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Research on China's University and College Sport: An Analysis of the Expression, Reconstruction,

Development of University and College Sport in Three Periods

中国の大学スポーツ研究: 三つの時期における大学スポーツの展開、再構築および発展の検討

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Abstract

This study chose China's university and college sport in three periods as the object of study, adopted historical studies that analyzed literature of sport in institution, interviewed by communication with experts for gaining original data, and selected Tsinghua University as the case to analyze its sport in different periods.

The study purpose was to focus on China's university and college sport in three periods, by reviewing literature and implementing interviews, summarize the emergence (the 1890s – 1937), the reconstruction (the 1950s – 1970s), and the development (the 1980s – present) of sport in higher education institutions. The study broadened the research perspective on university and college sport, identified the characteristics of it in different periods, and generalized a couple of developing models of it at present.

This study attempted to expand the horizontal dimension of the research perspective on sport in China's higher education institutions. Diachronically, it exhibited university and college sport in different historical periods. Synchronically, it explored the internal elements of sport in higher education institutions one historical period. The case studies summarized the choice and exploration in the models of developing university sport in the period of high–level sport teams.

The conclusions of this study summarized in the following points. From the 1890s to 1937, sport in institutions acted as the initiator and participant of sport in China. The sporting level of it represented the highest level of sport in China. In the 1950s to 1970s, university and college sport was restructured and sports colleges that trained teachers and athletes were

established. The restructure of university and college sport was a consequence of political movements. The separation of sport from education system resulted in the separation of sport from education. The policies were the major elements dominating the development of university and college sport since the 1980s. With the guiding policies, high–level sport teams became the main vehicle of university and college sport. With the policies on sport teams in higher education institutions, Tsinghua explored its way of integration of sport with education and gradually formed the Tsinghua Model in sport.

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Introduction

Research background

Sport was introduced and considered to be exotic, during the modernization of China. After the First Opium War (1839 – 1840), China was forced to open a few trading ports to foreign countries where the missionaries founded missionary schools. It was in those schools that sport started to spread in China (Wee, 1937, p. 3). Confucianism, the orthodox system of thought in China, emphasized the coordination of the body and the mind and was against intensive physical activities. Additionally, the trading ports and the missionary schools were in relatively enclosed areas and didn't extend to vast areas in China. During this period, schools were the main vehicle for the development of sport in China.

In the 1860s and 1870s, modern higher education germinated in China through the influence of learning from the Western countries by the Westernization Movement (Xiong, 1988, p. 372; Pan, 1997, p. 434). The Westernized ("洋务派", *yangwu pai*) employed teachers from Europe for language academies, military academies, and technology academies. In their spare time, the teachers would impart knowledge of physical activities to students. Meanwhile, with the merge of missionary middle schools in the 1870s, some missionary schools were upgraded to colleges or universities, where physical activities were extensively held such as tennis, athletics. From the 1890s to 1900s, higher education institutions in the modern sense were officially established in China (Qu & Tang, 2007, p. 235), symbolized by

the founding of state-run named Peiyang University (established in 1895), the Imperial University of Peking (established in 1898), the upgrading of a Christian university named Soochow University (established in 1900) and St John's University (St John's College renamed in 1905). On the one hand, state-run universities did away with the China's traditional habits and invited foreign presidents and teachers. With emphasis on students' constitutions, they organized athletic meets (Shun Pao, 1905, June 5; 1907, May 21). On the other hand, Christian universities inherited missionary middle schools' and Christian collegiate sport heritage, with the first-class playground sites, gymnasiums, equipment, and sport clubs. Therefore, sport flourished in Christian based universities and the inter-collegiate athletic meets were emergence, such as the inter-collegiate track and field in Shanghai (Ho, 1908; Peng, 1929). Of these institutions, some could even be regarded as the precursor of China's modern sport (Yan, 2006, pp. 231 – 232; Xu, 2008, p. 206). At that time, the inter-collegiate athletic meets also started on the regional and the national level. They were mainly hosted by higher education institutions which became the main vehicle for spreading sport in China.¹

The period between the 1910s and 1930s became the culmination of university and college sport in China. With the influence of the Militarism (1900s to 1910s) (Pan, 1990; Chen, 1996; Xiong & Lin, 1997), and the American sport (1920s to 1930s) (Pan, 1933; Huang, 1936; Xu, 1990; Wu, 1981, pp. 123 – 125; Su, 1983), state–run and private

3

institutions (including Christian institutions) actively developed sport and implemented coercive physical activities to enhance students' body. At this time, many more institutions participated in the inter–collegiate sports meets, such as The Chinese Inter–Collegiate Athletic Association, which held sports games on a regular basis (The North China Herald, 1914, May 23). Student athletes were the major force in the National Games (1910, 1914, 1924, 1930, 1933, 1935, 1948)², the Far East Games (1913 – 1934), and the Olympic Games (1932, 1936, 1948). From 1937 to 1949, with the Sino–Japanese War (July, 1937 – Aug, 1945) and the Second Civil War (Aug, 1946 – Sept, 1949), normal social order was disrupted and hence sport activities almost stopped.

After 1949, the People's Republic of China [PRC] advocated the comprehensive introduction of socialist construction experience of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics [USSR]. Sport was included as part of the national plan.³ The Communist Party of China [CPC] started to guide development of sport by orders and plans instigated. In the mid–1950s, the National Sport Commission [NSC] and its local branches were constructed, which popularized and improved sport, constructed national sport teams, and founded a group of sport colleges.⁴ China's sport had certainly improved by means of those measures. For instance, Chinese athletes broke the world record in weightlifting and certain events in track and field in the late–1950s (Xinhua News Agency, 1956, Jun 8). From the 1960s to 1970s, a three–level training system of the youth amateur sport schools, the provincial sport teams,

and the national sport teams were formed to concentrate the resources and improve the national sporting level. With special purpose training, athletes improved a great deal and the former lower standard of training was rejected, especially in form of university and college sport. In 1984, China obtained its first gold medal in the Los Angeles Olympic Games and altogether won 15 gold medals. After three Olympic Games (1984, 1988, 1992), the NSC made "*The Olympic Glorious Program*", which attempted to rely on administrative plans and initiatives, improve the national sport system, and fortify China's position in the international sport arena. In 2000, a nationwide sport system was proposed (Hao, 2004). In the following three Olympic Games, China's sport achieved greater success and reached its peak in the Beijing Olympic Games.

However, the great success in the arena could not overshadow some chronic illnesses of the nationwide sport system. For instance, a conflict between individual interests and national interests began, and some problems of settlement, education, and employment of retired athletes were difficult to resolve. Most of the athletes thus became a sacrifice of the system, even the athletes who won gold medals in the world championship were met with survival issues. Therefore, it was necessary to reform the system to keep the robust development of sport.

The success of the nationwide sport system between the 1950s and 1980s had a side effect of negligence of sport in university and college. In the 1980s, top leaders in the PRC

proposed that universities and college sport should be responsible for nurturing top athletes in China. Since then, the National Universities Games of the PRC [NUG] were held from 1982. The higher education system started to reconstruct its sport development, nurture and establish high–level sport teams. Until 2006, 680 high–level sport teams were formed in 235 universities and colleges. Separately, in the 1990s China started its development of professional sport through marketing, university and college sport also started to explore the commercial opportunities in sport competitions which gave existence to the Chinese University Basketball Association [CUBA], the Chinese University Football League [CUFL], and various other organizations.

However, the underlying problems in the nationwide sport system could not be resolved simply by those reforms. Furthermore, university and college sport were faced with a number of challenges. In regard to the sporting level, with more than 20 years development of high–level sport teams, few collegiate athletes could step up to the world level arena. Most of those who participated in the NUG and the Universiade from China were retired athletes and special purpose athletes. This situation didn't change until 2000. In 2005, the Ministry of Education of the PRC [MOE] independently organized teams for the Universiade, in which collegiate athletes in the true sense participated in the games. In the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, a few collegiate athletes participated in but were unable to score. Additionally, in regard to athlete education, some provincial sport teams reached win—win agreements with

higher education institutions by collaborating to establish high—level sport teams. Universities and colleges were responsible for the education of the team while the athletes received special purpose training in the old system. This led to new problems such as the qualification question of collegiate athletes. In the reform of the sport system in China, university and college sport functioned as a complementary part of the nationwide sport system. A characteristic of the reform was to ensure ways of nurturing athletes. The reform didn't have a specific goal for development.

In review of the characteristics of university and college sport in different periods, it could be seen that university and college was an important platform to display China's sport and the advocator and agent of popularization of sport in the late Qing Dynasty period of the 1890s to 1911. In the period of the Republic of China [RC], university and college was the lighthouse of the development of China's sport and represented the highest level of it. In the initial stage of the PRC, it became the complement to the national sport system. Since the 1980s, university and college sport began its reconstruction under the guidance of the state government. Some institutions were selected to establish high—level sport teams. There were some inherent conflicts in the sport system of China that needed the support of sport in universities and colleges (Lu, 2000). From this background, what are the responsibilities of university and college sport in China? What is its goal for development? And what kind of

reforms does sport need in China? In order to clarify these questions, it is necessary to track the development of China's university and college sport in different historical periods.

Research purpose

This study focused on China's university and college sport in three periods, by reviewing literature and implementing interviews, summarized the emergence (the 1890s – 1937), the reconstruction (the 1950s – the 1970s), and the development (the 1980s – present) of sport in higher education institutions. The study broadened the research perspective on university and college sport, identified the characteristics of it in different periods, and generalized a couple of developing models of it at present.

Research significance

Currently, China's sport society mostly focused on university and college sport after the 1980s and therefore didn't have enough diachronic research. However, by analyzing sport in institutions in the two periods from the 1890s to 1937 and the 1950s to 1970s, this study connected the history with the research on university and college sport after the 1980s. In this way, the research boundary of sport in China's higher education institutions was broadened.

University and college sport in China underwent several crucial choices and decisions in its history of development, which ended in the nationwide sport system. Aside from the outstanding achievements, it was also confronted with numerous problems. Sport in higher education institutions was a pillar in the reform of sport in China. The analysis and

generalization of its characteristics in different historical periods could provide beneficial ideas for the current sport system reform in China.

Research method

This study adopted historical studies that analyze literature of sport in higher education institutions in three periods, interviewed by communication with experts for gaining original data. Furthermore, this research selected Tsinghua University as case to analyze its sport in different periods.

Literature review

Few researchers paid attention to university and college sport in the period of the 1890s to 1937. Most studies on the social foundation that gave birth to sport in China focused on the translation and introduction of the Western sport knowledge and technology. From the 1890s to 1910s, the Young Men's Christian Association [YMCA] played an important part in the spreading and research of sport in China (Wu, 1956; Zhou, 1979; Luo, 1985; Feng & Bu, 1985).

From the 1890s to the early 1910s, sport was implemented in certain Christian universities and colleges. The specific information of this part of history was scattered in data from collegiate biographies, journals, and newspapers such as "The St. John's Echo", "Soochow Annual", "University of Shanghai Monthly", "The North China Herald" and "Shun Pao". From the mid–1910s to 1937, sport participation was popular in insititutions

which provided research material. For instance, Ma Yuehan (1933) in the article of "University and Sport" discussed how to organize sport in institutions based on John Dewey's educational philosophy and Thorndike's psychology. The two articles, "Sport at Tsinghua in the Past 15 Years" by Hao (1926) and "Sport at Tsinghua University in Transformation" by Ma & Hao (1927) adopted a case analysis and described the history of sport at Tsinghua University. Other scholars also proposed research viewpoints according to the development of sport in their universities and colleges (Yuan, 1932). University presidents attached great importance to sport activities. They emphasized the coordinated development of intelligence, morality, and physical education, the trio-educational ideal. Presidents such as Cai Yuanpei of Peking University, Guo Binwen of Southeast University (Zhou & Huang, 1994, pp. 120 – 136), and Zhang Boling (1914, pp. 1 – 2) of Nankai School/College all had discussions about sport on campuses. Also, some presidents became researchers and popularized sport in the nation (Xu, 1914a). In view of sport was prevailed in Christian institutions, Wee (1937, pp. 59 - 78) described physical education in the Protestant Christian institutions of China in the 1930s, he analyzed inter-collegiate athletic standards and policies form kinds of sports, control of athletics, eligibility regulation, coach, schedules and awards. Other researchers discussed university and college sport in the period of the RC, for instance, John (2012) described sport at Fu Jen University in which the competition of "Five Universities in Peking" was mentioned (pp. 133 - 139).

In the 1890s to 1937, research on university and college sport emphasized on historical facts, and focused on individual cases. The researchers concentrated on a few institutions where sport was well developed.

Sport was included as part of a national plan in the PRC. The CPC took the initiative to develop sport and emphasize its ideological state and political function. Between the 1950s and the early 1970s, sport gained rapid development. However, in the face of constant political movement, teaching in higher education institutions was constantly disturbed.

Therefore, the study of university and college sport was conducted in an unstable environment (Wu, 1950; He, 1950; Chi, 1950). Most of the research in this period tended to be descriptive and was published in "New Physical Culture" and "People's Daily".

Furthermore, the research of sport in institutions was characterized by the influence of political ideology, guidance of the USSR sport and critique of American sport. Most of the authors in this field were collective. Individual authors were rarely seen in the research of this period.

University and college sport reform in China began in the 1980s. In 1981, the government first proposed that universities and colleges having the ability should try to organize amateurish training and establish high–level sport teams (The State Council, 1981, Apr 22). This policy changed the way of thinking and restructured the political foundation of sport in institutions. The research in this period (from 1981 to 1987) met the need of sport

reform. For instance, Zhang Xueqin (1982) reflected on the problems of the state—oriented training system by investigating American and German training systems, she discussed the feasibility of establishing high—level sport teams in university and college. Some researchers also applied analysis on the feasibility of establishing high—level sport teams and their research influenced future research such as the conflict between studying and training proposed in this period (Wang, 1987; Dang, 1987; Liao, 1987). However, the scope of research was still quite small.

In 1987, the National Education Committee of the PRC [NEC] ⁹ promulgated "*The Notice of Attempting to Enroll High–level Athletes by Some of Universities and Colleges*".

From then on, the development of sport was admitted into the national plan, and relevant policies were promulgated in 1996 and 2005, which aimed at guiding the development of university and college sport. From this background, relevant research started to accumulate and the content and perspectives followed the policy needs. Since there was a large amount of literature, for the convenience of analysis, it was divided into three stages. The first stage was from 1987 to 1995; the second from 1996 to 2005; and the third 2006 to the present. ¹⁰

In the first stage of research (1987 – 1995), researchers focused on how universities and colleges tried to establish high–level sport teams and problems that occurred in this process. Most of the research was of an explorative nature. The research showed the following features. 1) Methodology in the 1980s was mainly qualitative (Wang, 1988; Liu,

Jin, Lin & Qian, 1988). In the early 1990s, empirical methods such as investigation were used (An, 1992; Cao, 1995). The variety of research methodologies provided researchers with more ways to approach problems. 2) The research made the transition from theoretical studies to studies that integrated theory with practice. Due to the lack of successful cases, there were few case studies in this period. 3) Some of the viewpoints raised in that period could be primitive from the point of view of today's research. However, it was understandable in the then research condition (Zhou, 1988; Nan, 1995). 4) The problems that emerged in the trial of high–level sport teams in universities and colleges were classified into the following aspects: the guiding thoughts and goals, the conflict between education and training of athlete, the level of coaches, enrollment, the management system, etc (Chen, 1989; Zhang, 1990). 5) Some researchers discussed the models of the structure of high-level sport teams established by universities and colleges, which meant that researchers started to explore the model of development of high-level sport teams for the different situations of institutions (Yang, Lü, Lin, & Song, 1995).

The research in the second stage (1996 - 2005) no longer focused on exploration. They tended to focus on the specific problems that occurred in the operation of high–level sport teams in universities and colleges and suggested solutions. The literature could be classified into the following aspects. 1) There were research on certain sports and comparative studies (Qian, 2000). 2) Some researchers approached problems from the angle of management

(Wang, 2000; Zeng, 2001; Duan & Su, 2003; Wang & Gu, 2005). Other perspectives were taken such as psychology, the role of a psychiatrist for high–level sport teams (Bei, 2003), economics (Chen, 2005c). 3) There emerged research on high–level sport teams from the perspective of the study of training and sport items (Yu, 2003). 4) Some researchers paid attention to the development of high–level sport teams by pointing out the problems and strategies for solving the problems (Zhang, Ye, & Long, 2000; Gong & Huang, 2001; Jiang, 2001; Li, 2002). 5) Summary research of the forms and models of operation of high–level sport teams in university and college (Zhang, 1997; Shi, Cao & Zhong, 1998; Ding & Chen, 2000; Chen, Wang & Wu, 2001).

The characteristics of literaturary research in this period include the following. 1) The study on high–level sport teams in universities and colleges became a hot topic in the study of sport in China in terms of quantity and perspectives of research. 2) Compared with research in the first stage, the research showed a greater variety in content and methods. The issues of research increased and the approaches and angles were expanded. 3) Several successful operation models of high–level sport teams were summarized. For instance, Tsinghua University received much attention and acknowledgement of many researchers. 4) Based on individual universities, researchers considered the problems that emerged in the process of establishing high–level sport teams. In this period, teachers that took part in establishing high–level sport teams were the major researchers in this field.

The research in the third stage mainly focused on the following aspects. 1) The operation mechanism and development of high–level sport teams in universities and colleges (Zeng, Huang, & Cai, 2007; Huang, Zhang, & Zheng, 2007; Zhang & Huang, 2008; Xu, Hu, & Jin, 2008; Wang, 2008; Zhang & Peng, 2009). 2) The regional study of high–level sport teams, such as the development of it in Beijing's and Shanghai's institutions (Xu, 2006; Wei & Li, 2007), along with exploration of the selection, enrollment, training, competition, and management of it in Guangdong's institutions (Jiang & Li, 2009). 3) The sports configuration of high–level sport teams (Peng & Chen, 2007; He, 2008). 4) The management of high–level sport teams in universities and colleges (Huang & He, 2007; Zhou, 2008; Li, Shang, & Luo, 2008).

The research literature of this period (2006 – 2012) displayed the following characteristics. 1) Further variety of research content, with many research perspectives on the individual sports, team management, and analysis of teams in different regions, comparative studies and the operation mechanism of teams. 2) A large number of regional research literature, because university and college that established high–level sport teams increased from 53 to 235, which provided researchers with many samples.

Since the 1980s, based on the practice of high–level sport teams in Tsinghua University, the research team led by Chen Xi (2002) systematically discussed the problems that China's sport faced before 2002 and also proposed their solutions. Ling Ping (2003) approached the

issue of China's university and college sport from the point of view of the study of management. "A Study on the Development of University and College Sport in China" by Liu Haiyuan (2007) discussed university and college sport in China from a developmental perspective and for the first time defined the concept of university and college sport.

In addition, since the 1990s, there have been many books that contained the words "University Physical Education and Sport" or "College Physical Education and Sport" in the titles, and almost all universities compiled the textbooks. However, most of those didn't take a research perspective but functioned as the textbooks for physical education. The content of books included basic knowledge of sports. The books, additionally, were written for the purpose of teaching students sport techniques and were not considered as academic literature. Therefore, this study didn't address those literature.

The boundary of research and definitions of concepts

Gymnastics ("体操", ticao)

In the 1870s, China's translation of "practice or gymnastics" appeared with "团兵操演" (tuanbing caoyan) or "团兵操练" (tuanbing caolian) (Shun Pao, 1875, July 21), which was a direct representation of learning from the Western military practice in the Westernization Movement. However, the Chinese word "体操" (ticao) for gymnastics was not coined in this period. The word "兵操" (bingcao) for gymnastics appeared in the 1880s. For instance, Shun Pao (1882, Jan 2) described military practice supervised by the governor of Fujian and

Zhejiang province that first watched *bingcao* there and praised their techniques and awarded the troops (p. 2).

The appearance of the word *bingcao* was not found in the 1880s. However, most researchers in the field of sport in China thought that it was translated from Japanese. In 1887, Shun Pao (1887, Jan 14) described the ambassador of the Qing Dynasty in Japan went with the Culture Minister of Japan to watch the military practice of students in normal schools in the field of *ticao* (p.2). It should be one of the earliest pieces of literature that introduced the Chinese word *ticao*. The article "*Discussion on Promoting Education*" published in May 7, 1890 stated in its introduction of the education experience of Japan that the so–called *ticao*¹¹ referred to afternoon free physical activities of students such as kickball and swinging in playground of the Western schools (Shun Pao, 1890, June 23). *Ticao* was there defined as physical activities implemented at school.

"The School Regulations" were promulgated by the Qing Dynasty in 1903 which stipulated that the subject of ticao ("体操科", ticao ke) be implemented in all levels of schools, taking military ticao ("兵操", bingcao) as the major content for teaching. In the 1900s, bingcao was a compulsory part of the subject of ticao. In 1912, the Education Ministry of temporary government of the RC telegraphed all provinces that higher primary schools and schools above should pay attention to military ticao. In 1915, the government promulgated "Implementations of Militarism Education" which stressed again on bingcao as

major content of the subject of *ticao* in schools. It wasn't until 1923 that the Education Ministry promulgated the "Guidelines of the Curriculum of Primary and Middle Schools", which changed the *ticao* ke into "体育" (tiyu), replacing bingcao with sports such as track and field and ball games as the major content of course. It was then that the concept of *ticao* as physical education faded. However, the word *ticao* was still in use and referred to gymnastics instead of military drills (Gan, 1925; Wu & Yuan, 1935).

As to the state—run institutions, in 1896 the Imperial University of Peking was the first to establish the subject of *ticao*. In the early 20th Century the reform of abolishing the imperial civil examination system and promoting schools was implemented and the modern education system was established in China. The *ticao ke* was set as compulsory courses in many universities and colleges, especially those state—run's. *Ticao* occupied an important position in physical education until the early 1920s. Controversy about abolishing *bingcao* as the teaching content was debated in some institutions. The discussion of this issue was made in Tsinghua University in the 1910s and 1920s.

Physical Education / Sport

Physical Education

The word *tiyu* ("体育") was introduced to China from Japan. One of its earlier appearances was in "*The Catalog of Japanese Books*" compiled by Kang Youwei (1897), in which Japanese book "*The Study of Physical Education*" was mentioned. In the early 20th

Century, although circulated among a few intellectuals, tiyu was far less popular than the word ticao (Zhou, 1989). Between the 1890s and 1900s, tivu included the following three aspects. Firstly, it was about personal hygiene and physique, for instance Shun Pao (1902, May 17) described that *tiyu* meant the protection of children's body (p. 2). Secondly, it meant sport. Shun Pao (1907, Nov 6) reported that Pudong Middle School planned to hold the first tivu meets on the fifth of October of the lunar calendar (p.19). Thirdly, it was part of education. In the expressions of that period, physical education was on the same level with moral education and intellectual education. For instance, Shun Pao (1902, Nov 24) described that physical education strengthened body, intellectual education expanded talent and the eventually moral education nourished character (p. 1). All kinds of social movements were developing in China between the 1910s and 1930s, and the interpretation of tiyu varied. Some emphasized the biological nature in concept, such as the early thoughts of sport by Cai Yuanpei (1915), and discussions in "The Study of Physical Culture" by Mao Zedong (1917). Between the 1920s and 1937, tiyu was often mentioned as part of education which reflected the influence of America sport (Wu & Yuan, 1935, pp. 143 – 150).

From the 1950s to 1990s, *tiyu* was represented as physical culture and its political function was emphasized. Especially between the 1960s and 1980s, the political effect of *tiyu* was dilated and culminated in the *pingpong* diplomacy. The interpretation of *tiyu* in that period focused on sport serving politics. In the 1980s, the world of *tiyu* in China started to see

physical education and sport in a new perspective and started large–scale discussions. However, due to long debates, the concept of tiyu was still undefined (Yang & Chen, 2004, pp. 29-30).

As mentioned, there were two levels in the concept of *tiyu* from above transformation, body level and social level (including politics). The strengths of two levels vary in different historical periods and it was in the interplay of two levels that definition of *tiyu* evolved.

Sport

As early as the 1850s and 1860s, sport implemented in cities opened to foreign trade, such as Shanghai and Tianjin, was expressed as horse race (*pao ma* or *sai ma*), boat race (*pao chuan*), race (*sai pao, sai li* or *sai zuli*) (Shun Pao, 1872, May 15, Nov 22; 1873, Dec 1; 1875, Dec 2). Those activities were confined to the Western population in China, although Chinese people could watch as audience of these sports (Shun Pao, 1872, Nov 5). This played a role of enlightenment in the popularization of sport in China. In the 1870s tennis, track and field, and baseball emerged in missionary schools. However, there was no vocabulary for sport. In the late Qing Dynasty, the content of sport was referred to as *ticao* or *tiyu*. When school athletic meets came into existence, these were recognized as sport.

In the period of the RC, sport was referred to as "运动" (yundong). Cai Yuanpei (1917) argued that the most important thing of sport was yundong (p. 8). Xu Yibing (1920) pointed out that human evolution meet the obstacle of lack of forms in natural sport. Therefore,

human beings invented *ticao* and *yundong* so as to fulfill the shortcomings of natural sport (pp. 61 - 66). Zhang Shiyi (1915) said that the concept of sport was extensive while that of intensive *yundong* was narrow. Sport was not just intensive *yundong*, and intensive *yundong* was part of sport (pp. 36 - 40).

Sports and physical education were collectively known as physical culture in the PRC. Sports games were also used to refer to sport between the 1950s and 1970s. In the late 1980s, specialists in the field of physical culture in China discussed the concept of sport. Some researchers came up with the suggestion of using "竞技体育" (*jingji tiyu*) to mean sport. However, there was no final specific definition. Besides, the confusion of concept of sport was present in many countries (Yang & Chen, 2004, pp. 29 – 30).

This study followed the distinction between the concepts in each period being discussed. In the late Qing Dynasty, *ticao* and physical education were equivalent to sport, with no big difference. In the RC, particularly in the 1920s, *yundong* was the same as sport, and physical education was the superordinate of sport. In the PRC, sport and physical education were collectively known as physical culture, which were further classified into school sport, mass sport, and competitive sport. Since the 1980s, specialists in the field of physical culture in China used "竞技体育" (*jingji tiyu*) to mean sport so as to distinguish it from physical education.

University and college sport

In the period of the RC, university and college sport was mostly shown in form of athletic meets, sports meets or games, such as the inter—colleges athletic meets in East China between the 1900s and 1930s. University and college athletes were mostly called "选手" (xuanshou). From the 1950s to 1970s, it was represented by amateur training in higher education institutes, especially in sport colleges, it named sport representative teams. After 1987 when "The Notice of Attempting to Enroll High—level Athletes by Some of Universities and Colleges" was promulgated by the NEC, university and college sport was expressed as high—level sport teams which has remained to present.

University and college sport has been a hot topic for research since the 1990s. However, the concept of high–level sport teams received no definition in this research. There were few scholars who defined university and college sport. ¹² According to Liu (2007), Liu & Si (2008), and Dong (2008), university and college sport, sport in higher education institution, and high–level sport teams in universities and colleges were close in definition.

Due to the long time span and complexity of the concept of *ticao* and *tiyu*, this study did not promote in–depth discussion of the definition of sport. Instead, it defined university and college sport differently in the context of development of the concept in history. In the 1890s to 1937, the research had its boundary within the discussion of *ticao*, *tiyu*, *yundong* and athletic meets or games, implemented in higher education institutions. The period between

the 1950s and 1970s was one of restructure of university and college sport. For this period, sport colleges included the analysis on it. From the 1980s onward, university and college sport entered a period of development of high–level sport teams. From the perspective of sport policies, sport universities or colleges and other institutions were treated differently. This part of the study did not include the analysis of sport universities or colleges and professional sport academies.

Special purpose athlete, student athlete and athlete student

Special purpose athlete

Special purpose athlete was a habitual term circulated in the sport world in China. It had no clear definition. Special purpose athlete appeared in the age of planned economy.

Since the socialist country incorporated sport as part of the national affairs, athlete became a specialized type of special purpose rather than a profession. Compared with professional athlete who got re–training with the income obtained from competitions, special purpose athlete had the government support in their sporting life. The state government was responsible for the selection, training, management, moral education and competition qualification¹³, second–career, and living safety net of athletes. The training path of special purpose athlete was a three–level training system (youth sport schools, provincial teams, and national teams). Because special purpose athlete focused on skill training in their youth and ignored education, most of them couldn't have complete education.

Special purpose athlete had their corresponding classification. In 1956, the National Sport Committee of the PRC [NSC] first made "*The Athlete Level Standards*", which classified athletes according to their sporting level. At present, special purpose athlete level standards were implemented according to the 2005 Standards from top to bottom: National Excellent Athlete, Excellent Athlete, Level 1, Level 2 and Level 3 Athlete. ¹⁴ Currently, the major participants of sport in China were special purpose athletes.

Student athlete and athlete student

Because of the existence of special purpose athlete, student athlete fell into two categories: student athlete and athlete student. The former referred to students who had a second identity as athlete. Athlete had continuous education in the school and could reach the basic requirement of the school for student. In this study, collegiate student athlete in the periods of the 1890s to 1937 and the 1950s to 1980s, most athletes belong to this category.

Athlete student refered to athlete who had a second identity as student, who was characterized by the lack of systematic education, discontinuation of education, and low level of knowledge base compared with common university student. Athlete student was the result of special purpose training system and education system in the 1970s. It was an important method for solving the problem that special purpose athlete ignored education. Athlete student was able to be further divided into two types, retired athlete who went to universities or colleges such as Deng Yaping studying in Tsinghua University after she retired, and

in—service athletes including the following three types. Type 1: training in the nationwide sport system while living and studying on campus. Type 2: training in the nationwide sport system, living and studying in national teams or provincial teams. Type 3: training in the universities or colleges, living and studying on campus.

Since the 1980s, sport universities or colleges became an important organization for training special purpose athlete under the nationwide sport system. Therefore, in 2005 the Ministry of Education of the PRC [MOE] stipulated that the insitutions' sport teams should be separated from high–level sport teams. In this study, the subject of research didn't include sport universities or colleges from the 1980s to present.

Table 0-1Main Characteristics of Student Athlete and Athlete Student

		A.S.			
Index	S.A.	D A C	I.A.S.		
		R.A.S.	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3
First identity	Student	Athlete	Athlete	Athlete	Athlete
Education	Con.	Discon.	Discon.	Discon.	Discon.
E&T&M	Univ.	Univ.	S.P. team	S.P. team	Univ.
Main living place	Univ.	Univ.	Univ.	S.P. team	Univ.
Leaning place	Univ.	Univ.	Univ.	S.P. team	Univ.
Training place	Univ.	No training	Univ.	S.P. team	Univ.
The sporting level	Low-level	-	High-level	High-level	High-level

Note. 1) The data was collated from Chen Xi, et al. (2002, p. 20).

²⁾ A.S. = Athlete student; S.A. = Student athlete; R.A.S. = Retired athlete student; I.A.S. = In–service athlete student; Con. = Continuous; Discon. = Discontinued; E&T&M = Provider of education, training and management; Univ. = University; S.P. team = Special purpose team.

As athlete student underwent the experience as special purpose athlete who had distinctive advantages in the sporting level compared with student athlete after the 1950s, the inter–collegiate games implemented the group–based system, separating sport universities or colleges from other participants in the University Games of the PRC since 1982.

The definition of periods

This study chose three periods for the analysis of university and college sport in China. The first period was from the 1890s to 1937. The 1890s was the time when modern higher education institutions emergence in China. It signified the formation of university and college sport. This period ended in 1937 when the Sino-Japanese War broke out in the entire sense. The second period was from the 1950s to 1970s, also known as the Age of Mao. It began as the CPC took the power of the country and socialism spread across all social aspects. Although in 1978 "The Third Plenary Session of the 11th Central Committee of the Communist Party of China" implemented the policy of the Reform and Opening Up ("改革 开放", gaige kaifang), which symbolized the beginning of a new era, the China's society was still heavily influenced by the Cultural Revolution of 1966 to 1976. Therefore, the second period ended in the 1970s. The third period was from the 1980s to present, which was called the times of the Reform and Opening Up. In the early 1980s, a series of policies were made and implemented by the government. They guided the reform and development of sport. In this period, university and college sport entered a new stage of development.

Chapter 1 Sport in China's universities and colleges from the 1890s to 1937

1.1 The introduction of modern Western sport into China

1.1.1 The period of introduction

After the Opium War of 1939 to 1842, some physical activities form the West were introduced into trading ports in China. Until the 1890s, the concepts of physical education or sport were alien to Chinese who had no way to distinguish these kinds of words: physical activities, training, exercise, athletic, play, game, etc. That was to say that "there were no words in the Chinese vocabulary which correspond to the Western terms of 'sport' and 'physical education'" (Jarvie & Brennan, 2008, p. 1). Therefore, the period when sport was introduced into China was widely debated among certain scholars who focused on studying China's sport. Some researchers thought that it was introduced in the mid-19th Century (Gu & Yang, 1981, p. 295; Wang & Liang, 2000, p. 21; Hao, 2006, pp. 278 – 280). In "History of China's Sport" by Gu & Yang (1981), it argued that the process of the Western sport introduction and initial development in China approximately began during the Westernization Movement, took shape in the Hundred Days' Reform, and started its formal popularization in the late Qing Reform (p. 295). However, some other studies asserted that the period of introduction of the Western sport into China was as early as the Opium War of 1839 – 1840 (Luo, 2005, p. 30). A few Chinese people learnt about the Western sport through the Western

businessmen and missionaries in the trading ports of China before the War. Hunter (1911) confirmed that:

I[i]n the year 1837 the younger members of the thirteen Factories established the Canton Regatta Club. For pulling matches we had scores of wherries and gigs, and for sailing.... I again sailed the Gipsy, winning the cup by nine minutes ten seconds. It took us to cover a triangular course of 25 miles four hours.... Our first races were an out–and–out surprise to the Canton people, as the creation of the club was a nightmare to the Hong merchants. More or less apprehension of accidents is traceable to the Chinese term for competing with boats, viz., Tow–sam–pan, literally 'fighting boats', while in the ignorance of racing amongst the local Chinese, they inferred battles with oars and boat hooks. (pp. 276 – 277)

Despite the controversies on the period of introduction of the Western sport, most researchers agreed that it was a gradual process and corresponds to the intellectual movement that influenced the modernization of China. It was a process from natural to necessary, passive reception to proactive learning, and it was first in the form of military practice, then as part of the curriculum of schools (Luo, 2008; Jarvie & Brennan, 2008). At the end of 19th and the early 20th Century, China's modern school system was formed and sport entered on a large scale.

1.1.2 Two major ways of introduction

The Western sport was introduced into China by means of two chief ways. One was external intervention which was shown as passive reception. There were, in traditional China's culture, also diverse types of physical activities such as health exercise, breathing exercise (*dao yin*), and martial arts in various sects. The activities emphasized cultivation, peaceful heart and slow movement rather than competition against an opponent to win.

Because sport was not the culturally breed in China, and did not develop physical activities that were similar to the Western sport. Therefore, the intervention of external power was undoubtedly the way in which sport was imported. It was implemented by the Western agents including missionaries, traders, soldiers, administrators and diplomats who were the first group of people taking part in sport in China.

In trading ports, the foreigners gradually started sports such as boat rowing, horse racing, tennis, football, athletics, and swimming. In Shanghai in the 1860s, "a[A]fter the devastation wrought by the Taiping Rebellion in the vicinity of Shanghai, game became more plenteous than ever" (Pott, 1928, p. 86). Horse racing, for instance, the popular sport in ports, opened the first racecourse in Shanghai by British traders in 1848, spring and autumn of every year (Jarvie & Brennan, 2008, p. 13). Horse racing spread to other cities which were trading ports. Another example of the sports was at the Tientsin Race Club, "It opened in

Tianjin the French settlement in 1863. Meanwhile, in Tianjin the British settlement held the first horse racing competition near Haiguang Temple" (Rasmussen, 1925, p. 305).

In the book of "Foreign Devils in the Flowery Kingdom", Crow (2007) explained the reasons why the Western engaged in sport and leisure in trading ports in China:

So far as amusements were concerned the foreigners were left to their own resources just as they had been on board ship. They had the choice of growing morbid and melancholy through boredom and loneliness or organizing games, tournaments and parties which would help them to pass the time in the long waits between faces and letters from home.... The organization of sports and establishment of multitudinous clubs followed. They were a social necessity for it was only through them that the human contacts provided by friends and relatives and acquaintances at home could be established. (p. 259)

Although sport came into existence in foreign settlements, Chinese people were not allowed to participate (Li, 1992, p. 218). "Many local people were not allowed to enter the club and could only watch races from the outside" (Jarvie & Brennan, 2008, p. 13). Sport, accordingly, did not spread outside these settlements and this prevented the spreading of sport in China before the 1870s.

As soon as one city was opened as a trading port, it became a center of Protestant Missionary workers as well as trade (Pott, 1928, p. 85). They built churches, hospitals and

schools. Some missionary schools enrolled students who came from poor families. In these schools the missionaries would teach physical activities and organized play. "The boys and girls learnt to play Chinese and foreign games" (Jerome, 1979, p. 122). In the Western world, physical education and sport developed with schools. The introduction of sport naturally left the task of physical training to schools (You, 2012, p. 57). Missionary schools, therefore, were the first to spread sport to Chinese people. The history of the development of missionary schools also demonstrated the spreading of modern sport in China (Hao, 1927a; Wee, 1937, pp. 6 – 7; Chen, 2007, p. 23). Jarvie & Brennan (2008) pointed out that:

The missionary schools and colleges initially had no formal physical training courses but they did promote extracurricular forms of sport and as such were part of the incipient development of sport in modern China. While the development of sport in China is often attributed to the development of Western imperialism, it is crucial not to underestimate the part played by China in the making of its own history of sport. (p. 12)

The other way was internal fermentation which was shown as active reform. Since the 1860s and 1870s, the Westernization Movement sprang up from the Western countries. One of the main components of the movement was to found a number of language, technology and military academics, which had a strong impact on China's traditional education system.

