at an accelerating rate with extravagant sums being paid to top players for both salary and marketing contracts (Sugden and Tomlinson 1998, pp. 77-80).

For most of the Premier League clubs but particularly for smaller ones, television income became a substantial part of their overall income. Manchester United, however, was for many years the exception to this trend as the club had by far, the largest overall income of all of the nation's soccer clubs. With its own mega-store, its own marketing department, this club became a moneymaking machine without precedents in the world of soccer as well as a model to follow by merchandisers of football of all origins. At the top of the "financial league", Manchester's extraordinary soccer and economic success represents the emergence of a select elite made up of "European super clubs". In the England's soccer context, the gap between the rich and the poor teams widens every year. In fact, the top Premier League clubs, Arsenal, Chelsea, Liverpool and Manchester United, have a combined financial turnover superior than the remaining 72 member clubs combined (Walvin 2001, pp. 103-104).

In 1998, Manchester United was valued at over 400 million Pounds while the worldwide business of soccer was estimated at around 150 billion Pounds. Soccer, no doubt is the most global sport of our times but it is also an incredibly profitable business. Soccer entrepreneurs, managers and merchandisers have been, especially after the 1990's, in constant search for the most innovative and effective business strategies on activities such as developing new markets, marketing and brand management. In addition to the instrumental role that TV played in the opening of new markets and positioning of the sport at a global scale, the clubs have also benefited from their popularity via merchandising. Clubs capitalize on the current boom in leisurewear goods as well as on the selling of advertising space on perimeter boards, program, tickets, etc (Symansky and Kuypers 1999, pp. 15, 40). T-shirt sponsorship, the most visible and perhaps the most effective mode of product advertising, has also become a valuable source of income for soccer clubs around the world. With the exception of club Barcelona, who refuses the display of shirt-sponsorship, all professional soccer teams count on such backing. Although the kind of product advertised varies according to the league and club sponsored the most radical variation lies in the moneys accrued. In England for instance,

top clubs capture annually over 1 million from t-shirt sponsorship. English clubs with massive national and international market such as Manchester and Arsenal advertise global technology-based companies<sup>18</sup> such as Sharp and JVC. Less powerful teams advertise less modern companies like Dagenham Motors, West Ham United sponsor. In Scotland, car dealers, building companies as well as alcoholic beverages invest heavily on major soccer competitions and t-shirt sponsorship. The manufacture of team kit has also become a prized source of income for major soccer teams. In 1996, Manchester United signed with Umbro a deal worth 10 million pounds annually for the next 5 years. Real Madrid of Spain signed in 1997 a similar ten-year deal with Adidas.

**Picture 4: The Profitable Business of Football. Merchandizing of football products constitutes an important source of income for teams and sponsors. In this image, fans shopping at the Official Ajax Store in Amsterdam, The Netherlands.**



**Source: Own Photo**

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<sup>18</sup> In 2009, Manchester T-shirt sponsor was the American insurance giant Aon and Arsenal signed with the Airline Company Emirates. Arsenal's stadium was also named after its sponsor.

A 250 million pound deal was signed between Nike and the Brazilian national team for ten years. In this connection, international mega-clubs such as Real Madrid and Manchester have become global commodity signs, recognized and consumed on a global basis. Meanwhile, manufacturers design new t-shirts every season, new colors, design and styles are constantly renewed in order to create brand loyalty and therefore, forcing the fans to keep up with the new t-shirts which in turns produces a constant source of income for both sponsors and clubs alike. Annual club incomes differ greatly not only due to team performance, sponsorship and international recognition but also because of the legal nature of the team itself. In most European nations, soccer clubs are privately owned organizations in which shareholders control the boardroom. In Iberia and Latin America, however, clubs operate as private sport associations controlled by members who pay a monthly or annual contribution. (Giulianotti 1999, pp. 87-89).

Being soccer so tied to the world of marketing and global brand sponsorship, it is not a surprise that some of the most powerful European teams operate as entities that in turn belong to other well-known companies. Club Juventus, from Italy, just like the car company Fiat, belongs to the Agnelli Group. Milan belongs to the conglomerate of the more than 300 companies owned by the Berlusconi<sup>19</sup> Group. Club Parma belongs to the Italian company Parmalat. Saint Germain, one of the most popular teams in France belongs to the firm Canal Plus. PSV Eindhoven belongs to the Dutch company Phillips. Bayern Leverkusen is part of the German pharmaceutical company Bayern and Blackburn Rovers of England belongs to the Walker Group. In Japan, where soccer is still young, corporations have created their own soccer clubs and have hired international soccer players and trainers as a way to advertise their goods and services to the world in a safe manner. Fukuyama Electric Company set up the club Jet United Ichihara and hired German star Pierre Littbarski. Toyota created Grampus and signed English Gary Lineker. The Brazilian super-star Zico, played for Kashima, which belongs to the industrial-financial conglomerate Sumitomo. In addition, Mazda, Nissan, Panasonic and Mitsubishi own soccer teams (Galeano 2007, pp. 148-149).

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<sup>19</sup> Silvio Berlusconi, current premier minister of Italy and successful entrepreneur is, one of Europe's richest and most controversial personalities.

Soccer has shown since the 1990's the tremendous potential it has as a brand-positioning tool in national and international markets. Because of soccer's successful association with the TV industry, soccer has become the preferred venue for multinational corporations to expose their products to massive audiences in all corners of the planet. But it was also through television broadcast that some of the worst soccer tragedies were brought live to millions around the world. Although some of these tragedies occurred because of poor stadium maintenance or inefficient safety measures in sporting venues, the most brutal and reprehensible disasters were inflicted by a form of violence known in the European context as hooliganism. In the next section, a brief account on the origins of hooliganism as well as the ramifications of this form violence will be presented. Subsequently, I will elaborate on the Latin American experience with soccer violence, particularly in the Colombian context and will highlight the police and community efforts to face this contemporary social phenomenon.

### **3.5 Football-Related Violence**

May 29, 1985 will be forever remembered as one of the darkest chapters in the history of the sport. The English cup Liverpool was playing the final of the European Cup against Juventus from Italy at the Heysel Stadium in Brussels. Minutes before the beginning of the game, rampaging Liverpool fans forced Juventus followers into a wall that collapsed, resulting in the deaths of thirty-nine spectators. Even more catastrophic was the death of ninety-six spectators, mainly Liverpool supporters, who were crushed to death against a fence during the game between Liverpool and Nottingham Forest for the FA Cup semifinal at Hillsborough Stadium on April 15, 1989. Soccer has claimed the lives of more spectators than all other sports combined, with the most common cause of the deaths attributed to inefficient crowd control. This has been the case in tragedies such as that in Peru in 1964, as well as in other parts of the world including South America, Asia and Africa. In Europe, an incident of similar circumstances occurred in France in May 1992 when 14 people died and thousands were injured before the start of a match for the French Cup (Murray 1996, pp.153, 166-167). Although it is clear that poor stadium maintenance influenced the high rate of deaths, the role of violent fans was the root cause in both the Heysel and Hillsborough tragedies.

#### **3.5.1 Hooliganism**

Hooliganism is a kind of violence intrinsically associated with the practice of the sport and has its origins in medieval Europe. The original folk form of the game involved intense physical contact between rivals teams which would very often unleashed violent confrontations resulting not only in serious injury but also in the deaths of team members. Fast-forwarding on the history of this phenomenon to the mid twentieth century when the TV set made its appearance, soccer violence spread rapidly across the old continent. Hooligans and their violent acts were seen on TV providing encouragement to others. In addition, the rise of counter-culture movements such as the skinheads, particularly in England, added to the stereotype of football hooliganism. The hooligan, a term elaborated in the 1890's as a reference to the "street ruffian", reappeared in the 1960's to describe the unruly and wild behavior of football fans in England. This decade also witnessed a change in the nature of fan support. Fans became more organized, chants and slogans more elaborated and the spread of these new styles all throughout the country was possible thanks to the fan support during away games. By the 1970's these groups became increasingly more sophisticated and the phenomenon rapidly expanded to other European nations, particularly Italy, Germany, Netherlands and Belgium (Frosdick and Marsh 2005, pp. 1-28).

In Italy, the *ultra*, the kind fan whose violent behavior was comparable to that of the British hooligan emerged in the late 1970's. Common to the *ultra* groups are the political ideologies that characterized the fractured national identity of the Mediterranean nation. On one hand, the extreme right is considered to be fans of Verona and Lazio while on the other, Atalanta and Bologna *ultras* gravitate towards the communist and the left parties. Similar groups representing both the extreme left and right developed in nations such as Spain. In both Italy and Spain, where connection between fan groups and football clubs tend to be the strongest on the continent, several instances of extortion against the media and the corresponding clubs have been registered. In Spain for example, during the early 1990's Real Madrid fans were accused of attempting to extort money from the club's players and officials to pay for travel expenses and banners, while in Italy Roma ultras were charged with conspiracy offences. The accused were believed to have blackmailed Roma officials into selling cut-priced tickets on threats of riots and violence at matches. Football violence soon was imitated in other regions of the world. In

Latin America, where the strongest connections between the soccer teams, fan organizations and soccer violence are found in Argentina, the militant fans are known as *barras bravas*. In the Argentina context, as it is in most of Latin America, the clubs are organized as private organizations whose officials are elected by fan members. As a consequence of this system, the candidate's strategy includes giving game tickets and even money to supporters which has resulted in many instances in political manipulation and extortion by the most influential *barras bravas* on teams' officials. At Boca Juniors, the most popular team in Argentina, nine *barras bravas* were brought to trial and convicted of serious crimes including offence of illicit association. In addition, five others were sentenced to 25 years of prison for homicide (Giulianotti 1999, pp. 56-59). Similar incidents involving both violent behavior in and around stadia by *barras bravas* against supporters of rival teams and other offenses such as extortion and threats to clubs' officials have taken place throughout Latin America but most notably in Peru, Mexico, Brazil and Colombia countries where the soccer tradition is stronger. Even in countries where soccer-related violence was not common, things have started to change. In Chile for example, where according to Galeano (2007), the friendliest and most pacific soccer fans on the continent were to be found, gangs of troublemakers and hooligans have displaced musical competitions by men, women, and children during soccer matches. In Argentina, home to some of the most brutal *barras bravas* in Latin America, the casualties of soccer violence are counted by the hundreds. Jorge Valdano, former Argentina football player and current director general for Real Madrid FC, estimated that between 1978 and 1993 over a hundred people have been killed by violence in Argentina's stadiums (p. 164).

### **3.5.2 Football-related Violence in Colombia**

Antisocial behavior, whether in the soccer fields and in and around stadia, takes place almost anywhere the sport is played. In Colombia, birthplace of some of the best well-known players on the continent and one of the most violent places in the world, the violence associated with the sport has transformed itself into a completely new phenomenon exposing the country's vulnerability to drug cartels, gang violence, revolutionary guerrilla movements and corruption. In 1994, the murder of Colombian national soccer team defender Andres Escobar shocked the world of soccer because of

the tragic circumstances that motivated his assassination. It is widely believed that his own goal in the World Cup of 1994 in the match against the United States attributed to his murder in the Colombian city of Medellin soon after his arrival from the 1994 World Cup. However, it has not been established whether his assassination was committed by gamblers who would have bet large sums of money on Colombia to qualify to the second round or if it was just an isolated incident.

Similar soccer violence incidents in Colombia have added, according to Goldblatt (2006), to Colombia's epidemic of homicides. Arturo Bustamante, member of the Colombia FA executive board, was shot in unclear circumstances in Caldas in 1990. The presidents of *Deportivo Independiente Medellin* and *Deportivo Pereira* were both shot down. Referee Alvaro Ortega was assassinated in 1989 after a match between clubs America and Medellin. Drug barons were also deeply involved in the management and running of popular soccer teams particularly in the 80's and 90's. Pablo Escobar, the most famous and sanguinary drug trafficker in Colombian history was credited with influencing not only game results but also of controlling soccer associations and even soccer teams. Juan Jose Bellini, former president of Club America and the Colombian Soccer Federation was jailed on several money-laundry charges in 1997. Even soccer players maintained connections with well-known drug barons. Anthony De Avila, for example, dedicated his goal in a match against Ecuador to the then jailed Rodriguez Orejuela brothers, heads of the Cali cartel and Rene Higuita, one of the most iconic figures in soccer history visited Pablo Escobar when he was jailed in 1991. Other groups outside of the law have also been involved in Colombia's soccer arena. The FARC, Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia, the largest and oldest insurgent group in the Americas, kidnapped the Vice-president of the Colombian Football Federation, Hernan Campuzano two weeks before the start of the most prestigious competition on the continent, the *Copa America*, scheduled to take place on Colombian soil in the summer of 2001 (pp. 812-814).

