

Loland, S., Hoppeler, H. (2012). Justifying anti-doping : the fair opportunity principle and the biology of performance enhancement. *European Journal of Sport Science*, 12, 347-353.

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33 **Background**

34 Can the campaign in sport against the use of performance-enhancing substances
35 and methods referred to as doping be justified? Is anti-doping a reasonable and well-
36 informed position in the modern world of sport?

37

38 These questions may seem rhetorical. Today more resources than ever are put into
39 anti-doping work. The 1999 establishment of the World Anti-doping Agency (WADA)
40 is an expression of strong will to meet what is considered one of the most
41 momentous challenges to sport ever.

42

43 Public and political consensus on anti-doping however is no guarantee for a good
44 justification. Line drawing between acceptable and non-acceptable performance-
45 enhancing means and methods is complex and challenging from both an ethical and
46 scientific point of view. Some hold that the ban on doping is problematic and even
47 unjustifiable (Brown, 1990; Black & Pape, 1997; Tamburrini, 2000; Savulescu et al.,
48 2004). Extensive doping cases in international elite sports such as athletics and
49 professional cycling indicate that some athletes and coaches seem to accept and
50 indeed practice doping (Waddington & Smith, 2009).

51

52 In this paper we take a critical look at the rationale for anti-doping. More specifically,
53 we examine the moral and scientific status of the use of banned performance-
54 enhancing substances and methods in organized, competitive sport. Firstly, we
55 sketch how intuitively appealing arguments in support of anti-doping cannot
56 withstand critical scrutiny. Secondly, informed by the ideal of fair opportunity and by
57 broadly accepted biological concepts, we propose a detailed interpretation of
58 WADA's normative argument of doping as a violation against 'the spirit of sport'. We
59 argue that our interpretation represents a reasonable and fertile operationalization
60 and that it provides a sound rationale for anti-doping.

61

62 Before proceeding we ought to make clear that we do not address current anti-
63 doping policies and whether or not their organization and implementation are rational
64 and cost-efficient. Our concern is the normative and scientific background of the
65 position of anti-doping; the very idea that doping is against 'the spirit of sport'.
66

67 **Arguments in support of anti-doping¹**

68 A predominant argument in support of anti-doping is that doping is unfair. The implicit
69 understanding of fairness seems to be one of a moral obligation on rule-adherence
70 that arises when we are voluntarily engaged in rule-governed practices (Rawls,
71 1971). If as today there is a ban on certain performance-enhancing substances and
72 methods, those who use such means break the rules. For doping to give an
73 advantage athletes who use doping depend upon the rule-adherence of others. In
74 this way rule violators enjoy the benefits of cooperation without doing their fair share.
75 They cheat.

76

77 The problem with the fairness argument is that it does not really help in the
78 justification of anti-doping as such. Justifying a rule by reference to the wrongness of
79 breaking it implies logical circularity and is invalid. What is at stake here is the very
80 rationale for anti-doping. In fact, the fairness argument is sometimes used to reject
81 anti-doping policies (Tamburrini, 2000). If a significant number of athletes break the
82 rules without being caught, a minority of rule-adhering athletes has a disadvantage.
83 Morality does not pay. The situation is unjust and the fairness obligation becomes
84 problematic. Actually, to restore justice an alternative could be to lift the ban and
85 leave the choice of performance-enhancing means and methods to the athletes and
86 their supporting systems themselves.

87

88 Stronger arguments in support of anti-doping can be found in the risk of harm.
89 Although solid scientific evidence might be lacking in some cases, there are strong
90 indications that extensive use of performance-enhancing substances on the doping
91 list implies serious health risks (Hartgens & Kuipers, 2004; Tentori & Graziani,
92 2007). We take as a premise the significant health hazards and even the risk of
93 death linked to the extensive use of, for instance, anabolic androgenic steroids (AAS)
94 and erythropoietin (EPO).

95

96 This view also follows official justification from WADA. For a substance or method to
97 be considered for the WADA Prohibited List, the two first criteria that have to be met
98 are (1) medical or other scientific evidence, pharmacological effect or experience that
99 the substance or method has the potential to enhance, or enhances, sport

¹ The discussion is based on Loland (2011).