In those academics, the teaching methods and approaches were distinctly different from

China's traditional educational methods. With the Movement extended in China, the Western sport was introduced in various ways such as sending China's students abroad and establishing types of academics. "The generation of 'returned' students of the 1870s broke away from Confucian restraints by learning to sing and engage in sports" (Jerome, 1979, p. 158). From the 1860s to 1890s, certain military academics brought in drills/gymnastics from Germany and France, and started a course similar to physical activities which was called military practice ("兵式操演", *bingshi caoyan*) in order to train soldiers. *Jiangnan* Naval Academy, for instance, regulated that apart from learning military knowledge, Jin (2000) described that the students must go to the playground and do jumping and climbing after school every day to strengthen the body (p. 118). Military academies employed teachers from Britain, France, Germany and Japan who taught all kinds of physical activities including lining—up, targeting, tactics, swimming and racing.

Bingcao at that time was varied. The new army started by the Westernization

Movement started to train students through British military practice. As the Westernized army was almost wiped out in the Sino–Japanese War of 1894 – 1895, the late Qing Dynasty reorganized the army and hired German soldiers as coaches (China Society of History of Physical Education and Sport, 1989, p. 26). Due to the military needs, gymnastics was brought in. Nevertheless, the neglect of physical activities was a common phenomenon (Sang, 2007, p. 47). Taking Fuzhou Naval Academy for example, China Society of History (1973)

described that students were weak and small, and they had neither spirit nor ambition. To some extent, they were feminine.... After class, they wandered around or did homework. They never did sport and knew nothing about entertainment (pp. 389 – 391). The lack of understanding of sport connotation was due to the limitations of traditional culture. Later on, in the early stage of sport development, higher education institutions often had to resort to compulsion to force students to participate in sport.

After the Sino—Japanese War of 1894 – 1895, Chinese intellectuals such as Kang Youwei, Liang Qichao and Tan Sitong called bourgeois reformists led the development of China's thought, the reformists emphasized on the theory of body and actively introduced the Western sport. They were deeply influenced by the Meiji Reform in Japan and followed it by introducing sport concepts and terminology such as "体操" (ticao), "体育" (tiyu), "运动" (yundong), which promoted people to understand what sport was. They discussed sport for strength of the individual and the nation as well. The bourgeois reformists paid special emphasis on ticao which directly influenced the regulations of "体操科" (ticao ke) in the late Qing Dynasty and hence reformed the education system.

1.2 An exploration and analysis of sport in universities and colleges

1.2.1 The appearance of higher education institutions

China's modern higher education institution was distinctly different from its ancient counterpart. It did not grow and transform form the basis of ancient institution rather than

was built on the blueprint of modern Western. Because there was no higher education institution in the modern sense in China, the development of it followed the model of setting rules before building university (Wang & Zhu, 2010, p. 10). There were gradually established in the process of learning from the West. Tracing the appearance of China's modern higher education institution, it was found that the military academy and the technology academy were considered to introduce institutions in the Westernization Movement after the 1860s.

In the 1890s, higher education insitution in China developed in two ways resulting in the existence of two classes¹⁴: state-run institution ("官办", guanban) and those operated by Christian missions. Peiyang University (established 1895), founded by Sheng Xuanhuai in Tianjin, was considered to have been the first university in the sense of modern China.¹⁵ Although China's insitution of the 1890s displayed few of the characteristics of modern university, state-run adopted curricula from the Western model of institutions from the very beginning, and their offered multiple courses designed to nurture talent. This emergence of university and college, however, did not mean that higher education institution had been established in China. Aside from the state-run, the other type of institution in China was mission college or university, these institutions were regarded for a long time as a part of the imperialist cultural aggression (Li, 1987, pp. 2-9; Li & Gu, 1982, pp. 3-4). Since the 1980s, however, some China's scholars have started to look at missionary schools from other perspectives and have argued that missionary—led institution was more than just a tool of the

imperialist 'invasion' into China, but rather something that also served to impart a deep influence on the development of institution in China. As such, these missionary schools should be thought of as an integral part of China's higher education insitutions (Wu, 1995; 2009, pp. 43 – 53; Ren, 2002, pp. 293 – 308).

Chronologically speaking, Christian higher education institutions appeared before state—run ones. Some missionary schools were upgraded to colleges in the 1880s. As Tao (2009) stated that "the earliest Christian college was established in Tengchou, Shangtung in 1882 when the American Presbyterian Calvin W. and Julia Matteer developed his boarding school to the college level" (pp. 81 – 87). Most of Christian universities and colleges were the result of merging secondary—level Christian institutions, although some mission schools called themselves universities from the very beginning. The Methodist University of Peking was one such example, the establishment of which was described by Lutz (1971):

With the organization of a board of trustees in New York and incorporation under New York state law in 1890, Peking University¹⁶ officially came into existence. In addition to a preparatory school and an industrial school, the three major divisions were the College of Liberal Arts, Wiley College of Theology, and the College of Medicine. The first class of five graduated in 1892. (p. 31)

Other mission higher education institutions emerged in similar situations. St. John's College, for example, formed its first college curriculum in 1890, but it only had six students

enrolled by 1894 (Zheng, 1994, p. 176). Therefore, as Lutz (1971) stated that "Many other mission schools were established during middle of the 19th Century; some were called colleges or universities, and some later to develop into colleges. But none offered a full college course before 1900" (p. 33).

After 1900, having experienced the shock to its national pride and a faltering monarchy, China began to see increasingly rapid change in mission higher education (Fenn, 1994, p. 3). Institutions such as Soochow University (established 1901) and St. John's University changed their names and status to university and accordingly established systems into which the characteristics of modern Western institutions had been built. This made them increasingly attractive to students, who enrolled in ever larger numbers. Therefore, it could be argued that mission—led institution did not truly establish itself in China before the 20th Century.

Eventually, most Christian universities and colleges were transformed from secondary–level mission schools (ages 13 – 18) and many changed their names and addresses as part of this process. As a result, it could be difficult for researchers to determine the exact date of the founding of Christian institutions and to establish which was the earliest in China (He & Shi, 1996, p. 164). For this reason, there were difficulties in determining the exact date of the emergence of university and college in China. On a practical level, it could be said that it began to emerge in the 1890s.

Table 1-1 $Establishment\ of\ the\ Early\ Universities\ and\ Colleges\ in\ China$

Institution	Founded	Location	Туре
St. John's College	1879	Shanghai	Christian
Canton Christian College	1893	Guangdong	Independent
Peiyang University	1895	Tianjin	National
Nanyang University	1897	Shanghai	Provincial
Imperial University of Peking	1898	Beijing	National
Soochow University	1901	Suzhou	Christian
Aurora University	1903	Shanghai	Roman Orthodox Church
Tsinghua College	1911	Beijing	Ministry of Foreign Affair

Note. The data was collated from Woodhead (Ed.). (1927, pp. 434a – 434b).

1.2.2 The influence factors of university and college sport

The 19th Century was a period when China's society underwent a strong coalition of intellectual movements. Pluralism deeply impacted on university and college sport and pushed the transformation of Chinese concept of body. As Luo (2008) argued that modern Western sport gradually occupied the main position in the history of sport and became the mainstream of the development of sport in modern China. The different influences of social intellectual movements undoubtedly played a big role in the historical sense (p. 8).

Specifically, there were two factors influence on China's sport such as Militarism, the Young Men's Christian Association [YMCA].

Militarism

Militarism emerged in the early 20th Century in China which was directly introduced by a group of international students studying in Japan (Pan, 1989; Luo, 2005, p. 34). Fen Hesheng (1902), who was studying in Japan, wrote "*The Chapter of Militarism*" in which first proposed the thought of Militarism. He pointed out that imperialism actually took its root in Militarism, since the inner power was superfluous, it had to spill and flow outward (Fen, 1902, p. 80). Afterwards, Jiang Baili (1902) wrote about the details of measures of implementing Militarism. He stated that all organizations in society should be arranged according to the military laws; all departments of national defense should be constructed with

a military perspective; social spirits, customs and habits should all be filled with the spirit of soldiers (pp. 34 - 35).

The measures in Jiang's description promoted Militarism in schools which brought the once ignored physical training to the school's attention. Following this, in 1906 the Education Ministry of the late Qing Dynasty handed in a memorial concerning publicizing the purpose of education, it reported that all textbooks used in primary and middle schools should include Militarism.... As to the *ticao ke*, children could develop their body with games of *ticao*, elder students should practice *bingcao* in order to enforce strict discipline. Student should be encouraged to obey the order and nourish seriousness and form complete character (Shu, 1961, p. 223).

It was specifically required that the *ticao ke*, with *bingcao* as its major content, be taught in all kinds of schools on all levels. After the founding of the Republic of China [RC], Cai Yuanpei was appointed head of the Education Ministry. As an active advocate and practitioner of Militarism Cai (1912) officially proposed the concept of the Militarism education and put forward the opinion that Militarism was sport (Cai, 1912). In 1915 the key notion of education pointed out that the way of promoting Militarism was divided into two aspects, defending body and defending country (Shu, 1961, p. 251). It showed that sport and physical education was included in Militarism.

The emergence of sport in modern China was endowed with an extremely strong social value and political effect. No matter it was for the late Qing Dynasty or the RC, sport had been a method to train the individuals and strengthen the national power. The intellectual movement of Militarism emphasized physic, and based on the body physical education quickly integrated with it. Under the modern education system, Militarism established the direction of the development of sport in the early 20th Century. Huang Jinlin (2006) argued that from the perspective of the situation after 1902, the intellectual movement of Militarism not only gradually showed the tendency toward institutional development, but also made all kinds of physical activities become a subject in the formal education (p. 51). In all kinds of physical activities, bingcao was chosen as the content of the ticao ke. As Hu (1916) pointed out that fragile children were in lack of suitable exercises whereas the exercise of bingcao was just the remedy for it (pp. 29 - 30). Bingcao became the main content of school physical activities.

As the above chronology showed, sport in China gradually spread from schools to the broader society and the influences of sport also expanded progressively in the late Qing Dynasty and the era of the RC. Competitively fought sporting events, including the Far East Games and the National Games, encouraged the nation to realize the value of sport. In the 1890s, some Chinese thinkers such as Yan Fu and Liang Qichao advocated social Darwinism which emphasized the militarization of national spirit and physical training. Indeed, the

government of the RC trumpeted Militarism education ("军国民教育", *jun guomin jiaoyu*) as the guiding philosophy of the educational system. This resulted in the official promotion of forms of sport influenced by Militarism and social Darwinism (Lu, 2011).

After the promulgation of "The *Renxu* Education System" ("壬戌学制", *renxu xuezhi*) in 1922, it was determined that *ticao* which had become so heavily influenced by the intellectual movement of Militarism, was to be abandoned. In its place, athletics and ball games became the main constituents of physical education in institution. However, some scholars in the 1930s even proposed the concept of "using sport to save the nation" ("体育救国", *tiyu jiuguo*) (Wang, 1933; Liu, 1935a, 1935b; Qian, 1937), linking sport, national identity and national survival very closely. This slogan, "using sport to save the nation", was used to convey Militarism.

In the first two decades of 20th Century, physical activities in China's university and college were deeply influenced by Militarism. The course of *ticao* was commonly implemented in institutions. Its main content was *bingcao* and its aim was training soldiers. The education content was boring and most instructors of *ticao* were actually military instructors, which made university and college sport a method of physical training in the early 20th Century.

The Young Men's Christian Association

In the book "*The History of YMCA Physical Education*", Elmer (1979) described sport work of the Young Men's Christian Association [YMCA] in China in the 1910s.

Dr. Max J. Exner arrived in China in 1908 to take over the work of the physical department in the new Shanghai Association; his arrival marked the real beginning of physical education in China. He immediately established a two—year physical training course for fledgling physical directors and started a first aid class for interested YMCA members.... By 1910 Exner had acquired an athletic field on the outskirts of the city, and it was here that a qualifying meet was held that summer to select athlete for the National Athletic Games at Nanking¹⁷.... The games were witnessed by some ten thousand spectators, and it could be said that such meets undoubtedly did much to lay the groundwork for the success of the Far Eastern Games in Manila three years later. (p. 146)

From the above description, it could be seen that the YMCA acted as a lead for sport to spread throughout China in the end of 19th Century and it played a pivotal role in China's modern sport developments in the early of 20th Century (Xu, 2008, p. 26). The YMCA's students played a leading role in promoting and organizing sports for themselves, which became success.

The organization of athletic meets by the YMCA was influenced on university and collegiate sport in these periods. For instance, the YMCA "[O]organized athletics among the Chinese date from the present century, and have been mainly fostered by the Y.M.C.A. Two athletic meets at Shanghai and Tientsin, were held in 1904, the latter being an Inter–collegiate event, in which three colleges participated" (Montague & Woodhead, 1916, p. 688). In 1915, Chinese government requested that the YMCA organize departments of physical education at five universities (Luo, 2008, p. 107; Guttman, 2002, pp. 206 – 208).

1.3 The expression of university and college sport in games

1.3.1 In the early athletic meets

Early athletic meets (before the 1910s) put an emphasis on the reshaping of the spirit of athletes in China. Put simply, it did not matter who won or what rank was achieved (Zhuang, 1909; Hou, 1909; Hou, 1909). These athletic meets were meant to uplift the spirit of the nation. The intended focus was to train strong bodies for the nation or to save the nation and to strengthen the race. Most meets were established by schools for Chinese people in some places. For instance Peiyang Official Newspaper (1903) described that Hangzhou middle school set sport association for teaching student physical skill (p. 84). Sichuan Official Newspaper (1904) reported that schools in Mianzhu focused on gymnastics.... Principals would discuss sport affairs one or two times each week (p. 6). Hubei Normal College held games in 1903 (Shun Pao, 1903, June 14). The First Imperial University of Peking Athletic

Meets (Shun Pao, 1905, June 5). China College ("中国公学", *zhongguo gongxue*) held the first athletic meets in 1907 (Shun Pao, 1907, Oct 28). Additionally, Inter–collegiate athletic meets were launched and held by Suzhou (Shun Pao, 1907, May 21) and Hubei in 1907 (Shun Pao, 1907, Aug 19), Hangzhou in 1908 (Shun Pao, 1908, Oct 22), and Soochow University (Peiyang Official Newspaper, 1909). These early athletic meets were track and field games (See the Table 1 – 2), and more like a demonstration of skill, but as sport techniques and skill improved they gradually became more competition—like.

Table 1 – 2

Soochow University Spring Athletic Meets (1907)

Events	Champion	
100 Yard	Zhang Juquan	
Pole Vault	Qiu Changyun	
220 Yard	Zhang Juquan	
Jump	Qiu Changyun	
440 Yard	Yu Rongguang	
Hammer	Zhang Juquan	
Hurdle	Wang Zhengde	
Shot	Zhang Juquan	
880 Yard	Yu Rongguang	

Note. The data was collated from Shun Pao. (1907, May 16).

1.3.2 In the Far East Games and the Olympic Games

In the 1910s, China's university and college sport began to increase in scale with athletes participating in the national and even international games. Through the wider dissemination of sport, joint advocacy and initiation by the YMCA, two such representative games were the Far East Games and the Olympic Games. The performance of China's athletes in these Games could be considered a reflection of China's sporting level at that time. It was also possible to identify the shared characteristics of those who participated in sport in China by examining the identities and the professional characteristic of the athletes of those times.

The Far East Games (1913 – 1934), also known as the Far Eastern Championships, were launched by the YMCA in the Philippines, Japan and China. The Games were held 11 times in total, although in 1934 they ceased to be held for political reasons. The Far East Games were the first inter–regional games and were the precursor to the modern–day Asian Games. Some of the research and discussion in China on the Far East Games had concentrated on descriptions of what was witnessed at the games (Xiehe Bao, 1914; Cheng, 1917; Zhan, 1919; Weng, 1921; Huang, 1923; Huang, 1925), on the analysis of the causes of the failure of China's athletes to perform well (Wu, 1917; Ren, 1917; Wu, 1930), and on explanations of the impact of the Far East Games on the state and the ethnic in China (Ren, 1917; Xie, 1925). Few researchers have focused on the identities and the professions of the athletes themselves. However, it had been possible to establish by analyzing the identities of

China's athletes in the Far East Games that they were mostly collegiate athletes. Those who won games were almost all athletes from institutions. For instance, In the first Far East Games, Truth Pictorial (1913) reported that of the 36 athletes from China, nine came from Tsinghua College and Peking University in Beijing, nine from Jinling University in Nanjing, Nanyang College and St John's University in Shanghai, and the Shanghai YMCA, and 18 from Nanwu School in Guangzhou, the Guangzhou YMCA, Hong Kong University, and Nanhua Sports Association in Hong Kong (p. 1). The China's athletes who took part were mostly affiliated with Christian institutions and the YMCA that maintained a sporting tradition. There was little change to this situation throughout the first five Far East Games held before 1923. The *Renxu* Education System in 1922, partially modified regulations on sport for institutions. As a result, between the fifth and the 10th Far East Games, some national and private institutions started to shine and achieved excellent results. Although the performance of China's athletes in the Far East Games gradually waned, Ruan Weicun (1934) pointed out that the Far East Games propelled the development of China's sport in both direct and indirect ways, and that the majority of athletes who took part in the Far East Games were collegiate students (p. 3).

As a result of the efforts of the China National Amateur Athletic Federation [CNAAF],
China participated in the Olympic Games in 1932, 1936 and 1948. In the 1932 Los Angeles
Olympic Games, Liu Changchun, a graduate from Northeast University in Shenyang, was the

only Chinese athlete to take part. By the 1936 Berlin Olympic Games, China had put together a huge team for the Games, a veritable fleet of 66 athletes who participated in soccer, basketball, track and field, swimming, weightlifting, race walking and cycling. Taking the track and field team, in "*The Official Report of Chinese representative for the Berlin Olympic Games*" the CNAAF (1937) reported that of the 23 athletes, 19 were collegiate students or graduated and the identitied of the other four were now unknown. Except for Fu Baolu who advanced to the semi–final in the pole vault, none of the athletes managed to pass the qualifying round (pp. 54 – 58). It showed that there was still a significant gap between the competitive ability of leading China's athletes with that of elite international athletes.

Table 1 – 3

China's Track and Field Athletes at the 1936 Berlin Olympic Games

Events	Name	Profession	Institution
100m	Fu Jincheng	Business	_
100m	Liu Changchun (Graduate)	Official	N.E.U.
100m	Cheng Jinguan	Student	S.U.
100m	Li Sen	Student	S.S.C.
110m Hurdles	Lin Shaozhou (Graduate)	Official	X.M.U.
110m Hurdles	Huang Yingjie	Student	S.Y.S.U.
400m	Dai Shuguo	Student	X.M.U.
800m; 1500m	Jia Lianren	Student	S.S.S.C.
50km Race Walk	Cai Zhengyi	Business	_
50km Race Walk	Zhou Yuyu (Graduate)	Business	U.S.H.
50km Race Walk	Zhang Zaojiu	Business	_
50km Race Walk	Zheng Chengshan	Student	_
Marathon	Wang Zhenglin	Student	_
Decathlon	Zhou Changxing	Student	N.E.U.
Discus	Leng Peigen	Student	U.N.K.
Discus	Guo Jie	Student	F.Y.U.
Jump	Wu Bixian (Graduate)	Official	F.J.C.U.
Pole Vault	Fu Baolu (Graduate)	Business	J.N.U.
Triple Jump	Wang Shilin	Student	P.S.S.C.
Shot Put; Discus	Chen Baoqiu	Business	_
High Jump; Triple Jump	Situ Guang	Student	L.N.U.
High Jump; Triple Jump	Zhang Jiaxie	Student	S.S.S.C.
High Jump; Javelin	Hao Chunde	Student	S.U.

Note. 1) The data was collated from China National Amateur Athletic Federation [CNAAF]. (1937, pp. 54 - 58).

2) N.E.U. = Northeast University; S.U. = Soochow University; S.S.C. = Southeast Sport College; X.M.U. = Xiamen University; S.Y.S.U. = Sun Yat—Sen University; S.S.S.C. = Shanghai Sport Specialist College; U.S.H. = University of Shanghai; U.N.K. = University of Nanking; F.Y.U. = Feng Yong University; F.J.C.U. = Fu Jen Catholic University; J.N.U. = Jinan University; P.S.S.C. = Peking Sport Specialist College; L.N.U. = Lingnan University.

1.3.3 In the national games

For the first 10 years after the founding of the RC (1912 – 1922), the education system in place still required that *ticao* (体操) be the main constituent of physical education and sport in China's higher education institutions. However, the national and the regional games continued to be held under the influence of the YMCA and the active organization and advocacy of sport activists (Wu, 1956). The Shanghai YMCA launched and organized the Chinese National Games which were promoted and organized by the Western delegates running that the YMCA (Hao, 1933). In the sports meets, "only Chinese athletes will be allowed to compete" (The North China Herald, 1910, Sept 30). The following program had been arranged:

1. A field and track meet for teams representing the following sections of China: North China, Hankow and Wuchang, Nanking and Soochow, Shanghai and South China. 2. A field and track meet for middle school teams representing the above five sections. 3. An Inter–Collegiate field and track meet. This will be by colleges, not by sections. It will bring together the strongest athletic institutions in the empire. 4. A national tennis tournament. Any player representing some institution or club might enter. 5. A national football tournament for teams representing the sections. 6. A national basket–ball tournament. (The North China Herald, 1910, Sept 30, p. 805)

In total 140 athletes took part in, which featured four events: athletics, soccer, tennis and basketball. Athletes who participated were students from mission schools or members of the YMCA (Ruan, 1933). Taking the third (1924) and the fourth (1930) National Games as examples, it was possible to show how the winners of the track and field championships were mostly athletes from higher education institutions. Furthermore, most of the outstanding performances recorded at the Games were from student athletes.

Table 1-4Result of Male Athletics in the Third and the Fourth National Games

Events	The third Nation	rd National Games The fourth National Games		Games
	Name	Institution	Name	Institution
100m	Zhu Baozhang	Unknown	Liu Changchun (Graduate)	N.E.U.
200m	Zhu Baozhang	Unknown	Liu Changchun (Graduate)	N.E.U.
400m	Zhu Baozhang	Unknown	Liu Changchun (Graduate)	N.E.U.
800m	Zhang Heng	S.E.U.	Deng Zhiming	S.S.S.C.
1500m	Zhang Huan–an	B.N.U.	Jiang Yunlong	N.E.U.
5000m	Zhang Jicheng	C.L.U.	_	_
10000m	_	_	Zhao Dexin	N.E.U.
110m	Li Junyao	S.U.	Lin Shaozhou	X.M.U.
200m	Chen Qidong	S.J.U.	Liang Jingping	L.N.U.
Javelin	Yin Shangping	C.L.U.	Pan Nanshun	Unknown
High Jump	Ma Xiangbo	Y.M.S.	Li Zhongsan	Unknown
Discus	Zhang Fengying	_	Zhao Wenzao (Graduated)	B.N.U.
Pole Vault	Xia Xiang	S.E.U.	Fu Baolu	J.N.U.
Shot	Zhang Yinchu	N.K.S.	Pan Nanshun	Unknown
Long Jump	Huang Bingkun	F.D.U.	Hao Chunde	J.N.U.
Triple Jump	Lu Ming	N.K.S.	Situ Guang	L.N.U.
Pentathlon	Wu Demao	S.E.U.	Hao Chunde	J.N.U.
Decathlon	Wu Demao	S.E.U.	Cao Yu	J.N.U.

Note. N.E.U. = Northeast University; S.E.U. = Southeast University; S.S.S.C. = Shanghai Sport Specialist College; C.L.U. = Cheeloo University; S.U. = Soochow University; X.M.U.

⁼ Xiamen University; S.J.U. = St. John's University; Y.M.S. = Yueyun Middle School; B.N.U.

⁼ Beijing Normal University; N.K.S. = Nankai School; J.N.U. = Jinan University; F.D.U. = Fudan University; L.N.U. = Lingnan University.

In the period of the RC, the best representation of regional games was the North China Games, which were held 18 times in total between 1913 and 1934, and had an extensive range of participants (including people from the northeast China in later periods). The initiations, the organizations and the gathering together of the main participants of the North China Games relied upon teachers and athletes from higher education institutions, in all areas of north China (Dong, 1934). The games were initially a joint meets of several schools in Beijing and Tianjin and later developed into a meet that incorporated dozens of schools in all areas of north China. Eventually the North China Games became a large—scale events composed of participants from all provinces and cities in north (Wang, 1934). The first fourteen Games (1913 – 1929) organized participants into university and college groups, whereas from the fifteenth to the eighteenth games, the participating units were organized by province or city.

1.3.4 The Chinese Inter-collegiate Athletic Association

In 1904 to 1923

In the 1900s, sport was widely implemented in Christian university and college, most of which were located in East China with convenient traffic, thus facilitating the inter–collegiate exchange. Therefore, the inter–collegiate sports meets came into being. In 1904, Soochow University, Imperial Polytechnic College (Nanyang College), St. John's College and Anglo–Chinese College founded the Chinese Inter–collegiate Athletic

Association [CIAA]. The North China Herald (1904, Dec 2) described details of the first track sports meets.¹⁹

On the afternoon of Thanksgiving Day, Thursday, the first annual field and track meet of the Chinese Inter–Collegiate athletic association was held at St. Joho's College, Jessfield.... These four institutions are the present members of the association, which was organized on the third of last April, when a constitution and working regulations were formulated to govern the meetings of the association. Although at presents the gatherings for Spartan pastimes are confined to the institutions in this immediate vicinity, it is hoped and confidently believed by its promoters that the association will one day count among its members colleges from the north and south and the up–river regions, and will then also serve its great purpose of bringing the educational elements of the great Empire into that closer touch which is needed to inspire the patriotic community of interests now so conspicuously absent. (p. 1244)

The first inter–collegiate athletic meets held 11 events altogether, which laid solid foundation for the later meets. St. John's got 56 points and won the championship, Soochow gained 21 points, Anglo–Chinese College and Nanyang College gained 12 points and 10 points respectively. The detailed results were shown in the Table 1-5.

Table 1 – 5

Result of the First Athletics Meets of the CIAA

Events	Record	Champion	Institution
100 Yards' Dash	11 1/5 secs	Tsu Yen-yu	S.J.C.
Putting 12–Ib. Shot	32 ft. 3 ins	Dan Sing-san	S.J.C.
880 Yards' Dash	2mins. 36 1/5 secs	Van Yung-chen	S.U.
Running High Jump	4 ft. 8 ins	Wong Zo-dong	A.C.C.
220 Yards' Dash	26 secs	Tsu Yen-yu	S.J.C.
Throwing 12–Ib. Hammer	80 ft. 9 ins	Dan Sing-san	S.J.C.
120 Yards' Hurdles	19 1/5 secs	Wong Yoong	N.Y.C.
Running Board Jump	16 ft. 5 ins	Dan Sing-san	S.J.C.
440 Yards' Race	66 secs	Van Yung-chen	S.U.
Pole Vault	6 ft. 11 ins	Yen Kung-zen	A.C.C.
Half–Mile Relay	2 mins. 7 secs	St. John's College	

Note. 1) The data was collated from the North China Herald. (1904, Dec 2).

²⁾ The unit of the records was in English units.

³⁾ secs = seconds; ft = foot; ins = inches; mins = minutes.

⁴⁾ S.J.C. = St. John's College; S.U. = Soochow University; N.Y.C. = Nanyang College;

A.C.C. = Anglo-Chinese College.

In 1906, the CIAA held its third Annual meeting in Soochow. The institutions participating were the Imperial Polytechnic College (Nanyang College), St. John's University, Anglo–Chinese College, the meets attracted many spectators to watch. The North China Herald (1906, Nov 23) described that:

About one hundred and sixty students went up to Soochow on the tug line from Shanghai on Thursday evening and arrived at the Soochow University grounds at 9 a.m. on Friday.... In the afternoon about two thousand Chinese visitors (as nearly as could be estimated) were on the field, and there was no crowding or interference in any way.

(p. 428)

Finally, St. John's Colleges won the championship as 36 points. Imperial Polytechnic College gained 30 points, Anglo–Chinese College was 18, and Soochow was 18 points. In 1908, the Fifth Annual Field and Track Meet of the CIAA was held on the grounds of St. John's University on Thursday, May 14. St. John's won the championship as 54 points. The results were shown in the Table 1-6.

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Table 1 − 6

Result of the Fifth Annual Field and Track Meet of the CIAA

Events	Record	Champion	Institution
100 Yards' Dash	11 1/5secs	Liang Ju-chin	I. P. C.
Putting 12–Ib. Shot	33 ft. 6 ins	Tang Yung-ping	I. P. C.
880 Yards' Run	2, 22 1/5 secs	Moo Yah–oen	S. J. C.
Running High Jump	5 ft. 1 1/4 ins	Wong Zo-dong	A. C. C.
220 Yards' Dash	25, 1/5secs	Liang Ju-chin	I. P. C.
Throwing 12–Ib. Hammer	104 ft. 1 ins	Huang Hao	I. P. C.
120 Yards' Hurdles	16 1/5 secs	Phen Vung-hwen	S. J. C.
Running Board Jump	19 ft. 3 1/4 ins	Phen Vung-hwen	S. J. C.
440 Yards' Race	soes 09	Moo Yah–oen	S. J. C.
Pole Vault	9ft. 5 ins	Chang Ching-ling	I. P. C.
Relay Race 1/2 Mile	1min 47 2/5	Wei Hyien-tsang, Phen Vung-hwen, Yih Kwe-foh, Moo Yah-oen	S. J. C.

Note. 1) The data was collated from The North China Herald. (1908, May 16).

²⁾ The unit of the records was in English units.

³⁾ $\sec s = \sec s$ min = $\sin s = \sin s$, $\sin s = \sin s$

⁴⁾ S.J.C. = St. John's College; S.U. = Soochow University; I.P.C. = Imperial Polytechnic College (Nanyang College); A.C.C. = Anglo-Chinese College.

From the above results of athletics meets of the CIAA, it had been that the athletic skills of St. John's were superior to those of other institutions. In 1909, Soochow University, Anglo–Chinese College and Nanyang College withdrew from the CIAA, which announced to break up. Despite this, the Inter–collegiate sports were also frequent after 1909, such as the tennis and football match between Nanyang College and Soochow University. "The first football match of the season was held Nov. 1st on the Soochow University grounds. The score was 2 to 1 in favor of Soochow University" (Chen, 1913).

In 1914, the CIAA was replaced by the East China Inter–collegiate Athletic Association [ECIAA]. It included six institutions, St. John's University, Nanyang College, University of Nanking (Jinling University), Shanghai Baptist College (Hujiang University), Hangchow University (Zhijiang University) and Soochow University. The competitions among the ECIAA were quite frequent, included tracks and field, football, tennis, baseball and basketball. These matches were regularly held. Football season (began in 1914) was from November to January in the following year. Tennis and baseball season (began in 1915) was from April to June. Basketball season (began in 1916) was from December to March in the following year. Such competition arrangement affected the competition agenda and system of the Athletic Association of the *Jiangnan* Inter–collegiate Athletic Association [JIAA] which was founded later.

Among the ECIAA, three universities were not in Shanghai (University of Nanking, Hangchow University and Soochow University). For the convenience of the competition, in terms of the rules of the ECIAA, it was usually conducted by groups. The institutions from Shanghai were one group and from other cities were one group. Took the rules of football matches for instance, in 1917, the football competition was divided into two groups. Group A was Nanyang College, St. John's University and Shanghai Baptist College. Group B included University of Nanking, Hangchow University and Soochow University. The competition of Group B was earlier than that of Group A. The winners of Group B entered Group A to take part in the competition. Therefore, the Group A included four institutions altogether. It was divided into two parts again. The winners of these two parts had the final competition. Hangchow of Group B entered Group A and competed with Nanyang; St. John's competed with Soochow (Shun Pao, 1917, Dec 17). The rules of basketball matches were also similar this. In 1921, basketball matches of the ECIAA were grouped into two: in Shanghai and in other cities. St. John's in the former group won. The institutions in other cities included Soochow, St. John's and Soochow strove for the champion. Finally, St. John's won the basketball champion with the points of 34 to 5 (Shun Pao, 1921, Mar 20).

Table 1 – 7

List of Athletic Meets of the ECIAA (1914 to 1923)

Year	Place		Result	
		First	Second	Third
1914	S.U.	S.J.U.	S.U.	N.Y.C.
1915	S.J.U.	S.J.U.	S.U.	N.Y.C.
1916	S.U.	S.J.U.	N.Y.C.	S.U.
1917	H.C.C.	N.Y.C.	S.J.U.	H.C.C.
1918	S.B.C.	N.Y.C. 1.	S.J.U.	S.B.C.
1919	S.J.U.	N.Y.C.	S.J.U.	S.U.
1920	S.U.	_	_	_
1921	S.U.	F.D.C	S.U.	S.J.U.
1923	S.J.U.	S.U.	S.E.U.	_

Note. 1) The data was collated from Shun Pao. (1920, Mar 24; 1923, May 6).

²⁾ The data in 1922 and 1924 were missing. After 1921, because of the participation of Fudan College and Southeast University, the ECIAA had eight institutions.

³⁾ S.U. = Soochow University; S.J.U. = St. John's University; N.Y.C. = Nanyang College; H.C.C. = Hangchow Christian College; S.B.C. = Shanghai Baptist College; F.D.C. = Fudan College; S.E.U. = Southeast University.

Every institutions attached importance to the champion, the Inter–collegiate competition. Therefore, pushed forward the promotion of the athletic skills of each institution. They employed American teachers to guide the students' training, the athletic association of the universities or colleges issued a series of measures and organized the students' training such as Nanyang College.

Formerly, our athletes have not been weaker than those of other associations, but have lacked a trainer who could devote much more of his time and powers to developing them into strong and sturdy athletes.... A very important event to be reported in this connection is the arrival of Mr. Kulp, a graduate of Brown University, a strong and experienced athlete.... His enthusiastic and healthful work of teaching and coaching has already begun.... Because of his zeal in helping the students and his encouraging words, men have come out of their study rooms to practice every afternoon with great interest.... Besides the practice in running, dashing, putting shot, etc., tennis and volley ball are played vigorously. (Bau, 1913, p. 8)

The Jiangnan Inter-collegiate Athletic Association

The organizers of the ECIAA were mostly the Westerner in Christian institutions, and there were much inconvenience in administration. Besides, the universities and colleges founded by the Chinese felt more unsatisfied for sporting rights was monopolized by the Westerners. After the May 30th Movement broke out in 1925 ("五州运动", wusa yundong),

some students and teachers detached from St. John's and created Kwang Hua University. Meanwhile, Nanyang, Fudan, Southeast and other non-Christian institutions announced to retreat from the ECIAA. Furthermore, it was launched by Nanyang College, which advocated the institutions in East China to organize a new athletic association (Zhou, 1929). Subsequently, Fudan, Nanyang, Southeast, The Great China University, Jinan, China College, Kwang Hua, Chizhi founded the Jiangnan Inter-collegiate Athletic Association [JIAA] which announced to end at the eve when Sino-Japan War broke out in 1936. The association had a history of 11 years. The tenet of the JIAA was that advocated and developed sport of institutions in East China, boost the friendliness of sports meets, hold the competition conducive to physical and mental health, and host all kinds of competitions among Inter-collegiate in East China (The charter of the Jiangnan Inter-collegiate Athletic Association, 1926, pp. 1 - 8). The JIAA held the committee meetings regularly, determined the competition regulations and solved the disputes and other problems, thus guaranteeing that each competition sports could be conducted smoothly.

In the 1920s, *the athlete system* of sports meets affected the development of the athletic competition in institutions, the JIAA exerted strict regulations on the learning status of the athletes. The regulations confirmed that the athletes participating in the JIAA should all be amateurs. In terms of the athletes' learning, the regulations pointed out that: 1) athlete should be registered student with one year study and over 12 hours classes every week. Besides,

athlete studying should account for two thirds of the previous semester. 2) The athlete who succeeded in two thirds of their courses. As for those who were not sure whether athlete succeeded or not, the athlete was considered to fail in the courses. 3) The athlete could only attend four kinds of sports every learning year at most (The charter of the *Jiangnan* Inter–collegiate Athletic Association, 1926, pp. 1 - 8).

The JCAA stipulated the sports, competition time and events for male and female.

Nevertheless, the above competitions were not conducted fully. In the first session, there were basketball, baseball, and track and field. In the following year, tennis, football, volleyball and cross—country race were added. However, track and field, baseball, swimming and so on did not promote because of the arrival of the national army in Shanghai. From then on to 1931, female sports and swimming were added. In 1933, all—round sport was added. However, baseball was canceled at this time (Anonymous, 1936).

Table 1 – 8

Matches Season of the JIAA

Sports	Male	Female
Track and field	In the early May	In the early May
Football	November to December	_
Tennis	September to October	September to mid-October
Baseball	May to June	_
Swimming	In September	In September
All–round sport	In the end of October	_
Basketball	February to mid-April	February to mid-April
Volleyball	April to May	April to May
Cross-country race	In the end of October	_

Note. The data was collated from the Charter of the *Jiangnan* Inter–collegiate Athletic Association. (1926, p. 5).