Incidents of soccer hooliganism have also affected Colombia's stadia particularly in the last ten years. One of the worst cases took place at the *Estadio El Campin* in Bogota during a game between local club *Santa Fe* and *America* from Cali in May 2005. In an article titled "*Goles Sin Paz*" (Goals Without Peace), the Colombian magazine

*Semana* (May 2005) describes the incidents in which Edison Andres Garzon, a humble 20-year-old *Santa Fe* fan was stabbed to death allegedly by America's *barras bravas* at one of the stadium's corridors. In addition to the death of Garzon, three more fans were hospitalized under serious conditions and seventeen other suffered considerable injuries. The violence originated among members of the same *Santa Fe barras bravas* known as the *Guardia Albirroja* when Jason Leandro Ruiz was beaten almost to death by members of his own *barra* to settle a gang related dispute. Soon after violent clashes spread all over the stadium where police forces faced both Santa Fe and America unruly fans. The tragedy exposed the failure of the National Police in applying efficient crowd control schemes in events of that magnitude. By the time the incident took place, around 500 especially-trained policemen, as stipulated by the National Policy Security Protocol, were outside of the stadium as it is there where most clashes between rival *barras bravas* take place. Inside the *Campin*, however, only 64 policy officers were responsible for maintaining order and peace in a game categorized as "very dangerous" because of clashes and soccer-related violence that has taken place between fans of both teams (pp. 62-63).

### **3.5.3 Police and Community Efforts**

As a consequence of the tragic incidents of May 2005, the National Police Security Protocols were revisited in order to include effective measures to prevent dreadful situations like this from happening again in Colombia's stadia. Additional actions to prevent and counteract violent actions among members of the same *barras* were set in motion and special attention was placed on educating members of the most popular *barras bravas* on issues such as social responsibility and sportsmanship. In order to better understand these efforts, most especially by the Colombia National Police, I met with colonel Carlos Alberto Menendez – officer-in-charge of Security and Logistics at the National Stadium *El Campin* of Bogota - the most important soccer venue in the country. Our meeting took place on March 19, 2009, at the National Policy headquarters where Colonel Menendez's office is located and discussed with him issues such as the origins of soccer violence in the country, the policing of stadia, and the role of *barras bravas* in the soccer arena as well as the efforts implemented by the National Policy to

guarantee the safety of spectators at soccer games. When asked about the roots and origins of fan-related violence, Colonel Menendez replied:

This is certainly not a new phenomenon. However, this is relatively new in our country. Many of our youngsters observed this kind of behavior in other countries such as in England where this form of violence originated and subsequently in countries such as in Argentina where *barras bravas* are not only very popular but also very violent. This is basically a foreign trend and unfortunately it has been replicated by our youth. This has prevented many soccer fans and their families from visiting the stadiums again. Many Colombian families who attended soccer games regularly have now turned to other forms of entertainment because of the violence that happens at the stadiums. Soccer-related violence in cities like Bogota has even taken place not only in and around the stadium but now days this form of violence is also affecting the neighborhoods where there is a high concentration of soccer fans and *barra bravas*. The same is true in other big cities where violence has become the only way to settle leadership problems and money disputes at the heart of the *barras*.

Since the beginning of the phenomenon in the late 1960's, social scientists have offered all sorts of theories to explain soccer hooliganism. Since the late 1970's, this field, according to Frosdick and Marsh (2005) has become more focused on the behavior of fans in their own countries rather than on providing purely theoretical perspectives to this social phenomenon. In this connection, the original hooliganism phenomenon, that of the late 1960's England, has been examined in the light of the social and political complexity of this period. Researchers such as Professor Ian Tylor suggested violence as the only means for the working class to express its discontent at the hijacking of football by the big business in the early 1970's. Similarly, John Clark concluded in 1978 that soccer-related violence was associated with the skinhead movement and like these, a multitude of explanations both from the social and medical sciences have been offered to understand football violence (pp. 80-81). In the Latin American context, Jorge Valdano, current Real Madrid general manager and former Argentina national player concludes that soccer-related violence grows in direct proportion to social injustice and the frustrations that people have to endure in their daily lives. Gangs attack people tormented by the lack of jobs and the uncertainty of a future (Galeano 2007, p. 164).

In Colombia, where the youth has been highly affected by the social and economic instability, the *barras bravas* have become the space in which youth,

particularly from the most disadvantaged sectors of society, express their nonconformity and disappointment in the social system. “In our country”, points out coronel Menendez, “because of the large number of youngsters that attend soccer games, soccer stadia has become a medium through which certain kinds of behavior and ideologies most of which are unfortunately violent and destructive are transmitted ”. In Colonel Menendez ‘s view the key to address this form of violence lies in the successful application of preventive measures such as the education of *barras bravas* on issues such as tolerance and peaceful coexistence as well as in the efforts aimed at including the youth in productive activities:

Including our youth in cultural and productive programs is necessary to tackle soccer violence in our society. Whether young people decide to join the *barras bravas* and follow their violent acts will be determined by the level of participation in productive and recreational activities. Furthermore, if they decided not to follow the *barras*, our youngsters will anyway find other means and groups such as urban tribes where similar violent acts are accepted. That is why understanding our youth and offering them the proper venues where they are acknowledged and where they feel part of a community is vital in addressing the problem. In addition, the National Policy participates and supports several programs aimed at forging bridges between our organization and the *barras bravas* in order to educate their members on aspects such as peaceful coexistence and proper security protocols in and around the stadium. As a result, soccer violence has decreased significantly across the country.

Another relevant topic addressed by Colonel Menendez during the interview was the policing of the stadiums as a major social control form in order to contain soccer hooliganism. In England, where the British Police has pioneered the policing of soccer venues, emphasis has been placed on public order, especially during the 1970’s and the 1980’s. Football matches back then resembled military operations both because of the large number of police and equipment deployed and because of the complex nature of the logistics involved in the management of crowd control. Conversely, the 1990’s witnessed the use of less confrontational tactics of deploying officers at specific points throughout the main routes of access to the stadiums. Although policing style- in England and elsewhere- is often very harsh and aggressive, other policing strategies such as undercover operations as well as the use of high-tech equipment to identify and control violent behavior in and around stadia has emerged after 1990. In addition, the European

Policy Cooperation Program as well as other measures that include the opening of a hooligan hotline was established by the EU to deal with football hooliganism in Europe (Frosdick and Marsh 2005, pp. 155-162). In Colombia, where the tragedies at *El Campin* in 2005 and later in 2006 generated absolute indignation across the nation, several control and security actions have been set in place by the National Police to face the problem of hooliganism. Colonel Menendez elaborated on this aspect:

Since a few years back, the National Police has categorized the shows and events in order to provide the best security measures. As far as soccer, we have classified soccer games according to the security risk they pose. In this connection, derbies and games between the most traditional clubs, such as tonight's game between *Santa Fe* and *America* are class "A" matches. Class "B" games take place between leading teams and clubs that are positioned in the middle of the year's ranking and class "C" are between teams that are not performing very well. However, teams with well established *barras bravas* no matter how badly they perform in the tournament such as the case of *Millonarios* and *Nacional* are always considered class "A" matches. We take into consideration this ranking in order to assign the most suitable number of police officers in and around the stadium. For a class "A" game usually a thousand officers are deployed. We also devote much time in controlling the *barras bravas* even before they access the stadium. Barra members must arrive at last three hours before the game so that we can thoroughly inspect their equipment to guarantee that no harmful objects, drugs or alcohol entered into the stadiums. On the law side, the "Soccer Law" *Ley del Futbol* or *Ley 1270*, has been passed early this year (2009) as a road map that will provide the basic guidelines to support the implementation of policies, plans and programs aimed at maintaining security and peaceful coexistence at soccer venues. As you see, the National Police along with organisms of the government is working very hard to bring back the stadium to the Colombian families. And we have found much receptivity to the services provided by our institution among soccer fans and spectators.

Although the efforts by institutions such as the Colombian National Police as well as by government-initiated programs have showed significant progress to promote tolerance and peaceful coexistence at soccer venues, football-related violence is still a serious problem that has created an atmosphere of fear and apprehension among football aficionados in the country. On March 19, 2009 I attended the game between clubs *Santa Fe* and *America* at the National Stadium *El Campin* (see picture 5), a game considered of high risk due to the large number of *barra bravas* from both parties. In and around the

stadium a large number of police officers were deployed, some of them, especially those located immediately before the stadium's entry gates were specially trained officers in crowd management and control and emergency operations. The operations extended well

**Picture 5: *America Vs. Santa Fe.* In high-risk games like this between clubs *America and Santa Fe*, (Bogota, March 19, 2009), operations by the Colombian National Police are set in place in order to guarantee the security of spectators in and around the stadium.**



**Source: Own Photo**

beyond the premises of the stadium displaying an extremely well organized and trained police force. During the game, I was set out to know the opinions of the people in regard to soccer violence and security at soccer venues.

“I have been attending soccer games for some thirty years now. As a child I would come with my father and now I bring my two sons to the games. I find soccer to be a beautiful sport to have fun watching or playing but unfortunately for the last ten years it has become very violent and that is because of the *barras bravas*. Before it was not like that at all, I could come with family and we were able to have a good time even with the other teams’ fans. Now the sport is very violent; there are too many misfit people. New security measures should be adopted in regard to this problem” (Rodrigo, 48).

“Security has improved in the stadium. Here you see a lot more police officers than say, four or five years ago but it is still very scary to see how violent these *barras bravas* can be” (Antonio, 33).

The *barras bravas*, who resemble the European *ultras* with their chanting and pyrotechnic displays at games, have long been the militant wing of South American football culture (Giulianotti 1999, p.58). In Colombia, the *barras bravas* with their provoking chants and often-unruly behavior are regarded by a large sector of soccer aficionados as well as by the media as being simply violent hooligans. Although it is true that not all associations of *barras bravas* are engaged in football violence, the general perception is that being a member of these groups involves the execution of violent acts in and outside stadiums. “*Lucho*”, a young leader of a popular *Millonarios barra brava* is inside the stadium *El Campin* arranging a large section of the West stand where his *barra* is located in preparation for a game against “*Seguros La Equidad*”. As stipulated by the

**Picture 6: Safety First. Colombian National Police conducting a detail inspection of *barras bravas* paraphernalia hours before the start of a game at the national stadium “El Campin”**



**Source: Own Photo**

National Policy Security Protocols on barras' members, *Lucho* has arrived in the stadium three hours before the game and while unfolding one of his *barra's* flags, he is quick to point out that his *barra* is at the stadium to "Defend our home, our territory. Of course also to support the team to show them we are here for them. When we play at home, the other teams must respect us and we are here to make sure that happens". He also added on the violence on the stadium that: "The sport can be a little bit violent. But we are not responsible for all the violence that happens in a soccer game". *Lucho* evades further elaboration on this and rapidly returns to his obligations as one of Bogota's most traditional *barra* leaders.

*Barras bravas*, with or without the clubs' monetary support, show their loyalty and devotion to their beloved teams even beyond national borders. On March 17, 2009 I met in Bogota with a group of eight *Universidad de Chile* barras called "*Los de Abajo*" whose active members numbers 20,000 and who embarked on a 4,000-kilometer journey from Santiago to Bogota. The purpose of this costly continental trip was to accompany their team in a game against recently promoted club *Boyaca Chico* for the prestigious South American club tournament *Copa Libertadores de America*. In relation to the *barras'* role in supporting soccer clubs and to the general perception of these groups as being the focus of violence and misbehavior, one of the members commented that:

We have traveled all around South America on our own account to support *Universidad*. We go wherever they go. Soccer is our passion, our way of life and that is the way we show loyalty to our team. Here at *los de Abajo*, we have a very well organized *barra*. For more than 20 years we have been the official *barra* of *Universidad de Chile*, the best team in the country. As far as violence, its is a shame that it happens, really. We cannot be blamed for all the violence that takes place in the stadium but we can say that whether we like or not violence is part of the game. We do not summon violence, sometimes violence just happens.