100 performance; (2) medical or other scientific evidence that the use of the substance or
101 method represents an actual or potential health risk to the athlete.²

102

103 At elite levels, however, performance enhancement strategies often involve
104 significant risks of harm. Long term and hard training pushes the limits towards
105 overtraining and possibly injuries. Similarly, competition itself can lead to acute injury.
106 In some sports the risk of harm can even have a constitutive and valuable function. In
107 parachute jumping and downhill skiing there is an inherent possibility for serious
108 harm and death. In boxing, avoiding pain and harm oneself and imposing pain and
109 harm on opponents are important technical and tactical challenges. An argument on
110 anti-doping due to health risks could be developed into a more general argument
111 against the practice of elite sport as a whole.

112

113 Such a conclusion is unreasonable as no distinctions are made between kinds and
114 relevance of risks as related to the nature of sport. Different social institutions and
115 practices are defined by different goals and values. In medicine, the overriding goal is
116 to prevent and treat illness and thereby to maintain and restore health. In other
117 settings health is given lower value. The Olympic motto *Citius, altius, fortius!*
118 expresses the strong drive in elite sport of improvement, of realizing athletic potential,
119 of testing the limits and possibilities of individual and team performance. The
120 challenge is to put in the necessary effort to succeed and at the same time to avoid
121 injuries. One of the important challenges in both downhill skiing and boxing is the
122 proper calculation and taking of risk. Health risks linked to doping seem to be of a
123 different kind. Why?

124

125 **‘The Spirit of Sport’**

126 An idea often expressed by sport leaders and athletes is that drug-enhanced
127 performance comes about without training and individual effort or contribution.
128 Performances based on pharmaceutical means are considered ‘un-natural’ and
129 ‘artificial’ and the risk involved is therefore considered unnecessary and non-relevant
130 (Hoberman 1992; Houlihan 2003).

131

² See article 4.3.1 in the WADA Code, http://www.wada-ama.org/rtecontent/document/code_v3.pdf. Accessed July 26, 2009.

132 Interpretations of what is 'natural' and 'artificial' however are to a large extent social
133 and cultural constructions that change over time. During most of the 20th century
134 there was a strong and enduring resistance against women's sports as they were
135 considered against female nature and ideals of femininity (Guttmann, 1991). In many
136 sports requirements on amateurism and a controlled 'manly' style of performance
137 have been replaced by an ethos of efficiency and performing at the limits of
138 exhaustion.

139

140 In the current situation however the idea of drug-enhanced performance as
141 somehow undeserved and contradictory to sport values seems to have grown strong.
142 Questions of anti-doping seem to go straight to the heart of discourses on the
143 meaning and value of sport. A well-justified standpoint necessarily needs to build on
144 an interpretation of what sport is all about.

145

146 WADA has recognized this and refers to a third criterion for the prohibited list: the
147 substance or method under consideration violates 'the spirit of sport'. In the so-called
148 'fundamental rationale' for the WADA Code, 'the spirit of sport' is defined as '...the
149 celebration of the human spirit, body and mind', and it is characterized by the
150 following values:

151

- 152 • Ethics, fair play and honesty
- 153 • Health
- 154 • Excellence in performance
- 155 • Character and education
- 156 • Fun and joy
- 157 • Teamwork
- 158 • Dedication and commitment
- 159 • Respect for rules and laws
- 160 • Respect for self and other participants
- 161 • Courage
- 162 • Community and solidarity³

163

³ http://www.wada-ama.org/rtecontent/document/code_v3.pdf, p. 3. Accessed July 27, 2009

164 From a philosophical and practical point of view these are general references and
165 hard to apply when it comes to concrete cases and line drawing. What does 'the spirit
166 of sport' mean in practice? How can the idea be interpreted?

167

168 **Athletic Performance and the Fair Opportunity Principle**

169 Independent of individual motivation among participants and the variety of social and
170 cultural contexts in which sport takes place, the demarcation criterion distinguishing
171 sport competitions from other social practices, or what is sometimes referred to as
172 their structural goal, isto measure, compare and rank participants according to
173 athletic performance (Loland, 2002). The core of sporting rule systems, or what is
174 often called the constitutive rules of a sport, includes definitions and regulations of
175 such performances. In football, the point is to score more goals than the opposing
176 team without touching the ball with the hands and without being in an offside position.
177 In the javelin throw, participants strive to throw the javelin the furthest given only a
178 fixed number of attempts.