Table 1 – 9 List of Championship of the JIAA (1926 – 1933)

List of Champtoniship of the Jim (1720 - 1737)	- 07(I) (I)70 -	1733)						
Sports	1926, Mar	1926 - 27	1927 - 28	1928 - 29	1929 - 30	1930 - 31	1931–32	1932 - 33
Tennis		K.H.U.	K.H.U.	K.H.U.	G.C.U.	K.H.U.	[1]	M: J.T.U.
	I						[1]	F: N.C.U.
Cross-country race	I	F.D.U.	F.D.U.	J.T.U.	K.H.U.	K.H.U.	N.C.U.	N.C.U.
Football		F.D.U.	A: K.H.U.	A:J.N.U.	A: J.N.U.	J.N.U.	J.N.U.	J.N.U.
	I		B: J.N.U.	B: J.N.U.	B: J.N.U.			
Basketball	A: F.D.U.		J.N.U.	A: K.H.U.	A: J.N.U.	M: C.Z.U.	[3]	M: G.C.U.
	B: F.D.U.	I		B: C.Z.U.	B: J.N.U.	F: J.N.U.	[3]	F: J.N.U.
Volleyball		F.D.U.	F.D.U.	K.H.U.	J.T.U.	M: F.D.U.	[3]	M: F.D.U.
						F: J.N.U.	[3]	F: J.N.U.
Track	F.D.U.	[2]	J.N.U.	J.N.U.	J.N.U.	M: N.C.U.	[3]	M: N.C.U.
		[2]				F: N.C.U.	[3]	F: N.C.U.
Field	F.D.U.	[2]	J.N.U.	J.N.U.	J.N.U.	J.N.U.	[3]	K.H.U.
All-round sport	I	[2]	I	I	I		[3]	K.H.U.
Swimming		[2]				J.N.U.	M: J.N.U.	
	I	[2]	I	I	I		W: J.N.U.	I
Baseball	J.T.U.	[2]	J.T.U.	J.T.U.	J.T.U.	J.T.U.	Ι	Cancel

Shanghai. 3) K.H.U. = Kwang Hua University; G.C.U. = The Great China University; J.T.U. = Jiaotong University; N.C.U. = National Center University; F.D.U. = Fudan University; J.N.U. = Jinan University; C.Z.U. = Chizhi University. 4) A = Group A; B = Group B; M = Male; F = Note. 1) The data was collated from the Charter of the Jiangnan Inter-collegiate Athletic Association. (1926, p. 5). 2) [1] The National Army arrived in Shanghai, the Competition were canceled. [2] Mukden Incident, the competition were canceled. [3] The Sino-Japanese War in Female.

1.3.5 The sporting level of higher education institutions

From the 1910s to 1920s, the launch of inter–collegiate sports meets and other sports games pushed the promotion of the sporting level, which demonstrated a sharp contrast with the weak sporting level in institutions in the 1900s. During the period of Militarism, what the schools enhanced was *bingcao* which aimed at military training. Therefore, the athletic level was low.

Ten years ago military training received much attention in Chinese Schools. Of recent years this tendency has given place to a healthy athletic spirit. This change has brought about marvelous results in the physical efficiency of our students. Ten years ago the mile walk was considered a very hard and long race in China, but now our athletes are running ten miles. (Editorial, 1915, p. 2)

In 1913, the China Amateur Athletic Federation began to record officially the highest score of sports meets. It declared the records of each track filed score in 1919 and 1924. The majority of track and field records were created by collegiate students. As a result, university and college sport the 1910s and 1920s symbolized the highest–level of China's athletic competition which relied on institutions for self–development.

Table 1 – 10

A List of the Records Made Official (1919)

Year	Place	Event	Record	School
1914	Tientsin	100 – yard dash	_	Tangshan Engineering
1918	Hangchow		_	Nanyang
1913	Peking	220 – yard dash	_	Tsinghua
1919	Shanghai		_	Nanyang
1915	Shanghai	440 – yard dash	_	Tungchow Union
1915	Shanghai	Half mile run	_	Tientsin Nankai
1915	Shanghai	One mile run	_	Tientsin Nankai
1918	Paotingfu	3 mile run	_	_
1915	Peking	5 mile run	_	Tungchow Union
1919	Shanghai	120 – yard hurdles	_	Nanyang
1918	Paotingfu	220 – yard hurdles	_	Tungchow Union
_	Soochow	Half mile relay	_	St. John's University
1919	Peking	One mile relay	_	Tsinghua
_	Hangchow	Running broad jump	_	Nanyang
1916	Peking	Running high jump	5'9"	T'tsin Anglo- Chinese
1919	Peking	Pole vault	10'9"	Tsinghua
1919	Taiyuanfu	12 – Ib shot put	42'5 1/	Tsinghua
			2"	
1919	Shanghai	Discus throw	104'10"	Nanyang
1919	Peking	Javelin throw	132'1"	Peking University
1918	Peking	Hop, skip and jump	41'11"	Peking Normal
1918	Paotingfu	Pentathlon	345	Peking Normal
1919	Taiyuanfu	Decathlon	709	Peking Normal

Note. 1) The data was collated from Fong. (1919, pp. 950 - 951).

3) The unit of the records was in English units.

^{2) &}quot;Records made by Chinese athlete since 1913 were officially recognized at a meeting of delegates from all over the country meeting in Shanghai to form the Chinese National Amateur Athletic Association. The meeting was held at the Chinese Yong Men's Christian Association on November 19" (Fong, 1919, p. 950).

In the 1920s, "among the sports now most popular in Chinese schools are the following.... That in time Chinese students will be able to hold their own in world competition is also now recognized and is in part shown by the following records which are far better than those of a few years ago" (Woodhead, 1924, p. 249 – 250). From the Table 1 – 11, it showed that almost records were created by students who came from universities, colleges, schools and the YMCA.

Table 1 – 11

Chinese National Amateur Records (1924)

Ω - 1	D1	X/	A 41-1-4-	ייייות	T
Sports	Kecord	Year	Athlete	Place	Institution
100 yd dash	10 2/5"	1914	Li Ju-sung	Peking	T.U.A.C.
		1914	Pan Wen ping	Tungchow	T.H.C.
		1917	J.C. Hwang	Amoy	Amoy YMCA
		1918	Lee Doo-sing	Hangzhou	N.Y.C.
200 yd dash	23 1/5"	1914	Li Ju-sung	Peking	T.U.A.C.
		1917	Wang Wen-ta	Tientsin	N.K.U.
440 yd dash	54"	1915	Li Ju-sun	Peking	T.U.A.C.
1/2 mile run	2,06 2/5"	1915	Kuo Yü-pin	Shanghai	T.N.S.
1 mile run	4'50 4/5"	1915	Kuo Yü-pin	Shanghai	T.N.S.
3 mile run	17'30 3/5"	1920	Shang Chung-i	Peking	T.H.C.
5 mile run	30'10"	1916	Pai Pao-k'un	Peking	T.U.A.C.
8 mile run	49' 30 1/5	1915	Pai Pao-k'un	Peking	T.U.A.C.
120 yd Hurdles	15"	1911	Liu Ming-yi	Peking	T.U.A.C.
130 yd High Hurdles	17 1/5"	1919	Chao Pung	Shanghai	N.Y.C.
220 yd Hurdles	26 3/5"	1918	Sun Hsüeh-tseng	Paotingfu	T.U.A.C.
1/2 mile relay	1,40 2/5"	1914	St. John's University	Soochow	I
Broad jump	21'7"	1918	Lee Dong-Sing	Hangchow	N.Y.C.
Running high jump	2.6.	1922	Ma Hsing-po	Paotingfu	Paotingfu YMCA
Pole Vault	10.9"	1919	Ch'en Ch'ung-wu	Peking	T.H.C.

Hop, step, and jump	41,11"	1918	Chu En-te	Peking	P.T.C.
12 lb. shot put	42,51/2	1919	Meng Chi-mao	Taiyuanfu	T.H.C.
Discus throw	108' 2 5/8"	1923	Tu Jung–t'ang	Osaka	Hankow YMCA
Javelin throw	132' 1 1/2"	1920	Hsiao Chan-chia	Peking	Paotingfu YMCA
Pentathlon	345	1918	Chu En-te	Peking	P.T.C.
Decathlon	720	1920	Shih Chao-han	Peking	T.H.C.

Note. 1) The data was from Woodhead (Ed.). (1924, pp. 249 – 250).

2) The unit of the records was in English units.

3) T.U.A.C. = Tungchow Union Arts College; T.H.C. = Tsing Hua College; N.Y.C. = Nanyang College; N.K.U. = Nankai University; T.N.S. = Tientsin Nankai School; P.T.C. = Peking Teachers College.

1.4 The regulations in university and college sport

After the promulgation of the Education System in 1922, university and college sport was guaranteed with its place in the system. Therefore, many institutions drew up course plans to regulate the development of sport. Due to the greater flexibility of higher education system, there was no mandatory physical education curriculum rather than mainly extra–curricular sport. In this period following 1922, physical education in institutions made a transition from brewing to maturity (Hao, 1927b). In summary, there were three major course plans.

Table 1 – 12University and College Sport under the three Course Plans

Type	Content	Institution
	There were regular sport course for every level each week, which calculation of	Beijing: T.H.U.; Nanjing: S.E.U.; Guangzhou:
Course	marks and acquisition of textbooks were the same as other courses. Sport course	G.D.U.; Shanghai: K.H.U., S.J.U., U.S.H.; Suzhou:
plan 1	was considered one of the compulsory courses.	S.U.; Hangzhou: H.C.U.; Changsha: H.N.U.;
		Chengdu: W.C.U.
	In the semester (except Saturdays and Sundays), all students joined different	Tianjin: N.K.U., B.Y.U.; Guangzhou: L.N.U.;
	sport activities from 4:00 p.m. to 5:30 or 6:00 p.m. every day, except those who	Fujian: F.C.U.; Wuchang: C.U., U.M.; Changsha:
	had illness and asked for leave (The forms of activities were up to the students'	Y.L.U.; Jinan: C.L.U.; Nanjing U.N.K.; Beijing:
Course	choice according to their interests). During the activity period, teachers were	B.T.C., P.U.M.C.; Shanghai: F.D.U., S.C.U.,
plan 2	specially appointed to take turns to give guidance. Absentees would be marked	D.X.U., J.N.U.
	for not attending the course. Although sport activities were considered a	
	compulsory course, most university and college did not give credits.	
	All students took short morning exercise after getting up or had a considerably	Shanghai: N.Y.U., S.U.C., D.T.U.; Fuzhou:
Course	long time for exercising after 4:00 p.m. every day during the semester. However,	X.M.U.; Beijing: P.K.U., B.N.U., Y.C.U.; Taiyuan:
plan 3	this was not a compulsory course. There were coaches for the exercise, who were	S.X.U.
	responsible for training sport teams. Only this training program was restricted to	
,	students who excelled in sporting skills.	

P.U.M.C. = Peking Union Medical College; F.U. = Fudan University; S.C.U. = South China University; D.X.U. = Daxia University; J.N.U. = Jinan University; Tsinghua College; S.E.U. = Southeast University; G.D.U. = Guangdong University; K.H.U. = Kwang Hua University; S.J.U. = St John's University; U.S.H. = University of Shanghai; S.U. = Schoow University; H.C.U. = Hangchow University; H.N.U. = Hunan University; W.C.U. = West China University; N.K.U. = Nankai University; B.Y.U. = Beiyang University; L.N.U. = Lingnan University; F.C.U. = Fujian Concordia University; W.C.U. = Wuchang China University; U.M. = The University of Mandarin; Y.L.U. = Yali University; C.L.U. = Cheeloo University; U.N. = University of Nanking; B.T.C. = Beijing Tax College; *Note*. 1) The data was based upon an investigation of school charters in the fifteenth year of the Republic of China (Hao, 1927b, pp. 1 – 18). 2) T.H.C. = N.Y.U.= Nanyang University; S.U.C. = Shanghai University of Commerce; D.T.U. = Datong University; X.M.U. = Xiamen University; P.K.U. = Peking University; B.N.U. = Beijing Normal University; Y.C.U. = Yenching University; S.X.U. = Shanxi University. Higher education institutions that adopted the course plan one showed a comparatively high sporting level and were strong competitors in all kinds of sports meets. Institutions with the course plan two were ranked second. The course plan three was the lowest ranked. However, the statistics did not take professional sport colleges into account. Therefore, the Table 1–12 couldn't cover all sporting levels of the then universities and colleges.

1.5 University and college sport confronting a problem — the athlete system

In the 1920s and 1930s, sport in higher education institutions were facing a problem which was the athlete system ("选手制", xuanshou zhi). The extensive development of university and college sport during this period had wide-reaching social effects, and this led to a particular emphasis in some schools on achievements in sporting events. As a consequence, very few institutions encouraged all students to take part in extracurricular activities; rather, most encouraged only a few students – the most talented – to participate in sport, and invested most of their funding and faculty for sport in training just a few student athletes, while neglecting to implement sport of the benefit of the majority of students. The only purpose of which was to ensure victory at championships (Hao, 1934; Wu Yunrui, 1935; Xiang, 1935; Chen, 1934). The athlete system was a long-term issue. Cai Yuanpei (1922) was one of the critics of the athlete system in games. He argued that there appeared some weaknesses in schools games. Firstly, educators always focused upon athlete rather than intending to popularize sport in school. Secondly, student athletes only focused on competing in games, and there was no need for them to bring out the best in their own study. Thirdly, sport was only used to compete for championships and athlete paid no attention to the

coordinated development of their bodies or to over—intensity in training, therefore causing harm to their health (p.1).

The athlete system was one of the important characteristics of university and college sport in this period and polarization appeared in it as a result of the widespread application of the system. The athlete system was the blight on sport development in China (Shang, 1927). It brought about a hierarchical–type structure with the athlete who got many privileges, and it deeply influenced the popularization of sport in institutions. To take Fudan University as an example, the sporting department was essentially a "club" for a few students, dominated by the athlete and gave them aristocratic–like power over other students (Fudan, 1929). Cheng Dengke (1935), professor of National Central University thought the main obstacle facing the development of sport in China was the existence of this sporting aristocratic (p. 671).

Some universities and colleges proposed collaborating to develop strategies for dealing with the problem of *the athlete system*. Nanking Universities, formulated "*The Revised Common Regulations for Nanking University*" in 1925 which stipulated that only students with an average grade or 3.5 or above would be eligible to organize, work in associations, or take part in any kind of competition as a university representative, thereby ensuring that sport and other activities would not impede regular study (Wang, 1992). Elsewhere, National Zhejiang University stipulated that athletes of all sport teams were to take part in their respective sport solely for the purpose of interesting in that sport and that no additional privileges whatsoever would be granted to *athlete* (Anonymous, 1933). In addition, administrators of the Ministry of Education and of institutions proposed measures to solve the

problems caused by *the athlete system*. Hao Gengsheng (1934) who was a physical education and sport inspector at the Ministry of Education of the RC, suggested setting physical education and sport as a compulsory course at university and college to give students opportunities as well as the requirement to participate. Elsewhere, Zhang Boling (1935), who was president of Nankai University, put forward the idea that the presidents of insitutions should be tested on their views on sport to determine if they understood educational principles. Zhang's aim in this proposal was specifically to encourage educators to place emphasis on the issue of physical education and sport in higher education institutions..

By 1935, most of China's universities and colleges had decided to adopt the wider popularization of sport as a principle driving educational policy given the negative consequences that had arisen from advocating *the athlete system*. These changes were brought about by the joint efforts of the Ministry of Education and people who were actively engaging in sport at higher education institutions (Hao, 1935).

Some researchers had much discussion on the causes of the movement of athletes.

Wang (1935) thought the root of the system of athletes was that large sports games were built upon very few students in institutions of metropolises. They were not based upon the majority of the nation (p. 242). Hao (1927) summed up the situation of China's sport of the past 30 years and described that although major higher education institutions had sporting departments, only parts of the students participate. The other problems included shortage of fund and simplicity in equipment, sport couldn't be popularized in this way. Additionally, it was also very difficult to bring up athletes (p. 5). Therefore, the causes that led to the system

of athletes in universities and colleges were complicated. There was no strict distinction between the concepts of sport since the beginning of modern times in China. Furthermore, there had been constant turmoil in social organizations. Given that the development of sport was closely related to the development of the whole education system (Hao, 1935), higher education institutions in the period of the RC was far from mature and complete, in which sport was easily neglected, especially the construction of sport system in universities and colleges. Behind the glory of sport in the RC, there existed many problems. These problems were still showed in modern times and were worth future research.

1.6 Summary

The 1890s was the period when the Western sport combined with China's higher education institutions, thus generating university and college sport. Under the advocating and launch of the YMCA, Christian institutions began to actively implement physical activities. Furthermore, the inter–collegiate sports meets came into being in East China. The matches continued till the Sino–Japanese War of 1937. The sports and regulations of the inter–collegiate games were emulated by the sports meetings of different levels and types, which promoted the organization and standardization of China's sport.

The organization and launch of the early university and college sport were implemented by the YMCA. During the 1900s to 1910s, Militarism had a deep impact on sport in institutions, leading to a situation in which the events contested at games consisted mainly of physical activities such as military gymnastics ("兵操", *bingcao*) and gymnastics ("体操", *ticao*).

Between the 1910s and 1920s, the major carriers of sport in China were mainly meets and games of different levels and types. Higher education institutions were the organizer, participant and supervisor. As a result, university and college sport stood for China's sport. From the perspective of athletic skills, it symbolized the highest level of China.

During this period, there were no policies pertinent to university and college sport.

However, the policies about sport and physical education were made by the departments of education and implemented in schools first. These policies were also influences to sport in higher education institutions.

The athlete system was the problem faced by university and college sport during this period. In essence, it was the problem about the popularization and raising of standards in university and college sport. In order to overcome the disadvantages on sport in institutions caused by the athlete system, there were strict regulations on the learning status of the student athletes who participated in inter–collegiate meets or games.

Chapter 2 University and college sport in the 1950s to 1970s

2.1 Reconstructing and advancing sport

In the 1950s, China began to imitate the USSR in physical culture²⁰, especially regarding management and training systems of sport.²¹ A new system of sport was formed under the guidance of a national policy in the end of 1970s with frequent political movements. The reconstruction and development of sport in the People's Republic of China [PRC], from the 1950s to the late 1970s, were shown in the following aspects. Firstly, the nature and purpose of sport underwent a transformation during this period known as the strategy of national sport ("国民体育", guomin tiyu). It was proposed in the early 1950s which evolved into combining popularization and raising of standards in sport ("普及与提高", puji yu tigao) in the late 1950s and the 1960s. The guiding strategy for sport was focusing on raising of standards in the 1970s. Secondly, in the aspect of sport population, the development of sport no longer relied upon schools (including higher education institutions), but spread industrial sectors system such as the locomotive, textile industry and mining industry. Sport, accordingly, was implemented in factories, troops, and villages. Thirdly, as to sport management, the organizing system that has been based upon part-time work was replaced by governmentally and intensively.

2.1.1 Critique on American sport in the 1950s

After establishment of the state power, the Communist Party of China [CPC] constructed new sport content according to the ideological need. Meanwhile, it held a diametrically negative attitude toward sport thought in the Republic of China [RC] which

considered exotic and American based (Jian, 1932). With the worsening of the Sino-American relationship after the outbreak of the Korean War in the 1950s the ideological conflict intensified. This was also reflected in the field of sport. The journal "New Physical Culture" became the main "battleground" for criticizing American sport thoughts and its sport system from 1950 to 1952. The article translated by Ling Zhiyong (1950) started a series of critique of American sport. The journal then published a short comment, reporting that we must see American imperialism thoroughly, get rid of the erroneous thought of worshiping American sport, and eliminate the remnant influence of reactionary and corrupt ethics of its sport (Commentary, 1950). Many critics who included teachers in higher education institutions, the government and sport scientists were then deeply influenced by American sport (Su, 1950; Ma, 1950; Guan, 1951; Liang, 1951; Huang, 1951; Dong, 1952). Most critiques concentrated upon the professional sport and physical education at schools in America. The professor Su Jingcun (1950) reported that American sport had became an important tool of making money for American business people (pp. 8-9). Dong Shouyi (1952) pointed out that American imperialist sport was characterized by commercialization and professionalism, athletes won medals and broke records in the Olympic Games so that they could make their living and fortune, capitalists gamble on all kinds of games and turn games into circus performance (p. 3). Ma Qiwei (1950) thought sport in American schools were based on the self-centered purpose, studying was all for the development of one's reputation, status and the accumulation of dollars, and all considerations served the self-interest (p. 10). Guan Yushan (1951) reported that although sport was said to be a form

of education in America, but it was not meant to encourage the people to exercise for health rather than to train the minority of athletes and promote sport businessmen to make money (p. 15).

In summary, the critiques of American sport were concentrated on the following points. 1) Extreme rejection of professional sport. 2) Critique of the combination of sport and military training. 3) Critique of sport as a tool for entertainment of the minority. Most of critiques focused on sport, whereas the government's strategy emphasized the popularization of sport in all industrial sectors. Since the professional characteristics of sport were in conflicting with popularizing sport. The critiques of American sport, especially professional sport, could be considered as the elimination of possible obstacles in implementing the popularization of sport in China. However, when tracking the development of China's sport from the 1960s to 1970s it could be found that it did not abide by the critiques of American sport. The government greatly encouraged the integration of sport into military training and the strategy of combining popularization and raising of standards in sport was actually the concentration of resources for nurturing an elite athletes and establishing excellent sport teams by means of government's coercive measures. This was a coincidence with the American way of using sport as a tool for the power of the minority. In addition, the rejection and critique of professional sport cleared the way for its development in China. It wasn't until 1994 that Chinese professional sport start to be implemented. Therefore, it could be seen that the critique of American sport was characterized with political appetence. Some of the

criticism was far-fetched or untrue and did not take an objective perspective. In place of deriving experience from America, it directly reflected the conflict of ideologies.

2.1.2 Following the model of the USSR

As early as 1945, Mao Zedong (1967) proposed that "the new culture" created by the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics [USSR] should be the model for the construction of people's culture in China (p. 1032). During the Second Civil War (Aug, 1946 – Sept, 1949), in the CPC's controlling district some small-scale sporting activities were held, Sport from the Soviet model were not practiced because of the limitation of conditions. The PRC, as a member of the Socialism Alliance learnt from the USSR regarding sport after 1949. This was a shortcut and to creating their own also the only way in the then global situation. The USSR's sport was introduced in various ways. 1) The leaders of the CPC promoted the USSR's experience on various occasions. Some of these leaders were Zhu De, He Long and Fen Wenbin (New Physical Culture Press, 1951, pp. 3 – 4; Feng, 1950). 2) It was advocated to translate and introduce sporting ideals of the USSR (Mou, 1950; Yan, 1951; Chen, 1955, pp. 1 – 12; Zhao & Wang, 1956, pp. 63 - 87). Liao Chengzhi (1951) pointed out that we should make the plans translate and introduce the sport related experience and methods of the USSR and other countries (p. 12). 3) The PRC sent visiting groups to learn from the USSR (Anonymous, 1950a). 4) Invited sporting representative groups of the USSR to China. For instance, a basketball competition was held to welcome a USSR's team in 1950 (People's Daily, 1950, Dec 27). 5) Invited the USSR's sporting experts to conduct lecture tours in China (People's Daily, 1950, May 1).

The PRC started to follow the USSR's sport system to construct a national sport system after the establishment of the National Sport Commission [NSC]. 22 Specifically, it borrowed from the USSR's "Ready for Labor and Defense" [GTO]²³, imitated the single-major collegeiate model, and established sport colleges. He Long (1954, Mar 25) reported that our nation made certain achievements in implementing people's sport activities in the past four years²⁴, enhancing physical education in schools, and improving sporting techniques, this was closely related to learning from the USSR. However, what we have learnt was far from enough and fragmental, and we must further our learning from the USSR (p. 3). Therefore, with regard to this policy, the PRC organized more competitions for communication purposes with the USSR and east European socialist countries. This could be seen through Cai (1955) statemented that China's sporting delegate and youth representative groups paid 13 visits in all to the USSR and other socialist countries and invited national sporting groups of those countries for four times in 1954 (p. 36). Furthermore, sporting experience of all industrial sectors in the USSR was borrowed. The "August 1" sport teams were formed in the military system which imitated of the Sparta Club in the USSR, and physical exercise standards in schools originated from the GTO.

In the mid–1950s, China's sport underwent a period of reconstruction in terms of management, organization and training. Arguably, it was rooted in the USSR's sporting system (Xie, 1999, 2000; Bi, 1992). Learning from the USSR advanced sporting system was an important element in the rapid development of China's sport in the first few years after the PRC founded (Rong, 1957, Nov 12). At the end of 1958, the relationship between China and

the USSR worsened and communications in all fields were cut off. In addition, the USSR experts who guided China's construction were evacuated from China. However, these changes did not affect the initial formation of China's sport system. The later construction was based on this initial system.

2.1.3 The guiding thoughts of sport

The development of the thought of sport occupies an important status in the history of the PRC. Wu (2009) reported that it was a history of the relationship between the ideas of popularization and raising of standards in sport after 1949 (pp. 11 - 13). Some leaders of the CPC, as early as the 1940s, proposed the idea of popularizing sport and after 1949 advocated the strategy of national sport or mass sport by means of "The Program of Ready for Labor and Defense in 1949" (Zhu, 1942, Sept 2; Li, 1942, Sept 9). In "Talks at the Yenan Forum on Literature and Art", Mao Zedong (1943, Oct 19) pointed out that the raising of standards was based on popularization, while popularization was guided by the raising of standards (pp. 1 – 2). Mao's idea was a dialectical representation of the relationship between advancing and popularization which became a guiding principle in the field of culture and education in the district by the CPC controlled. The strategy of combining popularization and raising of standards was actively put in practice in the field of culture and education after the PRC founding. This was reflected in Lu Dingyi's (1950, Apr 19) discussion of the objectives of education and culture of the PRC. Lu was Minister of Propaganda of the PRC and he reported that we need to integrate popularization with raising of standards in the field of culture and education and integrate theory with practice appropriately (p. 1).

Although He Long established the idea of combining popularization and raising of standards in sport as early as 1940 (Tan, 1992), the practice was originated from the Helsinki Olympic Games in 1952. In "The Notice of Selecting Athletes for Concentrated Training Jointly" announced by the Organization Department of the Communist Party of China Central Committee and the Central Committee of the Communist Young League, it pointed out if popularized sport without raising of standards in certain areas could not satisfy the current needs. Therefore, popularization must be combined with raising of standards in certain areas for further development.

To prepare for the first National Games of the PRC in 1959, all provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions (Mentioned as "provinces" below) organized their own sport teams from the mid–1950s. Sport colleges and youth amateur sport schools were established. Athletes were selected and trained who represented the initial training system of sport in China. In "The Government Work Report" of "The First Session of the National People's Congress" in 1959, Primer Zhou (1959, Apr 19) pointed out that in the area of sport administration, we should implement the principle of combining popularization and raising of standards in sport, organize people's physical activities in a wide range and gradually improve China's sport or exercise level (p. 2). The principle was later incorporated into the national administrative plan. In a summary of China's achievements in sport in the 10 years after the new system's founding, Rong Gaotang (1959, Oct 25) reported that keeping people—oriented and integrating popularization with raising of standards in sport were the fundamental ways to promote sport. In "The 1963 and 1964 National Sport Administrative

Conferences", the integration of popularization with raising of standards in sport became the fundamental principle of sport in China.

If one took the perspective of guiding strategies of sport, the mid–1950s principle of combining popularization and raising of standards was for the purpose of national sport. The improvement of sport was based upon the wide participation of activities among people. As the government decided to make evident achievements in sport competitions around 1960 such as breaking world records, and winning world champion in games, it became necessary to construct a sport training system which laid an institutional ground for combining popularization and raising of standards. China then started to have some initial achievements in sport in 1959 which provided some national exposure. Furthermore, the policy adjustment of sport in the early 1960s that shortened the frontline and focused on raising of standards of certain areas. This provided the policy foundation for new guiding principles of sport. The focus was then shifted toward the popularization among people and improvement in sport competitions. Gradually, the latter became the focus of the sport administration. The mono-objective of China's sport became a dual one. As Tan Hua (1994) pointed out that it laid a foundation for the combination between sport for the Olympic strategy and sport for popularization (pp. 1-4). The implementation of the adjusted policies in the area of sport transformed the former strategy of combining popularization and raising of standards to new strategy of building it on the ground of sport development. This signaled a new direction for construction of sport in China.

In 1979, the NSC (1979, Mar 9) reported that given the prominent weakness in the backwardness of sport technology and the imminent mission of participating the Olympic Games in 1984, especially that some sports had not reached the enrollment standard of the Olympics, the NSC and the local branches would lay more focusing on raising of standards side of the strategy. This was the first time that the principle became improvement-oriented since the founding of the PRC. In turn this signaled the separation of the people-oriented principle and the sport-oriented one, or the shift from the former toward the latter (Xiao, 1991). This transition was made for both political and social reasons. In politics, the orientation of development of sport was decided and the conservative thought of sport administration was emancipated after "The Third Plenary Session of the 11th Central Committee of the CPC". According to the social aspect, China obtained the legitimate membership in the Olympic Games. Competent athletes participated in the Olympics and citizens hoped they could exhibit to the world China's achievements in sport. Therefore, it was at this moment that the NSC adopted a series of measures in adjusting the orientation of sport administration. The emphasis of sport administration was thus laid focusing on raising of standards.

2.2 The construction of the sport system

The government adopted the nation—led strategy and included sport into national affairs in the early 1950s. Based on the experience of military sport by troops, sport modeled the USSR. Sporting organizations first founded in the central and the local government followed. Under the guidance of policies, the training system that consisted of youth amateur sport

schools, provincial and national sport teams. The sport system centered on national games from the 1960s to 1970s. National sport teams, provincial sport teams and youth amateur sport schools comprised the three–level training system which was the core in the rise of China's sport (Wu, 1999, p. 52).

2.2.1 National sport teams

It was an inevitable requirement that improving the sporting level and winning awards in international competitions under the political thinking would dominant the nation. From such a background, sport training classes ("体训班", *tixun ban*) or teams were formed with the coordination of the government. Sport colleges were relied on to train elite athletes in fixed times and venues which were the forerunner of national sport teams, such as national basketball team. Li (1991) described that the government expected to further promote the development of basketball and strengthen the guidance of all districts. Therefore, Central, Central south, South, Northwest, Northeast and Southwest Sport College were gradually built from 1952. Male and female basketball teams of these colleges were also formed to enroll excellent players and compete in national competitions (p. 113).

The aim of founding a national sport team was to implement the spirit of improving in certain areas of sports so that it could be turned into an advantage in the sports and strive to break records (Wu, 1999, p. 52). This marked the transition of China's sport from amateur to special purpose. It went on to become a top—level training system. Most national sport teams were founded in the early 1950s such as national track and field and gymnastics team

founded in 1953. National table tennis, badminton and swimming team were established in 1954. The national weightlifting team was organized in 1955.

2.2.2 Provincial sport teams

Provincial sport teams originated from national sport teams and were composed of the middle part of sport system in the PRC, where sport was actively promoted the founding of sport teams began early. For instance, Shanghai football team was built in 1951 (Editorial Board of Shanghai Local Chronicles, 2005, p. 5130). Most of provincial sport teams were established around 1956. The aim of provincial sport teams was to achieve desirable results in the first National Games of the PRC they selected and trained elite athletes. The sport teams were expanded based on sport cadres' class and affiliated to sport colleges. The training bases resorted to provincial stadiums or sport institutes and mostly adopted a focused training model. Due to the impact of the Great Leap Forward in 1958, provincial sport teams were large, which caused a waste of resources and low performance. The competition level dropped instead of rose and therefore sport commissions of all levels adjusted and reduced the size of sport teams and only kept a few sports such as football, basketball, and track and field. In the early 1960s when the Cultural Revolution started, the training of the overall sport system was interrupted and it gradually resumed after the late 1970s.

2.2.3 Youth amateur sport schools

Upon investigating the training system of sport in the USSR, based on the situation in China, Meng & Cheng (2010) pointed out that the country adopted the USSR's model and decided to pilot three young amateur sport schools for in Beijing, Tianjin and Shanghai in

1955 (pp. 10 – 13). This opened up the construction of young amateur sport schools in 1956. The NSC published "The School Regulations of Young Amateur Sport Schools (Draft)" and "The School Regulations of Juvenile Amateur Sport Schools (Draft)", established sport schools in all levels of administrative regions. This solved the issue of finding elite athletes. As Wu (1999) described that young amateur sport schools became the main talent pool and reserved base for national elite athletes (p. 52). Though young amateur schools called themselves amateur, most of them adopted the approach of studying, training and living together, which in reality made them special purpose schools in a sense.

The changes of young amateur sport schools were greatly influenced by the political movements. In Henan Province, for instance, Editorial Board of Henan Province Local Chronicles (1993) reported that the first young amateur sport school was founded in Zhengzhou in 1956. Two new schools were founded in Xinxiang and Kaifeng in 1957. However, during the period of the Great Leap Forward, the number of amateur sport schools rose to 2,111 (p. 108). ²⁵ The expansion was astonishing, and over 40 young amateur sport schools were kept after the adjustment in 1959. ²⁶ The decline was also profound. Such cases also occurred in other provinces.

2.2.4 The adjustment and reconstruction of the sport system

From the Great Leap Forward in 1958 to the Anti–Revisionism in the early 1960s and then to the Cultural Revolution from 1966 to 1976, the policy making of sport was influenced by the political movements. In 1958, the NSC promulgated "*Ten Years' Plan of Sport*" as the guiding document for sport in response to the Great Leap Forward. It proposed many high

standard objectives with no regard to the social and economic reality. Thus, all levels of sport teams were expanded. After the end of the first National Game of the PRC, the negative effect of the Great Leap Forward in sport became eminent. The weak national economy was unable to support the popularization of sport any more. Therefore, the NSC according to "The Principle of Adjustment, Consolidation, Enrichment and Improvement" ("调整, 巩固, 充实, 提高", tiaozheng, gonggu,chongshi,tigao) proposed for the national economy by the central government in 1962 reviewed "Ten Years' Plan of Sport", this plan lowered the unrealistic high objectives and proposed that the current work in sport should be training. That marked the transition of national sport development and sport training system began to be adjusted.

The adjustment of national sport teams and provincial sport teams

In 1960 and 1961 the NSC started to reduce the extent of sport teams and retain only elite teams. In 1962, on the basis of summarizing the achievements and shortcomings of the work of 1961, it further reduced the number of teams. Ten sports were established fundamental which were track and field, gymnastics, swimming, football, volleyball, basketball, table tennis, shooting, weightlifting, and skating. Meanwhile, the local branches decided to retain sports, especially those with local features, and reported to the NSC for overall evaluation (Wu, 1999, pp. 115 – 116). In addition, apart from the People's Liberation Army and the relevant departments in all industrial sectors, only two levels of elite teams were allowed to be founded. One was national and the other provincial sport teams (Cui & Yang, 2008, p. 55).

As the focus of sport development improved, the level of sport also advanced in 1963 and 1964. This became evident due to the adjustment of the policy. Afterwards "*The 1965 National Sport Conference*" continued to emphasize elite teams on two levels and demanded provincial teams to concentrate on sport in order to progress to world teams' standards. People's Daily (1965, Feb 23) described that in the conference it was mentioned that the development of sport must follow the principle of combining popularization and raising of standards, on the basis of pervasive sport activities held among people, the sporting level would be improved so as to make new records continuously (p. 3).

As stated, in the 1960s the main ideas of the adjustment of sport was the rearrangement of resources and to concentrate on establishing a few sport teams and in the meantime no longer spent too much effort in popularizing sport. Since the adjustment paid off and improved the sporting level, the NSC reaffirmed the strategy of sporting development. The adjustment of sport in the 1960s pinned down national and provincial teams as the leading power in the sporting improvement. This was an immediate reason for university and college sport to be withdrawn from its leading place in China's sport.

The adjustment of youth amateur sport schools

In the early 1960s the NSC launched a quality–oriented adjustment of youth amateur sport schools across the nation, for the purpose of reducing the large numbers of the schools. The NSC (1964) promulgated "*The Regulations of Youth Amateur Sport Schools (Draft)*". It proposed that all local branches would focus on the training in key youth amateur sport schools (Sept 14). Furthermore, in "*The 1965 National Sport Conference*" the NSC (1965)

claimed that local branches should concentrate their power in developing key youth amateur sport schools, and continuously provide elite athletes for special purpose teams (May 14).

After the adjustment a grass—root amateurish training system gradually took shape and became a resource pool for provincial and national teams. This was before the beginning of the Cultural Revolution which was a grass—root amateur movement among sport schools, key youth amateur sport schools, and central youth amateur sport schools.

2.2.5 The achievements of China's sport

After the national sport system was constructed, sporting achievements quickly advancement. Considering records broken by China's athletes, Chen Jingkai broke the world record of male bantamweight clean and jerk in 1956. This was the first athlete to break a world record. After that to 1980, more and more athletes broke records shown in the Table 2 – 1.

Table 2 – 1

Chinese Athletic World Records (1956 – 1980)

Year	Sp	orts	Nur	nbers	Ti	mes
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1956	1	_	1	_	3	_
1957	3	1	3	1	3	1
1963	13	7	14	6	20	13
1965	28	12	66	28	41	20
1970	1	_	1	_	1	_
1975	6	6	7	7	12	12
1976	3	3	3	3	3	3
1977	3	3	7	7	7	7
1978	3	3	6	6	3	3
1979	13	3	32	5	26	3
1980	7	_	17	_	15	_

Note. 1) The data was from China Statistics Press [CSP]. (1991, p. 767).

²⁾ The sports and the numbers in total removed the number of repetitions.

2.3 Sport colleges – the reconstruction of higher education institution

2.3.1 The reform of higher education institution in the 1950s

The reconstruction of education became a necessity during the transition from the RC to the PRC. As Hu (2001) argued that the change of social and political systems triggered the reform of higher education (p. 279). Universities and colleges established in the RC started to instill institutions based thoughts for the USSR into teachers and students. The higher education in the new social system was reconstructed according to the requirement of the CPC and served to restore the national economy (Wang, 2004).

The adjustment of higher education institution between 1952 and 1954 was one of the most significant initiatives in history. The initial adjustment began as early as the end of 1949, when Agriculture Colleges at Peking University, Tsinghua University and North China University were combined to form Beijing Agricultural University (Ji, Wang, & Xu, 1992, p. 68). In 1950 "The National Higher Education Conference", the Minister of Education Ma Xulun, first proposed to adjust the higher education system. Ma (1950) stated that we would follow the unified principles and initially adjust national and private institutions so as to satisfy the need national construction.²⁷ It could be seen that the adjustment purpose was to include higher education into the framework of national needs. In the late 1951, starting from East China where there was the largest number of higher education institutions, the Ministry of Education [MOE] conducted the adjustment across nationwide. With regard to problems during adjustment, in 1952 the principle of adjustment became focusing upon industrial talents and faculties and developing technical colleges ("专门学院", zhuanmen xueyuan) and schools ("专科学校", zhuanke xuexiao).... The objects of it were classified into university

("综合性大学", *zonghexing daxue*), college ("专门学院") and secondary college ("专科学校") in terms of the content and form of higher education institution (Communist Party of China Central Committee Party Literature Research Office, 2002).

