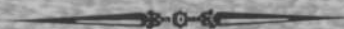
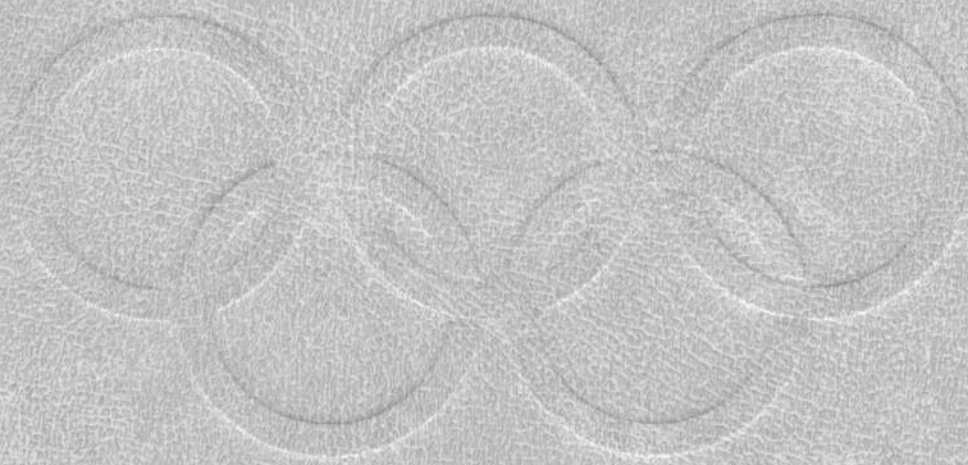


V. N. Platonov
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OLYMPIC SPORTS







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OLYMPIC SPORTS

Kiev
Olympic Literature

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**Foreword by the President
of the International Olympic Committee
Juan Antonio Samaranch
Marquis de Samaranch**

The International Olympic Committee (IOC) was founded in 1894 at the Sorbonne University in Paris, France, on the initiative of French educator Baron Pierre de Coubertin. The IOC's first concrete action was to revive the Olympic Games of Antiquity. Thus began its century-old tradition of combining sport with education and culture.

Athletes from thirteen countries took part in the first modern Olympic Games in 1896, while in 1996, the Olympic Movement will celebrate the Games of the XXVI Olympiad, the Centennial Games, in Atlanta, United States of America, with all 197 National Olympic Committees participating.

The modern Olympic Movement has endeavoured to raise the Olympic Games of Antiquity from a national tradition to a global phenomenon disseminating the universal values of solidarity and fair play. The role of sport in the twentieth century is therefore twofold, in keeping with the fundamental principles of the Olympic Charter which defines Olympism as a philosophy of life exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind.

I am therefore pleased, on behalf of the Olympic Movement, to introduce The Olympic Sports, a textbook for specialized institutions of physical education. I am certain that the entire Olympic Family joins me in saluting this endeavour to disseminate Olympic education at the highest academic level.

FOREWORD

The history of Olympic Games goes back to times immemorial, being born over 27 centuries ago in Ancient Greece. But modern Olympic Games have a much shorter history. Revitalized in a memorable event in summer 1894 in Paris through selfless, unwavering and continuous efforts of Pierre de Coubertin and his associates, the Olympic Games of Modern Age have recently celebrated the Centennial anniversary.

Restarting the Olympic tradition, Coubertin drew a lot on the organization and celebration traditions of the ancient Olympic Games. For them to better serve the needs of contemporary world, he turned the ancient tradition into a source of inspiration. Coubertin designed, down to almost minor details, the procedure to organize and celebrate the Olympic Games adding some new elements which he believed were needed to meet the hopes and requirements of present-day humankind. The new additions included internationalism, more events in the Olympic program, amateurs participating of their own free will, etc.

Pierre de Coubertin has foreseen many future problems on the path of the Olympic movement, but further development of the Olympic sport system took a somewhat different course from what he had anticipated. Many of his ideas have been brilliantly implemented, but in certain cases the development of Olympic sport circumvented the avenues prescribed by the founder of modern Olympic Games.

With all very significant alterations that have been introduced to Olympic sport and the Olympic movement over the previous one hundred years, the fundamental principles that had been the linchpin of Coubertin's efforts, remained intact. These were equal rights and equal opportunities, non-discrimination, democracy, justice, peace, honor for the winner and respect for the loser. The modern Olympic movement founded on the basic human principles and the Olympic Games reinstated by Coubertin, is a social phenomenon strong enough to have withstood political interference, wars, terrorism and boycotts. As emphasized by Juan Antonio Samaranch, the IOC

President, the contemporary world needs Olympism as a robust philosophy, the only possible foundation to create a life style governed by respect for human values that can be a useful education tool to combine sport, culture and art.