(Moises, 22)

In England, starting in the early 1990's, the implementation of key security, logistic, educational and policing measures has led to a dramatic decrease in football-related violence. In addition, football stadiums underwent a radical transformation to guarantee both safety in and around the stadiums and to offer spectators a more friendly

environment where to enjoy the sport. The “physical face of British football” as Walvin (2001) puts it, was completely altered. In fact, during 1990-94 more money was invested in football grounds than throughout the whole of the 20<sup>th</sup> century in England. Legislation was additionally a key component of these reforms as politicians passed a series of acts to control football’s worst problems. Fans who had previous history of football-related violence could be restricted from traveling abroad under the new legislation. Alcohol was limited at games and supporters were now being prosecuted for throwing objects onto the pitch. The unauthorized sale of tickets was made illegal. Moreover, cars and trains transporting soccer fans could now be inspected by the police at any time (pp. 172-173). In this connection, I asked colonel Menendez what measures, in addition to the strengthening of the policing of sport arenas should be put into action in order to reduce in a significant manner football-related incidents in Colombia’s stadia. On this, colonel Menendez expressed:

Football clubs play a very relevant role in fighting this problem. They bear a tremendous responsibility as they know very well the members of their *barras* and sometimes maintain a very close relation with the most active ones. These relations should be very transparent if we want to reduce these incidents. Also the media, in particular radio, must exercise self-regulation. Comments made by famous radio personalities are often times charged with strong language against players, coaches, referees and clubs’ administrators which creates an atmosphere of hatred and recrimination and this turns into physical violence. I said this before the congress; some youngsters are easily influenced by some commentators’ malicious remarks. Football should be a means to create cultures of civism and to promote many positive values. It must not be a tool for creating violence.

### **3.5.4 The British Example**

England, allegedly the birthplace of hooliganism, is also the nation where the most successful actions have been achieved in restoring the good reputation of the average football fan. In 1985 following the Heysel disaster, the Football Supporters Association was founded to educate “wild” fans and encourage spectators to have a say in the issue of soccer violence. Denmark soon joined the campaign and created a fan movement called the “*Roligans*” or “peaceful fans”. Even European players began to exhibit the semblance of a massive social conscience and the top clubs in Germany and Italy devoted a day in December 1992 to protest against racism in sports. In this country,

where clubs are aware of the loyalty of their fans, football teams have engaged in fruitful discussions and other activities with fan members to channel their energies away from violence and confrontations with rivals (Murray 1996, p. 170).

Efforts by European soccer clubs to fight violence, racism and other negative football-related matters have been widely accepted and adopted by the communities where these teams are based. Instrumental in creating cultures of peaceful coexistence and in providing a platform for the advance of social movements that provide a space for the youth to present their views on key soccer-related topics, are these European Football Supporters' Associations. The reason for their success, argues Giulianotti (1999), lies in the nature of these associations as their participatory culture opposes rigid hierarchical structures making them more appealing to the youth. In fact, young people, at least in the UK, are more likely to join social movements and campaigns if they are organized by any of these associations. Association members create an impact on their communities by setting up their own projects and community offices. In some cases, the associations are created to improve relations between the club and its surrounding community (pp. 60-61).

Football's worst crisis reached their most alarming levels during the 70's and 80's in England in a time when the scourges of hooliganism and racism took control of the football arenas. But just as these phenomena extended beyond the continent reaching the soccer countries across the Atlantic, at the same time the world bore witness to an emergence of an international community that used football as a platform to address these and other issues in today's globalized world. Using the universal language of sports and the unprecedented power of the media, the sports and soccer in particular, became a medium through which awareness was raised on issues pertinent to human justice and integrity. As we have seen, some of these efforts focused on eradicating hooliganism and racism from the football fields both locally and internationally setting in motion a collective culture of cooperation, peaceful coexistence, respect and dignity. In the next section, the new dimensions of soccer as a tool for development and peace building as well as a catalyzer for social change will be elaborated upon.

## **4. The New Dimensions of Football**

### **4.1 Football as a Tool for Development and Peace**

The Final match of the soccer world cup held in Berlin on July 9, 2006 was played in the same stadium as Adolf Hitler had built for the 1936 Olympic games. Hitler tried to use sports to advance his views of racial superiority and supremacy. Seventy years later, the FIFA World Cup, an event watched by a 3.3 billion audience from 214 countries (Wong 2008, p. 130), became the stage to promote an anti-discrimination campaign by displaying “say no racism” banners in all of the 64 matches of the World Cup including the final game. Equally impressive were the 8 billion viewers in 170 countries that followed the UEFA EURO 2008 making this competition, in the words of Kurt Wachter, (2008) project coordinator for FARE (Football Against Racism in Europe), “the ideal platform to celebrate the variety and diversity of European football and its fans and to oppose racism and discrimination”. (p. 10).

In Europe, racism among soccer fans became a serious problem reaching peak levels in the 1980s and it was often times the cause of outbreaks of violence particularly at international matches. Black players, in particular, were the target of violent incidents and insults during games as they were often greeted with monkey noises and bananas once they had stepped on the field. The problem was certainly taken seriously across Europe and due to a number of initiatives and campaigns that included “When Racism Wins, the Sport Loses” (Netherlands), “No al Razzismo” (Italy), “Let’s Kick Racism out of Europe” (UK), and Europe-wide initiatives such as “All Different, All Equal” and “FARE”, racist incidents at soccer games have declined considerably in the last decade (Frosdik and Marsh, 2005 p.76).

Recent campaigns to utilize football as a means to raise awareness, however, are not just limited to addressing issues such as racism and soccer-related violence. Football has played an important role in peace-building processes in violence-torn regions most notably Africa, Latin America and the Middle East. In the latter, endeavors to promote peaceful coexistence through the practice of soccer between Palestinian and Israeli youth, have been set in motion both in the region and abroad. Organizations such as “Football

for Peace International”<sup>20</sup> has been bringing together for the last ten years, Israeli and Arab children to enjoy learning and playing soccer together in non-threatening settings. In addition to this and other regional initiatives, soccer games have been regularly held at several European cities to raise awareness on this conflict zone through the practice of the sport. Palestinian and Italian NGOs came together in 1999 with the blessing of the Holy See, to organize a game at Rome’s Olympic Stadium. The game was attended by more than 6,000 spectators and pit a team comprised of world-renowned Italian players and pop-singers against a team chosen from professional Israeli players and the Palestinian authority. Distinguished spectators included Hollywood stars, the president of Italy, Yaser Arafat and Shimon Peres (Savir 2008, p.75).

Since the 1990’s football has been considered to be an effective means to address a variety of social problems. Sporting programs –of which an important number uses soccer as a tool for social change- have focused, according to Girginov in his “Management of Sport Development” (2008) on three specific objectives: (1) to bring sports to at-risk population; (2) to replace deviant behaviors with desirable ones; and (3) to attract at-risk populations into the sport in order to provide other social services (p. 132). In addition to its universal character, soccer possesses supplementary attributes that contribute in its campaign to deliver social change to specific populations. As an agent of transformation and change, football also embodies the concept of “global civil society” as its best. Kaldor et.al (2007), state that football constitutes a form of civil society because football (1) provides and infrastructure of interaction through its institutional networks and regularized competitions; (2) serves as both a practical problem and metaphor to the broader relationships between society and economic and political power, nationally and globally; (3) the pathologies of football are a consequence of the unchecked power of corrupt institutions and corporations that have managed football’s commercialization and spread; and (4) it can fulfill its potential as an element of a equitable and progressive global culture only if the forces of global civil society are mobilized (p. 160).

Involvement by international and local NGOs, governments, the private sector and naturally by FIFA in the promotion of the sport as a tool for social development and change, has been significant in recent years. Furthermore, sports- and most notably

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<sup>20</sup> Football for Peace website: <http://www.football4peace.eu/>

soccer as the most universal of them all- have been acknowledged by the United Nations as a key component in the pursuit of specific development and peace objectives, including most notably, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)<sup>21</sup>. The MDGs were established by the international community at the UN Millennium Summit in 2000 in an effort to channel world attention and resources on eradicating global poverty. Composed of eight benchmarks, the overall objective of the MDGs aims at eradicating global poverty by 2015. The concept of the use of sports for bringing social change is embedded in the realization that sport possesses unique qualities that enable it to contribute to peace and development initiatives. As one of the most powerful global communication mediums, sport has the ability to connect people in an extremely effective manner. In addition, sport can be utilized as a way to advancing human rights, human health, development and wellbeing (see annex 7 for more on the contribution of the sport to the MGS). Although it is clear that sport or football alone will not achieve the MDGs, sport's attributes make it a valuable component of broader, holistic approaches to addressing each of the MDG targets (Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group 2008).

In order to advance the concept of sport as a key component to achieve the MDGs, the United Nations created the Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) based in Geneva and supported by a liaison office in New York. The office operates as an advocate, facilitator and representative of sport's social purposes (UNOSPD 2009). The mandate of the office, according to Bettina Schulte, representative for the UNOSDP, is three-fold: (1) To represent the UN in sporting events such as the World Cup and the Olympics; (2) to serve as a facilitator bringing different actors together such as the media, NGOs, civil society and governments; and (3) to advocate on sport for peace and development issues.

In March 2008, United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon appointed Willi Lemke, who was the manager of the popular German football Club Werden Bremen from 1981 to 1999, as his special adviser on the issue of sport for development and peace.

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<sup>21</sup> The millennium goals are a set of international development goals that UN member states as well as other international organizations have agreed to achieve by year 2015. See more on <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/>.

“The United Nations have recognized the power of sport and have increasingly been integrating sport into existing programs and creating new partnerships to help achieve the objectives of the UN, particularly the Development Goals”, Mr. Lemke pointed out on a special edition of the magazine “Equal Voices”, a publication of the European Agency for Fundamental Rights. On how sports, and particularly football, could contribute to achieving some of the MDGs, Willi Lemke indicated that:

Increasingly, sport is being used as a vehicle to empower individuals, especially women. The recent Women’s Football World Cup has sparked a wave of enthusiasm which has been carried to all corners of the earth. Participation on such sports events empowers women and challenges gender stereotypes, thereby reducing discrimination and breaking down entrenched attitudes. Beyond all societal divides, sport teaches essential life-skills such as discipline, respect, tolerance and fair play (p.13).

Big sporting tournaments have traditionally been a venue in which professional athletes displayed their physical endurance, resistance and mastery of sports. Now days, mega sporting events such as the Football World Cup and the Olympic games have additionally transformed into great advocacy venues for promoting values and to advance ideals aimed at raising awareness on chief social issues of today’s globalized world. “Football games, especially at major tournaments are great venues in which to get our message of peace and development across. Additionally, sport is now being used as a platform to empower women, sustain peace and to get communities and peoples together”, Mrs. Schulte observed.

#### **4.2 Football and Social Development Networks**

For the last twenty years, aid agencies and development ministries have increasingly become aware of the potential of football as an instrument to bring about progress and peace to communities in the developing world. Together with UN agencies, FIFA and other key stakeholders, national governments and international development agencies have created and supported networks to implement football-based projects around the world. Central to this effort is the “Football for Hope Movement” a project conceived through the strategic alliance between FIFA, as part of its Corporate Social Responsibility campaign, and the organization Street Football World, a social profit organization that brings together key actors in the field of development through football. Along with the participation of aid agencies and concerned development ministries the

“Football for Hope Movement is aimed at increasing the impact of football as a tool for social development, peace and social change (FIFA 2009).

#### **4.2.1 The Football for Hope Movement**

Launched in 2007, the Football for Hope Movement’s main goal is, according to the special publication “Football for Hope: Football’s Commitment to Social Development (n.d.), published by FIFA and Streetfootballworld, to establish a quality seal for sustainable human and social development programs focusing on soccer as the central instrument in the areas of (1) health promotion; (2) peace building (3) children’s rights and education (4) anti-discrimination and social integration; and (5) the environment, thus supporting the best practices on the pitch. The program is developed through a network that in addition to the already mentioned stakeholders, includes football associations, committed clubs and players, professional leagues and commercial partners as well as local organizations advancing social development. Under this umbrella movement there is the Streetfootballworld component, whose network consists of more than 80 local organizations which are active in more than 40 countries. The idea of the network is to make local organizations more visible to possible partners and to the public as well as to provide them with access on existing knowledge and experiences in the field. Key elements of the Football for Hope movement include:

##### **Funding Scheme**

Selected organizations in the field of development through football receive financial support within the framework of the program. Projects are evaluated with a focus on their relevance within the overall strategy of the implementing organization.

##### **Forum**

Planned on four-year cycles, the forum summons practitioners and researchers in order to discuss future paths and concrete solutions to the challenges in the field of the football for peace and development.

##### **Toolbox**

It offers a set of tools that help coordinators improve existing programs and to create new ones.

##### **Global monitoring and evaluation system:**

A monitoring and evaluation system is developed and implemented to guarantee quality programs on the ground and to assess the impact of the various programs on human and social development.