According to the adjustment, the landscape of higher education in China changed into a system based on institutions focusing on special subjects. In all there were 31 newly established universities and colleges, among which were 11 industrial, eight agricultural, three normal, three financial, two medical, and two political and law institutions, one liberal arts and one art institution. There were 23 technical institutions separated from existing universities and colleges and 49 institutions closed after the adjustment and four downgraded to secondary colleges. Through this adjustment, private institutions all became national and deprived of their names (Li, 2006, p. 170). By 1953 there were 182 universities and colleges in all of China. Meanwhile, "The Decision on Changing the Leadership of Higher Education Institutions" was promulgated in the same year. This removed private and missionary insitutions from higher education system. In 1954 the Ministry of Higher Education (MHE) announced that there would not be drastic adjustment of higher education institutions in the short term (Mao & Shen, 1995, p. 79). The number of institutions after the adjustment was shown in the Table 2 – 2.

Table 2-2The Number of China's Universities and Colleges in 1953

Туре	Number	
Industrial	39	
Normal	31	
Agricultural and Forestry	29	
Medical	29	
Art	15	
Comprehensive	14	
Language	8	
Financial	6	
Sport	5	
Politics and Law	4	
Minorities	2	
Total	182	

Note. The data was collated from People's Daily. (1953, Dec 17).

The adjustment of higher education institution and the founding of technical colleges were suitable for the then economic and political system and played an important role in the construction of China as a socialist country (Liu, 1991, p. 3; Yu, 1994, p. 53; Li & Wang, 2000, p. 100). It also marked the beginning of comprehensive and systematic learning based on the USSR and laid a foundation for a higher education system between the 1950s and 1980s (Hao & Long, 2000, pp. 117 – 124). Taking Tsinghua University for example, in 1954, the MHE issued that "*The Dcision on the Affair of Tsinghua University*" which held the view that Tsinghua has bidden farewell to the old–fashioned university that followed the capitalist system in the UK and US and has been gradually transformed into a multi–technical industrial university that conducted the five–year study system of the USSR. Tsinghua's mission was nurturing advanced engineers responsible for designing construction and management.... Learning, applying, summarizing and promoting the USSR's experience of the five–year industrial institution and implementing scientific and research work (Zhang & Wang, 1998, p. 325). ²⁹

The adjustment in the early 1950s was almost a copy of higher education system in the USSR. Compared to technical institutions in the USSR, the PRC copied the USSR's in terms of quantity, disciplines and the ratio of each discipline (See the Table 2-3).

Table 2 – 3

Disciplines of the PRC's Higher Education Institutions (1954) and the USSR's (1956)

Discipline	Th	e PRC	The	e USSR
Industrial	124	55.3%	144	53.1%
Agricultural and Forestry	16	6.2%	14	5.2%
Medical	5	1.9%	5	1.8%
Liberal Art	25	9.7%	18	6.5%
Science	21	8.2%	14	5.2%
Politics and Law	2	0.7%	1	0.4%
Finance	16	6.2%	31	11.4%
Normal	16	6.2%	17	6.3%
Sport	1	0.4%	1	0.4%
Art	11	5.1%	26	9.6%
Total	257	100%	271	100%

Note. The data was collated the MHE (Ed.). (1954).

2.3.2 The formation of sport colleges system

Sport colleges³⁰ were the product of optimizing higher education resources and learning from the USSR. It was breed by previously merged sporting departments in comprehensive universities and re–constructed sport structures in China's institutions. After the foundation of sport colleges, the focus gradually moved from cultivating teachers to improving competition results. This needed guidelines for opening institutions and to reflect political needs. During the period between the mid–1950s and early 1960s while the training system of national team had not been in place yet, the competition level of sport colleges in the most advanced in certain sports. Since the early 1960s with the adjustment of the Great Leap Forward, sport colleges stopped cultivating elite athletes and gradually moved away from the national sport training system. The establishment of the system, on one hand, utilized limited resources more effectively while on the other, ensured designated training time which led to special purpose training. After the Cultural Revolution, the sporting level in universities and colleges fell behind national level. Literature on sport colleges from the 1950s to 1970s were scarce (Zhong, Zuo, & Zhang, 2001; Wang, Pan, & Pan, 2002).

The Establishment of Sport colleges in the 1950s

Sporting department in insitutions nurtured select students engaged in sport before 1949. However, the number was too small to satisfy the need for faculties and officials in sport. To illustrate this point, there were only 282 students majoring in sport across the country at low levels in 1949 (The MOE, 1985, p. 62). Therefore, the establishment of sport colleges and the development of high–level sport faculties became necessary. In 1952, the PRC's first sport college East China Sport College was founded in Shanghai. This was a

merge of the sporting departments of three institutions, namely Nanjing University, Jinling Women's College of Arts and Sciences and East China Normal University (Ji, Wang, & Xu, 1992, p. 446). In order to solve the shortage of teachers in some departments and disciplines, the MOE decided in 1953 to adjust departments and disciplines of normal institution.

Specifically, these applied to five normal institutions including Beijing Normal University were taken over by the NSC. They laid the foundation for four sport colleges (Editorial Board of China Education Encyclopedia, 1996, p. 245). Between 1952 and 1954, East China, Central, Central South, Northwest, Northeast, and Southwest Sport College were established one after another. Some of these were merges of sporting departments and disciplines of institutions from the period of the RC.

Table 2 − 4

Founding of Sport Colleges in the Adjustment of Higher Education Institution

Institution Time	Time	Place	Details	Present name
E.C.S.C.	1952		Shanghai It merged sporting departments of Nanjing University, Jinling Women's College of Arts and Sciences, East China Normal University. In 1956 it renamed	Shanghai University of Sport
			Shanghai Institute of Physical Education.	
C.S.C.	1953	Beijing	It was founded by sporting departments of Beijing Normal University. Some	Beijing Sport University
			teachers were from Hebei Normal University. The college was renamed Beijing	
			Institute of Physical Education in 1956.	
C.S.S.C.	1953	1953 Nanchang	In 1956 the college moved to Wuhan, Hubei province and renamed Wuhan	Wuhan Institute of Physical
			Institute of Physical Education.	Education
N.W.S.C.	1954	Xi'an	It was founded by merged sporting departments of Northwest Normal	Xi'an Physical Edcuation
			University and Northwest Sports cadres training class. In 1956 the college was	University
			renamed to Xi'an Institute of Physical Education.	
N.E.S.C.	1954	Shenyang	It renamed Shenyang Institute of Physical Education in 1956.	Shenyang Sport University
S.W.S.C.	1953	Chengdu	The predecessor was Chengdu sport special school. In 1954 the college was	Chengdu Sport University
			renamed Southwest Sport College, in 1956 renamed Chengdu Institute of	
			Physical Education.	
				L. I.C. O. CINIA

Note. E.C.S.C. = East China Sport College; C.S.C. = Central Sport College; C.S.S.C. = Central South Sport College; N.W.S.C. = Northwest Sport College; N.E.S.C. = Northeast Sport College; S.W.S.C. = Southwest Sport College.

The objectives of sport college from the 1950s to 1970s

The establishment of sport college was meant to solve the problem of shortage in sport faculties and officers, some problems in competitions and limited training of athletes (Chen, 2005a). In 1955 "The Report on Dean of Sport College Conference" defined the objectives of sport college as nurturing sport faculties (The NSC, 1955, May 13). Then in 1958 "The Report on Conference of Six Sport College" the NSC (1958, Sept) confimed that sport college should function as the major foundations for supplying elite athletes for nation. Since then, it began to conduct the training of athletes. The political objectives of nurturing elite athletes corresponded with the three–in–one objective of nurturing faculties, coaches and athletes proposed by the NSC.

In order to prepare for the first National Games of the PRC, sport colleges in all administrative districts shouldered the training of athletes and sporting departments were founded to concentrate on training elite player. With ample supply of faculty and equipment, most athletes of all provinces were trained in the local sport college. By 1959 sport college was established by almost local government. With the growth of the number of it there emerged a series of problems including the nature, mission and objectives. In order to solve the problems, the MOE and the NSC (1960) clearly defined the objectives of sport college in "The Report on Conference of Sport Colleges, Schools and Sporting departments of Normal Colleges", proclaimed that the objectives were training middle—level faculties, coaches and

sport officials (Feb 26). It was stated in the professional curriculum that sporting department should focus on training faculties while department of physical education concentrated on the training of teachers and coaches. This was a negation of the former objectives of nurturing elite athletes in sport college. However, most provinices for the purpose of gaining medals on the first National Games of the PRC. This purpose was excessively utilitarian, and the pedagogy emphasized professional skills which turned the sporting department into a major for athletes.

In 1963 the NSC (1963) held "The Conference of Sport Colleges" identified the problem of blurring the distinction between nurturing teachers and students (June 29) in the education strategy of sport college. They redefined the mission as nurturing sport teachers for middle schools and other talent. The former was the common major mission of the ten sport colleges. The latter refered to specialized teachers, coaches and postgraduate students which could be arranged according to the need and condition of the school. The reason why sport college no longer nurtured athletes was that elite sport teams were exclusive in national teams and provincial teams after the adjustment of the training system of sport in the 1960s, and sport college was no longer responsible for nurturing elite athletes.

In 1978 the NSC (1978) promulgated "The Opinion on Seriously Manage Sport Colleges", this further clarified the objectives was that sport college should focusing on raising of standards and pay adequate attention to popularization in sport, it should nurture

sport faculties, scientific researchers, coaches and other special purpose sport talent who were both revolutionary and specialized (July 13). Although "other special purpose sport talent" could include elite athlete, the latter was not elucidated. In the late 1970s, after the completion of the training system of sport in China, sport college was far behind provincial teams in terms of the sporting level. Therefore, elite athletes were seldom from sport college. The evolving of sport college training objectives was shown in the Table 2-5.

Table 2-5

Training Objectives of Sport College (1955 – 1978)

1955, May 13 1958, Sept			Objective
	The NSC	The report on dean of sport college conference	To train P. E. teachers
	The NSC	The report on conference of six sport colleges	To train teachers, coaches, and elite athletes who
			had both specialty and ideological consciousness
1960, Feb 26 The M	The MOE, The NSC	The report on conference of sport colleges,	To train P. E. teachers in high schools with
		schools and sporting department of normal	socialist awareness, work ethic, and high
		colleges	scientific knowledge level and sport technique
1963, Jun 29 The M	The MOE, The NSC	The report on sport colleges conference	To train high schools P. E. teachers and sport
			talent
1978, July 13	The NSC	The opinion on seriously manage sport colleges	To train P. E. teachers, Research and
			development specialists, coaches, and sport
			talent who had both specialty and ideological
			consciousness

Note. NSC = National Sport Committee; MOE = Ministry of Education.

The change of amount and curriculum of sport colleges

The change of the amount

In 1958, under the guidance of right activism, the Great Leap Forward expanded into the area of education. Meanwhile, in September the Central Committee of the CPC and the State Council announced "The Directions for the Work of Education" reported that we should emphasize the development of middle education and higher education and try to achieve the access to education for most young people and adults who were qualified and voluntary across the country in about 15 years. We would spend about 15 years in popularizing higher education and another 15 years in improving it (People's Daily, 1958, Sept 20). The directions acted as the guidelines for the development of higher education in the years of the Great Leap Forward when the nation started to blindly expand the size of higher education institutions. In each province, one sport college would be established, and the amount of it quickly increased from six in 1957 to 21 in 1958 and a record high of 30 in 1960. In 1961 after sport affiars were adjusted, the amount of sport college was reduced to 20 and further to 11 in 1963. In the early of the Cultural Revolution the whole higher education system collapsed. Sport college ceased their normal operation. In 1971 the number was restored steadily. By 1983 there were 13 sport colleges altogether in China. The change of the number of sport college was shown in the Figure 2 - 1.

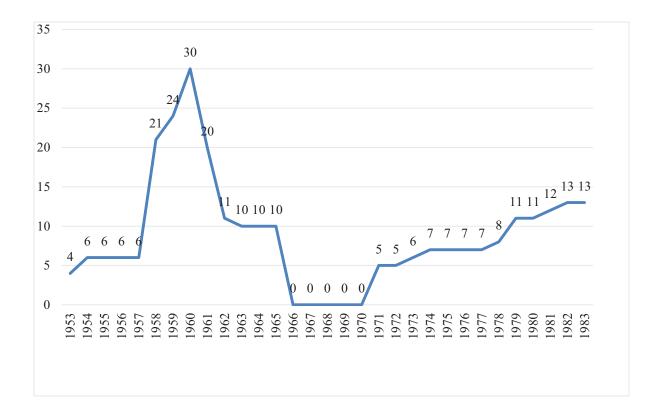


Figure 2 – 1 The Amount of Sport Colleges (1953 – 1983)

Note. The data was collated from the MOE (Ed.). (1985, p. 51).

The number of student in sport college accounted for a comparatively low percentage in the undergraduates across China (The percentage was 0.2% in 1952 and 1% in 1959). However, in terms of other specialized colleges, the percentages of student in medical, liberal arts, financial, political and legal, and art colleges were in decline. Those in agricultural and forestry, and sciences institutions remained steady. Engineering and normal colleges mainly increased, while those in sport college increased on a yearly basis.

Table 2 – 6

Proportion of College Students (1947 – 1959)

Year	Ind.	Agr.	For.	Med.	Nor.	L.A.	Sci.	F&E	P&L	Spo.	Art.	Tot.
1947	17.8	6.6	-	7.7	13.5	10.2	6.4	11.4	24.4	0.4	1.6	100
1949	26.0	8.4	0.5	13.1	10.3	10.2	6.0	16.6	6.3	0.2	2.4	100
1950	28.0	8.3	1.3	12.7	9.7	7.4	7.1	17.5	5.1	0.2	2.7	100
1951	31.6	6.2	1.6	13.9	11.9	7.8	5.1	16.5	2.8	0.1	2.5	100
1952	34.8	6.9	1.1	13.0	16.5	7.1	5.0	11.5	2.0	0.2	1.9	100
1953	37.7	6.1	1.2	13.7	18.8	6.7	5.8	6.4	1.8	0.5	1.3	100
1954	37.5	5.1	1.2	13.4	21.0	7.2	6.8	4.4	1.6	0.8	1.0	100
1955	38.1	6.0	1.4	12.7	21.1	6.6	6.9	3.9	1.7	0.8	0.8	100
1956	37.0	7.6	1.4	11.4	24.5	5.6	6.2	3.2	1.8	0.7	0.6	100
1957	37.0	7.7	1.4	11.1	26.0	4.4	6.5	2.7	1.9	0.7	0.6	100
1958	39.0	8.8	1.5	11.7	23.8	3.9	6.2	2.2	1.1	1.1	0.7	100
1959	40.0	8.3	1.5	11.5	23.7	3.9	7.1	1.5	0.7	1.0	0.7	100

Note. 1). The data was from the MOE (Ed.). (1985, p. 62).

^{2).} Ind. = Industry; Agr. = Agriculture; For. = Forest; Med. = Medicine; Nor. = Normal; L.A.

⁼ Liberal Art; Sci. = Science; F & E = Finance and Economics; P & L = Politics and Law; Spo. = Sport; Art. = Art. Tot. = Total.

The change in curriculum setting

Due to difficulties in school sites, faculties, and infra–structure, the early sport college adopted a strategy of constructing and operating. Therefore, the setting and development of curriculum were seriously hindered. Took Beijing Sport College as an example, the first group of students enrolled in 1953 numbered 560 who followed a two–year professional program, 541 enrolled in 1954, the program was held up in 1955 and a four–year undergraduate program was implemented (Editorial Board of Beijing Sport University History [EBBSUH], 2003, pp. 9 – 18). The major work of sport college in this period was to improve the quality of the professional education as soon as possible. It did not start to promote the increase of professional majors.

After the national sport teams formed, sport college became the foundation for training elite athletes for national teams in the early of 1950s. Given this relationship, Central Sport College opened a sporting department for the purpose of practicing principle of integrating popularization with improvement. It followed closely by the development of the political movement and broke some world records in the period of the Great Leap Forward. Later, Shanghai Sport College, Wuhan Sport College and others also opened sporting departments which improved their competition skills quickly compared with other institutions. For instance, Beijing Sport College had a considerable advantage over other sport colleges and institutions from 1957 (EBBSUH, 2003, p. 23).

Between the 1950s and 1970s, all sport colleges continuously adjusted their pedagogical system and frequently modified their curriculum setting. In 1957 sporting department of Shanghai Sport College was formed and three two—year postgraduate classes were opened including theory of sport, basketball and volleyball. In 1959 four departments were started including track and field, gymnasium, ball games, martial arts and aquatic games. In 1963 all departments were reorganized into two departments: sport and physical education. During the Cultural Revolution, all the courses in sport colleges remained. In 1972 East China Normal University and four other institutions jointed to establish Shanghai Normal University whose department of sport was originally in Shanghai Sport College (Editorial Board of Shanghai Local Chronicles, 2005, p. 5109).

Undefined objectives were the major reason for frequent adjustment of curriculum, and the former depended upon the constantly changing political need. In order to correspond with the three—in—one objective of sport college of nurturing faculties, coaches and elite athletes proposed by the NSC, sport college made the guidelines of leaping forward. This highlighted the improvement of athletic technologies of students. Another institution Beijing Sport College, in October 1958 eliminated physical education and sporting department founded just one year prior and started six departments according to different sports, namely gymnasium department, track and field department, ball games department, martial arts department (including martial arts, weightlifting, boxing, fencing, etc.), aquatic and ice sporting

department, and department of sport theories (Writing Group of Beijing Institute of Physical Education Annals, 1994, p. 78). In 1977 when higher education institutions entrance examinations were restored, universities and colleges restored their department settings and disciplines and canceled the system of different grades. Sport colleges started to reorganize their majors. For instance, in Beijing Sport College in 1978 department of physical education and that of basic theory were reopened, A department (track and field and swimming), B department (gymnasium and martial arts), and C department (ball games) were formed.

Those merged into the sporting department in 1983.

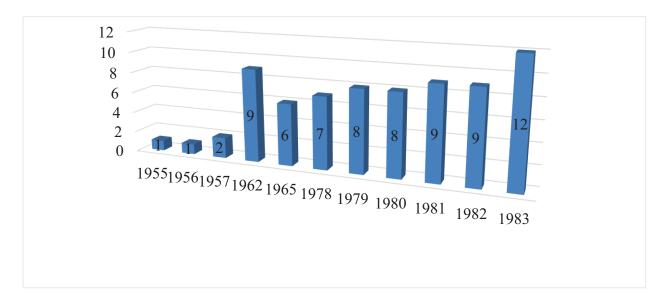


Figure 2 – 2 Discipline Number in Sport Colleges (1955 – 1983)

Note. The data was collated from the MOE (Ed.). (1985, p. 54).

2.3.3 The sport training in sport college

Sport training in sport college experienced its development in five stages. Its beginning was from 1952 to 1954, having specialized development and founding sporting departments from 1955 to 1960. These colleges declined from 1961 to 1963, revived and them halted from 1964 to 1976, and again were restored and began developed since 1977 (Zhong, Zuo, & Zhang, 2001).

During the founding period of sport colleges, they shoulder the task of training and competition of national sport teams which had systematic training in the facilities of sport college and achieved high-level performance. People's Daily (1955) described that Central, Central South, East China, and Southwest Sport colleges sent 13 athletes and one relay team to participate in a swimming games in 1954, and athletes broke eight national records (Dec 13). Central Sport College topped all in terms of sports level among sport colleges. In the same year, People's Daily (1955) reported that track and field team from Central Sport College broke nine national records in the sports competition of Shanghai People's Commission (June 2). One important reason for the advancement in sport college was that sporting experts from the USSR provided guidance. Another reason was the first National Games of the PRC as all provinces relied upon sport college for the training of athletes to improve achievement. Beijing Sport College instigated the slogan, made the National Games as the goal, and made toward the world record. The non-technical classes and theoretical

classes were suspended and the training time was prolonged to about 30 hours per week from November, 1958. Additionally, during the winter training sessions, massive training loads were adopted. Other sport colleges also strengthened the training for the first National Games and achieved desirable results. These could be seen through the results of Beijing Sport College on the Games. Writing Group of Beijing Institute of Physical Education Annals (1994) reported that in the Games, 293 teachers and students participated in as representatives, among whom 23 athletes broke 25 national records 33 times. They won 268 individual top eight ranks, including 83 first rankings. In the Games, the total scores of Beijing Sport College ranked in the national top ten (p. 135).

From the founding of sport college to around the 1960s, the sporting level of it was the highest of China. Some athletes even made world records (People's Daily, 1958, July 11). In the A-level basketball, volleyball, and soccer teams of China in 1957, sport college made a great contribution. There were seven basketball teams from colleges among the total of 24, eight volleyball teams among the total of 19, and four male soccer teams among the total of 12 (People's Daily, 1957, Feb 2). In this period sport college were the main power in competing with the USSR, east Europe and countries from other regions (People's Daily, 1957, June 6).

In the early 1960s China's sport system was readjusted. Only national teams and provincial teams were kept, while sport college no longer nurtured elite athletes. Between

1961 and 1965 the training of athletes was mainly removed from sport college and formed an independent system (Chen, 2005b, p. 40). Then the teaching of sport college was suspended from 1966 to 1971. In 1972 Beijing Sport College restored the enrollment of two—year program students, mainly for cultivating P. E. teachers which was urgently demanded. From then on, the training and nurturing of elite athletes no longer relied upon sport college. The separation of the sport training system from sport colleges symbolizes the beginning of the development of sport in China which became independent from higher education system.

2.4 University and college sport from the 1950s to 1970s

In the early 1950s university and college sport³¹ was the main focus of sport studies, many articles discussed these institutions' sport in "*New Physical Culture*" (Wu, 1950; He, 1950; Chi, 1950). Comparatively, between the mid–1950s and early 1980s, little attention was paid to it.

2.4.1 The popularization of university and college sport

After 1949 the PRC transformed university and college sport. Firstly, the sporting management system in the period of the RC was changed. For instance, in 1950 students in Fu Jen Catholic University started to be responsible for the organization, management, and training of all teams in the university (Guan, 1950). The purpose was to diminish the athlete system and popularize sport activities among students. Secondly, it was change that students understand to sport. Yanching University had a comprehensive set of sport equipment.

However, students didn't use it much. The administrative believed that one of the fundamental reasons was their conceptions (Communications Group of Yenching University, 1951). Thirdly, the popularization of sport was in urgent demand at that time. As Jiang (1951) reported that athletic teams of institution were separated from the student–sport and they couldn't encourage student to take part in sport activities (p. 19). Therefore, the tendency of university and college sport inherited³² from the RC needed to be altered. The reform emphasized group sport activities that could be easily implemented such as morning exercises and broadcast calisthenics.

After adjustment of higher education institutions, missionary and private institutions were removed in China. Sporting departments in those institutions were moved to the newly founded sport colleges, thus, only sport college and normal insitution had sporting departments while other undertook the work of popularizing sport. At that time the popularization of sport was closely associated with political need. During the process of popularization, university and college emphasized the internal organization among students. Such as Students' Union Sport Ministry at Tsinghua University (1951) reported that Tsinghua established sport teams in departments and grades which guided the organization of sport activities (p. 21). Editorial Board of Sport History of Peking University (2008) described that Peking University issued a series of measures to guide sport was that comprehensive introduced advanced experience of the USSR, advocated collectivism and the spirit of

obeying the organization and the discipline, contributed the nation to nurture the builders and guarded that were excellent in morality, talent, and health (pp. 50 - 51).

In conclusion, the main mission of university and college sport in the early 1950s was to popularize sport and trigger the interest of students in it. It took the political need into consideration and criticized the problems with sport in the period of the RC such as the system of athletes and the obsession with champion. After the promulgation of the GTO, the standards for popularizing sport in university and college was decided to a certain extent, which replaced the function of it. This situation lasted until the late 1970s.

2.4.2 The policies of university and college sport

The structure of university and college sport between the 1950s and 1970s was implemented by national policies. Therefore, its development could be revealed by investigating the policies in this period.

Table 2 – 7

Major Policies of School Sport in the 1950s to 1970s

Time	Official	Police	Contents
1951, Aug 10	The SC	The deision on improving health of all levels of schools	All levels of schools should improve P. E. teaching, add sport and entertainment facilities, and strengthen students' health and exercise. In addition to morning exercise and activities between periods, students should be organized to participate in sport activities and entertainment. The forms of activities should be varied according to the age, gender and body condition of the student. The tendency of championship and over–exercise should be avoided (People's Daily, 1951, Aug 10).
1954, May 5	The NSC, the MHE, the MOE, the NDYLCC, the CNUS	The joint notice to conduct mass sport in middle schools and colleges	School sport started its transition toward popularization. But it couldn't fit the movement of socialist industrialization and transformation in the new historical period. All schools should consider their own situations and promote sport activities that students enjoy and appropriate sport competitions. Sport teams should be trained so as to combine improvement and popularization of sport. In the meanwhile, schools should study the USSR's sport curriculum (People's Daily, 1954, May 5).
1954, Dec 13	The MHE	The notice to improve sanitation and health of teachers and students in colleges	All universities and colleges should further strengthen the leadership in sport and conduct all kinds of sport activities (People's Daily, 1954, Dec 13).
1956, Feb 16	The MHE, the NSC, the MOS, the NDYLCC	The joint direction of colleges for strengthening leadership and conduct sport	All schools should diverse extracurricular sport activities and hold campus sport competitions with the focus on the GTO. A school games should be held on yearly. On the basis of comprehensive development, the existing sport teams should be consolidated and expanded. The schools in the same region could hold inter–school games (The MHE, the NCS, the MOS, & the NDYLCC, 1956, Feb 26).

1962,	The MOE	Improvement of the school's	Comprehensive considerations would be taken concerning morning exercise, exercise between
Apr 21		sport	periods, and P. E. classes. 33 (Editorial Board of China Education Encyclopedia, 1996, p. 253).
1978,	The MOE, the	The notice to strengthen sport	Sport competitions were beneficial for the improvement and popularization of sport. These should
Apr 14	NSC, the MOS	and sanitation of schools	be incorporated on campus and grassroots level and focus on small-scale, diverse, and dispersed
			competitions. School would hold one to two sport games each year.
			The education department demanded improvement in sport and sanitation. Specifically, the athletic
			teams would be built on the basis of popularization. Amateurish training would be conducted to
			enhance the sporting level. It was the first time that the proposal was made on building sport
			teams. ³⁴
1979,	The NSC, the	The national student sport	The student competitions should be closely combined with the amateurish training. The competition
Apr 29	MOE	competition system	arrangement, method, content, and the age group of athletes should be determined according to the
			unified requirements of the provinces, municipalities, and autonomous regions for the overall
			planning concerning conception, organization, and training. A multi-level training network would be
			established to build a talent pool for reaching the world highest sporting level.
			The National Sport Games and the National High School Games as well as other single-item school
			competitions were held by the education department. The selection games for the Universiade were
			held by the national sport committee. ³⁵
1979,	The MOE, the	Temporary regulations of	The basic mission of the university sport work was to direct the students to exercise and build body.
Oct 5	NSC	university sport (Trial)	The university sport work should address all the students. Popularization and enhancement would be
			combined, and the focus and popularization would be both emphasized. In the meanwhile, the
			technical level of sport would also be improved.36
Noto S	C = The State Co	The Motional Car	Noto SC = The State Comodil: NSC = The National Snort Committee: MHF = The Ministry of Higher Education: MOF = The Ministry of

Education; NDYLCC = The New Democratic Youth League Central Committee; CNUS = The China National Union of Students; MOS= The Note. SC = The State Council; NSC = The National Sport Committee; MHE = The Ministry of Higher Education; MOE = The Ministry of Ministry of Sanitation.

In this period, there were few policies that were made special for university and college sport. The policies in the early 1950s mainly focused upon the health and sanitation of students. The popularization of sport was advocated for the purpose of enhancing health and forming favorable style life. In 1954 the NSC promulgated "The Joint Notice to Conduct Mass Sport in Middle Schools and Colleges". This pointed the direction for university and college sport and became the dominant idea for its development before 1958. The notice proposed to establish sport teams but didn't mention the specific ways to implement the idea. During the 1960s, university and college sport was adjusted and reconstructed. The focus of sport and physical education switched back to the physical well-being of students. The popularization of sport was advocated while there were no regulations on it. "The National Student Sport Competition System" promulgated in 1979 followed closely the then adjustment of the guiding thoughts of sport. The system aimed to effectively popularize and improve sport activities. The policies between the 1950s and 1970s followed the need of the development of national sport. They promoted the wide organization of sport activities at university and college while placing limit on the enhancement of it.

2.4.3 The change of the sporting level

Before the CPC had fully taken state power, collgiate students formed representative groups to participate in the world–level competitions. In August 14 to 28, 1949 the 10th World University Summer Games were held in Budapest. The controlled region of the CPC

also sent collegiate male basketball team to participate in the competition (Editorial Board of China Sport Yearbook, 1964, p. 31). After 1949, the first world–level competition that China took part in was the collegiate games. In 1950 the China National Students Joint Association sent representative teams to participate in sports games of "*The Second Congress of the World Students*" held in Prague in August 14 to 23 (Anonymous, 1950b; Editorial Board of China Sport Yearbook, 1964, p. 32). In the early and middle period of 1950s, some collegiate athletes led the development of certain sports in China. Huang Qianghui³⁷ studied in Harbin Institute of Technology, where he led a number of other students to practice weightlifting for competition in addition to keeping practicing by himself (Literature and History Committee of the NSC, 1996, p. 80). Besides, by investigating the history of fencing and baseball in China, student athletes played an active role in popularizing sports (Chen, et al., 1990, p. 35).

After the NSC established, the government started to train athletes. All administrative regions created sport college. Sport teams and youth amateur sport schools were created on the provincial level. They all came as competitors to university and college sport. However, since the nurturing of sport talent took time, university and college sport still had the advantage between the middle 1950s and the early 1960s. By looking at the origin of the athletes in the first National Games of the PRC, some were from institutions. Took

Chongqing University for example, between 1958 and 1964 there were 125 students who

participated at the provincial level competitions as representatives of Chongqing (Editorial Board of Chongqing University History, 1994, p. 116).

Around 1960, with the adjustment of the sport system, the NSC and local branches started to organize and manage the selecting, training and competition of athletes. As university and college sport didn't become part of the national sport plan it lost the policy support and was reliant in its development. They still had competitions but gradually fell behind other organizations in terms of the sporting level and influence such as the railway system, the army system. Student athletes couldn't compete with special purpose athletes. Therefore, from the 1960s to 1970s, university and college sport lost its leading position in China.

2.5 The university and college games

From the 1950s to 1970s, compared with national games held in other organizations and systems, the counterparts in institutions were few. In August, 1956 Beijing Sport College held inter–collegiate basketball and volleyball in national sport colleges (Wu & Yang, 1956). This was one of the earliest national inter–collegiate sport competitions in the PRC. In 1957 the track and field competition in the system of sport colleges was held in Shanghai. In 1958 the national inter–collegiate track and field games was held in Xi'an (Editorial Board of China Sport Yearbook, 1964, p. 89). From 1956 to 1970s provinces, municipal and

autonomous regions started to organize regional inter–collegiate sport competition (See the Table 2-8 to 16).

Table 2-8

Anhui Inter-collegiate Games (1950s-1970s)

	Time	Place	Sports	Institution & Athlete	Champion
1	1955, Apr $3 - 5$	Hefei	Track and field	H.C.C., A.M.C., A. A. C., A.N.C., A.A.I.; nearly 300 athletes	H.C.C.
7	1958, Apr $25 - 27$	Hefei	Track and field, defense sport	A.M.C., A.A.C., A.N.C., H.N.C. H.M.C., H.S.C; 200 athletes	H.M.C.
3	1960, July $29 - 31$	W.N.U.	Track and field	26 institutions; 696 athletes	H.M.C.
4	1977, Oct 29 – 30 A.N.U.	A.N.U.	Track and field	13 institutions; 820 athletes	A.N.C.

Note. 1) The data was collated from Editorial Board of Anhui Province Local Chronicles (Ed.). (1990, pp. 43 – 44).

2) H.C.C. = Huainan Coal College; A.M.C. = Anhui Medical College; A.A.C. = Anhui Agricultural College; A.N.C. = Anhui Normal College; A.A.I. = Anhui Administration Institution; H.N.C. = Hefei Normal College; H.M.C. = Hefei Mining College; H.S.C. = Hefei Sport College; W.N.U. = Wannan University.

Table 2 – 9

Beijing Inter-collegiate Games (1954–1990)

Name	Year	Times	Institution of advantage
Basketball	1954	30	T.H.U. & B.I.S.I.
Track and Field	1955	28	B.S.C., B.M.I., T.H.U., B.I.S.I. & P.K.U.
Football	1957	19	B.I.S.I.
Handball	1957	5	Male: T.H.U.; Female: B.I.S.I.
Volleyball	1958	13	B.U.A.A.
Trail Running Race	1958	19	T.H.U. & B.I.S.I.
Gymnastics	1958	8	Male: P.K.U.; Female: T.H.U.
Weightlifting	1960	14	T.H.U.
Swimming	1972	19	T.H.U. & P.K.U.
Table Tennis	1973	14	P.K.U.
		<u> </u>	1 ()

2) T.H.U. = Tsinghua University; B.I.S.I. = Beijing Iron and Steel Institute; B.S.C. = Beijing Sport College; B.M.I. = Beijing Mining Institute; Note. 1) The data was from Editorial Board of Beijing Local Chronicles (Ed.). (2004, pp. 106 – 107). P.K.U. = Peking University; B.U.A.A. = Beijing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics.

Table 2-10

Fujian Inter-collegiate Games (1950s-1970s)

	Time	Place	Insitution & Athlete	Champion
1	1961	X.M.U.	X.M.U., F.N.C., F.A.C., F.M.C., F.F.C., H.Q.U.; 350 athletes	1
2	1965	H.Q.U.	X.M.U., F.N.C., F.A.C., F.M.C., F.F.C., H.Q.U.; 350 athletes	I
3	1975, Nov $26 - 28$	F.Z.U.	X.M.U., F.N.C., F.M.C., F.A.C., F.Z.U., F.C.F., F.F.C.; over 400 athletes	F.N.C.
4	1977, Oct $15 - 19$	X.M.U.	X.M.U., F.N.C., F.M.C., F.A.C., F.Z.U., F.C.F., F.F.C.; 480 athletes	I
2	1980, July $18 - 22$	X.M.U.	X.M.U., F.M.C., F.M.C., F.C.M.C., F.A.C., F.F.C., F.C.F, H.Q.U., F.Z.U.	X.M.U.
. 7.4	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	,		

Note. 1) The data was collated from Editorial Board of Jiangsu Province Local Chronicles (Ed.). (1993, p. 45).

F.F.C. = Fujian Forestry College; H.Q.U. = Huaqiao University; F.Z.U. = Fuzhou University; F.C.F. = Fujian College of Fisheries; F.C.M.C. = 2) X.M.U. = Xiamen University; F.N.C. = Fujian Normal College; F.A.C. = Fujian Agriculture College; F.M.C. = Fujian Medicine College; Fujian Chinese medicine College.

Table 2 − 11

Hebei Inter-collegiate Games (1950s-1970s)

	Time	Place	Sports	Insitution & Athlete	Champion
	1956, July16 – 18	Zhangjiakou	Track and field (M: 22; F: 14); weightlifting	Track and field (M: 22; F: 14); H.N.C., H.M.C., H.A.C., H.R.C. weightlifting	H.N.C.
7	1957, Aug $7 - 8$	Zhangjiakou	Track and field; weightlifting	6 insitutions; 258 athlete	H.N.C.
\mathcal{C}	1960, May	Baoding	Track and field	20 insitutions; 868 athlete	T.J.U. & T.N.U.
4	1964, May $1-4$	Tianjin	Track and field (M:19; F: 14)	23 insitutions; –	T.N.U.
2	1980, Oct $1-3$	Shijiazhuang	Track and field (M:17; F: 14)	30 insitutions; 546 athlete	M: H.M.E.E.C.; F: H.N.C.

Note. 1) The date was collated from Editorial Board of Hebei Province Local Chronicles (Ed.). (1992, pp. 51 – 52).

²⁾ F = female; M = male.

³⁾ H.N.C. = Heibei Normal College; H.M.C. = Hebei F.M.C.; H.A.C. = Hebei Agriculture College; H.R.C. = Hebei Railway College; T.J.U. = Tianjin University; T.N.U. = Tianjin Normal University; H.M.E.E.C. = Hebei Mechanical and Electrical Engineering College.

Table 2 – 12

Jiangsu Inter-collegiate Games (1950s-1970s)

	Time	Place	Sports	Insitution & Athlete	Champion
1	1956, Apr $4 - 8$	Nanjing	T&F, Wei., Gym.	17 insitution; 903 athletes	T&F, Wei.: N.J.U; Gym.: N.I.T.
7	1958, May $2-4$	Nanjing	T&F, Gym.	16 insitutions; 739 athletes	F: N.N.C; M: N.I.T.
3	1958, Nov $15-17$	Nanjing	T&F, Gym.	47 insitutions; 986 athletes	I
4	1965, Oct 14 – 16	Nanjing	T&F, Gym.	21 insitutions; unknown	T&F: N.I.T; Gym.: unkonwn
2	1975, May $24 - 27$	N.J.U.	T&F	27 insitutions; 759 athletes	M: N.J.U; F: S.E.U.
9	1978, May $24 - 28$	N.U.A.A.	T&F, Gym.	26 insitutions; over 790 athletes	F: N.J.U.; M: N.I.T.; S.D: X.N.C.

Note. 1) The data was collated from Editorial Board of Jiangsu Province Local Chronicles (Ed.). (1998, p. 49).

2) T&F = Track and field; Wei. = weightlifting; Gym. = gymnastics; sporting departments = S.D. Ins. = institutions; Aths. = athletes; F = female; M = male.

3) N.J.U. = Nanjing University; N.I.T. = Nanjing Institute of Technology; N.N.C. = Nanjing Normal College; S.E.U. = Southeast University; N.U.A.A. = Nanjing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics; X.N.C. = Xuzhou Normal College.