179

180 Rules of anti-doping differ to a certain extent from constitutive rules as they regulate
181 performance-enhancing substances and methods outside of the competitive setting.
182 They can hardly be labeled constitutive as the realization of soccer games and
183 javelin competitions are possible without them. In the discussion of anti-doping it is
184 necessary to proceed from the structural goal of competitions and their constitutive
185 rules to a more general normative and scientifically informed understanding of
186 athletic performance.

187

188 An athletic performance is a complex human phenotype and the outcome of a high
189 number of genetic and environmental influences from the moment of conception to
190 the moment of performance. For the purpose of analysis a distinction between
191 genetic and environmental factors makes sense.

192

193 Genetic factors are the predispositions for developing the relevant phenotypes for
194 good performances in a sport (Bray et al., 2009). A person with good predisposition
195 is usually characterized as a 'talent'. Talent in this sense is distributed in the so-
196 called 'natural lottery' and based on inheritance.

197

198 Athletes develop their talent through gene-environment interactions. The extent to
199 which talent given performance capacity can be enhanced by training is itself a
200 genetic trait (Bouchard et al., 2001). Both genes and environment exert impact from
201 the very first nurture via development of general abilities and skills to specific training
202 and the learning of the particular techniques and tactics of a sport. Environmental
203 influences are based in part on chance and luck (a person with a talent for running is
204 born next to a track and field facility with a good coach) and in part on own effort (the
205 person realizes his or her talent through hard training over many years).

206

207 A critical question is whether all kinds of inequalities linked to performance, also
208 including those caused by performance-enhancing drugs, are of relevance in sports,
209 or whether some inequalities ought to be eliminated or compensated for.

210

211 Typically, questions of equality and inequality raise discussions of fairness and
212 justice. A general fairness idea found in many moral theories (Beauchamp, 2001,
213 372-74), goes as follows:

214

215 Persons should not be treated unequally based on inequalities that they
216 cannot influence or control in any significant way and for which they therefore
217 cannot be claimed responsible.

218

219 This can be called the fair opportunity principle. In democratic societies, distribution
220 of basic goods and burdens are built upon this principle to a large extent. For
221 example, physical and mental handicaps or other unfortunate conditions in life are
222 compensated for by financial support and integrative efforts in work and leisure.

223

224 The fair opportunity principle seems to have implications in sport as well (Loland
225 2002, 2009). One example comes from classification. Athletes are classified
226 according to sex, age, and sometimes body size. A lightweight boxer is not matched
227 with a heavyweight as the outcome usually is given. Female sprint runners do not
228 compete with male runners.

229

230 One possible reason is a quest for uncertainty of outcome. In general, one-sided
231 contests are enjoyable neither to participants nor spectators. This however cannot be

232 the only rationale. If this were the case we could imagine all kinds of competitive
233 setups such as between humans and animals or between humans with very different
234 performance capabilities who are given handicaps.

235
236 This however seems to contradict general conceptions of what sport is all about.
237 Classification in sport is better understood as an expression of the principle of fair
238 opportunity. Looking across a series of sports, the idea seems to be to evaluate
239 inequalities in performances that are primarily linked to and influenced by choices
240 and efforts of the athlete and as such to a large extent under athlete responsibility.
241 For this reason athletes are somehow identified with their performances and admired
242 or criticized based on the extent to which they are able to realize their potential. Lack
243 of classification disturbs such responsibility and leaves inequalities in genetically
244 based 'constants' such as body size and biological sex with significant and
245 systematic impact on the outcome. Therefore boxing fights between unequal parties
246 and mixed races among elite sprinters are considered unfair.⁴

247
248 Philosophers concerned with potential moral qualities in sport support the fair
249 opportunity principle for several reasons. One common justification is the Kantian
250 one. Fair opportunity builds on the idea of persons as to be treated as ends and
251 never as means only. Competition is considered an advanced form of cooperation in
252 which individuals and teams do their utmost to out-perform each other while at the
253 same time treating each other with mutual respect and as equals (Loland, 2002). In
254 neo-Aristotelian terms, the fair opportunity principle is linked to the development of
255 moral character or virtue (Morgan, 2006; McNamee, 2010). Training to realize one's
256 talent takes will power, dedication, and hard work. Competing well takes courage,
257 concentration, the ability of doing one's best and never giving in, and honesty and
258 dignity both in victory and defeat. These human qualities are seen to have meaning
259 over and above the sport setting. Philosophers define them as moral virtues. Murray
260 (2007) sums up by referring to the normative ideal of sport as 'the virtuous
261 development of natural talent towards human excellence'.