### **Football for Hope Festival**

As an official event of the World Cup, the festival brings delegations of outstanding organizations every four years. Cultural exchange and soccer games among participants are the major highlights of the festival.

### **Football for Hope Centers**

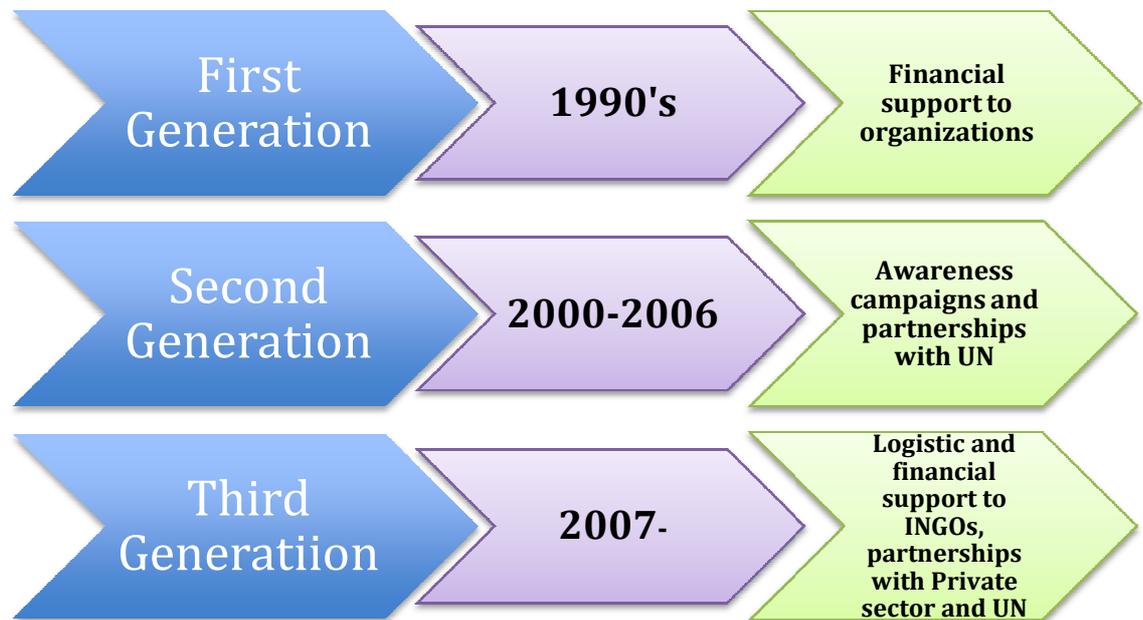
Community centers are being constructed to develop new infrastructure on the sites on implementing partners. The centers will consist of a small football pitch with surrounding grandstands and will provide communities with access to counseling, health care and education services (FIFA 2009).

The football for Hope Movement led by FIFA in its capacity as football's governing body and Streetfootballworld as the driving force behind a global network of organizations, has been vital in advancing the idea of football for social change. In this connection, the sport has become an agent of transformation as well as a contributor towards the achievement of worldwide social crusades such as the MDGs. Recent strategic alliances by FIFA, in particular that with Steefootballworld to bring forward the Football for Hope Movement, however, embodies a new dimension on humanitarian activities. On the evolution of these activities at FIFA Mr. Jerome Champagne, director for International Relations pointed out that:

Initially, FIFA was involved in promoting social change through basically financial support to organizations that used football as a development tool. This form of humanitarian aid constituted the first generation of humanitarian activities at FIFA. In 1999, when Mr. Blatter, current FIFA president visited the then -UN secretary-General Kofi Annan, Mr. Annan had a beautiful way to engaging FIFA in humanitarian action. He said: "It is time that the family of football meets that family of nations". Since then, we have developed several alliances with UN organization like UNICEF. The World Cup in Korea-Japan in 2002 was devoted to a UNICEF campaign called "Say yes For Children". The Women's World Cup in the US in 2003 was dedicated to another UNICEF campaign, "Go Girls", which promoted gender equality and opportunities for girls and women. But although we were getting the message through, we felt that were not helping enough; this we may say was the second generation of charitable work at FIFA. Now we have entered the third generation of

humanitarian activities. Instead of just giving the time or the money, we thought it would be interesting to have NGOs themselves using the sport as a tool, rather than just providing material support to them. In order to advance this idea, we defined the Football for Hope framework and developed a strategic alliance with Streefootballworld to implement programs worldwide (see table 3).

**Table 3: Evolution of Humanitarian Activities at FIFA**



**Source: Own Diagram**

FIFA, an international organization with 208 member countries is committed to bringing the Football for Hope Campaign at a gradual pace to the communities where this type of efforts are most needed. However, for the period 2007-2010 the main focus of the campaign will be the continent of Africa. For this purpose, additional campaigns such the “Win in Africa with Africa” initiative was launched by the president of South Africa Mr. Thabo Mbeki and FIFA president, with the intention that the continent benefits from the exposure granted from the World Cup 2010 in South Africa during the four years leading up to this event. Efforts by the international community to benefit marginalized societies in the third world have been echoed by international organizations like FIFA. In line with the agreements reached at the Conference on Financing for Development that

industrialized countries will contribute 0.7% of their GDP towards development aid, FIFA has committed to contribute at least that percentage to support development aid through football (FIFA 2009). “Considering that FIFA has a budget of 3 billion dollars, we have decided to dedicate 21 millions for development. Moreover, our humanitarian work consist not in developing football but rather in development via football”, commented Mr. Champagne during the interview.

Currently, the Football for Hope Program has supported 40 organizations from around the globe but most notably from Africa, Latin America and the Middle East. Although these organizations work on different social issues that include for instance, HIV/Aids prevention, promotion of cultural exchange between marginalized communities, inclusion of people with disabilities in recreational programs, drug and substance abuse, youth leadership and conflict transformation, among many others, they all utilize football as a tool to achieve their goals. In the long term, the program is aimed at enhancing the work of the organizations on a sustainable basis so that they avoid creating financial or other dependence on funding bodies (Streetfootballworld 2009).

One of the organizations benefitted by the FIFA and Streetfootballworld initiative Football for Hope Movement, is the Colombia-based “*Colombianitos*”. The organization, which promotes a positive life-style for displaced and poor children, entered the network in 2005 and is active in some of the most violent regions in Colombia. In the next section, I will elaborate on the role of this organization in promoting development and peace in Colombia through the practice of football.

### **4.3 Colombianitos**

The organization *Colombianitos*, Spanish for “little Colombians” was created in 2001 in the United States by a group of Colombian professionals living in the Atlanta area. Aware of the damage caused by 40 years of armed conflict in Colombia, its founder Angela Patricia Janiot, TV presenter for CNN *en Espanol*, wanted to collaborate in the efforts to alleviate the affliction of thousands of children and families affected by Colombia’s senseless war. The country, considered by the international community to be one of the most dangerous places in the planet, has been affected by a bloody war in which hundred of thousands of lives have fallen victim to gross human rights violations including massacres, kidnappings and landmine explosions. The foundation was initially

created to rehabilitate children victims of landmine and hand grenade explosions through a program launched in April 2001 and later in 2002 it incorporated the concept of soccer for peace and development through the program “Goals for a Better Life”. To date, the program operates in 5 cities (Bogota, Cartagena, Puerto Tejada, Barbosa and Sincelejo) across the national the national territory and currently benefits more than 4,000 children. (Colombianitos 2009).

#### **4.3.1 Goals for a Better Life Program**

As the back bone of *Colombianitos*’ humanitarian work, the Goals for a Better Life program seeks to reduce the likelihood of children falling prey to crime, drug addiction and to promote education through the practice of football by emphasizing the idea that the most important game they have to win is the “one against drugs and crime”. It is also a way to encourage at-risk children to stay away from drugs, crime and violence while engaging in healthy recreational and sporting activities.

#### **4.3.2 Approach**

The program reaches children ages between 6 and 18 that live in extremely impoverished areas as a healthy outlet for harsh circumstances. In order for children to participate in the program, they must be enrolled in school and perform well academically, demonstrate commitment and participate in every activity. Families on the other hand, must demonstrate engagement and interest in the children’s performance both in school and in the program. Soccer training takes place after school hours three days a week, snacks and basic training equipment is provided by the organization and participation in the programs is free. On weekends competitions among teams are held. Besides soccer training by professional coaches, a team of psychologists and social workers provide psychological counseling for children and families at the organization’s quarters. In addition, these professionals also conduct family visits to assess the living conditions of children, in particular of those with low academic performance and those that show difficulty in their interaction with other team members and instructors. Soccer training is complemented by innovative teaching modalities aimed at fostering positive values and attitudes through both soccer-related and non-related activities. Music, dance, theater and other recreational activities are used as channels to promote self-expression, self-esteem and to strengthen the children’s sense of community inclusion and belonging.

**Picture 7: Colombianitos in Action. A football training session takes place in the locality of Ciudad Bolivar, Bogota, Colombia.**



**Source: Own Photo**

“We use the power of football to create a positive impact. The sport is a great tool to transmit many positive values that unfortunately are not being transmitted to the children by their families in marginalized communities in Colombia”, declared Maria Elvira Garavito, *Colombianitos*’ director on a personal interview of February 27, 2009.

#### **4.3.3 Community Impact:**

In Bogota, the organization’s operational center is situated in the area of Ciudad Bolivar. This extensive area, one of Bogota’s largest localities, is located in the Southwestern part of the city and its urban area concentrates the poorest population in the capital of the country. The organization started its program “Goals for a Better Life” in 2002 and thanks to its success, the program quickly replicated in four other cities in Colombia. “We have created a positive impact in the communities where we are. During these years of operation, I have personally witnessed the positive transformation that the kids and their families under our program have experienced”, commented Maria Elvira Garavito. In addition to education and recreational activities, the foundation has been fundamental in raising awareness in issues such as health care. In Ciudad Bolivar, basic

primary health care is frequently provided by *Colombianitos* to the program's members and awareness has also been raised on other health -related issues through vaccination and hygiene campaigns. Additionally, the organization has been instrumental in making the precarious social and economic situation of many of the area's residents more visible to local politicians and government officials. For instance, *Colombianito's* efforts to raise awareness among city authorities on the lack of sporting arenas in the locality had a great paid off. A few years after the campaign was initiated, the community of Ciudad Bolivar was able to enjoy of one of the most modern sporting venues in the city.

“After much conversations and negotiations, the city finally built a beautiful and modern stadium in Ciudad Bolivar. Members of the community were so grateful not only to the city officials but also with us because they were aware of our share in this”, commented the foundation's director.

#### **4.3.4 Methodology**

Training on soccer's technical and tactical methods is combined with the teaching of positive values and attitudes. Each month, trainers and pupils (around 570 in Ciudad Bolivar) work on a specific value or attitude and trainings as well as complementary activities are focused on fostering and cultivating lessons learned. Assessment is regularly conducted on the impact of values and principles taught and ideally, the behavior of children in and outside the soccer field should reflect how well the message was transmitted. “This month we are working on the value of responsibility”, commented Maria, coordinator for the Ciudad Bolivar Program, who was interviewed on March 3, 2009. “ In this connection, trainers include this value in their practices as they design activities and exercises in which the lessons to be transmitted are clearly evidenced. That is, they combined both theory and practice”. At the end of the month, both trainers and staff hold a meeting to evaluate the impact of lessons leaned on the children as well as to assess which values need to be emphasized or reinforced so that activities and plans of action to address the situation can be planned accordingly. Additionally, awareness of the lessons to be learned is conducted at the community level and posters and other visual aids are created so that residents also participate in the activities. “Peaceful conflict resolution and solidarity are some of the issues on which we have to work the hardest. These principles are constantly emphasized but I have to say that our children have made

a tremendous progress. They have in fact grown as persons”, commented the Ciudad Bolivar coordinator.

#### **4.3.5 The Mentor Plan**

The foundation set up a sponsorship plan or *Plan Padrino* to guarantee the participation of children both in school and in all of *Colombianitos*' activities which include soccer training, sports and music education, recreation and cultural activities, workshops on drug prevention and conflict resolution, among others. Monthly contribution accounts to \$25 U.S dollars and sponsors, many of which are based abroad, receive periodic information on the children reached with the plan and the activities and progress made (Colombianitos 2009).

#### **4.3.6 Financing Partners**

**CAF:** The Andean Corporation for Development joined Goals for a Better Life in 2004 providing funds for meals, football equipment and salaries for social worker and trainers.

**The Coca Cola Company:** The first partner in the program, The Coca Cola Company has donated since 2002 football equipment and uniforms to start the Ciudad Bolivar program. Currently, it continues its support through in kind donations, sponsorships for events and funding.