Table 2 − 13

Qinghai Inter-collegiate Games (1950s-1970s)

			i	
	Time	Place	Sports	Insitution & Athlete
1	1971, June $11 - 13$	Xining	Track and field	16 insitutions; 586 athletes
2	1976, June	Q.C.N.	Track and field	16 insitutions; over 600 athletes
3	1978, June $6 - 8$	H.S.A.Q.N.N	Track and field	16 insitutions; 560 athletes
				(1)

Note. The data was collated from Editorial Board of Qinghai Province Local Chronicles (Ed.). (1997, p. 154).

²⁾ Institutions included high schools.

³⁾ Q.C.N. = Qinghai College for Nationalities; H.S.A.Q.N.N = The High School Attach to Qinghai Normal University High School.

Table 2-14

Shandong Inter-collegiate Games (1950s-1970s)

1 1956, July 15 – 16 Jinan Track and field; weightlifting 7 institutions; 276 athletes 2 1958, May 17 – 18 Jinan Track and field – 3 1965, May 1 – 2 S.M.C. Track and field 15 institutions; 533 athletes 4 1978 Jinan, Qingdao, Female: basketball; Male: Volleyball, table 29 institutions; 1,860 athletes tennis, track and field 29 institutions; 1,860 athletes		Time	Place	Sports	Insitution & Athlete	Champion
Jinan Track and field S.M.C. Track and field Jinan, Qingdao, Female: basketball; Male: Volleyball,table Zibo, Taian, Jining tennis, track and field	-	1956, July $15 - 16$	Jinan	Track and field; weightlifting	7 institutions; 276 athletes	S.N.U.
S.M.C. Track and field Jinan, Qingdao, Female: basketball; Male: Volleyball,table tennis, track and field	7	1958, May $17 - 18$	Jinan	Track and field	I	S.N.U.
Jinan, Qingdao, Female: basketball; Male: Volleyball,table Zibo, Taian, Jining tennis, track and field	3	1965, May $1-2$	S.M.C.	Track and field	15 institutions; 533 athletes	S.N.U.
	4	1978	Jinan, Qingdao,	Female: basketball; Male: Volleyball,table	29 institutions; 1,860 athletes	J.N.C.
			Zibo, Taian, Jining	tennis, track and field		

Note. 1) The data was collated from Editorial Board of Shandong Province Local Chronicles. (Ed.). (1993, pp. 91 – 92).

2) S.M.C. = Shandong Medical College; S.N.U. = Shandong Normal University; J.N.C. = Jinan Normal College.

Table 2-15

Zhejiang Inter-collegiate Games (1950s-1970s)

Insitution & Athlete	7 insitutions; –	I	13 insitutions; over 300 athletes
Sports	I	I	Track and field
Place	Hangzhou	Hangzhou	Hangzhou University
Time	1958, May	1960, Mar	1978, July
	1	2	3

Note. The data was collated from Editorial Board of Zhejiang Province Local Chronicles (Ed.). (2003).

Table 2 – 16

Other Provinces Inter-collegiate Games (1950s-1970s)

Province	Time	Place	Sports	Insitution & Athlete
Hunan	1959, Feb	Changsha	Track and field, weightlifting, handball, softball, baseball	7 insitutions; –
Guangxi	1960, Feb 1	Guilin	Track and field, gymnastics, weightlifting, bicycle, table tennis	28 insitutions; 778 athletes
Heilongjiang	1978, June $8 - 10$	H.N.C.	Track and field	23 insitutions; 771 athletes
Xinjiang	1978, June 16	X.J.U.	Track and field	X.J.U.;-
	1979, June $8 - 10$ X.F.T.C.	X.F.T.C.	Track and field	X.J.U.; –
ì	,			

Note. 1) The data was collated from Editorial Board of Hunan Province Local Chronicles (Ed.). (1994, p. 103). Editorial Board of Guangxi Local Chronicles (Ed.). (1989, p. 159). Editorial Board of Heilongjiang Province Local Chronicles (Ed.). (1997, p. 661). Editorial Board of Xinjiang Chronicles (Ed.). (2002, p. 161).

2) H.N.C. = Harbin Normal College; X.J.U. = Xinjiang University; X.F.T.C. = Xinjiang Finance and Trade College.

By analyzing the above tables, it could be seen the following characteristics of inter-collegiate games between the 1950s and 1970s. 1) The major sports were track and field. Aside from that weightlifting and gymnastics were also held frequently. 2) The agenda and system of most provincial games were unstable. Most of the games lasted for a short period usually one to three days. As to the system of the games there was no division of groups (different from the games in the 1980s). 3) Beijing held most of the games and sports since institutions gathered in the place and it was also the political center of the PRC. 4) The sporting level was not high because institutions had no longer trained elite athletes since the 1960s.

2.6 Summary

From the 1950s to 1970s, the PRC used administrative methods to follow the USSR in constructing the sport system. Sport was a reflection of the national ideology in advocating criticizing American sport and the USSR's sport. The state government restructured the management and training system of sport in the 1950s and formed the idea of combining popularization and raising of standards in sport.

Sport college became the vehicle of institutional sport in this period. They functioned as the training centers for the first National Games of the PRC. Between the 1950s and 1970s, the number of sport college, the subject setting, and training goals were deeply influenced by political movements and fluctuated. In the 1960s, a three–level training system was

established after adjustment in the field of sport. Sport college was separated from the national training system, and their sporting level gradually fell behind the special purpose training system.

From the 1950s to 1970s, university and college sport in China went through a period of reconstruction. The replacement of political power and the change in ideology were also reflected in it. Sport became a form of propaganda of socialism and also an important way of exchange with the world. The CPC established powerful administrative system to transform the conception of sport and model on the USSR in order to construct the training system. In this way, the level of sport improved. In the field of higher education institution, with the adjustment in the early 1950s followed the USSR and merged sporting departments and subjects of comprehensive institution into sport college. This made a significant restructure of university and college sport.

In this period university and college sport (except sport colleges) was part of the popularization of sport, the policies on it focused on student's health and sanitation rather than sporting level. From the 1950s to 1970s, all provinces held university sport games. This took track and field as the major content. Furthermore, sport games of higher education institutions on the national level didn't appear. After the nationwide sport system became mature, university and college sport separated from the system and also lost its leading position in sport of China.

Chapter 3 High–level sport teams in China's universities and colleges 3.1 The development of sport in the 1980s

After "The Third Plenary Session of the 11th Central Committee of the Communist Party of China" [CPC] in 1978³⁹, the People's Republic of China [PRC] started its era of the Reform and Opening Up ("改革开放", gaige kaifang). An amended economy started to transform the nation into a commodity economy. Regarding sport, in order to bring results to the Moscow Olympics Games, the National Sport Committee [NSC] held "The 1980 National Sport Affairs Conference". The experience and lessons of sport since the 1950s were discussed and summarized. The NSC (1980) proposed that sport affairs would stress on important aspects with unified arrangement and planning (Mar 28). Sport committees above provincial level would continue the policy of the integration of popularization while emphasizing on enhancement. The change in the policy later became a starting point and end of the basic fundamental mission and conceptual path of sport reform in the 1980s (Xiong & Xia, 2008, p. 19). The excellent achievements of China's sport in the Olympic Games and the Asian Games since the 1980s have been backed by the government–dominated sport policy transitions (See the Table 3 - 1, 3 - 2).

Table 3-1China's Athletes in the Asian Games Medals (1982 – 2010)

Number	Year	Place	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total	Position
7	1974	Tehran	33	46	27	106	3
8	1978	Bangkok	51	55	45	151	2
9	1982	New Delhi	61	51	41	153	1
10	1986	Seoul	94	82	46	222	1
11	1990	Beijing	183	107	51	341	1
12	1994	Hiroshima	125	83	58	266	1
13	1998	Bangkok	129	78	67	274	1
14	2002	Busan	150	84	74	308	1
15	2006	Doha	165	88	63	316	1
16	2010	Guangzhou	199	119	98	416	1

Table 3 – 2

China's Athletes in the Olympic Games Medals (1984 – 2012)

Number	Time	Place	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total	Position
23	1984	Los Angeles	15	8	9	32	5
24	1988	Seoul	5	11	12	28	7
25	1992	Barcelona	16	22	16	54	4
26	1996	Atlanta	16	22	12	50	4
27	2000	Sydney	28	16	15	59	3
28	2004	Athens	32	17	14	63	3
29	2008	Beijing	51	21	28	100	2
30	2012	London	38	27	23	88	2

3.1.1 The nationwide sport system

The nationwide sport system was a description of the sport system of China, the duration of which was not easy to identify. 40 Bao Mingxiao (2001) argured that it came into existence probably during the analysis of quick development of several sports after the Los Angeles Olympic Games in 1984. The system comprised of the 'one–dragon' training system, the national games system, and the long–term training of national teams. The unified, overall organization and management of sport were similar to the developing nuclear power and launching satellites 40 in China. Thus, it became known as the nationwide sport system (pp. 48 – 51).

Chinese researchers focused on the nationwide sport system after the late 1980s. Most studies regarded it as a highly unified sport management system that concentrated national power and serves the state government's purpose (Lu, 1989; Min, 1988; Shi, 1989; Li & Cong, 1990; Sun & Qing, 1995). For the origin of the nationwide sport system, Lu Yuanzhen (1989) described that in politics, a new system emerged after a hundred years' national disaster. The system was eager to display its advantages and ability to win. The political wishes and national psychology intertwined and a culture that emphasized victory in international sport competitions was born. On the one hand, sport culture unavoidably inherited the military culture from past wartime and the war preparation culture of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics [USSR] after the Second World War. On the other, it combined

influence of traditional agricultural thoughts, Confucianism, and traditional regulations. It was under these driving forces that the nationwide sport system came into existence (pp. 11 – 12).

With the increase of influential power of the Olympic Games around the globe and the conflict of political powers in the 1980s, China's sport teams had the mission to obtain achievements in international sport competitions in response to political needs. From this background, the nationwide sport system mainly contained the following two aspects: first, it aimed to achieve political purposes of the state government (Lu, 1989) with the slogan training in internal, competing in international ("国内练兵,一致对外", guonei lianbing, yizhi duiwai) (The NSC, 1979, Mar 9). Second, the government executed all management powers (Sun & Qing, 1995) with the slogan unify the mind, the organization and the training system ("思想一盘棋、组织一条龙、训练一贯制", sixiang yipanqi, zuzhi yitiaolong, xunlian yiguanzhi) (The NSC, 1980, Mar 28).

After the Sydney Olympic Games, the nationwide sport system developed its new content. Hao & Ren (2003) described that: 1) the General Administration of Sport of China [GASC] and all levels of sport committees acted as the core of sport management system. 2) A training system was executed that centered on two levels of special purpose teams and two levels of young amateur sport schools. 3) A national competition system was established, of which the National Games of the PRC stood on top. It was a sport system with China's

characteristics, which was to concentrate sport resources onto the highest benefits of the country (pp. 3-5).

Through the management and resource allocation of the nationwide sport system, China's sport teams succeeded in the Olympic Games in 2004, 2008, and 2012. Therefore, the officials and the scholars promoted and argued for the insistence and improvement of the nationwide sport system (Bao, 2001; Li & Bao, 2003; Liang, 2004). They also proposed to incorporate other initiatives into the system such as integration of sport and education, the reform of professional sport, and other diversified sport development paths (Song, 2012; He, Ni, & Zhang, 2010; Pan, Chen, & Chen, 2004).

Through the above analysis, the nationwide sport system was characterized by strong national intention and built by the national sport administration. As a vehicle to gain development in sport, the system consisted of a management system and a training system.

The national monopoly was represented in the role of it. That was concentrating as much as resources as possible and support training. In order to achieve the ultimate goal of sport such as the Olympic champions, the NSC selected potential athletes and incorporated them into the training system. They underwent sport training over the years since their youth and neglected education and individual socialization. This gave rise to the separation of education and sport.

The nationwide sport system contributed to the great achievements China made in sport since

the 1980s. However, the education, employment and other problems of the athletes posed serious challenges to the system.

3.1.2 The Olympic Glorious Program

The Olympic Glorious Program [OGP] was the continuation of national sport ideology between the 1950s and 1980s. ⁴² It functioned as specific initiatives of sport reform of China since the 1990s (People's Daily, 1996, Jan 4). The NSC (GASC) promulgated three versions of the OGP in 1995, 2002 and 2011 which set the basic tone of sport development. Its irreplaceable function to the development of sport was represented in the following two aspects: 1) it ensured the sustained growth of China's performance in the Olympic Games. 2) It propelled the development of sport in China. The OGP arranged sports with the notion of establishing rational structure, optimizing and combining sports, and providing multi–dimensional support (The NSC, 1995, July 6). It contributed to advance the performance level of some leading sports of China such as diving and table tennis. It also improved some weak sports in some periods (Xiong & Xia, 2008) such as women's football in the 1990s.

Table 3 – 3

A Comparison of Objectives of Three Olympic Glorious Programs

Program Objective 1) System reform and general objectives: Funding sources. Category-based sport management. Sport technology system. Competition system. Sport legal system. The OGP 2) Fundamental strength and sporting level objectives: Objective structure for (1994-2000)the Olympic athletes. Objective structure for the Olympic coaches. Funds allocation objective for the Olympic. Objective of research and development insurances. 3) Strength performance and sustainable development objectives: For the 1996 and the 2000 Summer Olympics. For the 1998 Winter Olympics. For other international games. 1) System reform and general objectives: Gold medal ranking would have breakthrough in the 2008 Olympic Games. Sport management system and operation system with Chinese characteristics would be formed. The overall strength of sport would steadily improve. 2) Fundamental strength and sporting level objectives: For the 2004 and the The OGP 2008 Summer Olympics. For the 2002, the 2006, and the 2010 Winter (2001-2010)Olympics. For other international games. 3) Strength performance and sustainable development objectives: Reasonable arrangement of sport and scientific categorization of sport. Improvement of competition system. The improvement of the scientific contribution in sport achievement. Rational and orderly movement of sport talent. Improvement of the quality and knowledge of athletes. Integration of sport and education. An efficient investment system and a social safeguard system would be established, suited to the development of sport. In 2020 the sport development model with Chinese characteristics would be further improved. An open, vibrant modern sport management and operation system would be formed which accommodate the need for developing the The OGP economy and culture and follow the development and trend of the world (2011-2020)sport. The comprehensive ability and international competitiveness of China's sport would be greatly improved. China would make excellent achievements in international games such as the Olympic Games. Sport in China would enhance its structure, efficiency and balance of various sports, which would make China with great sport competitiveness.

According to the above table, the 1995 and the 2001 OGP proposed specific and detailed objectives. For instance, the NSC (1995) stated that the 1996 Olympic China's delegate would strive to sustain its leading position as the second group on the ranking list. In 20 sports and 80 to 90 events, athletes would strive to be qualified or be ranked in the top eight. In 18 sports and over 80 events, athletes would be able to compete for the medals.... China would keep its leading position in the Summer Asian Games and strive for ranking second in the Winter Asian Games (July 6). The 2001 OGP continued the way of expressing objectives as 1995 (General Administration of Sport of China, 2005).

From the perspective of objectives, the 1995, 2001 OGP specified the operation, and clear objectives were good for the development of sport. However, the objectives could easily become the "gold medal strategy" which was represented that sport, funds and human labor all centered on gold medals. The OGP gave rise to the landscape of sport in China since 1990. Xiong & Xia (2008) pointed out that, under the OGP the nation won the honor, the medalists and their coaches obtained benefits, and the taxpayers paid the bill of business while the athletes sifted out face unemployment (p. 104).

With the market reform of sport in China after the early 1990s, the conflict between national benefits and athletes' benefits grew intense. As to the allocation, employment, and education of retired athletes, sport system had serious defects. Therefore, in the 2011 OGP only a macro–objective was proposed. It attempted to address the problems brought about by gold medal strategies and discussed the pluralistic reform of sport.

3.1.3 The integration of sport and education

The integration of sport and education originated from the separation of sport system and education system in China. In the 1950s, the government organized sport committee systems which were responsible for all sport affairs of the country. A specialized training system and management system was thus established. Political power, human labor and materials allocated to this system ensured its efficient operation. In the 1960s the system first displayed its effect with athletes making breakthroughs in weightlifting and swimming. After the 1960s education system no longer developed top athletes, who went through a three–level training system, from youth amateur sport schools and provincial sport teams to national teams. This process separated sport from education. In the mid and late–1980s, based on furthering reform in China, sporting reform was advocated (Wang Diguang, 1988; Wang Weichuan, 1988; Zhang, 1989; Tan, 1988). The sport model that was adopted in the economy should be transformed and integrating sport with education became an important orientation of development and was put on the agenda.

The integration of sport and education had a three–level meaning. From a macro–level point of view, since the 1950s, the development of sport in China relied upon specialized administrative organizations including national sport committee and local branches, not educational institutions. On the meso–level, youth amateur sport schools and sport colleges formed a specialized education system for special purpose athletes. In the micro–sense, an athlete's career went from youth amateur sport school to provincial team, and then to the national team. It was a special education not a comprehensive high school education and higher education. In this sense, sport was separated from education (Zheng & Chen, 2006).

From the beginning of the 21th Century, researchers looked into the issue of the integration of sport and education. Regarding a number of problems with establishing high–level sport teams, some researchers thought the proposition of integrating sport with education was theoretically invalid which was a stage in the development of sport and education (Wang, 2005). It was proposed on the basis of the current situation of the organizational separation sport and education. With the passage of time, sport would be incorporated back into education, and the concept of integration of two would also diminish with it. Meanwhile, on the practical side, the integration of sport and education was implemented in the following two ways.

The integration of sport and sport colleges

Based on the existing sport colleges and sport schools, this way of integration was to restore sport to universities. Sport colleges, sport teams, and sport research institutes merged to form new sport universities or colleges which trained athletes, coaches, social sport directors, P. E. teachers, and other kinds of sport specialists. This method was proposed as early as 1981. At that time, the state government proposed the guiding principle of moving sport teams back to schools. Sport teams were then gradually incorporated into the national education structure, and the education sector provided great assistance in the trials of the establishment of sport universities or colleges (State Council, 1981). Some scholars adopted research experiments on this method and the model of Nanjing Sport Institute was summarized (Hua, 2006; Huang, 2008).

Beijing Sport University for instance, it was a public institute of sport system responsible for training of national team, as well as belong to higher education system. This double

identity enabled it in implementing the integration of sport and education in training top athletes. It founded *The Champion Class* in 2003 which enrolled in–service or retired the Olympic and world champions. Cao & Wang (2010) reported that *The Champion Class* had enrolled 204 in total until 2010 (p. 4). Alternatively, the class could solve the problem of low educational background for the champions; on the other, the entry requirements for the class were high in terms of sport performance. Therefore, the strategy didn't solve the problem for most athletes and it was just an exchange of "sport capital" for degree.

The integration of sport and higher education institutions

The concept of integration of sport and higher education institutions⁴³ was proposed at "The Sport Conference in Yexian of Shandong Province in 1985" (Zheng, 2006). It was put into practice in 1987 when higher education institutions started to found their high–level sport teams. It was considered an effective way to solve problems of the nationwide sport system.

Since high–level sport teams were established, the exploration in integration of sport and education gained some successful, with a number of valuable operation models such as *The Tsinghua Model in Sport, Renmin University of China Diving Team Model*, and *Beijing University of Technology Football Team Model*. However, some problems still existed. For instance, since special purpose sport teams existed, universities and colleges tended to take the shortcut to enroll the retired top athletes, and some even cooperated with athletes in special purpose sport teams. The underlying reason was that there existed two interdependent training athlete systems. One was the nationwide sport system and the other was the

integration of sport and education. The situation persists even today from the 1980s as seemed to be was no ideal way to it (Hu & Wang, 2008).

3.2 Analysis of policies of high-level sport teams

Since the 1950s the development of sport in China has been conducted through system of sport committees with the top—to—bottom policies. The establishment and development of high—level sport teams relied upon the policies. Therefore, in order to analyzing the development of sport in higher education institutions since the 1980s, it was necessary first to review the relevant policies in this period.

3.2.1 Policies on high-level sport teams

The main policies related to university and college sport since the 1980s were summarized in the following the Table 3-4.

Table 3 – 4

Main Policies on High–level Sport Teams in Universities and Colleges (1980s to 2010s)

Year	Official	Policy
1981,	The SC	The notice of the report on several problems about the directors'
Apr 22		conferences of provincial and municipal sport committees
1983,	The SC	The notice of the proposition of further expanding new sport
Oct 28		areas by the National Sport Committee
1986,	The NSC	Decision on the reform of sport system (trial)
Apr 15		
1986,	The NEC	Temporary methods of approving the applications for training
Apr 17		high–level student athletes in higher education institutions (trial)
1986,	The NEC	Supplementary rules on the temporary methods of approving the
Nov 15		applications for training high-level student athletes in higher education institutions (trial)
1987,	The NEC	The notice of attempting to enroll high-level athletes by some of
Apr 9		universities and colleges
1987,	The NEC	Administrative methods of attempting to enroll high-level
July 30		athletes by some universities and colleges (trial)
1990,	The NEC	Temporary regulations on sport competitions of university and
July 10		high school students
1991,	The NEC	Explanatory notes on the qualification of athletes for the fourth
Dec 5		National University Games of the People's Republic of China
1995,	The NEC	The notice of establishing high-level sport teams by some
May 29		universities and colleges
1997,	The NEC	Administrative regulations on National University Games of the
Nov 28		People's Republic of China
1998,	The NEC	The notice of examination and assessment of high schools for
Mar 20		establishing sport talent reserves and trial universities and colleges for training high–level athletes

1999,	The CUSA	The charter of Chinese University Sport Association
Jan 9		
1999	The CUSA	Registry regulations of national student athletes
2000	The MOE	Supplementary notice of the qualification of athletes for the sixth National University Games of the People's Republic of China
2000,	The MOE	The notice of approving select universities and colleges as trial
May 31		sites for training high–level athletes
2004,	The MOE	The notice of enrolling high-level athletes for universities and
Nov 15		colleges in 2005
2005,	The MOE &	The opinions of further strengthening the high–level sport teams
Apr 18	The GASC	of universities and colleges
2005,	The MOE	The notice of publicizing comprehensive assessment results of
Dec 14		the high–level sport teams of universities and colleges
2006,	The MOE	The notice of enrolling high–level athletes for universities and
Jan 4		colleges in 2006
2006,	The MOE	The notice of adjusting the item setting of high–level sport teams
Dec 20		of some universities and colleges in 2007
2009,	The MOE	The notice of enrolling high–level athletes for universities and
Jan 8		colleges in 2009
2012,	The SC	The notice of several opinions about further strengthening school
Oct 22		sport work

Note. SC = State Council; NSC = National Sport Committee; NEC = National Education Committee; CUSA = Chinese University Sports Association; MOE = Ministry of Education; GASC = General Administration of Sport of China.

3.2.2 Policies analysis of high-level sport teams

Policies in the 1980s

In 1981 the State Council [SC] approved and announced notification by national sport committee which proposed the establishment of high-level sport teams in higher education institutions. The SC (1981) described that encouraged and supported relevant departments including industry systems, large factories and enterprises, and higher education institutions to found all kinds of youth amateur training and set high-level sport teams (Apr 22). Afterward, the first National University Games of the People's Republic of China (1982) [NUG] was held in Beijing. It created a platform for communication and display of university and college sport. In 1983, the SC (1983) approved and announced "The Notice of the Proposition of Further Expanding New Sport Areas by the National Sport Committee" which suggested some departments, industrial sectors, large factories and enterprises, and universities and colleges establish high-level sport teams according to specific situation (Oct 28). Compared with the policy in 1981, the expression "encouraged and supported" was rephrased to "suggest" which further recognized the meaning of constructing high-level sport teams in higher education institutions. Later, the NEC attempted to break the barrier between different specialized training systems. The NEC (1986) put forward that high-level student athletes should be nurtured in institutions with a higher basis of sport so that they could be better prepared to participate in domestic and international games (Nov 15).

In 1987 the NEC (1987) promulgated "The Notice of Attempting to Enroll High–level Athletes by Some of Universities and Colleges" (Mentioned as "1987 Notice" below) which pointed out the enrollment subject and method, admission procedure, preliminary class,

teaching management and other affairs of high–level sport teams (Apr 9). The 1987 Notice determined the status of university and college sport in China, and since then it started to develop as high–level sport teams. The 1987 Notice was considered the creation of a new area of sport in higher education institutions.

The NEC promulgated "Administrative Methods of Attempting to Enroll High–level Athletes by Some of Universities and Colleges (Trial)" in the same year. The NEC (1987) pointed out that in order to ensuring healthy developments of sport training, improved sport techniques in higher education institutions, the administrative methods for trial were drown up (July 30). The methods included seven aspects: organizing and leadership, thoughts and morality, teaching management, training, coaching, funding and lives management, evaluation and rewarding. It functioned as the plan of building high–level sport teams.

The above official documents provided policy support for building high–level sport teams. With the gradual development of the NUG and other competitions, the sporting level of higher education institutions improved. However, there emerged a problem of retired or in–service special purpose athletes competing with student athletes. Afterward the qualification examination of athletes in student competitions became an urgent issue.

Between 1988 and 1991 the NEC promulgated three documents for regulating the qualification of athletes participating in the NUG. However, Yang & Chen (2002) thought that most universities and colleges didn't implement the administrative methods in reality (p. 107). Therefore, the participation of special purpose athletes in the games became a chronic disease of the development of university and college sport in China.

Policies in the 1990s

After a few years' exploration, the NEC (1995, May 29) promulgated "The Notice of Establishing High–level Sport Teams by Some Universities and Colleges" (Mentioned as "1995 Notice" below). It specified regulations on building high–level sport teams in universities and colleges and determined the goals for it, namely promoting the sporting level of students, nurturing sport talent with comprehensive qualities, and gradually achieving the goal of organizing team to participate the Universiade by the NEC. 44 The 1995 Notice specified enrollment in universities and colleges, quantities and range, enrollment subject and methods, teaching and management, and other matters. It also stipulated that in all universities and colleges in China, 53 were qualified for enrolling students for high–level sport teams in 11 sports. There were 38 higher education institutions that had track and field, 19 with volleyball and basketball teams, six football teams, five table tennis teams, five national defense sport, three swimming teams, two handball teams, one tennis team, gymnastics, fencing team. Sun Yat–sen University had high–level sport teams for five sports, topping the rank.

From a geographic perspective, 53 insitutions covered 19 administrative regions in China. Most were located in the eastern part of the country. Between 1995 and 2004 the sports setting of high–level teams in universities and colleges had two characteristics: 1) some sports were set according to gender, some universities and colleges had only male or female high–level sport teams. 2) Defense sports were established.

Table 3 – 5

List of High–level Sport Teams in Universities and Colleges (1995 – 2004)

Provinces	Number	Sports
Beijing	9	Track and field, basketball (M), football (M), volleyball (M), defense sports
Shanghai	6	Track and field, basketball, swimming, table tennis, volleyball, football, handball, defense sports
Tianjin	6	Track and field, basketball, volleyball, table tennis
Hubei	5	Track and field, badminton, volleyball, basketball
Guangdong	4	Track and field, basketball, football, volleyball, swimming, table tennis, fencing, badminton
Shanxi	3	Track and field, basketball, football, volleyball
Liaoning	3	Track and field, football, basketball (M), volleyball (M)
Jiangsu	3	Track and field, basketball (M), volleyball, defense sport
Shandong	3	Track and field, basketball (M), volleyball
Sichuan	2	Track and field, volleyball
Zhejiang	1	Track and field, basketball (M), volleyball (F), tennis
Jiangxi	1	Track and field, table tennis, gymnastics
Heilongjiang	1	Track and field, basketball (F)
Hebei	1	Track and field, basketball (F)
Gansu	1	Track and field, volleyball (F)
Qinghai	1	Track and field, basketball (F)
Anhui	1	Handball
Jilin	1	Volleyball (F)
Hunan	1	Defense sports

Note. 1) Provnices included province, municipalities and autonomous region.

²⁾ M = Male; F = Female.

Policies in the 2000s

In 2004 the Ministry of Education of the PRC [MOE] (2004) promulgated "*The Notice of Enrolling High–level Athletes for Universities and Colleges in 2005*" which became the new guiding document of building high–level sport teams in universities and colleges. This document loosened enrollment restrictions and set the criteria as Level 2 athlete and above and 22 years below. The preparatory class was also canceled. The lowering of enrollment level provided a large student pool for high–level sport teams in universities and colleges (Nov 15).

In 2005 the MOE & the GASC (2005) promulgated "The Opinions of Further Strengthening High–level Sport Teams of Universities and Colleges" (Mentioned as "2005 Opinions" below) which included 17 opinions bringing high–level sport teams into a new stage of development. It was exhibited in the following aspects:

1) It specified the objective of high–level sport teams in universities and colleges. The MOE & the GASC (2005) stated the objective were to nurture elite athletes that developed comprehensively and to complete the missions in the Universiade and major domestic and international competitions and made contributions to the OGP and sustainable development of sport (Apr 18). 2) It regulated many aspects of high–level sport teams building and made detailed interpretation. Meamwhile, it granted autonomous right to universities and colleges and let them dominate their sport development. 3) It lowered the entry requirement of high–level sport teams. After the assessment of experts, universities and colleges could be eligible for building high–level sport teams. This promoted enlarge the group of higher education institutions having high–level sport teams. 4) It founded an assessment system

composed of a panel of experts which contributed to guide the development of high–level sport teams.

The 2005 Opinions were actually policy orientation based on a summary of over 20 years' experience and the difficulty in building high-level sport teams in universities and colleges. It offered an interpretation on many aspects including athletes' education, training and competition regulations, school roll management, university competition systems, coach team building, the resolution of conflict between study and training of athletes, the integration of sport with education, the talent development system, and the financial side and rewarding. The 2005 Opinions functioned as a plan for the development orientation of high-level sport teams in universities and colleges and promoted it entered a stage of rapid development. In the same year, the MOE (2005, Dec 14) promulgated "The Notice of Publicizing Comprehensive Assessment Results of High–level Sport Teams of Universities and Colleges". The result of evaluation showed that 235 universities and colleges passed the overall assessment for their high-level sport teams and could carry on the enrollment in 2006. It noteworthy was that sport universities or colleges didn't participate in the overall assessment (Dec 14). The ensuing relevant policies documents were basically a continuation and slight adjustment on the basis of the 2005 Opinions.

Table 3 – 6

The Number of High–level Sport Teams for the Sports in 2005

Sports	Number
Track and field	166
Basketball	116
Football	71
Volleyball	60
Swimming	44
Martial arts	42
Aerobics	37
Tennis	23
Badminton	20
Taekwondo	17
Orienteering	17
Winter sports	15
Dragon boat	10
Shooting	6
Handball	6
Rowing	5
Chess	5
Rock climbing	4
American football	3
Judo	3
Baseball	2
Softball	2
Rhythmic gymnastics	2
Wrestling	2
Weiqi	2
Bridge	1
Diving	1

Compared with the spots in the 1995 Notice, the 2005 Opinions planned 28 sports, 17 more than 1995 Notice. Tsinghua University and Peking University opened eight sports altogether, which were the two universities with the most sport teams. By analyzing sports of the 2005 Opinions, several characteristics could be found: 1) it eliminated national defense sports which was characteristic of the past. 2) Added traditional ethnic sports such as martial arts and dragon boat. 3) Added some sports that were not the Olympic Games but were popular with college students such as orienteering and aerobics. 4) Added some sports that had geographic features such as winter sports. 5) No longer founded high–level sport teams based on gender. 6) The list of universities having high–level sport teams included all well–known universities (The Project 985)⁴⁵ and almost all key universities (The 211 higher education institutions)⁴⁶ in China.

Table 3-7

List of High-level Sport Teams in Universities and Colleges in 2009

	Nur	Number	2,000
rrovince	Ins.	Spo.	Sports
Beijing	22	18	Track and field, shooting, swimming, rowing, aerobics, basketball, volleyball, football, table tennis, badminton, chess, martial art, climbing, softball, taekwondo, rugby, tennis, orienteering
Jiangsu	17	15	Track and field, swimming, volleyball, basketball, orienteering, table tennis, shooting, aerobics, soccer, tennis, diving, taekwondo, chess, martial arts, baseball and softball
Shanghai	15	18	Basketball, track and field, swimming, table tennis, tennis, rowing, aerobics, volleyball, shooting, martial arts, chess, football, handball, badminton, tennis, fencing, baseball, dragon boat
Hubei	4	41	Track and field, badminton, orienteering, rock climbing, swimming, basketball, martial arts, swimming, taekwondo, football, table tennis, tennis, aerobics, dragon boat
Shandong	4	4	Track and field, volleyball, basketball, soccer, table tennis, swimming, orienteering, aerobics, rowing, dragon boat, taekwondo, martial arts, wrestling, judo
Liaoning	12	12	Track and field, basketball, winter sports, badminton, volleyball, tennis, swimming, aerobics, fencing, football, table tennis, martial arts
Tianjin	12	16	Track and field, volleyball, swimming, aerobics, dragon boat, basketball, orienteering, soccer, bridge, martial arts, taekwondo, chess, table tennis, judo, tennis, fencing
Heilongjiang	11	10	Track and field, winter sport, martial arts, aerobics, handball, volleyball, table tennis, swimming, basketball, shooting
Shanxi	10	11	Basketball, track and field, swimming, table tennis, football, volleyball, badminton, taekwondo, aerobics, chess, tennis
Hunan	6	10	Track and field, basketball, table tennis, volleyball, martial arts, orienteering, shooting, chess, football, badminton
Shanxi	6	10	Basketball, track and field, volleyball, football, swimming, aerobics, taekwondo, rhythmic gymnastics, martial arts, table tennis

1) T. 1 11 11	(1)
Qinghai 1 2	Track and field, basketball
Ningxia 1 2	Track and field, basketball
Guizhou 1 5	Track and field, basketball, orienteering, martial arts, table tennis
2 4	Basketball, track and field, volleyball, football
3 7	Basketball, track and field, swimming, martial arts, soccer, aerobics, table tennis
4 6	Track and field, swimming, basketball, volleyball, soccer, tennis
Xinjiang 4 5	Track and field, football, table tennis, basketball, martial arts
Neimenggu 4 6	Track and field, basketball, judo, wrestling, soccer, volleyball
Chongqing 5 7	Basketball, track and field, volleyball, soccer, swimming, tennis, martial arts
Guangxi 5 10 Track an	Track and field, aerobics, badminton, table tennis, swimming, basketball, martial arts, rhythmic gymnastics, dragon boat, football
5 7	Track and field, volleyball, basketball, martial arts, soccer, aerobics, table tennis
Zhejiang 6 8 Tr	Track and field, basketball, soccer, rock climbing, aerobics, volleyball, table tennis, martial arts
5 6	Track and field, basketball, soccer, rock climbing, aerobics, volleyball
7 9	Track and field, basketball, badminton, soccer, swimming, martial arts, volleyball
7 11	Basketball, aerobics, tennis, volleyball, football, track and field, swimming, table tennis, taekwondo, martial arts, orienteering
7 10 Track and fi	Track and field, basketball, winter sports, table tennis, volleyball, football, taekwondo, orienteering, dragon, martial arts
7 8 H	Handball, basketball, table tennis, taekwondo, fencing, track and field, martial arts, badminton
8 10 Track and fie	Track and field, basketball, martial arts, volleyball, football, taekwondo, rock climbing, badminton, rowing, aerobics
Guangdong 8 11 Basketball, ti	Basketball, track and field, volleyball, soccer, swimming, aerobics, taekwondo, gymnastics, martial arts, table tennis

Note. 1) The data was collated from the MOE. (2005, Dec 14).

²⁾ Ins. = Institutions; Spo. = Sports.

From the perspective of the number of sports, there were 726 high–level sport teams in universities and colleges, 84 in universities in Beijing and two in universities in Qinghai and Ningxia. Sport games were waried. As one could see from above the Table 3 –7, sports that made up a large percentage were track and field, basketball, football, volleyball, swimming, martial arts and table tennis.

3.2.3 Evaluation of the policies change

Since the 1980s the reconstruction and development of sport in China's universities and colleges have been implemented under the guidance of policies. By an analysis of the change of policies, the following features could be seen.

- 1) High–level sport teams have became synonymous with university and college sport since the 1980s. After over 20 years' policy construction it has made great progress and so had the competition level of university and college sport. The development of high–level sport teams was characterized by a top–down model, namely guided by the policies. The advantages of policies were the ability to rapidly establish the system of high–level sport teams and provide guidance. The disadvantages were also obvious, such as the position of high–level sport teams had no clear definition and the level of sport was low position.
- 2) Most of the policies on sport corresponded with the needs of development of sport in China. The policies proposed strategies to solve the problems in different stages. For instance, as to the athletes qualification problem at the NUG, corresponding policies were promulgated that interpreted relevant regulations. Additionally, some other policies addressed the difference in the sporting levels between sport universities or colleges and other.

- 3) The development of high–level sport teams could be divided into three stages according to the promulgation of policies. The first stage was from 1986 to 1995 when high–level sport teams were in an exploratory stage with emphasis on the integration of sport and education. The second stage was from 1996 to 2005 when several models of integrating sport with education were formed. The third stage was from 2006 to the present. It was a time of fast development of high–level sport teams. It has advocated the model of developing the student athlete.
- 4) The policies impacted on the research orientation of high–level sport teams. For instance, before policies made it clear that sport universities or colleges were not allowed to enroll high–level athletes, some studies discussed the model of building high–level sport teams in sport universities or colleges (Huang & He, 2007; Sun & Zhao, 2007). However, when it was specified that sport universities or colleges were not in the list, relevant studies came to a stop.

The policies related to university and college sport had the following three disadvantages: 1) the policies sent mixed signals concerning whether sport teams in sport universities or colleges belong there. In the 2005 Opinions, the former belonged to the latter and high–level sport teams in sport universities or colleges should be emphasized and supported. However, the 2005 Notice pointed out that sport universities or colleges didn't participate in the overall evaluation of high–level sport teams. The contradiction showed a debate on the policies. 2) The deed of establishment high–level sport teams in higher education institutions were act with undue haste. Therefore, the development of it in different universities and colleges may differ in quality. It took only 10 years to increase having

high–level sport teams from 53 to 235. Much of the increase was completed after 2004. 47 3)

High–level sport teams still remained low in its sporting level after over 20 years'

development. There was still a huge gap between student athletes and special purpose athletes.