⁴ There is of course much room for improvement of fair opportunities in sport. In some sports, there is a need for more classification, other sports classify too much. For instance, basketball and volleyball in which body height is crucially important to succeed there seems to be a rationale for classification according to height. In other sports such as in rifle shooting or archery, biological sex seems to be irrelevant to performance and sex classification ought to be abandoned.

262

263 How much further can the fair opportunity principle take us in the discussion of anti-
264 doping?

265

266 **Anti-doping Revisited**

267

268 The fair opportunity principle and ideas of human excellence are normative premises
269 and thereby matters not primarily of empirical investigation but of reason and
270 argument. To check out their relevance they need to be applied and if necessary
271 adjusted in practical situations and in relation to basic, scientific facts. Such
272 reasoning is a key characteristic of practical ethics and can be performed in various
273 ways. Based on Rawls' theory of justification by a 'reflective equilibrium' our aim is to
274 search for positions towards anti-doping in which basic normative premises and
275 scientifically informed and considered judgments in practical situations are mutually
276 supportive and cohere.⁵

277

278 Let us start with a thought experiment. Let us assume that doping has not been a
279 contributor to the general improvement of athletic performance in recent history.
280 Then three major areas, technology, biomechanics, and training sciences, can be
281 identified as contributing to improved performance. In most sports, technology
282 (including use of novel materials) is controlled by tight regulations and
283 standardization through the federations. Although at times there are intense
284 discussions of technological innovation and fairness, equality of opportunity is
285 secured in general. Biomechanics has helped to improve performance by providing a
286 better understanding of how human movement techniques can be optimized to
287 achieve better results. Advances in biomechanics and movement techniques do not
288 result in improvement without trial and error-processes and the efforts of athletes and
289 coaches themselves. As long as new techniques do not give rise to health hazards,
290 they do not lead to ethical inquiry. With regard to anti-doping, it is thus improvement
291 by training that requires our scrutiny.

292

293 Training sciences include both social sciences such as psychology and pedagogy
294 and natural sciences such as physiology, biochemistry and molecular biology. The

⁵ For an explanation of the idea of 'reflective equilibrium' in ethics, see Rawls 1971: 19-22, 48-53.

295 substances and methods discussed in doping issues are primarily of a bio-medical
296 kind. In a comparison with training therefore biology will be the main perspective.

297

298 In training, appropriate modulations of the internal working of an athlete's body
299 (physiology) are responsible for a desired gain in athletic ability. The same holds true
300 for performance gains obtained by using doping agents. Let us look first at the
301 biological basis of training induced improvements in human exercise capacity. In
302 exercise training most if not all tissues of the body are subjected to stress. For
303 muscle tissue this may be an extraordinary high load (mechanical stress) to which
304 the fibers of the trained muscles are subjected. On the cellular level this mechanical
305 stress is transmitted via a mechanical link (integrins) from the outside of the muscle
306 cell (i.e. the connective tissue attached to the tendons) to the inside of the muscle
307 cell. In the inside of the muscle cell the transmitted mechanical stress is setting off a
308 number of biochemical reactions (signaling cascades) that end up regulating in a
309 complex manner the rate at which genetic information is transcribed and/or translated
310 into functional proteins (Hoppeler et al., 2007). This is done in an attempt to repair
311 eventual damage that occurred during exercise (compensation) but also in order to
312 better prepare the cell for a similar stress in the future (super compensation).