**FIFA:** Since 2005, FIFA in partnership with Streefootballworld through the program Football for Hope, has supported the establishment of a Goals for a Better Life Program in Cartagena. Additional funding comes from the Chase Foundation, JP Morgan, Kimberly Clark and Studiocom. Fundraising events held regularly in Atlanta, U.S.A. include bingos and concerts and provide additional funds for the organization. However, plans are under way to build a small private State-of -the-Art indoor soccer field which will be located in a privileged locality of the city. The idea is that the income generated for the rent of the venue will go to Goals for a Better Life guaranteeing the self-sustainability of the Program.

*Colombianitos*' humanitarian work has been recognized both nationally and abroad. In 2003, *Colombianitos* received the Mentor Innovation Award from Her Majesty Queen Silvia of Sweden, president of the Mentor Foundation. The award, for which hundreds of organizations from 42 countries competed, was granted to *Colombianitos* for

the innovative ways in which the organization helps prevent drug addiction among at-risk children. Since this year, the Mentor Foundation has supported and financed the Goals for Better Life Program and has helped develop and implement social interventions as a fundamental component of the organization's humanitarian work. Moreover, national recognitions include the *Compartamos con Colombia*, Share with Colombia and the *Conexion Colombia* award (Change-makers 2009).

#### **4.4 Goals for Peace Project**

Having conducted several expert interviews and field work in the area of soccer for development motivated me greatly to continue deepening my understanding on the ways in which football can contribute to the betterment of disadvantaged communities. As a result of this motivation, a research project and training program on soccer for social transformation was developed in collaboration with Jenny Lind Elmaco. In this connection, from this point onwards, the Goals for Peace project and research will be a joint effort by Jenny Lind Elmaco, scholar at the Universities of Leipzig and Vienna and citizen of the Philippines and whose area of interest revolves around transregional civil society movements particularly in Asia and Latin America and the author of this thesis also scholar at both academic institutions.

##### **4.4.1 Introduction**

It is well known that soccer is the most popular sport in the planet both in terms of spectatorship and participation. Because of unique characteristics which include the simplicity of the game and its rules, the sport has adopted a universal character and has been able to break through all kind of geographical, political and economic barriers. Moreover, during the last twenty years, football has become a platform to connect people and to build their capacities to make this sport one of the most effective tools to contribute to peace and development processes. Based on this information, several claims were decided upon:

1. Because of its universality, soccer is appealing to most youth.
2. Football may serve educational purposes in addition to being a recreational activity.
3. Football integrates communities around a common activity.

4. Football serves as a platform for the advancement of higher ideals and provides a space for social inclusion and participation.
5. Positive behavior (as well as negative) learned or transmitted during games may be replicated in daily life.

#### **4.4.2 Objectives**

The objective of the Goals for Peace Project and research are two-fold: On one hand, the project sought to raise awareness on the situation of displaced people, youth in particular, in the area of Ciudad Bolivar, home to the second largest internally displaced population in the world as well as to foster engagement and participation at the community level. On the other hand, the research component of the project was designed to assess qualitatively the power of soccer as a tool to (1) facilitate inclusion and integration as well as to enhance socialization of at-risk children; (2) foster self steam and empowerment; (3) challenge gender norms ;(4) provide opportunities for leadership and achievement; (5) enhance physical and mental health and (5) promote a culture of peace particularly in disadvantaged communities. The research was carried out using open-ended interviews and participant observation and activities took place in the *barrio Sierra Morena* of the locality of Ciudad Bolivar in Bogota, Colombia.

#### **4.4.3 Research Methods**

Two main research methods were deployed within this research project – open-ended interviews, and participatory observation. Yin (1984) explains that open-ended interviews expand the depth of data gathering as well as it increases the number of sources of information. The interviews were conducted with participants both children and adults during and after the course of activities. Participant observation, on the other hand, provides several advantages as this method combines, according to Denzin (1989b), document analysis, interviewing of respondents and informants, direct participation and observation and introspection (pp. 157-158).

All interviews (22) (see annex 8) yielded significant qualitative results and therefore, not all results were amended to statistical analysis. This allowed for analytical conclusion to be drawn regarding the assumption that football is indeed a tool for social transformation. However, a few quantitative figures that provided information about the project participants was generated in the form of tables and charts.

**Table 4: The Goals for Peace project**

 <p><b>Goals for Peace</b></p>	<h3><b>The Goals for Peace Project</b></h3>
<p>The Goals for Peace Project was born both as an academic and a grass-roots initiative in the areas of conflict transformation, community development and peace building, civil society engagement and South-South cooperation. This project, to the best of our knowledge and as expressed by both concerned Colombian and Philippine authorities, is the first cooperation between the two nations at the grassroots level. Using the power of football, Goals for Peace is a sports and development project aimed at empowering young people to initiate change, promote pro-active reform and develop a culture of peace in their communities. It is also an information drive with the objective of creating awareness in pressing issues affecting the world today. Its motto <i>“Pro-action, innovation and cooperation in creating cultures of peace”</i>, suggests the importance of ground –breaking approaches to address critical issues in today’s globalized while emphasizing cooperation and engagement to bring about the change we want to see in our communities.</p>	
<h4><b>Components</b></h4>	
<p>The basic components of the program are two: (1) football training and (2) both capability building seminars and activity-based modules in four areas: leadership, teamwork, conflict transformation /peace building and compromise. For each of the topics, activities that include theater, games, painting and other participatory activities are performed. At the end the end of every session feedback is conducted in order to guarantee an in-depth reflection and understanding by the participants on the daily life application of lesson learned during the activities. In addition to football training and seminars, the Goals for Peace offers to participants: t-shirts with the logo of the program; posters in which participating partners are included; refreshments for the duration of the activities (2 snacks per day); certificates of participation and school</p>	

appliances for each of the participating children.

### **Partners**

The program initiates partnerships with community organizations and local leaders who provide the venue where the activities and the games will take place as well as some of the necessary materials for the training sessions. Organizations choose the children who will take part in the activities and upon agreement, they may modify, the initial program. Members of the community with proven experience in human rights issues, community development and advocacy are invited to conduct talks and to moderate some of the seminars. Local organizations also are responsible for obtaining a written consent from parents or relatives authorizing the children to participate in the program and as well as for providing a well-balanced lunch for the children for the duration of the activities. In addition, the project makes use of local talent and knowledge and encourages community members to become involved in the activities so that similar initiatives may consequently be replicated.

**Source: Own Table**

### **4.5 Goals for Peace Project in Ciudad Bolivar**

The first Goals for Peace Project took place in Ciudad Bolivar on Saturday, February 28, 2009 and a week later on March 7 in the neighborhood of *Sierra Morena*, locality of Ciudad Bolivar. *Sierra Morena*, unlike many of the neighborhoods in this locality, has witnessed in the last years, a rapid development in infrastructure, most notably, roads, school facilities and playing grounds. In addition, security in the area has been significantly improved due in part to the recent opening of a police station, one of the largest and most modern in the city. A brief background on the origins, evolution and social dynamics of this locality is provided in order to introduce the reader to the multiple issues affecting Ciudad Bolivar today. In addition, this background seeks to validate the choice of Ciudad Bolivar as the venue for the first Goals for Peace Project and to raise awareness on the importance of conducting more initiatives of this kind as a way to promote social development and community participation.

#### **4.5.1 Ciudad Bolivar (Background)**

The development of informal settlements in Bogota's periphery has been fueled by the massive arrival of rural immigrants to these areas. The search for economic opportunities, however, is not the only reason for migration as a large percentage of these migrants have come to the city in order to escape rural violence. In Ciudad Bolivar, the first informal settlements developed 1950's when a massive influx of internally displaced people, most of which were peasants, arrived from the states of Boyaca, Tolima and Cundinamarca. Too poor to afford rents in proper houses, newcomers had to find alternative solutions such as building their own housing. As a consequence, informal settlements multiplied in the 60's and 70's initiating a process of rapid pirate urbanization during these decades. In the 1970's, the city invested in the development of public infrastructure that, although very limited, provided basic sanitation and public services to a small number of residents. In the 1980's, legal urbanization took place and infrastructure was developed. Populous neighborhoods such as *Juan Pablo II*, *Jerusalen* and *Sierra Morena* were born and in 1983 the city inaugurated an ambitious housing project in the area which was named Ciudad Bolivar, defining in this way the limits of the new locality. Nevertheless, in the 1990's the process of illegal appropriation of land, particularly in areas of high geological instability, predominated. These last years have witnessed the worsening of the internal conflict particularly in rural areas. This continues to force thousands of people every year to leave their places of origin and settle in the locality adding to the precarious social and economic situation of some of Ciudad Bolivar's 130 neighborhoods.

#### **4.5.2 Geographic Location and Demographics**

The locality of Ciudad Bolivar is situated in the Southwestern part of Bogota bordering to the north with locality of *Bosa*, and the *Autopista Sur*. To the west it borders the municipality of *Soacha* and to the east with the localities of *Usme* and *Tunjuelito*. To the south, it borders with the locality of *Usme*. Ciudad Bolivar is 90% mountainous and according to an estimate by the DANE, National Center for Statistics, the population in the locality will reach in 2010 855,2589 inhabitants. In 1993, Ciudad Bolivar was the fifth most populous locality in Bogota (7,69% of the total population in the city) and its population under 15 years of age was 33,55%. Ciudad Bolivar residents belong in its

majority to the lower classes (strata 1 and 2). Strata 1 is made up of 59,72% in this locality while strata 2 is represented by the 35,67% of the residents. Strata 3 represent only 4.60% of the total population of Ciudad Bolivar.

#### **4.5.3 Social Conditions**

According to official data, Ciudad Bolivar has the largest population living under poverty levels in the city and by most indicators it has one of worst social conditions in the country. The most relevant social problems are associated with migration by internally displaced people, the lack of spaces for recreational activities, the improper management of solid waste and violence. It is estimated that in 2001, 6,597 internally displaced people arrived in Ciudad Bolivar because of the armed conflict and most of the victims settled down in the periphery of the locality. Homicide is one of the main manifestations of violence in the area. In 2005, 219 deaths caused by physical aggression were registered. Of the total, 121 were youth ages between 15 and 25.

#### **4.5.4 Community Initiative and Participation in Ciudad Bolivar**

Community initiative and participation revolves around the urgency to satisfy the needs that the local authorities are not able to fulfill. Poverty, which is reflected in the lack of basic infrastructure and absence of public services, has become, however, the engine that fuels social mobilization and community participation in this locality. Areas that have improved due to community initiatives are education and public services (particularly electricity and water), while safety continues to be an issue around which residents express growing concern and willingness for action (Veeduría Distrital (VD) n.d., pp. 13-18).

#### **4.5.5 Goals for Peace Partners in Ciudad Bolivar**

**Proseder:** Non-profit organization which operates in the area of community development. In Ciudad Bolivar, Proseder manages a soup kitchen program where children and seniors receive meals free of cost. Children must be enrolled in school and be in good academic standing. Social workers and psychologists provide assistance to children and families in need.

**Fundacion Matiombolumba :** This NGO promotes proper access to medical care and after school activities for disadvantaged children in Bogota.

**Participating Children:** 30 girls and boys ages 10 to 14 chosen by *Proseder* participated in the training. Age, gender distribution and strata of participants are presented in table 5.

**Table 5: Age, Gender and Strata Distribution of Participants Goals for Peace Project Ciudad Bolivar**

	Girls	Boys	Total
Number of Participants	15	15	30
Ages 10-12	8	10	18
Ages 12-14	7	5	12
Strata 1	12	10	22
Strata 2	3	5	8

Source: Own Table

## 4.6 Activities

### 4.6.1 Soccer Training

**Picture 8: Girls and Boys Playing Football in Ciudad Bolivar.**



Source: Own Photo

4 mixed teams of 7 participants and 2 substitutions were organized. . Emphasis was placed on teamwork and cooperation regardless of the final score. Technical skills included a brief instruction on controlling and passing the ball. Basic instruction on proper stretching and warm- up exercises was provided. Some basic rules were established: (1) Games would feature two halves of 20 minutes each. (2) Captainship is given to both boys and girls and he or she would be the intermediary between the referee and the team. (3) At least one of the goals has to be scored by a girl

#### **4.6.2 Seminars and Training**

Capability building seminars and activity-based modules in four areas: leadership, teamwork, conflict transformation /peace building and compromise (see tables 6 and 7 for an explanation of activities and objectives). Instructions and objectives were clearly established at the beginning of the activities. Feedback was conducted after the seminars in order to guarantee an in-depth reflection and understanding by the participants on the daily life application of lesson learned during the activities. After each module, soccer games took place among participating teams.