It is not only triumphs that the newly born Olympic movement has gone through. Over the century of its existence, it had also difficult and even tragic times, two world wars, then a cold war between the two opposite social systems, a conflict that resulted in attempts to break up the Olympic family, the Olympic Games boycotts, etc. But the end result of all of these shocks, as we remember, has been an even stronger, united and stable Olympic movement which managed a speedy recovery in the wake of military, social, and other upheavals. The reason of this unique steadfastness is the power and attraction of the great Olympic ideals, both those that we inherited from the Olympic Games of Ancient Greeks and the contemporary Olympic values and principles.

Olympic sport had acquired immense popularity and respect all over the world and is currently a significant factor in the development of human society. Monolithic and massively stable, the Olympic movement today, on the eve of the 21st century, has secured the support of most of the world community, whatever the political, economic, demographic, ecological, or any other tensions. This was convincingly demonstrated by the 12th (Centennial) Olympic Congress held 29 August through 4 September 1994 in Paris, the hometown of Pierre de Coubertin, the founder of the modern Olympic movement, the city that hosted the Founding Olympic Congress (dubbed the 'Olympic Games Rebirth Congress') in summer of 1894.

Further progress of the Olympic movement, to a great extent, depends on the competence and qualification of sport specialists. They get education in special educational institutions in many countries, such as Universities, Academies, departments of physical and sport education. But their curricula, more often than not, do not offer a complete picture of the system of Olympic sport which is partially covered in teaching such subjects as



The IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch, the authors and participants of the presentation of Book One of the textbook "Olympic Sport" at the Centennial Olympic Congress (1994, Paris). Standing from left to right: President of the NOC of Ukraine Valery Borzov, Professor Vladimir Platonov, Professor Sergey Guskov, the IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch, the IOC Vice President Dr. Un Yong Kim, member of the IOC Moris Gerzog, General Secretary of the NOC of Ukraine Boris Bashenko, Director of the IOC Olympic Research Department Karel Wendle

"History of physical culture", "Sport theory", "Theory of physical culture", "The organization and management of the physical culture movement", etc. However, the role of Olympic sport in society today, the significant complexity of its structure, the growing scope of its functions, the immense array of empirical data accumulated, and numerous contradictions brought about by analyses of Olympic sport components without attempts to integration, created realistic conditions for require a prompt development of an integrated system of information about Olympic sport, its theory, methodology and practice.

It is for this reason that a department of Olympic sport was set up in 1992 at the Ukrainian State University of Physical Education and Sport, and its curriculum was amended to include 110 hours of the new subject "Olympic sport".

The first academic year of teaching this new subject proved an impressive advantage of a single discipline which combines in a balanced way all the available information about Olympic sport. So today, more than ever before, we are convinced that the inclusion of assorted and separated data on Olympic sport in history, sociology, pedagogy, management and economics courses affects adversely the quality of Olympic education and hampers research in the area of Olympic sport and in the organization of international cooperation.

The idea of introducing a separate subject "Olympic sport" into curricula of special higher education institutions was supported by the International Olympic Committee. At the XIIIth Olympic Congress of Congress, Mr. Juan Antonio Samaranch, the IOC President, organized presentation of the "Olympic sport" textbook published by "Olympic literature" publishing house (Uk-

raine). The IOC President said the textbook should be translated and published in English as an important factor in the development of the Olympic education system.

This textbook has been written pursuant to the program of the "Olympic sport" subject for students of Universities and Institutes of Physical Education and Sport and is the first-ever official textbook in the world to attempt a systemic description of such a complex phenomenon as Olympic sport. The authors tried to avoid as much as possible a one-sided presentation of the development of Olympic sport, which has often been the case with many works published earlier, particularly as regards historic, social, political, legal, and logistic problems of Olympic sport.

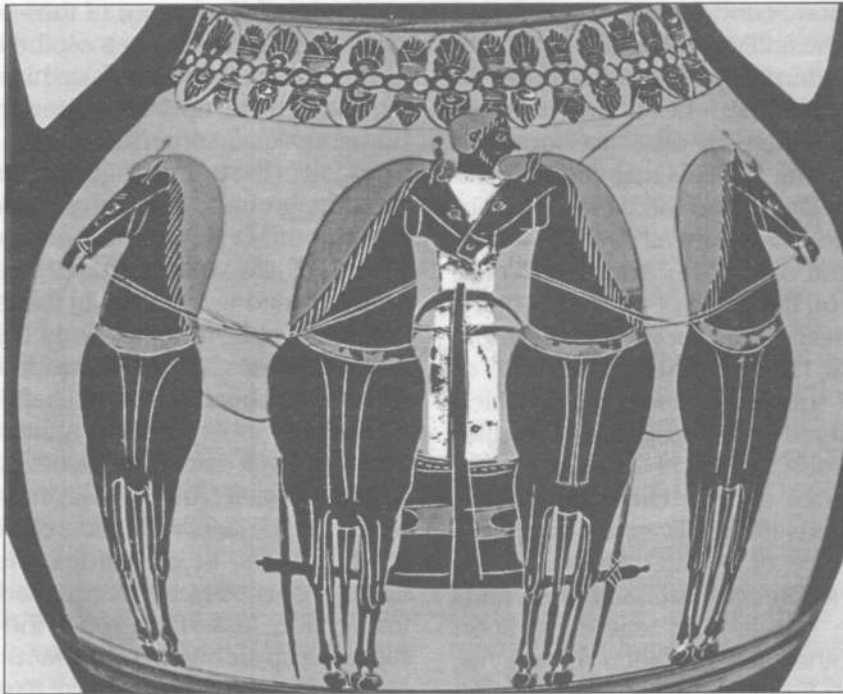
The authors were after a systemic presentation of information to ensure an organic interrelation of the content of different parts of the new academic subject and a unity of the facts, theory and methodology.