313

314 In a similar way exercise training related disturbances of metabolism, of hormonal
315 status and of neuronal activation all set off independent but massively interlinked
316 signaling cascades not only in muscle cells but in essentially all organs. These
317 mechanisms serve the goal to compensate for exercise related stress and damage
318 and to make organs performing better in future use. Biologically speaking, exercise
319 training consists in using repeated stress situations of the organism in order to
320 improve its performance under the specific stress conditions. On the molecular level
321 this means using signaling cascades to modify the transcription and translation of
322 specific genetic information useful under particular stress conditions (Coffey &
323 Hawley, 2007). Training can thus be seen as a multi-organ and multi-gene response
324 of our organism to a specific stress. The capacity to adapt to training appears as a
325 consequence of evolutionary selection of organisms with a "built in" capacity to adapt
326 to external stress by modifying (in the case of interest, performance related) aspects
327 of the phenotype (Nussey et al., 2007; Wittkopp, 2007; Callahan et al., 2008).

328

329 Let us now look at what happens inside the body when we take a performance-
330 enhancing substance as those listed on WADA's doping list. Doping agents are
331 intermediates, end products, or modulators of biological processes in our body that
332 have a desired ergogenic (performance enhancing) effect. They can be identical to
333 the body's own products (EPO, testosterone, red blood cells) or they can be
334 chemically constructed to act in a desired way (anabolic steroids, beta blockers). In
335 essence, they produce a beneficial physiological effect in an athlete without invoking
336 the complex organismal reaction described for the training stress response. Doping
337 agents are thus specifically targeted to improve body functions (i.e. muscle strength
338 or aerobic capacity) of relevance to performance with minimal disturbance of cellular
339 and organismal homeostasis.

340

341 The particular case of EPO can serve as an example. If we inject the body with EPO,
342 the main response is that the number of red cells produced in our bone marrow is
343 increased (as EPO stimulates red cell precursor cells to replicate more rapidly). An
344 increase in red blood cells in the periphery helps in transporting oxygen from the
345 lungs to the muscles, increasing aerobic performance capacity relevant for all
346 endurance type sports. In experimental situations performance gains of up to 7 %
347 have been realized with small increases in red cell blood mass, such as those easily
348 realized with EPO applications or blood transfusions (Ferretti et al., 1992; Ekblom,
349 2000).

350

351 Now, let us look at a situation in which EPO is increased as a consequence of
352 exposing the organism to hypoxia (lack of oxygen), a particular condition found at
353 altitude and simulated in oxygen deprived environments (hypoxic tents etc.). Under
354 these conditions most cells of the body respond to the decreased levels of oxygen by
355 intracellular signaling leading to the production of HIF-1 (hypoxia inducible factor 1).
356 HIF-1 is a transcription factor which is capable of turning on the EPO gene which
357 then in turn produces the EPO hormone responsible for increasing red blood cell
358 mass with all associated effects described above (Stray-Gundersen & Levine, 2008).
359 This response can be seen as a reasonable body reaction to being at altitude.
360 However, HIF-1 is a master gene and has many more actions than just increasing
361 EPO levels in the circulating blood (Maxwell, 2005). HIF-1 has been shown to be a
362 key regulator of a hypoxia response in most organs of the body comprising a switch

363 of the body metabolism towards using carbohydrates as a substrate, to increase
364 substances that influence growth of blood vessels and dozens of other organismal
365 reactions. Some of these reactions may be beneficial; some may be detrimental to
366 performance. The outcome of exposing athletes' bodies to hypoxia is both wanted
367 and unwanted reactions in regards to enhancing performance. By injecting EPO you
368 essentially only get the increase in red cell mass that is favorable to endurance
369 performance.

370

371 Similar cases could be made for other substances that are used as doping agents as
372 they are biochemical agents that are intended to have performance enhancing
373 effects such as EPO. Other substances exert anabolic effects such as steroids that
374 stimulate muscle growth. Some substances are agonists. They mimic the action of
375 substances that occur naturally in the body (steroids). Others have antagonistic
376 effects. They are not produced by the body and prevent biochemical agents
377 produced in the body to interact with their receptors (beta-blockers). In general, it can
378 be said that doping substances and methods interact with biological targets and have
379 desirable performance enhancing characteristics in addition to the training activities
380 of an athlete.