Student athletes seldom participated in the Olympic Games or other international competitions.

3.3 The development strategy of university and college sport

In the 1980s, under the guidance of university and college sport policies, three development strategies were formed: on the national level the NUG were held; on the institutional level, high–level sport teams were established; and on the inter–collegiate level, sports leagues started in the 1990s.

3.3.1 The National University Games of the PRC

Compared with other national games, such as the National Workers Games and the Ethnic Minorities Games, the NUG started at a later time. In the 1950s, sport colleges held a few track and field competitions which didn't become national university competitions. 48

Between 1958 and 1960, universities and colleges participated in the national track and field and weightlifting competition for grassroots units (Editorial Board of China Sport Yearbook [EBCSY], 1964). After 1976 when the social order was restored and higher education institutions returned to normal, a favorable external environment was created for holding national university games. In 1979, the NEC and the NSC promulgated the National Student Sport Competition System, which required sport competitions be held in all levels and all kinds of institutions to hold sport competitions. It ordered that the NUG be held once every four years, and one of the National University Basketball, Volleyball and Football

Competitions be held every year (students in sporting departments and sport colleges were not allowed to participate). Sport colleges and sporting departments in higher education institutions would hold national games for one or two sports every year. ⁴⁹ This system provided institutional and policy ensurance for national university competitions. Between 1982 and 2012, a total of nine NUG were held.

Table 3-8

The National University Games of the PRC in 1982 to 2012

Sports	Track and field, gymnastics, rhythmic gymnastics, table tennis	Track and field, basketball	Track and field, basketball, volleyball, table tennis, rhythmic gymnastics	Track and field, basketball, volleyball, badminton, rhythmic gymnastics	Track and field, basketball, volleyball, aerobics, martial art, rhythmic gymnastics	Track and field, swimming, basketball, volleyball, aerobics, martial art, shooting	Track and field, swimming, basketball, volleyball, football, table tennis, aerobics, martial art, orienteering	Track and field, swimming, basketball, volleyball, football, table tennis, badminton, aerobics, martial art,	orienteering, bridge, shuttlecock,	Track and field, swimming, basketball, volleyball, football, table tennis, aerobics, martial art, taekwondo,	orienteering, bridge, shuttlecock
Place	Beijing	Dalian	Nanjing	Wuhan	Xi'an	Chengdu	Shanghai	Guangzhou		Tianjin	
limes Year	1982	1986	1988	1992	1996	2000	2004	2007		2012	
Times	1	2	3	4	5	9	7	~		6	

The First National University Games of the PRC

The first NUG were jointly held by the NEC, the NSC, the Youth League Central Committee [YLCC], the National Student Federation, and the CUSA in Beijing from August 10 to 19, 1982. There were 2,432 athletes (The EBCSY, 1982, p. 237) from 704 universities in 29 provinces, municipalities, and autonomous regions participating in the games. The athletes of the games were divided into three groups. Group A was sport colleges who participated in track and field, gymnastics, and rhythmic gymnastics; group B was sporting departments of normal and comprehensive universities⁵⁰ who participated in track and field, sport gymnastics, and rhythmic gymnastics; group C was colleges participating in track and field and table tennis. People's Daily (1982, Aug 20) described the result of the first NUG that Beijing, Jilin, and Hubei won the group first place for group A, B and C respectively.

Two athletes met the standards for National Excellent Athlete, 106 met those for Level 1 and 1,049 met those for Level Two (p.1).

The Second National University Games of the PRC

These Games was held joint by the NEC, the NSC, and the YLCC in Dalian, Liaoning province in August 3 to 9, 1986. There were 2,231 athletes (including some overseas students) from 29 provinces, municipalities, and autonomous regions participating in the games (The EBCSY, 1987, p. 389). Compared with the previous, there were only two sports (track and field and basketball) in the games. The number of athletes also decreased such as

2,023 for track and field and 208 for basketball (including some overseas students). ⁵¹ The athletes were divided into four groups. Group A was common universities and colleges, group B was sporting departments of normal universities and colleges, group C was sport colleges, group D was secondary colleges. The basketball games only involved athletes from group A, the preliminary competitions of which were held from January 25 to February 2 in Hebei, Jiangsu, Guangdong and Sichuan. In track and field sports, Beijing, Liaoning and Shandong teams won the first three with their gold medal scores. There were 99 records broken 417 times by 71 teams in the competition of 149 events of track and field. Three athletes reached the National Excellent Athlete standards. Special purpose athletes started to participate in the second NUG. For instance, some basketball teams in higher education institutions couldn't stand equal to youth teams of province level in terms of body, power and basic skills (Wang, 1986). The participation of special purpose athletes created a contrast in levels of sport.

The Third National University Games of the PRC

The third NUG were held August 25 to 31, 1988 in Nanjing, Jiangsu province. There were five sports including track and field, basketball, volleyball, table tennis and rhythmic gymnastics. Over 3,100 athletes from thirty provinces, municipalities, and autonomous regions participated in the games, exceeding the former two games in terms of size. The athletes were divided into two groups. Group A was athletes from common universities and colleges, and group B was athletes from sport universities or colleges and sporting

departments of normal universities and colleges. Beijing, Jiangsu and Tianjin topped the total group score ranking.

Compared with the second NUG, this year they featured more dedicated such as special purpose athletes. In the table tennis competition, members of the national team competed against each other while student athletes didn't make it to the finals. Almost all basketball and volleyball players had strong careers for over five years, some of whom were even top athletes. Therefore, the athletes from universities and colleges didn't have chance to participate. Some of the competitions were played at national level (Li, 1988, Aug 27). In track and field, the records of almost all events were broken. The records of 90 events were broken for 664 times by 274 athletes from 27 teams. In all, 47 athletes reached the National Excellent Athlete standard. The results were surprising (Li, 1989).

The Fourth National University Games of the PRC

It was held by the NEC, the NSC, and the YLCC in Wuhan, Hubei from September 29 to October 5, 1992. There were five sports and martial art performances. The athletes were divided into three groups. Group A was common universities and colleges, group B sporting department of normal higher education institutions, group C was sport colleges. There were 1,928 athletes in the games. In the 42 male and female events, 83 athletes from seven teams broke the records of the NUG, one of which broke a national record (Fan, 1994).

The Fifth National University Games of the PRC

The fifth NUG was held by the NEC, the NSC, and the YLCC and sponsored by the government of Shan'xi province. There were six sports conducted in two stages. Stage one was held in May 10 to 15, 1996. Rhythmic gymnastics, aerobics, and martial arts were represented. Over 500 athletes from 25 provinces, municipalities, and autonomous regions competed for 34 gold medals. Stage two took place from August 28 to September 4 in the same year. Over 2,402 athletes from 30 provinces, municipalities, and autonomous regions including Hong Kong participated and the representatives from universities in Taiwan and Macao visited and watched the games. Delegate groups from 23 provinces, municipalities, and autonomous regions appeared in the medal list, among which Shan'xi, Guangdong and Beijing won the first three in terms of the number of gold medals and total scores. There were 31 records broken 92 times by 64 athletes from nine teams.

The Sixth National University Games of the PRC

There were 2,808 athletes from 33 provinces, municipalities, and autonomous regions in the games. It was held in Chengdu in September 3 to 11, 2000 by the MOE, the GASC, and the YLCC and sponsored by Sichuan provincial government. The athletes were divided into two groups, group A was universities and colleges without high–level sport teams, group B was high–level sport teams in universities or colleges (including sport universities or colleges). 19 records of National University Games were broken by 31 athletes. The delegate

groups from Guangdong, Liaoning and Shanghai made it to the top three in terms of group total scores.

The Seventh National University Games of the PRC

The seventh NUG was jointly held by the MOE, the GASC, and the YLCC, sponsored by Shanghai municipal government and co–sponsored by the CUSA. It took place from August 28 to September 6, 2004. There were 3,742 athletes from 33 provinces, municipalities, and autonomous regions. The athletes were divided into two groups. Group A was athletes who trained in universities and colleges, Group B athletes who trained in sport universities and colleges. Shanghai, Guangdong and Tianjin ranked in the top three. From the perspective of the competition results, Group A in many cases exceeded group B. 137 athletes broke records of the NUG for 278 times (The People's Republic of China Yearbook, 2005, p. 180).

The Eighth National University Games of the PRC

The games held in Guangzhou, Guangdong province in July 16 to 26, 2007. Over 6,000 athletes from 34 representative groups participated in the competitions of 12 sports and 235 events. The games were divided into two groups. Group A was common university athletes while group B was high–level sport teams. There were 11 sports for group A, only three sports for group B were track and field, swimming and badminton. In track and field and swimming, 42 records of the NUG were broken by 86 athletes. The groups of Guangdong, Tianjin and Beijing ranked the top three.

An analysis of the National University Games of the PRC

The NUG took place as a result of policy orientation, not the self–initiated action of insitutions. Although the CUSA participated in the games, it was not the dominant organizer.

The following characteristics could be summarized by analyzing the development of the NUG.

Unique group-based competitions

In the early 1950s, the PRC followed the USSR's model in constructing its own higher education institutions. Thus sport colleges became the single—subject institutions where student athletes were trained. Besides, in order to increase teaching faculty of sport, normal universities and colleges also established sport and physical education departments. Students who studied in the above two types of universities and colleges were mostly graduates of amateur sport schools and therefore had a relatively high–level of sporting ability. Meanwhile, other types higher education institutions didn't train athletes and some students only trained in their spare time. As a result, in the early 1960s, the gap of sporting levels between sport colleges, sporting departments of normal institutions and common institutions was widened. Given the difference, the group–based way was adopted since the first NUG. The first, second and fourth games divided athletes into three groups, while the third and fifth NUG into two groups. No competitions took place between the groups.

The group division could keep a certain degree of fairness in competition. However, it was against the logic of fair play since the rules were not unified for the games. For instance, the three groups had three different sets of rules and scoring systems for the 100–meter race. Although the group division prevented athletes in different levels to compete against each other, it brought other problems such as the qualification of athletes. The situation of special purpose athlete competing with student athlete became a persistent disease in the development of the NUG.

Time and rule amendments

The length of time of the games usually lasted was between six to 11 days in August or September, or sometimes in July. The term was not fixed either – most games were held every four years while the third games were held two years after the second games. The eighth games were advanced by one year so that it won't conflict with the Beijing Olympic Games. As to the competitions system, in some games the concentrated system was used while in others the stage–based system was adopted. Sports had great changes. The first NUG comprised of four sports while the second set two. The number of sports increased since third games and raised them to 12 sports in the eighth games. In terms of sports content, track and field was a basic fixture that appeared in each game. Gymnastics didn't appear after the first games; shooting was set only in the sixth games; badminton was set in the fourth and the

eighth games. Sports such as football, basketball, volleyball, martial arts, aerobics, swimming and orienteering were well–received among students.

Since the participating units were divided according to administrative regions and athletes were not labeled with the universities and colleges they studied in, the identity of institution was not emphasized. Furthermore, in the early games, some regions only sent teams from one institution. For instance, in the first NUG, Hubei Province sent one teams from Hubei Geosciences College to participate and ranked first with the highest group scores (Chen, 1985). In the late games, through coordinating with provincial special purpose teams, some institutions enrolled special purpose athletes to participate in the games. For instance, the swimmers of Beijing University of Technology were mostly from the special purpose swimmers in the Beijing swimming team.

The trouble of qualification examinations of athletes

The qualification problem haunted the games which originated from two independent sport training systems in China. The sport system trained special purpose athletes under the nationwide system. Most special purpose athletes had high sporting levels but didn't receive complete education. The education system nurtured student athletes who had a lower sporting level but received a complete education. Top athletes in China were mostly from the nationwide sport system rather than the education system. In the first few NUG there were no specific regulations on the qualification of athletes. Therefore, motivated by benefits, ⁵² some

institutions enrolled in–service and retired special purpose athletes and sent them to participate in the games. This caused the phenomenon of special purpose athletes competing against amateur athletes⁵³ throughout the NUG.

In the first NUG, most athletes were student athletes who competed in a relatively fair environment. Starting from the second games, the phenomenon of special purpose athletes competing against amateur athletes appeared frequently. The sporting level of the second games exceeded expectations of sport experts. The reason was that special purpose athletes broke so many records in events of track and field that some results were equal to the top five in China's sport at that time, retired special purpose athletes made up 61.4% of the top three in some provnical institutional team (Chen, 1995, p. 64).

In the third NUG, the NEC promulgated "The Third National University Games Athlete Qualification Examination Methods". However, the situation had gone out of control, many special purpose athletes turned into collegiate students and the record–breaking was shocking. In male track and field events, for instance, the records of all events were broken except 110m hurdle and 10,000m, and the newly set 10km and 20km walk, even in some events, the records were broken 8 times by the top eight players (Hong & Chang, 1989).

In 1990 the NEC promulgated "Temporary Regulations on Sport Competitions of University and High School Students", which regulated the qualification of athletes participating in the NUG. It pointed out that all athletes participating in student games must

be students under the regulation of enrollment and school roll management of the NEC.

Athletes who were on provincial teams were disqualified for group of common institution.

Students who majored or graduated in sport had the limited qualification for participating in group of sport institution in the NUG. Serious treatment would be executed for those who violated the rules or cheated in the process (The NEC, 1990, July 10).

Nevertheless, some universities and colleges still enrolled retired elite athletes or in–service special purpose athletes who represented institutions to participate in the games. For instance, Wang (1992, Oct 5) described that in the fourth NUG, over 60 athletes were disqualified during the examination by the organizing committee (p. 4).

In the fifth NUG, the organizing committee disqualified over 100 athletes in the first stage of the games and dozens in the second stage in order to clear special purpose athletes from the games. However, the political needs interfered and special purpose athletes became major participants again. In order to reach the MOE's strategic goal of participating in the Universiade, many special purpose athletes appeared in the fifth games. Based on the group division method, athletes who belonged to the provinces could compete in the group of sport insitution (Chi, 2003).

In 2006 the MOE promulgated "Regulation of Enrolling Student Athletes" made more a detailed athlete registration system to standard of national student sport competitions.

However, the regulation didn't distinguish between student athletes and special purpose

athletes. It wasn't until the eighth NUG when the MOE promulgated specified conditions of qualification examination for athletes (The MOE, 2006, Apr 20).

The formation improvement of university sport

From the perspective of participation in the NUG, universities and colleges formed three ways of promoting their sport competitiveness. One was to partner with provincial teams and enroll in–service elite athletes from the teams, such as Renmin University of China diving eeam and Beijing University of Technology swimming team. The second way was through sport clubs and commercial operation, such as Peking University table tennis team and Beijing Institute of Technology football team. The third way was enrolling students from high schools and nurturing them with higher education institutions resources, such as Tsinghua University sport teams. These three ways were the major concepts of development of China's university sport nowadays.

The diversification of organizers of the national sport games

Since the 1950s, sport organizations have been included as part of national administrative organizations. The CUSA functions more like an association rather than a substantial organizer of sport. The National Games held by the government departments instead of the association. Ling (2003) stated that the NUG which was to the extracurricular activities of higher education should be the responsibility of the Office of Sport and Art of the MOE (p. 25). However, they were always guided by administrative departments. The

dominance of administrative departments in the NUG caused the problems such as low efficiency.

3.3.2 A case analysis of the CUBA

In the early 1990s, China introduced professional sport. It became one of the crucial directions of the reform of sport. 54 Football became the first sports to attempt professional operation, and basketball and volleyball followed. Professional sport changed the former way of training special purpose athletes and provided diversity for the development of sport in China. In the field of higher education institutions, the CUSA actively introduced a marketing system and constructed university sport leagues. Starting from 1998, the Chinese University Basketball Association [CUBA] and other sport leagues including football and volleyball were established. All the leagues had only a short history, among which the CUBA was the earliest league and had a great impact. Therefore, this study took the CUBA as a case.

Table 3 – 9

List of Chinese University League

Year	Name	Attach
1998	CUBA	Chinese University Sports Association, Chinese Basketball Association
1999	CUFL	Chinese University Sports Association, Chinese Football Association
2003	CCFL	Chinese University Sports Association, Chinese Football Association
2003	CCWSL	Chinese University Sports Association, Chinese Football Association
2004	CUBS	Chinese University Sports Association, Chinese Basketball Association
2006	CUVL	Chinese University Sports Association

Note. CUBA = Chinese University Basketball League; CUFL = China University Football League; CCFL = Chinese College Futsal League; CCWSL = Chinese College Women's Soccer League; CUBS = Chinese University Basketball Super League; CUVL = Chinese University Volleyball League.

The objective of the CUBA and the participation requirement

The CUBA was traced back to the July 6 Meeting⁵⁵ which discussed how to develop university basketball and talent athletes (Wang, 2000). Soon after the meeting, all sides made joint effort and drafted "*The Charter of the Chinese University Basketball Association*". In 1998 the CUBA officially began with male and female games. Until 2013, there have been 15 games totally.

Table 3 – 10

A List of Championship of the CUBA (1999 – 2013)

Year	Male	Female
1999	U.E.S.T.	T.U.F.E.
2000	H.Q.U.	C.U.M.T.
2001	N.E.N.U.	T.U.F.E.
2002	S.U.S.T.	T.U.F.E.
2003	H.Q.U.	T.U.F.E.
2004	H.U.S.T.	T.U.F.E.
2005	H.Q.U.	T.U.F.E.
2006	H.Q.U.	T.U.F.E.
2007	H.Q.U.	T.U.F.E.
2008	H.Q.U.	T.U.F.E.
2009	C.U.M.T.	B.J.N.U.
2010	T.U.T.	B.J.N.U.
2011	H.Q.U.	B.J.N.U.
2012	T.U.T.	B.J.N.U.
2013	H.Q.U.	B.J.N.U.

Note. U.E.S.T. = University of Electronic Science and Technology; H.Q.U. = Huanqiao University; N.E.N.U. = Northeast Normal University; S.U.S.T. = Shandong University of Science and Technology; H.U.S.T. = Huazhong University of Science and Technology; C.U.M.T. = China University of Mining and Technology; T.U.T. = Taiyuan University of Technology; T.U.F.E. = Tianjin University of Finance and Economics; B.J.N.U. = Beijing Normal University.

In the 15 years of development, several strong teams were formed. such as Huaqiao University male basketball team, Tianjin University of Finance & Economics and Beijing Normal University female team. The CUBA made a distinct boundary for athletes participating in the games since its beginning. This kept its "purity", namely, athletes were students rather than special purpose athletes. "The Charter of Chinese University Basketball Association" regulated that all athletes who participated in the CUBA league must be full-time college undergraduates or postgraduates who had passed the unified national college entrance examination and have gained official school enrollment. Athletes must be 17 to 25 years old and must enter higher education institution at the age of 16 to 22. Those who have been officially enrolled but were once or still belong to national, provincial or municipal special purpose athletes were unable to qualify to participate in the league. Those who have registered with Basketball Sport Management Center or Chinese Basketball Association [CBA], and those who participated in the Yonug Chinese Basketabll Association [YCBA], the Women Chinese Basketabll Association [WCBA] or the CBA leagues qualification to participate in the league. Each athlete could participate in six CUBA at the most. (It was changed to the fifth after 14th CUBA) (Chinese University Basketball Association, 2010).

The regulation showed that the CUBA was based on universities and colleges and stick to the principle of amateur sport. It did not accept professional players, thus preventing the

problem of professional players competing against amateur athletes. This set a part the CUBA from the later founded Chinese University Basketball Super League (CUBS).⁵⁶

The CUBA agenda and regulation

Since the CUBA had only a short history, many problems regarding the competition system (Xue & Li, 2002), and league organization setting and regulations (Cheng, Chen, & Mi, 2007). However, compared with other university leagues, the CUBA established an institutional agenda and regulations and has continued to improve them.

The CUBA adopted the compound system including preliminary, division, round of 16, semi-finals and final competition. In the preliminary and division stages, all the universities were divided into four divisions, namely Southeast, Southwest, Northwest, and Northeast.

The competition started from Septmber to July of the next year. The detailed agenda was as follows.

1) Preliminary matches (Septmber to December). University sport associations of all provinces, autonomies, municipalities, administrative region and the CUBA league preliminary organizing committee would jointly determine the time, place and details of the matches. 2) Division matches. Southeast (Mar 13 - 20); Southwest (Mar 24 - 31); Northwest (Apr 4 - 11); Northeast (Apr 14 - 21). The places would be prepared by the applicant university a year ahead and evaluated and determined by the organizing committee of the CUBA. 3) Round of 16. The matches took place in four divisions from May 9 - 29,

respectively condcuted in applicant universities. 4) Semi–finals. The matches held in June by the organizing unit chosen by the organizing committee of the CUBA. 5) Champion challenge. The match organized by qualified university in December (Chinese University Basketball Association, 2010).

The analysis and evaluation of the CUBA

Professional reform of university and college sport

The CUBA was the precursor in introducing commercial competitions into higher education institutions. After 15 years of development, it formed a fairly complete system and has held the rules up. As to the conflict between professional and amateur athletes continued, the organizing committee made a strict qualification examination system, match management system and corresponding punishment rules. It ensured the healthy development of the CUBA. In the last three leagues (1998 to 2001), over 30 players from 9 teams received varied punishment by the CUBA because of fake age certificates (Zhang, 2001).

Attempting to become the talent pool for professional basketball teams

The CUBA attempted to build a path from universities to professional competitions. In the last fifteen years, some players from the CUBA indeed could play in the CBA. However, they belong to the minority. The CUBA still had a long way to go to make itself the talent pool for professional teams. Compared with the level of the youth teams of the CBA, the CUBA still lags behind to a large extent (Xu & Zhang, 2004).

Enhancement of sport culture of universities and colleges

With wide participation in the CUBA, universities and colleges which organized the games plan various art and sport activities on campus such as dorm room basketball competitions, hundreds of classes competitions, theme call, news prize competition, anchor competition, sport photographing competition, sport culture salons, etc. These activities provided a new way of quality education and created a win—win result for students and the CUBA (Qu, 2003).

3.3.3 High–level sport teams – case analysis of universities in Beijing

Since high–level sport teams were established in higher education institutions with the guiding policies, these formed different models of sport development. Some success experiences were accumulated. However, because of the unbalanced regional development in China, it was almost impossible to approach the development of high–level sport teams from their common characteristics. Therefore, this section represents samples of universities in Beijing for analysis.

Basis of selecting the samples

Currently, there were 91 higher education institutions in Beijing, 24 having high–level sport teams.⁵⁷ In April 2011, the writer used telephone interview with institutions that had high–level sport teams and compiled statistics of their participation in the 2008 Olympic

Games, the 2009 National Games of the PRC, and the 2007 Universiade (See the Table 3 – 10).

Table 3 – 11

The Number of Athletes Participated in the SU, the OG and the NG (Beijing)

Institution	The SU	The OG	The NG	
Institution	2007	2008	2009	
T.H.U.	12	5	17	
P.K.U.	4	1	10	
B.J.U.T	3	8	24	
B.J.N.U.	11 [A]	8	30	
B.J.J.U.	1	2	4	
B.U.A.A.	8 [B]	1	1	
B.J.I.T.	0	0	4	
B.U.S.T.	0	1	4	
R.U.C.	7 [C]	0	0	
C.A.U.	0	0	0	
C.U.G.	0	0	0	
B.U.P.C.	0	0	2	
B.U.U.	0	3	0	
C.U.P.	1	1	1	
B.F.U.	0	0	0	
B.U.C.M.	0	0	0	
B.U.P.T.	0	0	1	
B.U.C.T.	0	0	1	
C.N.U.	0	0	0	
M.U.C.	0	0	0	
N.C.U.T.	0	0	0	
N.C.E.P.U.	0	0	0	
C.U.F.E.	0	0	1	

Note. 1) The SU= The Summer Universiade; The OG = The Olympic Games; The NG = The National Games. 2) T.H.U. = Tsinghua University; P.K.U. = Peking University; B.J.U.T. = Beijing University of Technology; B.J.N.U. = Beijing Normal University; B.J.J.U. = Beijing Jiaotong University; B.U.A.A. = Beijing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics; B.J.I.T. = Beijing Institute of Technology; B.U.S.T. = Beijing University of Science and Technology; R.U.C. = Renmin University of China; C.A.U. = China Agricultural University; C.U.G. = China University of Geosciences; B.U.P.C. = Beijing University of Petroleum & Chemical; B.U.U. = Beijing Union University; C.U.P. = China University of Petroleum; B.F.U. = Beijing Forestry University; B.U.C.M. = Beijing University of Chinese Medicine; B.U.P.T. = Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications; B.U.C.T. = Beijing University of Chemical Technology; C.N.U. = Capital Normal University; M.U.C. = Minzu University of China; N.C.U.T. = North China University of Technology; N.C.E.P.U.= North China Electric Power University; C.U.F.E.= Central University of Finance and Economics. 3) [A] = football and basketball athletes; [B] = volleyball athletes; [C] = basketball athletes.

The above table showed that there were a few student athletes from Tsinghua University, Peking University, and Beijing Normal University participating in the games. In this study, choosing Tsinghua University, Beijing University of Technology, and Renmin University of China, through interviewing the persons—in—charge of these high—level sport teams and reviewing the assessment material of high—level sport teams of universities in Beijing between 2008 and 2012, it summarized the development model of current high—level sport teams in universities.

At present, there were three main operation models of high–level sport teams in higher education institutions in Beijing: 1) nurtured student athletes such as Tsinghua University and Peking University. 2) Nurtured athlete students such as Beijing University of Technology and Renmin University of China. 3) Nurtured athletes⁵⁸ by joint effort with professional club such as Beijing Institute of Technology.

Nurtured athlete students

The swimming team of Beijing University of Technology

Beijing University of Technology [BUT] established its high–level sport teams in 1995.⁵⁹ The university had seven sports and nine sport teams in 2012 in which the swimming team and male futsal were the key teams. Other teams included track and field, basketball, volleyball, tennis, table tennis, and aerobics. The total of on campus athletes remained at about 140 on average per year. In the last three years, the university had seven international

athletes, 22 National Excellent Athletes and 24 Level 1 Athletes. This study focused on the construction model of the swimming team and displays an alternative way to build high–level sport teams.

1) Athlete enrollment

The swimming team of the BUT was positioned to achieve a high–level and nurtured prospective Level 1 Athlete. Therefore, the enrollment was mainly aimed at in–service athletes in Beijing team. The enrollment started right before the NUG and most of students reserved talent of Beijing team for the games. The athletes who participated in the enrollment would first pass the selection for the swimming team be approved by leadership of sport school, and then received the excellent grade in the high–level athletes test of university, pass a special examination held by university (including Chinese, Math, and English)⁶⁰, and finally be approved by university enrollment leadership and Beijing's Higher Education Institution Enrollment Office. The special examination had a relatively low standard of tests scores which lightened the burden of athletes who lacked ability in studying courses.

2) School roll and competition management

The swimming athletes were arranged to study in the *Elite Athlete Class* under College of Economics and Management which had a separate training program and flexible timetable for graduation. Every athlete had separate school roll management files and graduation qualifications under the management of the university. The BUT held four *Elite Athlete Class*

since it had started attempting high—level sport teams. The first two classes already graduated with all students gaining a degree and graduation certificates. The competition management followed the adopted special purpose teams. Common training and competitions were managed by the Beijing Sport Bureau. In order to ensure the quality of training and competition, a flexible study schedule for athletes was made. The *Elite Athlete Class* was characterized by the integration of sport and education.

3) Competition performance

In the 29th Olympic Games, Zhang Lin won the silver medal for the male 400 meters free style which was the first China's male swimmer. In the eighth NUG, the achievements of BUT swimming team were listed in the Table 3 - 11.

Table 3-12The BUT Swimming Team in the Eighth NUG

Group	Event	Athlete	Result
FΑ	200m freestyle	Mi Mengjiao	Gold
ΜA	100m backstroke	Zhang Yu	Gold
MA	200m backstroke	Zhang Yu	Gold
МВ	100m freestyle	Chen Zuo	Gold
МВ	200m freestyle	Zhang Lin	Gold
МВ	400m freestyle	Zhang Lin	Gold
МВ	1,500m freestyle	Zhang Lin	Gold
МВ	4×100m freestyle relay	Xin Tong, Zhang Lin, Chen Zuo, Shi Tengfei	Gold
МВ	4×200m freestyle relay	Xin Tong, Zhang Lin, Chen Zuo, Shi Tengfei	Gold

Note. 1) The data was collated from http://www.bjut.edu.cn/college/tyb/index.html

²⁾ Group A was common university and college, group B was higher level sport teams of university and college (including sport university and college).

³⁾ F A = Female group A; M A = Male group A; M B = Male group B; M = Meter.

The BUT made full use of resources and rationalized the model of swimming team establishment. By leveraging its regional advantages, it co-founded team as a special purpose team and adopted the training model of integrating sport with education. It also cooperated with the Beijing Sport Bureau and chose swimming as the major breakthrough of competitions. In practice, the university was responsible for the study and management of athletes while for the special purpose team they focused on daily training of athletes. It combined on the one hand the teaching resources, scientific research ability, and on the other, the facilities, budget, coaches of the bureau. Finally, it achieved the goal of resource sharing and advantage.

The diving team of Renmin University of China

In 2002 Renmin University of China [RUC] entered a partnership with the GASC and made exceptional enrollment for 10 athletes in the national diving team who held gold medals in the Olympic Games. The RUC sent teachers to lecture them between the periods of training. The diving team of the RUC has been fruitful in its competition performance. It almost won the first place of all large competitions, largely because China's diving team has always been in the leading position in the world. However, in terms of education athlete student were at the low level. Most of them didn't educational experience at middle school.

The sport system was responsible for the training of the diving team while the RUC was assigned to a corresponding education plan. The athletes of the diving team studied in

one class of College of Humanities for two years in which they could lay a solid knowledge basis for future study. Later the athletes could choose freely the departments they want and study the major systematically. It took about six years to complete their bachelor's degree. However, this plan had some challaged. The design of the model was training and competition—oriented, accordingly, all collegiate courses were arranged in students' spare time to study. The education of student atheltes faced the problem was that they hadn't completed study after retired. They could obtain their credits and finally get degree. For instance, Guo Jingjing ⁶² graduated in 2010 without having enough credits for graduating. Sang Xue ⁶³ entered the RUC after retiring from national diving team, studied broadcasting and television major in the Department of Journalism and finally quited in 2005. Almost no one could complete their study within the six—year time span. ⁶⁴

The reality showed that this model was too idealistic. As long as the model was competition—oriented, most athletes couldn't do well in their study. In the current system, the heterogeneity of the training time and studying time made it impossible to coordinate and plan. If you want one, you lose the other. Under the credit—based system, the time limit for completing the study was eliminated. It seemed that ahtlete could solve the conflict between studying and training. However, in the actual operation, special purpose athletes would choose training over studying. Therefore, the in—service athletes would start their study after retiring.

The diving team of the RUC was not listed in high–level sport teams in China's higher edcution institutions. Therefore, it shouldn't be qualified for participating in the Universiade according to the rule of the MOE. Actually, athletes who participated in the Universiade were mostly the national diving team athletes who studied in the RUC. It became a confusing question: who could be collegiate student? It couldn't simply define collegiate student athletes as those having enrolled in institutions. The existence of special purpose athletes made the identity of collegiate athletes complicated.

The model of the diving team of the RUC couldn't be easily popularized among higher education institutions because: 1) although diving was the strength sports in China, it was not popularized and widely participated in highe education institututions (at present, Tsinghua University was the only other university with diving team). 2) The enrollment subjects were mostly gold medal winners of the Olympic Games which encouraged utilitarian in exchanging competition results for degree. In the actual operation, most students would only study after completing training as training was still separated from study. With training dominant and study as the support, the model was actually nurturing athlete students which had little difference from the enrollment of retired gold medal winners of the Olympic Games in the 1990s in China.

3.3.4 Clarify the position of high-level sport teams in the nationwide sport system

China's sport has adopted a nationwide system in which the government took the dominance in managing sporting affairs using administrative methods, allocating sport resources using centralized planning, and forming a management and operation system that included sport committee, special purpose teams and national games, in order to improve sport in a relatively short period of time and achieve success in major international games. Nevertheless, the system had its own problems. However, there was no better system that could substitute it and keep China strong in sport. The problem was how to improve the nationwide sport system, not to question whether should keep or eliminate it. Therefore, high–level sport teams should find their own position in and complement the system.

From the perspective of the movement of athletes, the position of high–level sport teams in the system was analyzed. Since athletes were the major participants of sport, it could identify their positions by investigating their movement. Currently, China had a three–level movement model for both the athletes and teams (See the Figure 3-1).

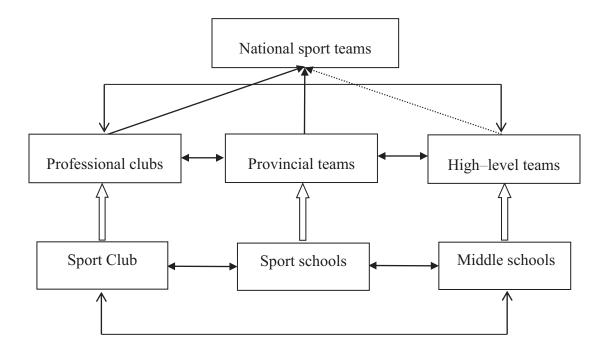


Figure 3 – 1 Model of the Movement of Athletes in China

The above Figure displayed a major path for becoming athletes of national team, namely from sport schools to provincial teams, and finally to national teams. In the environment of marketing economy, with the industrialization of sport, commercial clubs emerged which pushed the development of football, basketball and tennis. Therefore, the path from club schools to professional clubs and then to national teams was formed. With the emergence of high–level sport teams in universities and colleges, a new path was formed which was from high schools to university high–level sport teams and then to national teams. On the first level, athletes could move to different organizations, and the movement from the first level to the second level was usually smooth because the resources were abundant and there were few conflicts in benefit.

The ideal operation model should be the three engines of professional clubs, high–level sport teams, and provincial teams would propel the development of national teams.

Nevertheless, in the actual operation, this was not the case. Firstly, since the OGP occupied a crucial position in the nationwide sport system, the transmission and movement of athlete was mostly done in the path from sport schools to provincial teams and then to national teams. The efficiency advantage of the nationwide sport system turned special purpose teams into a monopoly that attracted elite athlete. In this way, China gained many medals in sports such as weightlifting, diving, shooting and gymnastics which were less popularized sport.

With the existence of relevant benefits, special purpose teams focused on training for competition at the expense of athletes' right of education. In order to maximize the training time, the comprehensive development of athletes was curbed. Since sports were not popular, most athletes would face trouble making a living after they retired. Incidents such as a national weightlifting champion rubbing peoples' back in the bathhouse for a living reflected the serious challenges to professional athletes' lives.

Secondly, the path through clubs mainly concentrated on sports that were highly professional, such as football and basketball. The industrialization of sport gave rise to this path. The advantage of this was that athletes could make a living of sport as their profession and most of athletes won't need to worry about their lives after retiring. However one thing noteworthy was that China was not strong in professional sports, the professional club—based movement model didn't look very well. Gambling, fraud black whistle and age fraud in sport were frequent which prevented clubs from healthy development.

Thirdly, high–level sport teams in higher education institutions occupied an awkward position in the nationwide sport system. Compared with the professional teams, athletes from high–level sport teams didn't have competitiveness. Very few athletes had the chance to move to national teams. Furthermore, the athletes from national teams could enroll to higher education institutions after gaining corresponding achievements. Therefore, high–level sport

teams function as the organization to admit retired special purpose athletes instead of providing athletes for the national teams which was against its goals.

Finally, the movement between professional clubs, provincial teams, and high-level sport teams was unequal. The special purpose athletes had the privilege to move to the other types and had easily enrolled to institutions after retiring. Furthermore, sporting departments had a complete training system and they could also rely on sport universities or colleges that had a close relationship with them such as Beijing Sport University.

3.4 Summary

This chapter analyzed the characteristics of the development of sport in higher education institutions since the 1980s, summarized the policies on university and college sport, and explored the historical development of the NUG. By studying the CUBA, it analyzed the marketing reform of sport in higher education institutions. Two universities in Beijing were selected for the analysis of the operation of high–level sport teams. Sport in higher education institutions in that period was analyzed in the above four aspects.

The integration of sport with education was chosen as the concept guiding the development of university and college sport in this period. It was also one of the directions in the reform of sport in China. The integration of sport with education acted as the catalyst for the emergence of high–level sport teams. On national level, the NUG were held. On universities and colleges level, high–level sport teams were established. On inter–collegiate

sporting level, universities and colleges started to attempt inter-collegiate sports league in the 1990s. These strategies all promoted the improvement of university and college sporting level and tried to incorporate it into the nationwide sport system. It gave rise to three development strategies based on the high–level sport teams.

Through summarizing the relevant policies concerning sport in higher education institutions, it could be found that the construction and development of university and college sport relied on the implementation of policies. The transition in policy influenced the direction of development of university and college sport.

The NUG were one of the vehicles for the development of university and college sport. Throughout its history, the registration of athletes remained a problem. The division—based competitions reflected the sense of fair play. However, it severed for athletes from different training systems. The problem could be attributed to the co—existence of two sport training systems in China which led to the gap between student athletes and special purpose athletes in the sporting level.

The CUBA was the product of the process of marketing reform and a route of exploring sport in higher education institutions. The current problem was the low sporting level of student athletes who had little role to complement the professional league.

The study chose the high–level sport teams of two universities in Beijing. By interviewing the experts, this study analyzed their training models. The result was that both models could hardly be popularized in other higher education institutions.

Given the fact that the present sport training system was dominated by the nationwide sport system, the development of high–level sport teams was also inseparable from the environment of the system. Therefore, how to establish the relationship between the high–level sport teams and the nationwide sport system was an urgent research topic.

Currently, university and college sport functions as the complement of the nationwide sport system and had not guided the reform of sport in China. Therefore, what kind of responsibility should sport in higher education institutions promote the procedure of sport reform in China need to be further discussed in future studies.