#### **4.6.3 Community Participation**

Community involvement was important during the course of the activities. Three university students from the locality joined the initiative as module coordinators and several high school students provided logistic support to the program. The National Police was also present during the two days of the event and supported the initiative not only by providing a watchful eye on the event but they participated actively in some of the modules. Moreover, the program also served as a platform to strengthen the National Police's ties with the community. One international guest, Milena Ophuls a Colombian-American psychologist with extensive experience in meditation and art joined Goals for Peace and coordinated the painting module. In addition, Gloria Heppler, a Colombian actress with years of experience in theater and TV coordinated the Theater of the Oppressed. Involvement by the partner institutions was notorious as they were not only engaged in the logistics of the program, but they also coordinated some of the modules. Mr. Alvaro Gomes, representative of the *Fundacion Matiombolumba* and whose field of expertise is humanitarian intervention and child protection, conducted several talks on community development and cooperation and drug prevention.

**Table 6: Activities and Objectives Goals for Peace Day 1**

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Activity</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Objective</b>
<b>Leadership</b>	<b>Taxi</b>	Teams form a straight line. The child at the end of the line is the driver and will pass these 5 signals to the child in front: patting on the head means go forward; on the left shoulder means go left; on the right shoulder means go right; on the back means reverse and no patting means stop. The child in front is the taxi and he will be blindfolded. Without talking, the teams should avoid crashes among each other.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Foster team cooperation.</li> <li>2. Observe yourself in a leading position as well as in a following one.</li> <li>3. Recognize difficulties of teams and leader.</li> </ol>
	<b>Magic Stick</b>	Groups of 6 to 12 people. A bamboo stick (2 meters long) or similar, participants stand half/half at each side of the stick, holding it with their pointing finger, with their arms stretched out straightly. Each finger has to come together with a finger from another person at the other side of the stick. The aim of this exercise is as simple as to bring the stick down to the ground. It seems easy but it is actually not!	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Team cooperation is crucial. Children alone have to decide on the best strategy to bring the stick down at the same time.</li> <li>2. Leaders should identify the weakest links and encourage them to make it a success.</li> </ol>
<b>Soccer</b>	<b>Soccer Training</b>	Team A Vs Team B Team C Vs. Team D	1. Improve technical and tactical skills. Foster positive attitudes and healthy habits.
<b>Feedback and Talk</b>	<b>Round Table</b>	Community leaders give a brief talk on the importance on the activities performed and their application in daily life.	1. Children are encouraged to provide feedback on what they have learned, challenges and positive outcomes on he activities.
<b>Team Work</b>	<b>The Longest Line</b>	In a one-minute-time spam, teams should make the longest line possible on the ground using the materials provided.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Foster team cooperation.</li> <li>2. Raise awareness on the important role that each member plays in the success of the team.</li> </ol>
	<b>The Paper Tower</b>	Using only paper, the tem should build the tallest and most resistant paper tower. Allocated time: five minutes	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Foster team cooperation.</li> <li>2. Raise awareness on the important role that each member plays in the success of the team.</li> </ol>
<b>Soccer</b>	<b>Soccer Training</b>	Team A Vs. Team C Team B Vs. Team D	1. Improve technical and tactical skills. Foster positive attitudes and healthy habits
<b>Feedback and Talk</b>	<b>Round Table</b>	Community leaders give a brief talk on the importance on the activities performed and their application in daily life.	1. Children are encouraged to provide feedback on what they have learned, challenges and positive outcomes on the activities.

**Source: Own Table**

**Table 7: Activities and Objectives Goals for Peace Day 2**

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Activity</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Objective</b>
<b>Peace and Conflict Resolution</b>	<b>Mandala Painting</b>	Teams use the power of painting for self-expression and creativity. Each team creates a painting with the topic being “How I imagine a peaceful community:” At the end of the module, each of the participants explains what their vision of living in a peaceful community is like. Paintings are put together as a single piece and exhibited in the community center.	1. Foster team cooperation. 2. Platform for self-expression. 3. To visualize their communities as they would like them to be and to identify the ways in which children can contribute to the betterment of their societies.
	<b>Theater of the oppressed</b>	Participatory theater that fosters cooperative modes of interaction among the participants. Children represent a problem, participants intervene and adopt any role they want (teacher, son, classmate) and together, possible solutions for the critical situations are explored.	1. Identify and analyze situation of conflict. 2. Explore possible solution to the problem. 3. Get familiar with the different points of view and actors involved in the conflict.
<b>Soccer</b>	<b>Soccer Training</b>	Team A Vs Team D Team B Vs. Team C	1. Improve technical and tactical skills. Foster positive attitudes and healthy habits.
<b>Feedback and Talk</b>	<b>Round Table</b>	Community leaders give a brief talk on the importance on the activities performed and their application in daily life.	1. Children are encouraged to provide feedback on what they have learned, challenges and positive outcomes on the activities.
<b>Compromise</b>	<b>Web of Life</b>	Participants make a circle and toss around a ball of twine. Every time a participant receives the twine, she or he makes a commitment to the group. A web of compromise is created.	1. Show how closely related kids are to each other so positive results will arise if we all compromise to ourselves and to our team.
	<b>Fire of Compromise</b>	Children write on a piece of paper any negative experience, behavior or thought they want to get rid of. Papers are then burned and on a new piece of paper positive characteristics of one-self are written and kept on a safe place as a reminder of the potential of each participant.	1. Remind children that negative experiences and attitudes can be replaced by positive ones. 2. Encourage compromise and dedication on reaching one’s fullest potentials.
<b>Soccer</b>	<b>Soccer Training</b>	Semifinal Final	
<b>Closing Ceremony</b>	<b>Final words and awards</b>	Award ceremony and mention of distinguished participants based on fair play, leadership and cooperation.	

**Source: Own Table**

Unfortunately, although ample time was allowed to advertise Goals for Peace in the locality and children's families were especially targeted to become involved during the event, only members of three of the children's families joined the activities.

#### **4.7 Results and Analysis**

##### **4.7.1 Interaction: Teams' Successes and Difficulties**

Interaction among children and between coordinators and children was particularly challenging at the beginning of each of the training sessions including soccer games. Lack of focus and concentration during the most demanding activities was predominant in the first session, but improved in the second thanks to the assistance of coordinators. Improper language was sometimes employed by the children in their interaction with teammates, which led us to suspend activities temporarily to create a poster in which the rules of the house were set. Cordial communication at all times was one of these rules. Children made a commitment to respecting these rules and were successful in doing so.

##### **4.7.2 The Modules**

Based on the open-ended interviews and participant observation, painting was the favorite activity for both boys and girls, followed by the theater of the oppressed (See Figure 1). Among boys, however, football was the best-liked activity of the program. In regard to the peace and conflict resolution module as being the favorite one, psychologists and social workers at Proseder, commented that reason for the outcome was that these were some of the few instances in which children had the opportunity to let their voices be heard in a creative way in a community that sometimes disregards children's opinions and points of view. The theater of the oppressed, "provided a venue in which children assumed different roles so that they were able to understand and appreciate multiple sides in a situation of conflict", commented Martha, a social worker at the locality of Ciudad Bolivar. "It was very moving to see how Victor, a child whose family is little involved in his education and recreational activities, assume a forgiving role towards his parents when he said that no matter how they are we should always love them", commented the professional. Karen, a 11-year-old girl pointed out that creating the Mandala along with her teammates was one of the best experiences of the program: "I had a lot of fun painting and participating with my friends as a team. My family and I

were very proud to see our painting at the community center. That made me feel important”, said Karen. Parents were eager to express their opinion on Goals for Peace:

**Picture 9: The Theater of the Oppressed. Children participate in the Peace and Conflict Transformation module by acting in the “Theater of the Oppressed, an activity that fosters cooperative modes of interaction among the participants.**



**Source: Own Photo**

“It was good to see our kids playing soccer not just for the sake of playing but knowing that they are also learning new things”, said Dona Julia, mother of Leidy, an 11-year-old girl.

#### **4.8 Accomplishments Attained**

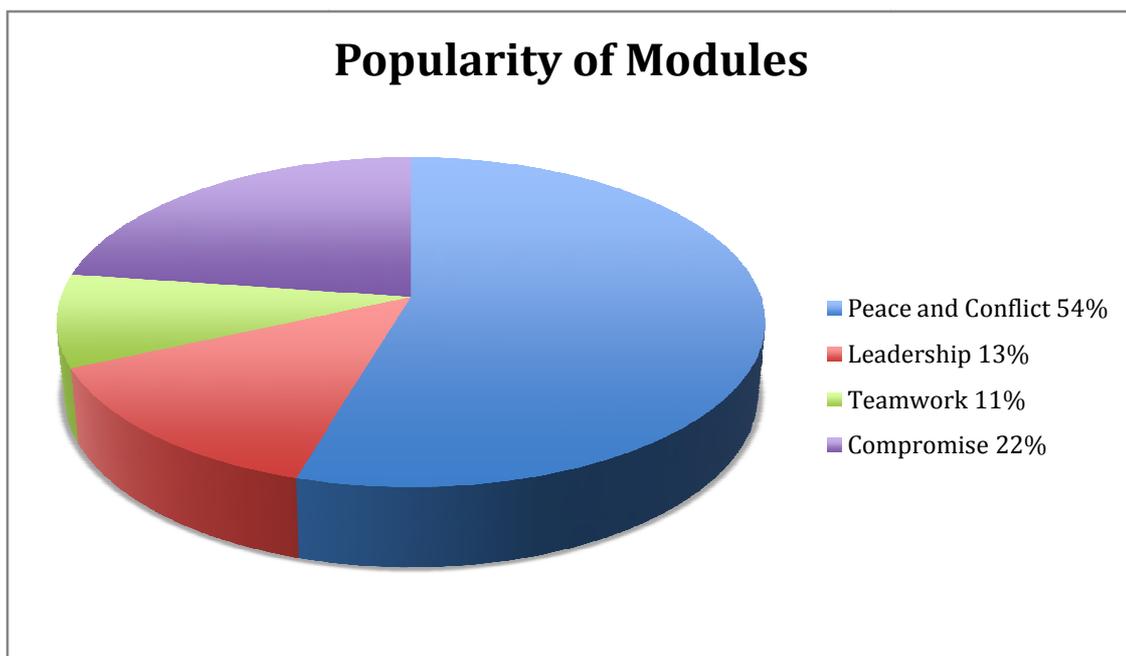
##### **4.8.1 Ability to Coexist and Interact**

The teams’ attitudes and behavior were improved, particularly during the second session as children demonstrated more respect and better interaction towards their teammates. Communication with both their peers and coordinators, although difficult at times, showed in general a positive change throughout the event.

### 4.8.2 Gender Roles

At the initial soccer match, boys were clearly apprehensive to share a team with girls. Equally, girls expressed their interest in forming a team made up only of female players. Little by little interaction between both male and female team members became more natural and team success rather than gender predominance characterized the soccer component of the program. We were pleased to see that, compared to years ago when we were their age, girls do play soccer now and some of them are actually very good at it. Yuberly, a girl age 13 was the best player of the tournament and scored more goals than any of the boys. In fact, she was such a skillful player that constantly Yuberly was asked by the boys to play in their respective teams.

**Figure 1: Popularity of Modules Project Goals for Peace Ciudad Bolivar**



Source: Own Chart

### 4.8.3 Social Inclusion

Sports and activities such as those presented in the program help reduce youth vulnerability to drugs and gang activity by offering a sense of belonging and purpose. Participating children, some of whom have migrated to the city with their families, as

they were victims of rural violence, find in these types of games and activities a venue to build their confidence and gain access to a larger community. However, the most significant example of social inclusion that took place during the event, involved a group of children

**Pictures 10,11,12,13: Goals for Peace Activities in Ciudad Bolivar**

**Picture 10: Mandala**



**Picture 11: The Longest Line**



**Picture 12: Teamwork**



**Picture 13: Soccer Practice**



**Source: Own Photos**

who were initially not registered in the program. Julio, an 11-year-old boy approached me to demand that the football field that we were using be given back to him, as this was his time and place to play. He explained that he only had an hour to play and that in the case that he would show up home later than allowed by his mother, she would hit him very badly for disobeying. Julio was asked to kindly wait or use another space to play but he reacted aggressively and threatened to sabotage the training. Soon, he and his friends were throwing little stones at the children and interrupting the sessions. We invited Julio and his friends to join the painting session by creating their own Mandala to which they were very happy. Their aggressive behavior turned instantaneously into creative art and the new group showed an exemplary behavior throughout the activity. Later, Julio came to us and apologized for his earlier attitude. We learned through Olga, a social worker who was very pleased with Julio's sudden change of attitude, that he was one of seven kids who had just arrived with his mother to Ciudad Bolivar from the countryside escaping from poverty and rural violence.