381

382 We turn now to the normative premises and our reinterpretation of 'the spirit of sport'
383 in terms of the fair opportunity principle and ideals of human excellence. To a certain
384 extent it makes sense to say that substances and methods on WADA's prohibited list
385 enhance performance independent of talent. Training on the other hand invokes the
386 phenotypic plasticity of the human organism, a consequence of the specifics of the
387 evolution of the human species. Accepting bodily reaction patterns and using the
388 innate adaptability of humans to physical challenges cohere with the idea of
389 developing natural talent. Most substances and methods on the doping list are
390 qualitatively different because they bypass the body's natural and evolutionary based
391 complex stress and compensation reactions. The use of prohibited substances and
392 methods overruns natural talent, reduces athlete's possibilities of developing sporting
393 excellence as human excellence in virtuous ways, and contradicts the spirit of sport
394 as interpreted here. Based on these premises, the position of anti-doping can be
395 justified.

396

397 On this basis the traditional arguments on health and fairness can be revitalized as
398 well. The health risks involved in the use of substances and methods on the banned
399 list do not seem to add value to the practice of sport. Such use does not cultivate
400 athlete abilities and skills but tends to transfer responsibility for performance towards
401 bio-chemical and medical expertise. From the fair opportunity perspective, this
402 implies unnecessary and non-relevant health risks that should be avoided. Moreover
403 when a ban on doping is justified without references to the wrongness of breaking it,
404 anti-doping has a solid fundament and the fairness argument becomes valid as well.

405

406 **Concluding Comments**

407 Questions of the justification of anti-doping cannot be separated from questions of
408 the value and meaning of sport. Anti-doping cannot be based on fairness and health
409 arguments alone but rests ultimately on a normative view of sport and more
410 specifically of athletic performance. We have argued that WADA's rather vague
411 references to 'the spirit of sport' need to be and indeed can be operationalized.

412

413 We have combined a close understanding of fair opportunity with a biologically based
414 understanding of training. The latter is seen as the systematic utilization of the
415 phenotypic plasticity of the human organism that on a more general level is a
416 consequence of the specifics of the evolution of the human species. The use of most
417 substances and methods on the banned list is akin to 'short cuts' in performance
418 development as it trespasses, often in harmful ways, human phenotypic plasticity.
419 This seems to move the responsibility of performance from the athlete towards
420 external expert systems, and it goes against the fair opportunity principle and the
421 idea of the virtuous development of talent towards human excellence.

422

423 Our argument warrants at least two immediate comments. Firstly, we do not claim
424 that our approach will solve all line-drawing problems between acceptable and non-
425 acceptable means and methods. Neither is this surprising. Line drawing when it
426 comes to the use of performance-enhancing substances and methods is a complex
427 ethical and scientific field that requires continuous critical scrutiny. Our argument is
428 simply that our interpretation of 'the spirit of sport' provides a more precise and better
429 justified guideline for line drawing than what is currently the case.

430

431 Secondly, we acknowledge that there are alternative normative interpretations of
432 sport leading to other positions in the debate over anti-doping. For instance, as
433 argued by Savulescu *et al* (2004), a restrictive attitude towards performance-
434 enhancing substances in sport seems anachronistic and irrational. In competition, fair
435 opportunity is crucial. Athletes outside of competitive settings ought to follow the laws
436 and regulations of their societies and be able to choose whatever performance-
437 enhancing strategy they prefer. From this perspective, new bio-technology is
438 considered to have significant liberating and empowering potential and needs to be
439 met in liberal and non-prejudiced ways.

440

441 We welcome an open debate on the scientific and ethical aspects of anti-doping but
442 believe that in the current situation the liberal approach is sociologically naïve and
443 put athletes at the risk of exploitation. We have argued for a position towards anti-
444 doping based on the fair opportunity interpretation of ‘the spirit of sport’ combined
445 with an understanding of performance enhancement as the utilization of the
446 phenotypic plasticity of the human organism. In our view this provides a solid
447 underpinning for a position opposing doping practices, empowering athletes, and
448 advancing sport as a sphere of human excellence.

449

450

451 Acknowledgments: Thanks to two anonymous reviewers and Doug McLaughlin for
452 valuable comments on an earlier version of this manuscript. The clerical help of
453 Liliane Gfeller and Matthias Müller in preparing this manuscript is gratefully
454 acknowledged.

455

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