Chapter 4 Sport at Tsinghua University

Investigation of the pre–studies of Tsinghua's sport, Hao Gengsheng (1926) summarized the Tsinghua's sport in the last fifteen years (1911–1926). Wang Weiping (1999) discussed sport and physical education since the period of the Republic of China [RC]. Wang Xiangtian (2003) explored the conceptual origin of sport tradition at Tsinghua. "Both Physique and Personality: A Record of Tsinghua Sport and Physical Education in the Past 100 Years" published in 2011 depicted the landscape of sport and physical education in Tsinghua (Ye, Wei, Liu, & Tian, 2011). The above studies approached the topic from the perspective of sport and physical education in Tsinghua University.

In the RC period Tsinghua took the leading position in athletic meets. In the 1980s

Tsinghua's high–level sport teams were also advanced compared with other institutions and formed the Tsinghua Model in sport recognized by researchers. Therefore, an analysis of the development of Tsinghua's sport would contribute to clarify the paths of university and college sport in China. This chapter divided the development of Tsinghua's sport into three periods: the early period from 1911 to 1937, the period of 1950s to 1970s was in which the achievements of Tsinghua's sport were summarized, and the period after the 1980s where high–level sport teams and the formation of the Tsinghua Model were discussed.

4.1 Sport at Tsinghua University from 1911 to 1937

Tsinghua University was first a preparatory school for students later sent by the government to study in America. It was characterized by American institutions. Tsinghua's study system was a mix of Chinese and American education system with a division of high–level and intermediate level, each taking four years' study. Tsinghua emphasized sport of student right from the beginning, *ticao* was the obligatory subject for both students. In the aspect of faculties, in 1911 Tsinghua employed Shoemaker who was an American teacher to found a modern sport training system with the support of Tsinghua's administrators. From then on various sports teams were established such as football, basketball, baseball, athletics and table tennis in the 1910s.

4.1.1 Compulsive exercise – the popularization of sport

From its early period, Tsinghua adopted the strategy of compulsive exercise in popularizing sport. ⁶⁵ It meant that teachers supervised students to exercise every afternoon. In "The Charter of Beijing Tsinghua College" it was regulated that everyday ticao in number 24. One instructor was employed to ask students to do exercises for ten minutes in the morning and one hour in the afternoon every day and practiced all kinds of sports techniques (The Charter of Beijing Tsinghua College, 1914, May). The time of exercise changed with the seasons, 4: 30 p. m. to 5: 30 p. m. in the summer and 4: 00 p. m. to 5: 00 p. m. in the winter. During this time period all the classrooms and libraries were closed, teachers would go to

check the dorms and give support in the playground. This measure contributed to promote the health of students and their sporting level (Tsinghua Weekly, 1914; Wang, 1999). In 1919 when a large new stadium was established and all kinds of classes were established for students to practice in the stadium, compulsive exercise was canceled and sport became a compulsory class (Hao, 1926).

Compulsive exercise played an important role in popularizing sport and contributing students to get into the habit of exercising. It laid a favorable foundation for the promotion of the sporting levels. Meanwhile, Tsinghua implemented assessment tests of five exercises on all students in order to promote their health.

4.1.2 The expression of sport in the 1910s

Sport Association

Sport teams were supervised and organized by student's sport association which was formed at the same time as Tsinghua. The association was formed by directors selected from each class. They had a meeting with the sport supervisors every month in order to determine sport activities. The mission and responsibility of the association were as Sport Association (1919) stated that sport was organized by all levels of sport representatives and employees in Tsinghua. The goal was to advocate sport and seek development. The employees were elected each year.... Since the founding of the association, it played an important role in assisting sport association specialists in exerting compulsive exercises.... And it intended to go neck by

neck with the Western schools, the prosperity of sport was not without reasons (Sport Association, 1919).

The association included a president, a vice president, a secretary and an account.

When implementing compulsive exercise, the association played an active role in promoting inter–collegiate sports meets. They selected the teams' leaders, initiated and organized cheerleading team and provided logistics support. In the late 1910s with the organization of sport association, sport was implemented in the form of extra–curricular assignments. The Tsinghua General View (1919) stated that in order to encourage the students to value sport, the colleges supervised students organizing all kinds of sport meets each semester, encouraged competitions within the college or inter–college, and prized the winners (p. 203). These activities were all supervised by specialists sent by the president of the college, but organized and financed by students themselves.

The expression of sport in the period

Since the sport association was organized by the student body, they were active and autonomous. In the 1910s to 1920s students were extremely active in participating in sport and they held competitions against other institutions including baseball with Huiwen University, Luhe School and Nankai School (Tsinghua Weekly, 1923), athletics meets in the Beijing Inter–school Games (Tsinghua Weekly, 1923), football competitions with Nanyang College, Beijing Higher Normal College, Nankai School (Tsinghua Weekly, 1923), basketball

competitions with Nankai School, Beijing Higher Normal College, and Yenching University (Tsinghua Weekly, 1923). The Table 4 – 1 showed the statistics of the competitions of Tsinghua with other institutions in 1918 to 1919.

Table 4-1Competitions of Tsinghua with Other Institutions (1918 – 1919)

Date	Hosting place	Sports	Institution	Champion	Detail
Sept 15	Beijing	Tennis	I.R.C.	T.H.C.	6: 3
Oct 20	Beijing	Sports	B.I.S.G.	T.H.C.	34
Nov10	Tsinghua	Basketball	B.J.Y.A.	T.H.C.	25: 13
Nov 17	Tsinghua	Basketball	H.W.U.	H.W.U.	39: 8
Nov 24	Tsinghua	Basketball	B.J.Y.A.	B.J.Y.A.	15: 14
Nov 26	Beijing	Football	C.D.S.	T.H.C.	4: 1
Dec 8	Tsinghua	Football	B.F.A.	B.F.A.	4: 2
Dec 10	Beijing	Basketball	H.W.U.	H.W.U.	25: 8
Dec 15	Tsinghua	Football	A.S.F.T.	T.H.C.	2: 0
Dec 23	Tsinghua	Football	H.W.U.	_	0: 0
Dec 29	Beijing	Football	W.F.A.T.	W.F.A.T.	4: 0
Dec 29	Beijing	Basketball	A.S.T.	A.S.T.	56: 31
Jan 1	Tsinghua	Basketball	N.K.S.	T.H.C.	18: 16
Jan 1	Tsinghua	Football	N.K.S.	T.H.C.	3: 2
Jan 12	Beijing	Basketball	A.S.T.	A.S.T.	48: 20
Jan 18	Tianjin	Basketball	X.X.C.	T.H.C.	40: 20
Jan 18	Tianjin	Football	X.X.C.	T.H.C.	4: 2
Feb 9	Beijing	Basketball	B.H.N.C.	B.H.N.C.	26: 19
Feb 9	Beijing	Football	B.H.N.C.	T.H.C.	1: 0
Feb 16	Beijing	Football	W.F.A.T.	W.F.A.T.	3: 2
Feb 23	Tsinghua	Basketball	B.H.N.C.	T.H.C.	23: 17
Feb 23	Tsinghua	Football	B.H.N.C.	T.H.C.	1: 0

Apr 27	Tsinghua	Volleyball	H.W.U.	T.H.C.	2: 0
Apr 27	Tsinghua	Baseball	H.W.U.	T.H.C.	18: 4
May 4	Tsinghua	Athletics	B.H.N.C.& H.W.U.	T.H.C.	129
May 6	Beijing	Baseball	H.W.U.	T.H.C.	14: 4
May 18	Baoding	The sixth NCG	N.C.I.S.	T.H.C.	_

Note. 1) The data was collated from Tsinghua Weekly. (1918, May 30, pp. 14-16).

²⁾ NCG = North China Games.

³⁾ I.R.C. = International Recreation Club; B.I.S.G. = Beijing Inter-school Games; B.J.Y.A. = Beijing Youth Association; H.W.U. = Huiwen University; C.D.S. = Chongde School; B.F.A. = Beijing Football Association; A.S.F.T. = American Soldiers' Football Team; W.F.A.T. = Western Football Association Team; A.S.T. = American soldiers Team; N.K.S. = Nankai School; X.X.C. = Xinxue College; B.H.N.C. = Beijing Higher Normal College; N.C.I.S. = North China Inter-school; T.H.C. = Tsinghua College.

The above Table showed that Tsinghua held games in football, baseball, basketball, volleyball, athletics, and tennis during the 1910s. Tsinghua won more inter–collegiate competition and had a certain leading advantage over other institutions in Beijing.

In the 1910s, Tsinghua completed a statistical analysis of the champions of all athletics games, as was shown the Table 4-2. The names of the champions were carved in wood boards which were hung in the stadium, as a means of encouragement. However, after Shoemaker left in 1919, the tradition also ceased to exist.

Table 4-2

List of Winners of Athletics in Tsinghua College (1912 – 1919)

Year	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919
Events								
100 Y	Pan W.B.	Pan W.B.	Huang Y.D.	Huang Y.D.	Hua X.S.	Hua X.S.	Mei Y.L.	Rong Q.Z.
120 Y	Huang C.D.	Huang C.D.	Guo X.T.	Hong X.Q.	Chen J.	Guo X.T.	Mei Y.L.	Ling J.Y.
440 Y	Guo X.T.	Yu W.C.	Guo X.T.	Hong X.Q.	Li R.Q.	Guo X.T.	Li R.Q.	Mei Y.L.
880 Y	Guan S.S.	Yu W.C.	Xue G.L.	Xie B.T.	Cao M.D.	Chen S.Z.	Chen S.Z.	Du X.T.
1 Mile	Chen L.	Cao M.D.	Xue G.D.	Xie B.C.	Xie B.T.	Liu L.	Du X.T.	Du X.T.
2 Miles	I	Chen L.	Xie B.C.	I	I	I	Du X.T.	I
3 Miles	I	I	I	I	I	I	Du X.T.	I
5 Miles	I	I	I	I	Chen L.	Liu R.Q.	Du X.T.	I
220 Y LH	I	Pan W.B.	Huang Y.D.	Huang Y.D.	Guan S.T.	Guan S.T.	Ling G.Y.	Ling J.Y.
120 Y HH	I	Pan W.B.	Huang Y.D.	Huang Y.D.	Guan S.T.	Meng S.F.	Meng S.F.	Shi Z.H.
Iron Ball	Yang J.K.	Ye G.F.	Huang Y.D.	Meng J.M.	Meng J.M.	Meng J.M.	Meng J.M.	Meng J.M.
Discus	Pan W.B.	Guan S.S.	Huang Y.D.	Lin Z.Z.	Meng J.M.	Meng J.M.	Meng J.M.	Meng J.M.
Javelin	I	I	I	I	I	Cheng S.R.	Cheng S.R.	Cheng S.R.
High Jump	Pan W.B.	Pan W.B.	Huang Y.D.	Ling D.Y.	Shi Z.H.	Meng Z.Q.	Shi Z.H.	Shi Z.H.
Long Jump	Pan W.B.	Pan W.B.	Huang Y.D.	Huang Y.D.	Guo X.T.	Yao X.H.	Yao X.H.	Meng S.F.
Triple Jump	I	I	I	I	I	I	Yao X.H.	Meng S.F.
Pole Vault	Yang J.K.	Yang J.K.	Huang Y.D.	Huang Y.D.	Cui X.Y.	Cui X.Y.	Chen C.W.	Chen C.W.
3.7 1 1 TEM 1 1	11 , 10	. 1 11 21	11. 11/11/1901	0				

Note. 1) The data was collated from Ye Hongkai et al (Eds.). (2011, pp. 24 – 25).

- 2) In the wartime (1937 1949) and the political movement of the 1960s and 1970s, the wooden boards were lost, and there was no way to confirm the name list.
- 3) Y = Yards; LH = Low Hurdle; HH = High Hurdle.
- J.K. = Yang Jinkui; Yu W.C. = Yu Wencan; Cao M.D. = Cao Maode; Ye G.F. = Ye Guifu; Huang Y.D. = Huang Yuandao; Guo X.T. = Guo Xitang; Meng Jimao; Lin Z.Z. = Lin Zhizhe; Ling D.Y. = Ling Dayang; Hua X.S. = Hua Xiusheng; Chen J. = Chen Jun; Li R.Q. = Li Ruqi; Guan S.T. = 4) Pan W.B. = Pan Wenbing; Huang C.D. = Huang Chundao; Guo X.T. = Guo Xitang; Guan S.S. = Guan Songsheng; Chen L. = Chen Li; Yang S.F. = Meng Shoufang; Cheng S.R. = Cheng Shuren; Meng Z.Q. = Meng Zhaoqi; Yao X.H. = Yao Xinghuang; Mei Y.L. = Mei Yilin; Du X.T. = Guan Songtao; Shi Z.H. = Shi Zhaohan; Cui X.Y. = Cui Xueyou; Chen S.Z. = Chen Shizhen; Liu L. = Liu Li; Liu R.Q. = Liu Ruqiang; Meng Xue G.L. = Xue Guilun; Xue G.D. = Xue Guide; Xie B.C. = Xie Baochao; Hong X.Q. = Hong Xiqi; Xie B.T. = Xie Baotian; Meng J.M. = Du Xiuting; Ling G.Y. = Ling Gengyang; Chen C.W. = Chen Chongwu; Rong Q.Z. = Rong Qizhao; Ling J.Y. = Ling Jiyang.

4.1.3 The debate on sport at Tsinghua

The debate on the termination of bingcao

In 1916 Tsinghua implemented bingcao course and exercised training, later, it organized bingcao corps ("兵操团", bingcao tuan). As Tsinghua Weekly (1918) described that bingcao corps was implemented. A higher battalion included four companies and a middle battalion included two companies and one reserve team (temporary) (p. 7). The unit organization followed the military system and was arranged according the order of dorm rooms. 66 Bingcao's unit organization followed the military organization and adopted military training in order to promote students to develop obedience, quick decision making, improving individual physical strength and hence strength as a nation. Bingcao training included imitation of the China's army infantry soldiers training rules with reference to the American army rules (Tsinghua Weekly, 1921, p. 6). Thus, Tsinghua became the training ground of military minded students and bingcao became a necessary method of promoting Militarism in sport. As Tsinghua Weekly (1921) stated that *bingcao* especially promoted the martial spirit and stimulated the high spirits of youth. ⁶⁷ Before that students in higher college felt proud to practice bingcao. Tsinghua Weekly (1916) argured that they were encouraged to be diligent, and cultivate the real military spirit and drum up China's courage (pp. 1-3). In this period, Tsinghua frequently conducted bingcao activities such as bingcao corps.

After the founding of the RC, the educational sector a period of began self–reflection and criticism on Militarism. *Bingcao* education was not considered the way of keeping health that can be popularized (Xu, 1914b). The physical education taking *bingcao* as the teaching content could lead to substituting sport with military training (Xu, 1914c). However, schools were not military training bases which started to demolish *bingcao* as the content of physical education after 1919.

In the second half of 1919, Tsinghua demolished bingcao. However, there was debate during the process. Tsinghua Alumni Association in America proposed to restore bingcao in order to strengthen the country, one must first strengthen himself. *Bingcao* was necessary as a way to strengthen the country (Shi, 1922). Tsinghua students felt frustrated about the diplomacy and other pains after the May 4 Movement of 1919. Thus, the idea of restoring bingcao struck them. However, Mo Yi (1923) pointed out that the old way of bingcao was outdated and should be reformed (p. 5). Therefore, bingcao should be abolished. Shi Gang (1922) analyzed the characteristics of sport and bingcao, who stated that outdoor activities could develop the body comprehensively while bingcao could only develop part of the body. Whatever the advantages bingcao might have were all those of outdoor exercises. However, bingcao didn't have as many advantages as outdoor exercises.... Since building the body could strengthen the country, why shall we abolish outdoor exercise and restore bingcao (pp. 5 - 6).

The reason for the debate on the termination of *bingcao* was that both *bingcao* and sport were used by the school to develop physical education in the 1910s. Although the two forms both aimed to promote the body condition of students, they came into conflict in the implementation. It was through this debate that the obstacles on the development path of sport at Tsinghua were cleared away. Athletics and ball games were chosen as the content of physical education, which laid a foundation for collegiate and inter–collegiate competitions.

The debate on abolishing inter-collegiate games

When the question of abolishing *bingcao* was debated in the 1920s, Tsinghua started a discussion on whether inter–collegiate games should be abolished. A debate was promoted centering on the topic of sport, in particular the meaning of games. There occurred a number of problems when Tsinghua had inter–collegiate games. As a result, some students were in favor of abolishing inter–collegiate games (Wang, 1920). Can Fu (1920) argured that firstly, inter–collegiate games hurt the feelings between institutions. Secondly, it gave rise to a privileged class. Thirdly, it violated the principle of physical education, protecting the health of the body and having spiritual entertainment (pp. 22 – 26).

Actually, these problems did occur frequently in inter–collegiate games. One of the most serious cases was a controversial football match between Tsinghua and Peking University (Tsinghua Weekly, 1922). However, those in favor of inter–collegiate games refuted the arguments of the opposing side (Zhou, 1920). They thought the best approach was

to reform and improve the current inter–collegiate games system rather than remove it entirely. Wang Zhun (1922) pointed out that when Shoemaker acted as the P. E. instructor, the inter–collegiate games were in their prime time. However, as students in different grades found the competitions disgusting latterly, the inter–collegiate games system was abolished. In the 10th year of the RC, Mr. Ma^{68} made a comeback of the system and restricted those athletes who were members of college sport teams were not allowed to join inter–collegiate games. Consequently, the champions were mostly won by the high graders. The middle graders didn't have the chance to enjoy the glory. That was why the competitions should divide into two groups in order to grant the middle graders equal opportunities to win the championship (pp. 9-10). The advice was well received by the sporting department and was implemented in the following college sport games. The 1924 Tsinghua sport games divided the athletes into four levels (Tsinghua Weekly, 1924).

In the early 1920s, the opinion to abolishing inter–collegiate games took the upper hand, which immediately impacted on sport at Tsinghua. After 1922 there were changes in the tendency of development of sport at Tsinghua. Those who participated in track and field reduced practices, and the sporting level at Tsinghua compared with other institutions in Beijing declined.

In view of this, Ma Yuehan (1928) published an article "Inter-collegiate Sport Competitions" on "Tsinghua Weekly". In the article he indicated the value of inter-college

sport was an important goal in one's life. According to the redundant energy theory, students had redundant energy apart from their work. Therefore, taking exercise using the energy couldn't only refine one's body and mind, but also restrain oneself from disobedient actions.

Furthermore, the advancement of human beings was driven by competition (pp. 707 – 708). It was a defining principle that greater competition would encourage progress. The inter–collegiate games included the above benefits and its value could be easily understood. 69

4.1.4 Inter-collegiate games

The triangle athletic meets

The triangle athletic meets ("三角运动会", *sanjiao yundonghui*) took its name from the three colleges that had the best sport competitions in Beijing from the first to seventh year of the RC. It was Beijing's first inter-collegiate athletic meets, and the origin of the Beijing Games and even the North China Games [NCG] (Hao, 1926; Wang, 1999). The triangle athletic meets began in 1912. After the merge of Xiehe College and Huiwen College in 1917, the former triangle athletic meets became a new development between Tsinghua, Beijing Higher Normal College and Huiwen until 1918. The games included sprints of 100 yards, 200 yards, 440 yards, 880 yards, 1 mile, 3 miles, 5 miles, low hurdle, high hurdle and shot. The winners in each games were shown in the Table 4 – 3.

Table 4 – 3

Beijing Triangle Athletic Meets (1912–1918)

Year	First Place	Second Place	Third Place
1912	T.H.C.	X.H.C.	H.W.C.
1913	т.н.с.	X.H.C.	H.W.C.
1914	т.н.с.	X.H.C.	H.W.C.
1915	X.H.C.	T.H.C.	H.W.C.
1916	X.H.C.	T.H.C.	H.W.C.
1917	т.н.с.	B.H.N.C.	H.W.C.
1918	T.H.C.	B.H.N.C.	H.W.C.

Note. 1) The data was collated from Wang Weiping. (1999, pp. 90 - 91).

²⁾ T.H.C. = Tsinghua College; X.H.U. = Xiehe College; H.W.U. = Huiwen College; B.H.N.C.

⁼ Beijing Higher Normal College.

Until 1918 there had been seven triangle athletic meets. Of these Tsinghua won five. In 1919 Beijing Higher Normal College proposed to expand the games and invite all schools to Beijing to participate. Thus the games were renamed the Beijing School Federation Joint Athletic Meets. This later became the Beijing Games. Tsinghua continued to participate in and won in the first, fourth, fifth and sixth games. For instance, the Beijing School Federation Joint Athletic Meets were held in Huiwen College on 28 April. 27 athletes from Tsinghua obtained a total score of 66.75, ranking first place (Tsinghua Weekly, 1923).

The North China Games

The North China Games [NCG] was initiated by the Beijing Sport Association founded in 1912. After the first NCG, the North China Sport Federation [NCSF] was established. Its main role was to support all kinds of sport competitions and promote the development of local sport federations in North China. It regulated that all provinces took turns to hold the games. Consequently, the NCG were held 18 times from 1913 to 1934. From 1931 onward, the participating units involved the provinces (Society of Sport History and Culture of National Sport Committee, 1990, p.1).

Table 4 – 4

Result of the North China Games (1913 – 1929)

Year	Times	First place	Second place	Third place	Individual Champion
1913	1	T.H.C.	X.H.C.	H.W.C.	Pan Wenbing, T.H.C.
1914	2	T.H.C.	X.H.C.	H.W.C.	Huang Daoyuan, T.H.C.
1915	3	T.H.C.	X.H.C.	H.W.C.	Huang Daoyuan, T.H.C.
1916	4	N.K.S.	T.S.C.	H.W.C.	Huiwen Ji Ziyin, H.W.U.
1917	5	N.K.S.	T.H.C.	H.W.C.	Guo Yubin, N.K.S.
1918	6	T.H.C.	B.H.N.C.	N.K.S.	Zhu Ende, B.H.N.C.
1919	7	T.H.C.	B.H.N.C.	N.K.U.	Shi Zhaohan, T.H.C.
1920	8	T.H.C.	B.H.N.C.	H.W.C.	Shi Zhaohan, T.H.C.
1921	9	T.H.C.	B.H.N.C.	H.W.C.	Song Junxiang, T.H.C.
1923	10	N.K.U.	T.H.C.	B.H.N.C.	Lu Ming, N.K.U.
1924	11	N.K.U.	C.L.U.	T.H.C.	Lu Ming, N.K.U.
1925	12	C.L.U.	N.K.U.	B.H.N.C.	Yin Shangpin, C.L.U.
1928	13	W.S.C.	P.K.U.	B.N.U.	Peng Jingbo, W.S.C.
		B.N.U.	N.K.U.	Y.C.U.	Huang Jinao B.N.U.
1929	14	N.E.U.	B.N.U.	B.E.U.	_
		B.W.N.U.	B.N.U.	N.K.U.	

Note. 1) The data was collated from Society of Sport History and Culture of National Sport Committee (Ed.). (1990).

- 2) Tsinghua University didn't participate in the games in 1925 and 1929. From 1929 onward, there were no individual champion and from the 15th games onward, it was no longer organized on the basis of education institutions.
- 3) T.H.C. = Tsinghua College; X.H.C. = Xiehe College; H.W.C. = Huiwen College; N.K.S. = Nankai School; T.S.C. = Tangshan College; B.H.N.C. = Beijing Higher Normal College; C.L.U. = Cheeloo University; N.K.U. = Nankai University; W.S.C. = Women's Second College; P.K.U. = Peking University; B.N.U. = Beijing Normal University; Y.C.U. = Yanching University; N.E.U. = Northeast University; B.E.U. = Beijing Ethnic University; B.W.N.U. = Beijing Women's Normal University.

Tsinghua was a strong team in the arena of the NCG. Taking the fifth North China Games for instance, Tsinghua was with only 23 athletes participating in the games, gained four champions, including high hurdle, shot, half mile relay, and discus (Tsinghua Weekly, 1917). Tsinghua obtained the first place for seven times in the NCG which made Tsinghua a leading team in North China.

The North China Ball Games

As the NCG included sports and participated by a wide range of athletes. Therefore, the NCSF decided to hold the North China Ball Games independently from the 11th NCG in 1924. Until the fifteenth North China Games, the North China Ball Games [NCBG] were held seven times. In 1932 the Federation decided that the NCG would only include football and basketball. However, these sports never took place. The football and basketball events didn't take place in the 16th and 17th NCG (See the Table 4 – 5).

Table 4 – 5

The North China Ball Games (1924 – 1931)

	Ē	ī		
No.	lime	Place	Sports	
			Male	Female
1	1924, Apr $10 - 12$	Tianjin	Football, basketball, volleyball, softball, tennis	I
7	1925, Apr $6 - 10$	Beijing	Football, basketball, volleyball, softball, tennis	I
3	1927, Apr $7-9$	Tianjin	Football, basketball, volleyball, softball, tennis	I
4	1928, Apr $5-9$	Beijing	Football, basketball, volleyball, softball, tennis	Basketball, volleyball
2	1929, Jan 31– Feb 2	Tianjin	Football	Basketball
9	1929, Apr $4 - 6$	Taiyuan	Basketball	Volleyball
9	1929, Dec $27 - 31$	Tianjin	Football	I
7	1931, Mar $27 - 30$	Beijing	Football, basketball	Basketball
, 14	C +			

Note. 1) The data was collated from Society of Sport History and Culture of National Sport Committee (Ed.). (1990, p. 291).

2) The sixth North China Sport Federation Executive Committee decided to hold basketball and female baseball competitions in Taiyuan in April and football competition in Tianjin in July, 1929. The latter was actually held in Tianjin in December, 1929.

Table 4 – 6

The Champions of the North China Ball Games

Sports	Group				Times			
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Football	M.S	H.J.T.	T.H.C.	X.X.A.	X.X.A.	X.X.A.	T.H.U.	P.K.T.
	M.I					H.J.T.	P.H.S.	L.N.T.
Basketball	M.S	N.K.U.	T.H.C.	P.J.T.	X.X.A.	_	N.K.U.	P.K.T.
	M.I						T.W.T.	P.K.T.
	F	_	_	_	Y.W.C.	P.L.C.	_	P.K.T.
Volleyball	M	P.T.C.	P.T.C.	_	_	_	_	_
	F	_	_	_	P.K.U. W.S.C.	_	P.X.W.C.	-
Softball	_	N.K.U.	_	_	_	_	_	_
Tennis	S	N.K.U.	N.K.U.	P.T.C.	-	_	_	_
	TT	T.H.C.	P.T.C.	T.T.U.	-	_	_	_
Baseball			T.H.C.	_	Y.C.U.	_	_	

Note. 1) The data was collated from Society of Sport History and Culture of National Sport Committee (Ed.). (1990, p. 292).

²⁾ M.S = Male Senior; M.I = Male Intermediate; F = Female; M = Male; S = Single; TT = Team Title.

³⁾ H.J.T. = Henan Joint Team; T.H.C. = Tsinghua College; X.X.A. = Xinxue Academy; T.H.U. = Tsinghua University; P.K.T. = Peking Team; P.H.S. = Peking Huiwen School; L.N.T. = Liaoning Team; N.K.U. = Nankai University; P.J.T. = Peking Joint Team; T.W.T. = Tianjin Wheel Team; Y.W.C. = Yanching Women's College; Y.C.U. = Yanching University; P.L.C. = Peking Literary College; P.T.C. = Peking Taxation College; P.K.U.W.S.S = Peking University Women's Second School; P.X.W.C. = Peking Xujiao Women's College; T.T.U. = Tangshan Transportation University.

The first NCBG were held in Xinxue Academy in Tianjin including five sports such as football, basketball, softball, volleyball and tennis. Tsinghua participated in football, basketball and tennis games, won the team title–tennis. The second NCBG were held in Beijing. Tsinghua won football, basketball and baseball games. From the third to sixth games, Tsinghua performed poorly because the administrative system of the college changed frequently. It didn't participate in the third NCBG and didn't win any champions in the male volleyball, baseball and tennis of the fourth games held in Tsinghua. In the sixth games

Tsinghua male basketball senior team won the championship. On the whole, Tsinghua's sporting level gradually declined after the 1920s.

4.1.5 The reasons of prosperity of sport at Tsinghua

The deep influence of American style education

Tsinghua began as a school preparing students for studying in America. It was unique in that reported to both the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs [MFA]. In 1912 it solely supervised by the MFA. In fact, the American Embassy had the final right on all major affairs of the college. Therefore, from the beginning the education system and curricula of Tsinghua were all imitation of American institutions. Even the employment of foreign teachers was implemented in America with the support of the YMCA. With this background, the development of sport at Tsinghua didn't have much obstacle in terms of culture. The learning ability of students was also stronger than other institutions.

The attention from the management of Tsinghua

Aside from constructing the body, sport at Tsinghua aimed at building a complete character for each student. The sport tradition of Tsinghua was formed by the early college leadership, mostly the students returning from the overseas. Starting from Zhou Yichun⁷⁰ most of the presidents of Tsinghua had an insightful understanding of and attached great importance to sport. Their common education thought was to promote the multi–faced education at the same time and contribute to build the complete character. For instance, Zhou Yichun argued that the way to achieve complete character was to attach equal importance to morality, intelligence and sport (Jin, 2006). Mei Yiqi in 1928 described that one of the goals of sport was to develop a complete character (Liu & Huang, 1993, p. 8).

The source and background of students

In 1909, Tsinghua College was founded as a preparatory school for the Chinese students who would be sent to America through it. Therefore, Tsinghua attracted students of Christian institutions especially St. John's University. "St. John's often complained of losing its students to this new college. 71 Out of the forty—seven successful contenders at the first examination of Tsinghua College in 1909, seven out of nine from St. John's passed, including the two top contenders" (Edward, 2009, p. 118). Since sport flourished in Christian institutions, the students who were Christian promoted the advancement of the sporting level of Tsinghua. Furthermore, the organization of sport in this period was guided by the

department of sport and organized and administered by students sport association. It made full use of students' initiative and participation.

The superior facilities

As early as 1919 Tsinghua built its stadium, providing the necessary condition for sport activities. In 1932 the stadium was further expanded and was when built the most advanced stadium in China (Wei & Feng, 2009). In 1934 Tsinghua had one 400–meter athletic field, one baseball field, two football pitches, 12 basketball courts, and 28 tennis courts, in addition to various exercising equipment.⁷² The quality and affluent fields provided facilities for competitions on campus and between other institutions.

The theoretical discussion on sport

From the debate on abolishing *bingcao* to the controversy on abolishing inter–collegiate games, Tsinghua considered sport from all points of view and never approved or disapproved anything officially. The debates were a better way to further administrators' and students' understanding of sport.

4.2 Sport at Tsinghua from the 1950s to 1970s

After the Communist Party of China [CPC] obtained the power of the state, the higher education system was transformed following model on the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics [USSR] and instilled the ideology of socialism. After the adjustment of the higher education system (1952 – 1954), Tsinghua became a specialized university aimed at nurturing

engineers. The past situation of combining humanities and sciences was no present there. It was from this background that sport at Tsinghua made its transition.

4.2.1 The popularization and improvement of sport

In 1952 Jiang Nanxiang⁷³ was appointed the president of Tsinghua. He proposed that students should exercise often and hold sport competitions on a regular basis. On Feb 23, 1954 Jiang held a meeting with student athletes, where he proposed sport activities should be improved on the basis of popularization and be popularized with the guidance of improvement. Furthermore, the requirement of popularization meant 100% participation in sport. Students must reach the Tsinghua Exercise Standard before graduating except for a few special cases. On the side of improvement, sport teams should be founded including athletes who also excel in studies. They could promote the sport popular in Tsinghua (New Tsinghua, 1954, Mar 2, p. 5). The content of the conference determined the tendency of development of sport at Tsinghua from the 1950s to 1970s. That was popularizing sport among students and on the basis of which training student athletes who could achieve scores for the university in games.

In the 1950s, the National Sport Committee [NSC] implemented "*The Program for Ready Labor and Defense*", and Tsinghua functioned as the trial institutions for it. The university stipulated that the time period between 4: 00 p. m. and 5: 00 p. m. every day was for sport and exercises of students and no one was allowed to use this time period or arrange

other activities. In 1953, 95% of students participated in the exercises. This was actually a continuation of the compulsive sport of the early 1910s to popularized sport on campus.

4.2.2 The restoration of sport in the 1950s

In the early 1950s when a series of political movement dissolved, the public settled down, providing a favorable external environment for the restoration of university sport.

Tsinghua also gradually started to revive its sport activities. In 1953 Tsinghua Affairs

Conference decided to found an organizing committee for holding a university games. Later, in June 7, 1953 the First Tsinghua University Games were held (It was put off for one week for preparation). Altogether, over 1, 000 students participated in the games, the participants of the games almost made up one fourth of all the students in the games. Four collegiate records were broken by male and five by female. The men's triple jump and 3, 000–meter race were close to the national records made after 1949.

The extensive involvement of students gave rise to the birth of sport teams in Tsinghua University. The Plan of the Semester Health Affairs in 1953 planned to found the sport representative team. In 1954 Tsinghua sport teams were formed including athletics, sports acrobatics, basketball, volleyball, softball, weightlifting, badminton teams. The total of athletes was over 200 (The Fifth Tsinghua University Council Conference, 1954, Nov 16).

The establishment of Tsinghua sport teams was a guarantee of participation in inter-collegiate games in Beijing. Tsinghua occupied the leading position such as in the 1954

athletics and gymnastics inter–schools' competitions in Beijing, it was participated by 3,122 athletes from 28 colleges. Tsinghua sent 64 student athletes to participate and won ten events and received 49 medals. In athletics events, Tsinghua broke the records of North China twice and four records of Beijing city four times.

The leading position of Tsinghua University reaffirmed the university management's confidence in sport teams. They therefore consolidated the systems and initiatives of the teams to regulate the development of sport. On "The Fifth Tsinghua University Council Conference" Tsinghua sport teams regulation proposed by the Division of Sport Science and Physical Education was approved. The regulation included nine articles such as the following.

Article 1: The mission of sport teams was responded to the call of the roll student⁷⁴ by Chairman Mao. It organized sport exercise among students, improved sport on the basis of popularization and popularize sport under the guidance of improvement. Article 2: Sport teams were composed of elite athletes and competed with teams other institutions. The team has obliged to maintain the honor of the university and enjoyed all rights as team members. Article 3: All students that had passed the preliminary level of Beijing Ready Labor and Defense System, passed all subjects, and had specialized in a certain sports could become an official team member after selection and approval. Article 4: Team members should work hard to improve technique. They should play an active role in promoting and regulating

exercise. Article 5: Team members must abide by the rules, the orders of the organization, and respect the leaders. Article 6: Team members should demonstrate new sport ethical principles and develop collectivism. They should assist and respect fellow team members each other, be modest and learn from each other, and build internal and external cohesion. Article 7: Team members should be punctual at training sessions. Absentees should be requested to the team leader. Article 8: Every team member should seek to develop their physical ability. All teams should strive to be the advanced group. Article 9: everyone must use the public facilities as they were intended (The Fifth Tsinghua University Council Conference, 1954, Nov 16, p. 7).

By analyzing the above regulations, it could be found that sport was incorporated into the political needs. Moral and collectivism education were especially stressed. Five articles (1, 5, 6, 8, 9) were about morality. This reflected the influence of political movement on the then university sport. Additionally, the enhancement of sport was established on popularization.

Athletes came from students and had the requirement in their study. Discipline and self–regulation were emphasized. Student athletes were encouraged to study in the aspect of sport techniques which manifested the low level of coaches at that time.

Under the restriction and guidance of the above regulation, Tsinghua gradually became the leader position of sport in national higher education institutions. As to track and field, Tsinghua team won the team title in the Fifth Beijing Inter–collegiate Athletics Games in 1959. Of the 40 events, Tsinghua received 12 first places and second places. The athletics

teams remained team title until the beginning of the Cultural Revolution in 1966 (See the Table 4-7). In 1960 the country hold athletics and weightlifting games in which Tsinghua received champion in division of the higher education institutions (Editorial Board of China Sport Yearbook, 1964, p. 404).

Table 4 – 7

Tsinghua in the Beijing Inter–collegiate Games (1955 – 1966)

Year	Sports	Rank			Result		
		M	W	TT	G	S	В
1955	31	2	2	2	4	7	4
1956	_	4	3	_	_	_	_
1957	_	4	3	4	_	_	_
1958	_	3	6	_	_	_	_
1959	40	1	1	1	12	12	12
1960	41	1	2	1	12	10	5
1963	34	1	1	1	10	14	14
1964	36	1	1	1	20	6	4
1965	40	1	1	1	13	7	10
1966	40	1	1	1	21	5	15

Note. 1) The data was collated from Ye Hongkai et al (Eds.). (2011, p. 134).

²⁾ The games were cancelled in 1961 and 1962. Starting from 1959, the athletics level of Tsinghua remained in the leading position among universities in Beijing until the beginning of the Cultural Revolution.

³⁾ M = Male Team; F = Female Team; TT = Team Title; G = Golden; S = Sliver; B = Bronze.

Some student athletes at Tsinghua University represented Beijing to participate in the first and second National Games of the PRC. In the first National Games 18 students and one employee of Tsinghua received six gold medals, one silver and three bronze medals (See the Table 4 – 8). In the second National Games four students and four graduates won four gold medals and one bronze medals. Since the state government started to train special purpose athletes in the mid–1950s, however, from the results of Tsinghua student athletes in the first and second National Games, there was no large gap in the sporting level between the student athletes in Tsinghua and special purpose athletes. Instead, Tsinghua student athletes showed some advantages in sports.

Table 4-8 $Result\ of\ Tsinghua's\ Athlete\ in\ the\ First\ National\ Games\ of\ the\ PRC$

Name	Sports	Result
Chen Feng	Softball	Champion
Ling Baozhen		
Zhen Qiayu	Baseball	Champion
Не Нао	Motor cycle cross-country	Champion
Не Нао	Motor cycle	175-model individual champion
Kong Xianqing,	Motor cycle	175-model group champion
Не Нао		
Feng Zhenjiang	Cycling	4km cycling group champion
Не Нао	Motor cycle	100m motor curve road silver medal
Guan Renqin	Football	Bronze medal
Wen Yide	Female track and field	4×200m relay bronze medal
Feng Zhenjiang	Cycling	5km bronze medal

Note. The data was collated from Ye Hongkai et al (Eds.). (2011, p. 132).