#### **4.8.4 Leadership Skills**

Social skills were enhanced during the seminars in a way that effective forms of communication and cooperation were developed. Leadership roles were adopted by the children in several scenarios which helped build their self-confidence and self-esteem. Although a few children showed some degree of difficulty in assuming leadership roles, they soon became more confident thanks to the support of their teammates. According to Carmenza Trujillo, director of Proseder at Ciudad Bolivar, the activities helped children develop their social and leadership skills. "Diana", a tall and skinny 12-year-old girl, who was made team captain, "showed a significant progress at delegating functions in the soccer field. She had played football many times before but I had never seen her so confidently organizing her team and supporting her peers", commented Mrs. Trujillo.

#### **4.8.5 Additional Accomplishments**

Children developed their ability to socialize and play especially in unknown games. In addition, the sense of community and belonging was strengthened thanks to the group activities and the concepts of solidarity and reflection were, according to Proseder staff, greatly stimulated and enhanced.

#### **4.9 Reflections**

After an analysis and evaluation of the research and project results in Ciudad Bolivar, the following observations are pertinent: (1) on the research side, it would have been more beneficial to complete more interviews including not only children but also parents and tutors; (2) questionnaires, additionally, should be included in subsequent projects to assess in a more precise manner, the impact of the sport as a social development tool in needy communities; (3) for future investigation, a longer project may be of benefit as this would allow us to conduct a follow-up on the before-and-after performance and behavior of the participating children. However, in the two days of activities we were able to assess through both participant observation and children and instructors testimonials, the positive impact of the activities, games and talks on the participants' overall behavior and attitudes; (4) family participation should be regarded as a vital component of the activities. Families must be encouraged to take part in the activities, seminars and talks so that a greater impact can be achieved.

During my interview with Mr. Jerome Champagne, director for international relations at FIFA, I had the opportunity to share with him the project results of the first Goals for Peace in Ciudad Bolivar, Colombia. He was notably sympathetic towards this kind of initiatives as this proves once more the unparalleled potential of football as a tool for social transformation. However, Mr. Champagne pointed out that project continuity and ultimately self-sustainability is key in order to create a long-lasting impact on needy communities. In this connection, the founders of Goals for Peace are in search for the means to make this project into a permanent program either in Colombia, the Philippines - where a second project took place on August 22 and 23, 2009 (see table 8) - or elsewhere in the developing world so that more communities can benefit from the football for social change movement.

**Table 8: Goals for Peace in Bais City, Philippines.**

### **Goals for Peace in Bais City, Philippines**

On August 22 and 23, 2009, a second Goals for Peace Project was conducted in Bais City, Philippines. A partnership was forged between Goals for Peace and the local government and activities were aimed at strengthening community ties as well as to raise awareness on issues regarding cooperation, peaceful co-existence and community building through the practice of soccer.

**Picture 14: Goals for Peace Bais City, Philippines**



**Picture 15: The Magic Stick**



**Picture 16: Soccer Training**



**Picture 17: Round Table**



The modules taught were similar to those in Bogota, Colombia and participation by members of the community was notable. The participating children were all members of the Bais soccer Club Association ages between 10 and 15 and demonstrated through the activities, a great disposition for learning and cooperating. There were, however, no female participants in this program as soccer is not a popular practice in the Philippines and girls rarely play the sport. Moreover, football is often times associated with the elite and is practiced by a reduced sector of the population in this part of the world in which basketball remains the most popular sport.

### **Reflections**

The social reality of a peaceful little town in the Philippines where football is not a popular practice contrasted radically with the initial project in Ciudad Bolivar, Colombia, home to the second largest internally displaced population in the world and where, as in the rest of the country, soccer is the king of sports. Due to the social dynamics of Bais City, more emphasis was placed on activities aimed at community building and leadership and although conflict transformation remained an important component of the program, this module did not play a key role as it did in Ciudad Bolivar. In this connection, the program was conducted in a smooth manner yet, always aware of educational effect of the modules. Wilson Laxina, a twelve year-old boy from Bais pointed out that the activities helped him to “develop a closer friendship with other players and to foster moral values like sportsmanship”, while Carlos Catacutan 13, observed that the program was of great help to him to “learn how to respect others and to learn other techniques in soccer”. Additionally, throughout the two days of the program, children pointed out to the local authorities the need for more support from the city so that they can continue with the practice of football both informally and at a competitive level.

**Source: Own Table**

## Conclusion

This investigation has addressed the origins, development and consolidation of football as the world's game. Furthermore, this research has highlighted the major structural transformations undergone by the sport since its early days millennia back to the advent of modern football in England, geographical point from which the sport was to be exported to the rest of the planet in its modern form. Football's status as the most globalized sport is not an accident. Archaeological record shows that an ancient form of the game has been present in every major civilization either for ritualistic or recreational purposes. In its modern form, football flourished in Britain in the age of industrialization and imperial expansion. This period was also characterized by a rapid urbanization process, the emergence of the industrial workforce and the practice of collective sports, developments which contributed to the consolidation of the sport in Britain while guaranteeing a rapid expansion of the game overseas. Thanks to the position of Britain as the world power of the time and through imperial, educational and trade routes, the sport experienced its first wave of global explosion in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, reaching virtually every corner of the planet. Although the rules of the game remained the same everywhere the sport was played, regional variations and styles of playing began to emerge, reflecting in some way, the cultural reality of the places where football was adopted. In this way, the beautiful dance-like Brazilian style of playing as well as the organized and effective German football school were born. Thanks to the language of the game, a language easily interpreted and spoken by barefooted children in the slums of Rio de Janeiro as much as by the industrial workers in Western Europe, football became universal. Football's exceptional universality, however, is a consequence of historical forces which prompted its global expansion as much as it is a result of its intrinsic qualities, that is, the simplicity of its rules and the flexibility it grants to performers. The game is economical, easy to play, flexible in terms of playing spaces and rules and it can be easily adaptable to any players' physique and level of skill. The sport's remarkable journey, which initiated thousands of years ago, represents, indeed, a precise example of a global process. To situate football as a global phenomenon, I borrow Maguire's (1999) definition of

globalization processes which he defines as “long term processes that have taken place unevenly and across of regions of the globe and which involve an intensification of global connectedness” (p. 3). This interconnectedness triggers the emergence of a variety of developments, which are better understood when framed in the “global context”, rather than when are explained under the national or local perspective. In this light, football represents a global phenomenon as it promotes developments in global flows at several levels. These flows include the international movement of people, the emergence across the globe of a borderless economy, the technology and information expansion and the exchange and adoption of ideologies associated with the flow of values and ideals (Sport for Development 2009). In regard to the international flow of people, the sport has generated a culture of globality through both the movement of players, most notably from Latin America and Africa to the top European leagues and the movement of spectators who travel across the globe to attend major football events such as the World Cup. As far as the business side of the sport, football’s multiple faces include a multibillion-dollar industry, which has been very much strengthened thanks to the infallible marriage between the sport and the media, a union planned and blessed by the FIFA. This in turn, has facilitated the exposure of the sport to a wider audience, particularly after the 1970’s. This decade witnessed football’s second great wave of expansion, a process characterized by a heavy commercialization of the sport. Football has also been a channel through which all sorts of ideologies have been exposed. From Latin American populist regimes to the ultra nationalists all over Europe and the developing world, the sport has proven an outstanding tool to mobilize the masses. Because football’s extraordinary capacity as a platform for the advancement of ideals, the sport can also become a channel through which social frustration and discontent are conveyed, often times generating unruly and destructive behavior. In this sense, the sport can also be a source of violence and unrest. Soccer-related violence takes many different forms. We have seen violent incidents both on the soccer pitch as well as in the stands and we have witnessed the numerous deaths and injuries inflicted by violent fans all over the world. This dark side of the sport is perhaps, the most pressing challenge football has had to face ever since it became a popular practice. Although many measures have been taken to prevent soccer-related violence, some of which have been enormously successful, efforts should focus on

promoting dialogue, understanding and peaceful coexistence, particularly among soccer aficionados.

Football's global journey, however, is not over yet. Although the sport has undergone very little structural transformation in the last decades, perhaps the major leap forward in the world of soccer has taken place in the new application of the sport as a tool for social change. This has generated a true global social movement that aims not at the development of football but rather it seeks to promote development *via football*. This new dimension of the sport has summoned the involvement of a multitude of actors such as national governments, the private sector, international organizations and NGOs around the issues of development and peace through the power of the sport. Both formal and informal initiatives in this newly conceived field have been set in motion to prove once more the power of football to succeed as an educational and development tool. The project Goal for Peace, for instance, has united two different world regions in an attempt to create cultures of peace through the power of football. This project also helped to corroborate the capacity of the sport as a tool to provide a space for social inclusion and participation. And although it is absolutely true that the sport alone will not end wars or will promote development or social justice, football has become a valid tool to reinforce and to collaborate in the formation and promotion of such processes. In the meantime, the sport continues its global journey seeking to validate its popularity even in places where historically football has not had the success it has reached in Latin America, Europe or Africa. Moreover, it is expected that an African nation will soon join the list of South American and European World Cup winners. As a starting point, the first ever football World Cup on the African continent will take place in less than two months and it is anticipated that an African team will be playing the semi-finals. Nevertheless, major breakthroughs in the future are expected to come from the emerging economies of China and India, countries where the sport has recently won many adepts. In any case, football will continue to reflect the reality of our societies, as it has for millennia, and will certainly transform and adapt in line with the many global challenges that await us in the future sure enough making way for a football's third global wave of expansion.

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## Annexes

### Annex 1: Salary of Football Players Through the Decades (1950 to 1970).

## Top players' earnings through the decades

1950s	1960s	1970s
<b>Sir Stan Matthews</b> £12 a week	<b>Bobby Moore</b> £150 a week	<b>Kevin Keegan</b> £2,000 a week
Barber's son from Stoke had a 33-year career with Blackpool, Stoke City and England (54 caps). Known as the 'Wizard of the Dribble'. Died in 2000.	Led England to famous 1966 World Cup victory. Pelé described him as 'the greatest defender I ever played against.' OBE. Died in 1993.	Miner's son from Doncaster made 230 League appearances and scored 68 goals for Liverpool. Moved to Hamburg for £500,000. 63 caps.
<b>Highest earnings</b> £650 a year.	<b>Highest Earnings</b> £7,800 a year at West Ham; £1,000 bonus for winning World Cup.	<b>Highest Earnings</b> £100,000 a year.
<b>Other Income</b> £20 a week for newspaper column plus £15 from Co-op.	<b>Other Income</b> £3,000 for Kellogg's ad in 1970. Total earnings that year were £22,000.	<b>Other Income</b> Various including Patrick boots. Total: £150,000 a year.
<b>House</b> Boarding house on Blackpool Prom.	<b>House</b> £100,000 'dream home' in Chigwell.	<b>House</b> Stud farm in Hampshire.
<b>Car</b> Ford Popular.	<b>Car</b> Basic Model Jaguar.	<b>Car</b> Range Rover.
<b>Style</b> Saved wisely to afford comfortable retirement in Stoke.	<b>Style</b> Gadget-packed home; hobbies included golf, cricket and tennis.	<b>Style</b> Invests wisely. Owns racehorses and a library of self-help books.
<b>Family</b> First wife was trainer's daughter Betty; two children. Second wife Milla, a Czech cultural attaché.	<b>Family</b> Married part-time model Tina in 1962; two children. Married second wife Stephanie in 1991.	<b>Family</b> Married childhood sweetheart Jean. Two daughters.

Source: Hardin, J & Taylor, G 2003, p. 18.

**Annex 2: Salary of Football Players Through the Decades (1980 to 2000).**

## Top players' earnings through the decades

1980s	1990s	2000s
<p><b>John Barnes</b> £10,000 a week</p> <p>One of world's best wingers in the 1980s. Born in Jamaica. Found fame with Watford, Liverpool and England. Footballer of the Year 1988.</p>	<p><b>Paul Gascoigne</b> £25,000 a week</p> <p>Tears at 1990 World Cup; ushered in new period of football fashion. Life since blighted by scandals, injury and alcohol.</p>	<p><b>David Beckham</b> £100,000+ a week</p> <p>England Captain, who married Victoria Adams (Posh Spice) and whose World Cup exploits against Argentina in 1998 and 2000 captivated the nation.</p>
<p><b>Highest Earnings</b> Best paid player in Britain at one time on £500,000 a year at Liverpool.</p>	<p><b>Highest Earnings</b> £1.3m a year when he went to Rangers from Lazio. £1m signing-on fee.</p>	<p><b>Highest Earnings</b> £75,000 a week plus £20,000 a week 'image' rights.</p>
<p><b>Other Income</b> Substantial fees for Isotonic Lucozade Sport ad.</p>	<p><b>Other Income</b> Walkers Crisps ads – £250,000; adidas deal – £150,000.</p>	<p><b>Other Income</b> £1m sponsorship deals with Castrol, Marks &amp; Spencer, Police sunglasses, Sony PlayStation and Golden Wonder crisps.</p>
<p><b>House</b> Luxury home in Hemel Hempstead, Herts.</p>	<p><b>House</b> £430,000 home in Kilbarchan, near Glasgow.</p>	<p><b>House</b> £500,000 penthouse in Cheshire; £2.6m mansion in Herts (spent £3m doing it up).</p>
<p><b>Car</b> Bespoke Ford Capri.</p>	<p><b>Car</b> Usually chauffeur-driven.</p>	<p><b>Cars</b> Porsche, Ferrari, Range Rover, TVR. £165,000 Bentley for his last birthday.</p>
<p><b>Style</b> Committed family man. Sartorial tastes of the exotic kind.</p>	<p><b>Style</b> Nights on town with mates are the stuff of front page scandal.</p>	<p><b>Style</b> Designer everything; haircuts change regularly, setting trends for millions.</p>
<p><b>Family</b> Married to Suzy; four children.</p>	<p><b>Family</b> Married Sheryl in 1995 but marriage foundered. Son Regan.</p>	<p><b>Family</b> Wife Victoria Adams, sons Brooklyn and Romeo.</p>

Source: Hardin, J & Taylor, G 2003, p. 19

**Annex 3: Interview with Mr. Jerome Champagne, FIFA Director of International Relations, Zurich, Switzerland, April 21, 2009.**

## **Questionnaire**

### **PART I: CONCEPTION AND PURPOSE**

1. Why was the organization conceived and what is its purpose?
2. How does FIFA place itself in the world of Soccer?

### **PART II: FOOTBALL AND GLOBALIZATION**

3. In your opinion what makes football a globalized sport?
4. How does football break through barriers?

### **PART III: FOOTBALL AND DEVELOPMENT**

5. Do you think football can be a transformative tool? How and to what extent?
6. What is the role of FIFA in the creation of social change and transformation especially in marginal communities around the world?

### **PART IV: FIFA'S SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY APPROACH**

7. Can you please elaborate on the FIFA's approach to humanitarian activities and programs, particularly on:
  - A) 20 Centers for 2010
  - B) Strategic Alliance Between FIFA and UNICEF
8. How was the program Football for Hope established?
9. In what ways does the program Football for Hope contribute to the fulfillment of the Millennium Development Goals?
10. What are the main accomplishments of this program?

**Annex 4: Interview with Mrs. Bettina Schulte, United Nations Office on Sports for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) Representative, Geneva, Switzerland, April 22, 2009.**

**Questionnaire**

**PART I: GENERAL**

1. Why was the UNOSDP created and what is its purpose?
2. In what ways can sport be a transformative tool and to what extent?
3. How can sports break through barriers?
4. What is the role of the UNOSDP in the creation of social change and transformation particularly in marginal communities around the world?

**PART II: MILLENNIUM GOALS**

5. The U.N. has stated that: "Sports – from a play and physical activity to organized and competitive sport- is a powerful and cost-effective way to advance the Millennium Development Goals". Can you please elaborate on this statement?

**Annex 5: Interview with Colonel Carlos Alberto Menendez, Bogota, Colombia, March 19, 2009.**

**Questionnaire**  
*Cuestionario*

**THEME: ORIGINS OF HOOLIGANISM IN COLOMBIA**

1. When and how did the phenomenon of hooliganism originate in Colombia?

*Como y cuando se origino el fenómeno del hooliganismo en Colombia?*

2. How has hooliganism evolved in the last years in the country?

*Como ha evolucionado el fenómeno del hooliganismo en Colombia en los últimos años?*

**THEME: POLICE RESPONSE**

3. How should hooliganism be approached ?

*Como de debe enfrentar el hooliganismo ?*

4. What measures has the National Police set up in order to avoid football-related violence?

*Que medidas ha implementado la Policía Nacional para evitar la violencia generada por el futbol?*

5. What does a National Police security operation during a football game look like?

*Como es un operativo de control de seguridad durante un partido de futbol ?*

**THEME: SOCIETAL RESPONSE**

6. What other measures, in addition to the ones implemented by the Police, can be put forward to adress the problem?

*Además de las medidas propuestas por la Policía Nacional , que otras medidas pueden ser implementadas para enfrentar este problema?*

**Annex 6: Interview with Mrs. Maria Elvira Garavito, Director of the foundation Colombianitos, Bogota, Colombia, February 17, 2009.**

**Questionnaire**  
*Cuestionario*

**THEME: CONCEPTION AND PURPOSE**

1. In a nutshell, what is Colombianitos?

*En pocas palabras, que es Colombianitos?*

2. Why was the organization conceived? What was its purpose?

*Porque se estableció la organización? Cual es su propósito?*

**THEME: PROJECTS AND EFFECTS**

3. What are the main challenges that you have faced since your inception?

*Cuales han sido los principales retos que han enfrentado desde su inicio?*

4. Does the presence of a Colombianitos project create ripple effects into the community where it is conducted? What are manifestations of these?

*Cree Usted que la presencia de Colombianitos en la comunidad produce un efecto multiplicador positivo? Cuales son los ejemplos que pueden corroborar lo anterior?*

**THEME: SOCCER AND DEVELOPMENT**

5. One of the main methods that have been used by your organization is soccer. Why?

*Uno de los principales métodos usados por Colombianitos es el Fútbol. Porque?*

6. In the Colombian community, how is soccer perceived? A sport? A lifestyle? Or a medium for transformative change?

*En la sociedad Colombiana, el Fútbol es percibido como un deporte? Un estilo de vida? o como un medio para la transformación y el cambio?*

7. Up to what extent do you think soccer can be a tool for peace and development specifically in Colombia and in what ways?

*Hasta que punto puede ser el futbol considerado como una herramienta para la paz y el desarrollo específicamente en Colombia? Y en que formas?*

## Annex 7: Contributions of the Sport to The Millennium Development Goals

TABLE 1 CONTRIBUTION OF SPORT TO THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL	CONTRIBUTION OF SPORT
1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participants, volunteers and coaches acquire transferable life skills which increase their employability</li> <li>• Vulnerable individuals are connected to community services and supports through sport-based outreach programs</li> <li>• Sport programs and sport equipment production provide jobs and skills development</li> <li>• Sport can help prevent diseases that impede people from working and impose health care costs on individuals and communities</li> <li>• Sport can help reduce stigma and increase self-esteem, self-confidence and social skills, leading to increased employability</li> </ul>
2. Achieve universal primary education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• School sport programs motivate children to enroll in and attend school and can help improve academic achievement</li> <li>• Sport-based community education programs provide alternative education opportunities for children who cannot attend school</li> <li>• Sport can help erode stigma preventing children with disabilities from attending school</li> </ul>
3. Promote gender equality and empower women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sport helps improve female physical and mental health and offers opportunities for social interaction and friendship</li> <li>• Sport participation leads to increased self-esteem, self-confidence, and enhanced sense of control over one's body</li> <li>• Girls and women access leadership opportunities and experience</li> <li>• Sport can cause positive shifts in gender norms that afford girls and women greater safety and control over their lives</li> <li>• Women and girls with disabilities are empowered by sport-based opportunities to acquire health information, skills, social networks, and leadership experience</li> </ul>
4. Reduce child mortality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sport can be used to educate and deliver health information to young mothers, resulting in healthier children</li> <li>• Increased physical fitness improves children's resistance to some diseases</li> <li>• Sport can help reduce the rate of higher-risk adolescent pregnancies</li> <li>• Sport-based vaccination and prevention campaigns help reduce child deaths and disability from measles, malaria and polio</li> <li>• Inclusive sport programs help lower the likelihood of infanticide by promoting greater acceptance of children with disabilities</li> </ul>
5. Improve maternal health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sport for health programs offer girls and women greater access to reproductive health information and services</li> <li>• Increased fitness levels help speed post-natal recovery</li> </ul>
6. Combat HIV and AIDS, malaria, and other diseases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sport programs can be used to reduce stigma and increase social and economic integration of people living with HIV and AIDS</li> <li>• Sport programs are associated with lower rates of health risk behaviour that contributes to HIV infection</li> <li>• Programs providing HIV prevention education and empowerment can further reduce HIV infection rates</li> <li>• Sport can be used to increase measles, polio and other vaccination rates</li> <li>• Involvement of celebrity athletes and use of mass sport events can increase reach and impact of malaria, tuberculosis and other education and prevention campaigns</li> </ul>

**Annex 7: Contributions of the Sport to The Millennium Development Goals Continued.**

<b>MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL</b>	<b>CONTRIBUTION OF SPORT</b>
7. Ensure environmental sustainability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sport-based public education campaigns can raise awareness of importance of environmental protection and sustainability</li> <li>• Sport-based social mobilization initiatives can enhance participation in community action to improve local environment</li> </ul>
8. Develop a global partnership for development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sport for Development and Peace efforts catalyze global partnerships and increase networking among governments, donors, NGOs and sport organizations worldwide</li> </ul>

**Source: Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDP IWG) 2008, *Harnessing the power of sport for development and peace*, pp. 11-12**

**Annex 8: Goals for Peace Project Ciudad Bolivar Interviews, Bogota, Colombia,  
March 7, 2009.**

**Questionnaire**  
*Cuestionario*

**PART I: PERSONAL INFORMATION**

**Name**

*Nombre*

**Age**

*Edad*

**Number of members in your family**

*Numero de personas en tu familia*

**THEME: PROJECT AND ACTIVITIES**

1. What was your favorite activity/module and why?

*Cual fue tu actividad/modulo favorito y por que?*

2. What did you learn in the activities?

*Que aprendiste en las actividades?*

3. What did you learn on the soccer field?

*Que aprendiste en la cancha de futbol?*

4. Do you think what you have learned will be of any help in your daily life? If yes how?

*Crees que lo que aprendiste te servirá en tu vida diaria? Si respondes si, como?*

5. What can you teach your parents/friends/relatives about what you learned today?

*Que le puedes enseñar a tus padres, familiares o amigos sobre lo que aprendiste hoy?*

**ALEXANDER CARDENAS**

CURRICULUM VITAE

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**RESEARCH AND WORK EXPERIENCE**

**2009 October to 2010 January**                      **United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime  
Alternative Development Unit**

Contributed to analytical studies and assessments of the causal relationships, levels of and trends in alternative development strategies; web management – design and development of texts, multi-media; loaned to other departments for short term assignments functioning in areas of translation, logistics, liaison, editing of project materials and conference management  
**(Internship)**

**2009 August**                              **Project “Goles por la Paz”, Bais City, Philippines.**

Created an innovative training manual geared for youth empowerment; Introduction of methods such as soccer, mandala and Theater of the Oppressed as tools for societal transformation; Fundraising and creation of partnerships abroad

**2009 February**                              **Project “Goles por la Paz” Bogota, Colombia.**

Project took place in February 2009 in Bogota. Community building and conflict resolution in the Area of Ciudad Bolivar (Bogota), home to the second largest internally displaced population in the world.

**2005 Spring Quarter**                      **Graffiti: Art or Vandalism?  
University of California, Santa Barbara**

Main methods of research: expert interviews with police officers, graffiti artists  
Furnished Copy of Results to Santa Barbara Police Department

**1999 Spring Semester**                      **Project Evaluation: Graduation Project  
Politecnico Grancolombiano, Colombia**

Methods used in research: statistical analysis and quantitative research

**EDUCATION**

**2007-2009**                                      **MA in Global Studies (European Commission Scholarship)  
University of Vienna & University of Leipzig (graduation May)**

2010)

- 2004- 2006**                      **Bachelor Degree in Global and International Studies and in Cultural Anthropology** University of California, Santa Barbara, California  
With Language and Culture Training in Bahia, Brazil  
**(Fall Semester 2006)**
- 2002 - 2004**                      **Transfer Program** corresponding to the first two years of University academic coursework  
Santa Barbara City College, USA
- 1999**                                **University Degree in Management and Business Administration**  
Universidad Politecnico Grancolombiano, Bogotá, Colombia