4.2.3 The characteristics of sport in the 1950s to 1970

The influence of political movements

The extensive and sustaining political movements of the CPC between the 1950s and 1970s made a strong influence on the development of sport at Tsinghua. Therefore, the strategies adopted by Tsinghua in this period centered on the needs of political movements.

Exhibition of high sporting level

With the emphasis of sport at Tsinghua's administrator, the sporting level of Tsinghua took the lead among higher education institutions in China. Some student athletes achieved the standard of National Excellent Athlete, and some achieved results in the first National Games. They were not totally behind the special purpose athletes in the sporting level.

Inheritance of sport ideas of Tsinghua in the RC period

Although sport thoughts of Tsinghua in the RC period was negated after the 1950s because of the difference in ideology, Tsinghua's sport reflected its past. The persistence in compulsive exercise, establishing sport teams and participating actively in the inter–collegiate games were a continuation of the tradition of sport at Tsinghua in the period of the RC.

4.3 Tsinghua high-level sport teams

After the 1980s, with the guidance of the policies of high–level sport teams in higher education institution, Tsinghua made exceptional achievements in sport. It made the transition

from self-initiated development to policy-oriented development. The success of Tsinghua in sport was consensus in the field of China's sport studies. The Tsinghua Model was considered a case of combination of sport and education.

4.3.1 High-level sport teams in the 1980s to the early 1990s

The president affairs conference in approved "The Decision on Strengthening the Students' Sport at Tsinghua University" on April 24, 1986. It emphasized that the extra—curricular sport activities would be implemented, the time for them should be guaranteed, and the amateur sport training should be strengthened (Tsinghua University Council Conference, 1986, Apr 24). Therefore, sport at Tsinghua started to improve slowly.

After the promulgation of "The Notice of Attempting to Enroll High–level Athletes by Some of Universities and Colleges", Tsinghua started its exploration of the construction of high–level sport teams. Given the fact that the phenomenon of special purpose athlete competing against amateurs was common in the National University Games of the People's Republic of China [NUG] in the 1980s and that there was no former experience of success, Tsinghua adopted the "double degree" strategy in constructing high–level sport teams. It enrolled senior students who showed exceptional the sporting level in sport colleges for studying in Tsinghua for the second bachelor's degree. The In 1987 Tsinghua enrolled ten students, mostly the third–year students from Beijing Sport College. These students participated in the 27th Beijing University Games as athletes from Tsinghua. In addition,

Tsinghua also enrolled special purpose athletes to study on campus and participated in the games on behalf of the university. For instance, the retired special purpose athletes of the Beijing teams were enrolled in Chemistry Department in Tsinghua. From 1994 to 1996, a few in–service athletes in athletics teams studied in Tsinghua. With these changes, the sporting level of Tsinghua quickly increased. In the 12th Asian Games, Tsinghua's athletes won two gold medals and one silver medal. Enrollment of students from Beijing Sport College and special purpose athletes indicated that the sporting level of athletes growing in the education system totally fell behind special purpose athletes in the nationwide sport system. Although the enrolled athletes didn't have a favorable background in education, most could attain the degrees by having desirable results in competitions. The exchange of competition results for degrees was not an effective way. Therefore, in the mid–1990s,

4.3.2 High–level sport teams in the mid–1990s to present

The basic concept of Tsinghua to establish high–level sport teams in the 1980s was to introduce elite athletes who would represent the university in the NUG and other games. However, this had disadvantages. Therefore, in 1994 Tsinghua made the transition to develop elite student athletes instead of enrolling special purpose athletes⁷⁹ and detailed plans were implemented. In order to cater to high–level sport teams, Tsinghua divided them into three types according to their level (See the Table 4-9).

Table 4 – 9

Three Types of Tsinghua Sport Teams

Type	Details	Sports
	It was made up with high quality and high-level	Shooting, rowing, athletics,
A Team	student athletes. This aimed to participate in the	basketball (M), diving
	National Games as representatives of the	
	provinces ⁸⁰ , even participate in the world games.	
B Team	This was composed of regular student athletes. The	Basketball (F), volleyball,
	teams were established by means of sports in the	swimming, football,
	NUG. The aim of the B team was to represent the	aerobics
	province or city in the NUG.	
C Team	It had the goal of participating in the Beijing	Fencing, hiking, baseball,
	University Games or other games. The sports of C	badminton, tennis,
	Team were mainly those that played an important	handball, chess, bridge
	role in promoting mass sports in Tsinghua.	

Note. 1) The data was collated from the expert interview of Liu Bo. (2013, Aug, 23).

²⁾ M = Male; F = Female.

By dividing the teams the focus was made clear. In the early 2000s the Tsinghua Model in sport was gradually formed including the following composite models of raising student athletes.

Single-line model – the diving team

Tsinghua diving team was established in 1998 for the purpose of nurturing the world-level student athletes. A training system from Tsinghua Affiliated Primary School to Affiliated High School and then to Tsinghua University was foundation building the diving team. In the early selection, basic training, mid-term development and high-level in diving consolidation of athlete were combined. Therefore, there were double insurance at the education and the training of athlete. The single-line training model had the advantage of system learning. Athletes received formal education in their primary school sessions and formed favorable habits in training. They started training at an early age and this continued until they went to Tsinghua. This model produced students with strong physical ability. Coaches of the diving team made dual-aimed plans for students which ensured sufficient education and promoted their training. The model was designed to create elite student athletes on the national level. One of its advantages was to allow local sport branches to provide talent different from the nationwide sport system. 81 However, in the actual operation, some problems and conflicts between the nationwide sport system and university sport system in the management occurred which were worth further studies.

Cooperative model – the shooting team

In 1999 Tsinghua founded its shooting team. Tsinghua discussed and negotiated with the Shooting Management Center of the General Administration of Sport of China and

adopted a co-founding team with the Shooting Management Center. Tsinghua was responsible for the construction affairs such as selected, trained and educated athletes. While the Shooting Management Center was responsible for athletes register and competitions.

Independent model – the rowing team

Tsinghua founded the team in an independent way. Students who had experience in sports were selected for training. The purpose was to promote the development of rowing in university through high–level training. Tsinghua organized national and international rowing competitions with other universities.

Basic model – the athletics team

Tsinghua athletics team underwent three stages of development. The first period from 1987 to 1989 was based on double–degree system combining studying and training. The major sources of students were athletes from Beijing Sport College. The second stage was from 1990 to 1993 which took "the sport class" as its main form. The major source of students were retired special purpose athletes and students who were enrolled with exceptional scores. The third stage was a combining of education and training. It encouraged students to participate in sport. There were two forms of training athletes. One was the fundamental and high–level training conducted in the Ma Class⁸² in Tsinghua Affiliated High School and Tsinghua University. The students were recommended to provinces after reaching a certain level. The other way was the formerly registered special purpose athlete going through the assessment, selection, and collegiate exams. This was a new initiative way that involved the participation of provinces or municipalities. It guaranteed special purpose

athletes' sporting level and improvement of knowledge and intellect which contributed to solve onward career problems athletes may have faced later.

4.3.3 The organization and management

Organization and leadership

In order to develop and manage sport affairs, a Tsinghua sport committee was established in the 1950s. 83 The Deputy Dean was in charge of daily operations of the committee while the responsible persons of other related departments at Tsinghua acted as members on the committee. The plan to develop high–level sport teams was the agenda of the President Affairs Conference and Tsinghua Sport Committee Conference. The topic of the teams was discussed in the conferences which gave rise to strategy development. The temporary affairs concerning the teams were also part of the agenda of the conferences.

Organization

Under the leadership of the sport committee, high–level sport teams were jointly managed by the Youth League Committee and Sporting Department at Tsinghua. A special management organization named *the Working Group for Sport Teams* was established. The division of work was as follows: Sporting Department selected, enrolled in sports skills, trained and sent athletes to competitions. The Youth League Committee, as the main organizer of student athletes' moral education and extracurricular activities was responsible for the enrollment in education, moral education, team building, routine management and logistics. The two organizations cooperated with each other closely.

Planning and development

Customized for the characteristics of student athletes, Tsinghua held conferences on discussing the development of student athletes and exploring combination of education and sport. The Dean's Office, Graduate School, Enrollment Office, Sporting Department, the Youth League Committee, and the School of Economics and Management⁸⁴ all participated in the planning and management to this end. Special documents were drawn to enroll all student athletes in the School of Economics and Management to study in five—year program.

The management of high-level sport teams

Tsinghua formed a complete set of management regulations. This study focused on the aspects of enrollment, student rolls, training and daily management in detail.

Enrollment management

With regard to the different requirements of the teams and various situations of students, the score standard was lowered⁸⁵ or admitted without taking exams in order to enroll the students whose sport ability was recognized in sports test of Tsinghua Sport Winter Camp. The enrollment office made a series of regulations and management documents concerning the enrollment and punishment.

School roll management

When student athletes entered the university, the Registration Center and the Dean's Office of their school or department kept a complete school file of each student. Regarding the training record, *the Working Group for Sport Teams* held a series of management documents and ordinances including their sporting files. The name roll of the students in

high-level sport teams in each year was kept, the registration material for the Chinese University Sport Association was also complete for each student.

Training and competition management

During the process of training and management, *the Working Group for Sport Teams* demanded coaches make rigorous, scientific and uniform training schedule (including yearly, by stage and weekly period–based schedules), summarize the participation at major competitions so as to keep exploring and improving. Fingerprint recognition devices were installed for managing attendance, and the attendance requirement and its proportion in the evaluation were also specified. The attendance rate of athletes was maintained above 85%.

Routine management

There were uniform training sessions and competition regulations, lesson make—up regulations, exam regulations, night study regulations and attendance regulations. *The Working Group for Sport Teams* equipped each grade with special tutors who were in charge of communicating with students and ensured effective management. Training records were also kept for each student which included records of sickness, injuries, accidents, and rewards.

The construction of coach teams

There were two main sources of coaches employed for Tsinghua's high–level sport teams. One was employing P. E. teachers in Tsinghua who excelled in certain sports and had the potential to be favorable coaches. Most of the athletics coaches came from this background. The second source was employing high–level coaches from outside the university. Tsinghua may have had difficulty in finding coaches for certain sports such as

rowing, diving and basketball. In those ways, the quality of coaches in Tsinghua were greatly improved, and the problem of sourcing coaches was solved which further propelled the development of high–level sport (Qiu & Chen, 2002).

The facility guarantee

Tsinghua had excellent facilities that could meet the needs of training. These were the west stadium (8,038 square meter), comprehensive stadium (12,000 square meter), one swimming stadium and one diving stadium (8,000 square meter), a shooting stadium (10–meter range, 50–meter range and 25–meter range), three athletic fields, and all kinds of standard training equipment for sports. Furthermore, the annual investment was over 15,000 (RMB) per capita. The details were as the Table 4-10.

Table 4 – 10

The Budget for High–level Sport Teams in Tsinghua University (2011)

Items	Budget	Funding source
Athlete nutrition	650,000 ¥/Y	Tsinghua Funding
Athletics team	500,000 ¥/Y	Tsinghua Sport Funding
Basketball team	500,000 ¥/Y	Social Contributions
Rowing team	5,00,000 ¥/Y	Tsinghua Sport Funding, Social Contributions
Shooting team	5,00,000 ¥/Y	Social Contributions
Other teams	3,00,000 ¥/Y	Tsinghua Sport Funding, Social Contributions
Total	2,950,000 ¥/Y	

Note. 1) The data was collated from Division of Sports Science and Physical Education of Tsinghua University. (2010).

²⁾ $\frac{1}{2}$ Y = RMB/Year.

The training effects

The statistics of the teaching results from 2006 to 2011 showed that the employment rate of high–level athletes was over 95%. The rate of attainment of bachelor's degree was over 85%. The admittance of post graduate studies was over 10%.

From the perspective of training effects, in athletics team for instance, in the 23th Universiade (2005) Hu Kai won male 100–meter. Wang Ying won female triple jump. Liu Qing won third place in female 1500–meter. On the 10th National Games of the PRC, Tsinghua athletics teams won three gold medals and five silver medals. On the 24th Universiade (2007), Tsinghua won one gold, one silver and one bronze. In the 2008 Beijing Olympics Games, five students from Tsinghua made their way into the games including Hu Kai, Liu Qing and Li Xiangyu from athletics team. On the 11th National Games (2009), 12 athletes from Tsinghua athletics team participated and won one gold, one silver and one bronze.

4.4 Summary

By reviewing the three periods in the development of sport at Tsinghua, it could be found that sport tradition was gradually formed in Tsinghua through compulsive exercise and popularization of sport among students between the 1910s and 1930s. Tsinghua exhibited high sporting level in competitions. The debate concerning abolishing *bingcao* and intercollegiate games deeply the understanding of sport.

The change of political system in the 1950s stimulated Tsinghua to make transitions in sport. From the 1950s to 1970s through several conferences and decisions, the university trained some high–level student athletes on the basis of popularizing sport. In this period political movements exerted an impact on sport at Tsinghua.

Since the 1980s Tsinghua started its exploration in founding high–level sport teams.

The Tsinghua Model in sport gradually took shape and success was achieved in the transition.

It was an attempt in addressing the problem of the separation of sport from education caused by the nationwide sport system. However, given the monopoly status of the nationwide sport system, it was difficult to popularize the Tsinghua Model in the field of sport.

As to the training of student athletes, Tsinghua proposed combining the forces of the university, sport official, enterprise and research. The single line model also made contributions to the devgelopment of sport in China. The success of the integration of sport with education was attributed to the exploration and efforts of several generations at Tsinghua. The sport tradition provided the university with a great support which brought Tsinghua to the leading position among domestic higher education institutions. The Tsinghua Model carried significance in China's current reform of sport system.

Conclusions

Conclusions of chapter

This study investigated sport in China's higher education institutions in three different periods, the 1890s to 1937, the 1950s to 1970s and the 1980s to present. The following were the conclusions.

Chapter 1

The period between the 1890s and 1937 was one for dissemination of the Western sport in China in which institutions functioned as one of the major channels. Since sport appeared before the emergence of in China's university and college, and the state—run institutions followed their Western counterparts, they held sport activities such as collegiate and inter—collegiate games since they were founded. These games didn't pay much attention to the rules. Furthermore, Christian institutions which originated from the missionary schools with the Western background took the initiative in introducing sport. They organized inter—collegiate games and regulated the development of sport in higher education institutions.

The following were the major factors that influenced university and college sport in this period. As to the organization of sport, the Young Men's Christian Association advocated and organized domestic and international games. In the aspect of sport concept, Militarism made an impact on sport and physical education course in higher education institutions which began to follow a dual system. The curriculum mainly adopted military training with a focus on *bingcao* while the extracurricular activities involved sport.

The games were the major expression of sport in China in this period. By analyzing the organization, participation, results, collegiate student athletes were the majority in the participants of the games. They were also the creator and keeper of the records of almost sports. The inter–collegiate games promoted the development of sport in this period. The East China Inter–collegiate Athletic Association in the 1910s and the *Jiangnan* Inter–collegiate Athletic Association in the 1920s made interpretation on the schedule, system, rules, and participants. It further regulated sport in China.

Although the regulations on sport in higher education institutions were formed in the 1920s, the development of university and college sport was hardly influenced by policies.

The major problem was *the athlete system*. It was the conflict between popularization and improvement in sport.

Chapter 2

In the period between the 1950s and 1970s, the Communist Party of China held the political power and changed the social ideology so that sport and education system followed the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. In the field of sport, a three–level training system was formed comprising the youth amateur sport schools, provincial teams, and national teams. The importance of sport training was stressed in the youth of athletes. In the field of higer education institutions, sport was restructured and sport colleges that training sport teachers and athletes were established. Other institutions (except sport colleges) were mainly responsible for popularizing sport not training athletes.

Society in this period was characterized by frequent political movements. The restructure of university and college sport was a consequence of political movements. The

Great Leap Forward of 1958 to 1960 caused the impulsive economic development. Thus, adjustment in the field of sport was made in the early 1960s. National teams and provincial teams were kept while sport colleges no longer trained elite athletes. The separation of sport from education system resulted in the separation of sport from education.

From the mid–1950s to 1970s, most provinces held inter–collegiate track and field games. However, the games were not unified in the system and procedure and exhibited low sporting level. Therefore, they didn't contribution to the formation of the national university games. The restructure of sport and university sport from the 1950s to 1970s caused the separation of sport from education and reduced the sporting level of higher education institutions.

Chapter 3

Since the 1980s, the nationwide sport system was adopted in the development of sport in China. Through employing the Olympic Glory Program, China achieved excellent results in the world sport arena. The system emphasized the training aspect and neglected education of athletes which became one of the major obstacles of it. From the mid–1980s onward, the proposition of integrating sport and education became the drive behind the development of university and college sport.

The policies had been the major elements dominating the development of university and college sport since the 1980s. The concept and direction of the development were implemented through the interpretation of policies and regulations. Sport in higher education institutions relied heavily on the system design. With the guiding policies, high–level sport teams became the main vehicle of university and college sport. It was the policies that

promoted the emergence of the University Games of the People's Republic of China which were the platform for exhibiting inter–collegiate games. The determination of the distinction between special purpose athletes and student athletes was a major challenge.

The interviews of Beijing's institutions showed the concept of developing high–level sport teams in Beijing University of Technology and Renmin University of China by cooperating with special purpose teams. An effective mechanism was formed in the system design, student management, and competition results. The challenge that this mechanism faced was to what extent it could be popularized. Actually, training student athletes was not the ultimate goal for integrating sport and education.

Chapter 4

The following conclusions could be made by reviewing sport at Tsinghua University in different periods. In its early period of the 1910s, Tsinghua was heavily influenced by American education and developed sport. The compulsory exercise contributed to popularize sport and the inter–collegiate competitions promoted the sporting level. Tsinghua occupied the leading position in north China according to its results in the inter–collegiate games.

From the 1950s to 1970s, Tsinghua was mainly influenced by social political movements and the adjustment of higher education institutions. After the establishment of Tsinghua sport teams in the 1950s, the sporting level of the university was enhanced and it also popularized sport across the campus. In the first and second National Games of the People's Republic of China, Tsinghua's student athletes obtained desirable results which showed its high sporting level. After the 1980s, with the policies on high–level sport teams,

Tsinghua explored its way of integration of sport with education and gradually formed the Tsinghua Model. It made breakthroughs in track and field, diving, and shooting.

Conclusions of the three periods

By comparing the characteristics of university and college sport in the three periods, it could be found that the following conclusions.

Status of sport in higher education institutions

University and college sport was the guider of the development of sport in China. In the 1890s to 1937, sport in higher education institutions acted as the vehicle, organizer, and manager of sport in China. From the 1950s to 1970s, it made the transition from guider to participant. Since the 1980s, it became the effective method in solving the institutional problems of sport in China and acted as the participant of sport reform.

The sporting level

The sporting level of student athletes in the 1890s to 1937 represented the top level of sport in China. After the 1950s, as the training system was formed, special purpose athletes replaced student athletes as the participants in sport competitions. In the 1980s to present, higher education institutions trained student athletes in the form of high–level sport teams. However, the sporting level of student athletes still fell behind special purpose athletes.

The influence of social movement

The social movement influenced the development of university and college sport.

Under the influence of Militarism and American sport, sport in higher education institutions in the 1890s to 1937 started to display dual—system development. From the 1950s to 1970s, it was influenced by the adjustment of higher education institutions, the Great Leap Forward in

1958, the Cultural Revolution of 1966 to 1976. These movements damaged the development of university and college sport. After the Reform and Opening Up, sport in higher education institutions displayed three development strategies and marketing were introduced.

Management of sport in higher education institutions

In the 1890s to 1937 university and college sport depended largely on the organization and management of elite group of higher education institutions. In the 1950s to 1970s, it was included as part of affairs of the state government for unified plan. The National Sport Committee was the supervisor of university and college sport. In the 1980s when high–level sport teams established, the Ministry of Education gradually replaced the National Sport Committee was the supervisor of it.

The goals of sport in higher education institutions

In different historical periods, the goals and methods of university and college sport also differ. University and college sport functioned as the main method of strengthening the country and the race in the 1890s to 1937. After the establishment of PRC, it was an important method of popularizing sport and serving political aims. At present, the goal of it was training student athletes for participating in the Universiade.

Vehicles of university and college sport

In the 1890s to 1937, the major vehicle of sport in higher education institutions was Christian, national and private institutions. It became sport colleges from the 1950s to the 1970s. In 1987 after high–level sport teams established, the comprehensive universities were the main vehicle sport in higher education institutions.

Reliance of sport in higher education institutions

In the 1890s to 1937, sport in higher education institutions depended on the inter–collegiate sport association. From the 1950s to the 1970s, it relied on sport policies.

Since the 1980s, policies have been the major guidance of the development of university and college sport.

Further studies

The study of the sports games in the 1890s to 1937

Sports games were an important aspect of the university and college sport in the late Qing and RC period. Due to the restriction of time and conditions of this research, however, the investigation and summary on this aspect was still not sufficient, in particular inter–collegiate sport meets in East China. Therefore, in the further studies, the university sports games in this period will be explored and discussed.

A revisit to the relationship between sport in higher education institutions and the nationwide sport system

University and college sport was an important part in the development of sport and had meant to the choice in the reform direction of sport in China. This study did not promote in—depth research and analysis on the relationship between university and college sport and the nationwide sport system. For instance, the position of higher education institutions' sport in the nationwide sport system, and choosing the path of the combination sport and education. This topic will become an important aspect of future research.

The in-depth research on individual cases of university and college sport

This study selected Tsinghua University as the case for analysis. However, it didn't incorporate the development of Tsinghua sport into the larger social background. Therefore,

the historical and social elements will be taken into consideration in the further studies of sport in certain universities.

Footnote

- 1 By reviewing sport local chronicles of almost provinces in China, the appearance and spreading of sport activities were implemented by schools in most part of China (including all middle and west districts in China).
- 2 It was also named Chinese National Sports Meeting. See Chinese National Sports Meeting. (1910, Sept 30). *The North China Herald*, 805.
- 3 Between the 1950s and the early 1990s, sport in China regarded national benefit as the fundamental purpose. The development of sport was implemented by planning. It was in this period that the *pingpong* diplomacy occurred and China assisted sport affairs in Africa and other third—world countries. Those incidents had a deep political meaning behind. See Editorial Board of Chinese Year Book. (1983). *Chinese yearbook*: 1966 1972. Beijing, BJ: People's Publishing House of China.
- 4 Sport colleges then were mostly training institutions that received advice from experts in the USSR. They didn't qualify as colleges.
- 5 The nationwide sport system was a product of planning economy of China. In the era of planning economy (1950s to 1970s), the retirement of athletes were settled by the government. After the 1990s, with the acceleration of market economy, sport affairs also became part of the marketing. The nationwide sport system, as part of planning economy, came into an institutional conflict with the development of sport in market economy. In 1995 "The Olympic Glorious Program" was implemented for the purpose of strengthening the country by means of sport. However in the actual practice, it was understood as golden medal—orientation. Thus, the priority of the sport organization in the Olympic Games and other competitions had been to win medals. The athletes had to have hard training throughout the years in order to obtain gold medals in expense of their education, employment, and even individual living. When they didn't have breakthroughs in sport, the athletes would have problems in living after they retired, since they didn't receive systematic education and the sports had their limitations such as gymnasium, weightlifting and track and field. Survival became a critical issue for athletes. Currently, there has been massive news coverage on this issue.

6 As to this problem, athletes didn't have expertise aside from sport. Therefore, they could not land a job after retirement. This was a complicated problem. However, one main reason was that in the nationwide sport system, most athletes sacrificed their opportunities to be educated.

- 7 Premier Li Peng and the Minister of Education Li Tieying respectively delivered speeches on the Second and Third of the National University Games and emphasized the position of sport among collegiate students. See People's Daily. (1986, Aug 4, p. 3; 1988, Aug 26, p. 3).
- 8 The athlete who was trained in the nationwide sport system was not professional athlete.
- 9 The National Education Committee was The Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China from the 1950s to 1998.
- 10 Taking 1996 and 2005, when the policies were promulgated as the distinction.
- 11 Luo Shiming thought that it was currently seen on the earliest use the term of *ticao* in China. Cited in Luo Shiming (Ed.). (2008). *General history of China's sport:* 1840 1926 (Vol. 3). Beijing, BJ: People's Sports Publishing House of China. 98.
- 12 Since long ago, the sport technical terms didn't have clear boundary and analysis. Most were used in their working definitions agreed upon by scholars in the field, such as the nationwide sport system, special purpose athletes, and student athletes, etc. Most first appeared in the government documents and were quoted by researchers later. The rough content of the terms was clear, although there were no detailed explanation.
- 13 Before 2005 most athletes who participated in the Universiade were not students studying in universities and colleges. Instead, the government could manipulate with political powers to make the Excellent Athlete eligible for participating in the Universiade.
- 14 In the RC, the schools of China were of three classes, government schools, private schools and mission school, the latter mainly supported by contributions from abroad. Cited in Woodhead. H. G. W. (Ed.). (1928). *The China year book: 1928*. Tientsin: The Tientsin Press, Limited. 498.
- 15 Although the development of modern higher education in China dated back more than a hundred years, the origins of China's modern higher education had yet to be conclusively determined. Looking back from a historical perspective, it seemed to be quite obvious which university was the first to be established in China. However, due to different purposes and angles in research, it had been difficult to agree upon one common conclusion. The Imperial

University of Peking could well rank as the first in terms of the power of its impact, while Christian universities were earlier in terms of the introduction of higher education to China and the use of the term university. This research took a temporal perspective and regarded Peiyang University to be China's first modern university. It was founded by Chinese educators according to the modern university model.

16 The Methodist University of Peking.

17 It was also named Chinese National Sports Meeting. "The sports are being arranged under the supervision of a committee of Chinese and foreigners of which Dr. Exner, physical director of the Shanghai Chinese Y. M. C. A., is chairman". See Chinese National Sports Meeting. (1910, Sept 30). *The North China Herald*, 805.

18 Some athletic meets were held by the Western sport clubs as early as the 1850s. However, Chinese people were prohibited in taking part in these meets.

- 19 The data was not complete collection, missing the data of 1905 and 1907.
- 20 In the period of the People's Republic of China, sport and physical education were collectively known as physical culture.
- 21 Between roles and structures rather than human beings. See in Bill, B. (1981). *China: Radicalism to Revisionism, 1962–1979.* London, LD: Croom Helm. 14.
- 22 National Sport Committee (1952–1956).
- 23 Ready for Labour and Defence also named Gotov k trudu i oborone (GTO). Cited in Riordan, J. (1977). Sport in Soviet Society, development of sport and physical education in Russian and the USSR. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 128.
- 24 1950-1953.
- 25 This was an approximate figure.
- 26 Ibid.
- 27 Cited in He Dongchang (Ed.). (1998). *Pivotal educational literature of the People's Republic of China*. Haikou, HN: Hainan Publishing House. 26.
- 28 From the above states, the adjustment of higher education institutions was characterized with a strong sense of ideology such as the criticism of American sport. The Western higher education was criticized comprehensively and abandoned while the USSR's higher education was praised overall and accepted. The adjustment became the sacrifice of politics. It made contribution to the construction of the PRC but also brought about a number of problems to higher education such as the administrative property of education. These problems remained until today. The adjustment of higher education institutions also eliminated missionary universities because of their strong sense of American education thoughts. The higher

education founded model on the requirements of the USSR.

- 29 Through the adjustment in policies, originally as a comprehensive university, Tsinghua took the orientation of engineering university. On the one hand, Tsinghua consequently was able to effectively allocate the resources and nurture the talent urgently needed; but on the other hand, some advantageous subjects in universities also disappeared. The measurement of developing higher education based coercive policies reduced universities to the state of tools under ideological and political pressure. Universities lost their independence of academic development.
- 30 There were kinds of convey, such as physical education institute.
- 31 Except sport colleges.
- 32 *The athlete system* in the RC.
- 33 See Editorial Board of China Education Encyclopedia. (Ed.) (1996). p. 253.
- 33 Ibid. p. 255.
- 35 See Policy Research Office of National Sport Committee (Ed.). (1982). pp. 724-728.
- 36 Ibid. pp. 418-423.
- 37 Huang Qianghui was overseas Chinese. He won the first place in the light–level body–building competition in Indonesia in 1951 and 1952. He returned to China in 1952.
- 38 For example, "*The August First Team*" in the army system trained many elite athletes including the Olympic champions and elite basketball player Wang Zhizhi, the first Chinese athlete to play in National Basketball Association [NBA].
- 39 "The Third Plenary Session of the 11th Central Committee of the Communist Party of China" was held during Dec 18 to 22, 1978 in Beijing. The conference decided to transfer the focus of the CPC affairs to the modernization construction of socialism. It opened a new era for Socialism with Chinese characteristics.
- 40 The nationwide sport system in China was commonly believed to be formed in the 1950s. After the state—oriented development in the 1960s and 1970s, it was formally established in the 1980s. Then, the scholars started to discuss the nationwide sport system and the concept of it gradually formed. After the attempts in the four Olympic Games of 1984 to 1996, the term of nationwide sport system was formally adopted by the government in the Sydney Olympics Games which established the system as an important guideline of the sport in China. In the 21st Century, the government proposed to persist and improve the nationwide sport system. It was further enhanced later. See Yang Hua. (2004). Upholding and further

improving the whole–nation system for competitive sports in China. *Journal of Beijing Sport University*, 27(5), 577–582.

- 41 The phrase "two atomic bombs and one satellite" became political vocabulary and used in the field of science, higher education, and talent development.
- 42 That was consistently in May 1993 enacted the National Sport Commission viewed on deepening the reform of sport.
- 43 Except sport universities or colleges.
- 44Before 2005, the organization and selection of China's athletes for the Universiade had been undertaken by the NSC. Most athletes were members of the national teams who didn't reflect the sporting level of students from higher education institutions. This situation persisted until 2005 when the MOE organized the team to participate in the Universiade. However, the multiple resources of student identity also made a few celebrated Olympic medalists participate in the games.
- 45 On May 4, 1998 Jiang Zemin announced on the Centennial of Peking University that for the purpose of achieving modernization, the PRC need several global leading first—class higher education institutions. In implementing the strategy of strengthening the nation through science and education development, the MOE decided to execute "*The 21st Century Education Promotion Action Plan*" which focused on supporting Peking University, Tsinghua University and other higher education institutions to become the world's first—class and high—level universities. This project was also known as Project 985.

See http://www.cdgdc.edu.cn/xwyyjsjyxx/xwbl/zdjs/985gc/index.shtml

46 On July 15, 1993 the NEC issued "Notice of Printing and Distributing Several Opinions on Focusing on Building a Group of Universities and Key Subjects". Some key programs of Project 211 were decided, specifically, as China headed toward the 21st Century, supporting with an emphasis on approximately 100 higher education institutes and a group of key subjects.

See http://www.moe.gov.cn/publicfiles/business/htmlfiles/moe/moe_1985/200804/9084.html 47 High–level sport teams in higher education institutions were expanded in 2004. One of the reasons for the expansion was that it was proposed to change the organizer of athletes for the Universiade from the GASC to education official institution (MOE) on the conference held

by the State Council in 2004. Thus, it became an urgent mission.

- 48 For instance, the national universities and colleges track and field games were held in Xi'an in 1958 were one held between the sport colleges.
- 49 "The 1990 School Sort Affairs Regulation" no longer had the regulations, and Temporary Higher Education Institutions and High School Sport Competition Regulations promulgated by NEC replaced the content mentioned above. The National University Games were held once every four years. The games could start in advance or be put off for special conditions. Sports in the games were predetermined two years before the games.
- 50 In the 1950s when the adjustment of higher education institutions, universities and colleges were restructured in the light of majors and subjects such as forestry colleges, agriculture colleges. Only one comprehensive university was allowed to remain in each province, which covered liberal arts and science subjects, such as Peking University. Other were known as common universities. Those that trained teachers were called normal universities.
- 51 Susan Brownell once participated in the second National University Games as the one of representative athletes of universities in Beijing. See Susan, B. (1995). *Training the body for China: Sports in the moral order of the People's Republic*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- 52 The colleges enrolled students from special purpose teams for a while in order to achieve the target of glorifying their universities and colleges. These retired athletes had a higher sporting level than student athletes. However, they didn't have the potential to improve in the sporting level. On the contrary, as they were separated from special purpose training system, their performance would be reduced. See Yang Tieli, & Chen Ju. (2002). The reforming countermeasure of the extracurricular training in China. *Journal of Physical Education*, 9(4), 104–107.
- 53 Student athletes.
- 54 Football started professional progress in 1994 in China. It was the beginning of Chinese professional sport.
- 55 "The July 6 Seminar" was a point of departure for the development of basketball in higher education instructions. It was held on July 6, 1996 in Renmin University of China. The agenda of the seminar was mainly how to develop university basketball and train basketball talent.

56 The fundamental difference between the CUBS and the CUBA lied in that the latter didn't allow professional athletes who registered with the Chinese Basketball Association to participate in the games. All participants of the CUBA must be collegiate students. On the other hand, the CUBA was opened to professional athletes and allowed all universities to have large operation space.

57

http://zfxxgk.beijing.gov.cn/fgdyna.prinfodetail.prPlanDetailInfo.do?GM_T_CATALOG_INFO/CATA_INFO_ID=374955

- 58 The first model was analyzed in Chapter 4. Given the operation model of professional club of the Beijing Institute of Technology, the data information belonged to commercial secret. That was why this study didn't analysis on this model.
- 59 Chen Jiansheng, expert interview, Jan 15, 2011.
- 60 The independent exam was not a nationally unified exam. The exam did not include much content and was easy.
- 61 Bai Yongzheng, expert interview, Jan 20, 2011.
- 62 Guo Jingjing was a female diver from the PRC. She was tied with her partner Wu Minxia for winning the most Olympic medals (6) of any female diver and won the 3m springboard event at five consecutive World Championships. She announced her retirement in 2011.
- 63 Sang Xue was a female diver from the PRC. She won the gold medal in the Synchronized 10m Platform competition at the 2000 Summer Olympics.
- 64 The above athletes were all diving athletes who all won the gold medals in the Sydney or the Athens Olympic Games.
- 65 There was controversies concerning when the compulsive exercise began. An argument was it started in 1911 when Tsinghua was founded. Although Tsinghua had no physical education from the third year of *Xuantong* to the seventh year of the RC, it executed compulsive exercise. In 1914 *Tsinghua Weekly* reported that compulsive exercise came to a pause on Nov 28, 1913 and in 1915 it continued until the completion of the project of stadium. Therefore, it could be determined that the compulsive reading came into existence before 1914. See Tsinghua Weekly. (1914, p. 22).

66 Ibid.

- 67 Ibid.
- 68 Ma Yuehan.
- 69 Ibid.
- 70 The second President of Tsinghua College (Aug, 1913 Jan, 1918).
- 71 Liu Bo, expert interview, August 15, 2013.
- 72 Ibid.
- 73 Jiang Nanxiang, President of Tsinghua University from Nov. 1952 to June. 1966.
- 74 The roll students were outstanding in their physical condition, study and work.
- 75 Mainly studying in some engineering departments such as automation, precision equipment and wireless.
- 76 For instance, Zheng Lijuan was admitted into Tsinghua University in 1987 and she achieved excellent results in the 1990 Asian Games.
- 77 In that year, Tsinghua altogether enrolled 13 in—service high—level athletes to study in the undergraduate program in the School of Economics and Management. These people were the first three in the ranking of the national team and they also had some basis of knowledge.

 78 Liu Hao won the gold medal of men's shot put, Min Chunfeng won the gold medal of female discus, and Zhou Hongyan the silver medal of female 100—meter hurdle (China Sport Yearbook, 1995).
- 79 The retired athletes were still enrolled into universities in this period. However, the Olympic gold medalists were not allowed to participate on behalf of universities.
- 80 Given the registration system of China's athletes, the athletes could only represent their provinces in participating in the games. They couldn't represent their insitutions.
- Consequently, athletes who came from Tsinghua University were considered representing the province in participating in the national games.
- 81 Yu Fen, expert interview, August 22, 2013.
- 82 The Ma Class was named Ma Yuehan. It was established in Tsinghua University Primary School in 1986.
- 83 The following content were expert interview of Liu Bo who is Dean of Division of Sports Science and Physical Education, Tsinghua University.

- 84 Since Tsinghua had no the School of Sport, the student athletes enrolled were admitted by the School of Economics and Management.
- 85 Currently, students to be enrolled in high–level sport teams at Tsinghua benefited with 40% discounting on the local score standard for second class higher education institutions.

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Appendix I

Expert Interview Outline

The guidelines for interviewing experts on high–level sport teams
I. Please talk about the history of development of university high–level teams
1. When were the high–level teams founded? What was the background?
2. What were the goals for the high–level teams then?
II. The operation model of university high–level teams
1. The team management (enrollment, school roll, training and competitions, and routine
management)
2. The construction of coach team (the building of coach team, the personnel institution and
structure, the quality of coaches, training and improvement)
3. Facilities (training facilities and stadiums, training equipment, and budget)
III. How do you evaluate the training model of university high–level sport teams?
1. What are some of the advantages of the team?
2. What are some of the disadvantages of the team?
3. How to solve the problems that the team faces now?
4. To what extent do you think the model can be followed by other university high–level
teams?
IV. The sustainable development of university high–level sport teams
1. What is the concept of sustainable development of university high–level teams?
2. How to make sure the concept of sustainable development was achieved?
3. What is the relationship between university sport system and nationwide sport system?

Appendix II

Telephone Interview

Dear Sir/Madam.
I am, PhD candidate of Waseda University. I am currently doing research on sport in
Chinese universities and colleges. Could you help me do a simple questionnaire?
1. Did any student athletes from your university participate in the 2008 Olympics Games
2. Did any student athletes from your university participate in the 2007 Universiade?
3. Did any student athletes from your university participate in the 2009 National Games?
I am looking forward to your reply. Thank you!