We believe it is extremely important for lecturers not only to present the well established information, but also to put forth such material as reveals discrepancies and contradictions among specialists from different countries, trends and schools. The authors hope that the hypotheses, ideas, and differing conclusions presented in the textbook should help student to develop the ability of a critical analysis, the cause-and-effect mode of thinking, and to instill creativity in their practical work.

The authors extend profound gratitude to the IOC President, Mr. Samaranch, for the support given to this work, and appreciate the assistance of the IOC and the Olympic Museum employees in providing us with archive materials.

Section One

The Olympic Games of Ancient Greece and Rebirth of the Olympic Movement



SPORTS AND OLYMPIC GAMES OF ANCIENT GREECE

Olympic history goes back to Greece in the eighth century BC, where Olympic Games had been a regular occurrence for over a thousand years as an important part of Hellenic civilization. The Ancient Greece cycle of the Olympic Games was terminated in the 4th century AD, and they were started anew late in the 19th century, under absolutely new historic conditions.

As is shown by the analysis of the one-hundred-year history of Modern Olympics, the ideals of Olympic sport, which had been practiced in Ancient Greece, are eternally attractive for mankind. It is striving for these ideals that underlay the revival of Olympic Games and the extreme popularity of the Olympic movement all over the world, which is now a kind of social phenomena in the world community on the verge of the 21st century.

This chapter deals with sports and Olympic Games of Ancient Greece. There is a host of records and other sources of information, which allows now to recreate the atmosphere of competition in ancient times, to describe the system of physical education of ancient Greeks, to determine the role of sports in their lives, and to understand the significance of Olympic Games in the culture of Ancient Greece. Archeological finds (metal and stone statues and statuettes, sport instruments and other artifacts, such as weights, dumb-bells, vessels for oil, etc.) and numerous literary works provided enough material to know in many details how ancient Greeks used to go in for sports and how they had staged their Olympic Games, a breath-taking chapter in the history of this ancient culture.

The Beginnings of Sport in Ancient Greece

Historical roots of Olympic sport go back to deep antiquity, when what later became known as Hellenic tribes began to settle down in Balkan peninsula and the neighboring island in the late 3rd-early 2nd centuries BC. During the first half of

the 2nd century BC, Crete developed physical culture similar to that which had originated in Eastern countries and in Egypt. Gymnastic and acrobatic exercises, wrestling, fisticuffs, and bull games had been the highlights of sport entertainment programs for spectators at festivals and fairs.

Ancient illustrations of acrobatic bull games give a detailed account of those dangerous exercises. At first, an athlete took the bull firmly by the horns. The bull would jerk up his head, as if throwing the athlete upward, who would release the horns, make a somersault in the air, descend on the back of the bull and, finally, jump off the animal onto the ground. The exercises required physical fitness, perfect skills, agility and a command of the nature of the animal. A few persons including women used to stand by in these games, helping the main performer to avoid injuries. Male and female athletes had the same kind of clothing: high footwear, ribbons on the forehead, necklaces, special gloves, ribbons around ankles, various decorations. The bull exercises are believed to have been held on special grounds, with enough space for the performance and with securely fenced off stands for spectators. In later times, the bull games on Crete and, mostly, in Greece, had been simplified and made less dangerous: the athletes would rather jump sideways over the running bull.

The shards of bas-reliefs of a palace in the town of Knossos, a center of the Aegean culture in the north of Crete, which illustrate fisticuffs and wrestling scenes, prove the strenuous character of contests, perfect musculature of athletes as well as the fact that there had been certain rules and special clothes for the contestants. Wrestlers would put on helmets of the type used in battles, and boxers had gloves.

The Greek nation had been gradually formed following the merger of Ahean and Aegean tribes in the middle of the 2nd century BC. Balkan Peninsula to the north of Crete saw the beginning of the Mycenaean period of Greek history, noted by high achievements in Greek architecture, art and physical education.

The 16th — 14th century BC ceramics and tombstones bear evidence of an intensive development of sports there, with new sports emerging, like running and chariot races, to complement those formerly practiced in Crete.

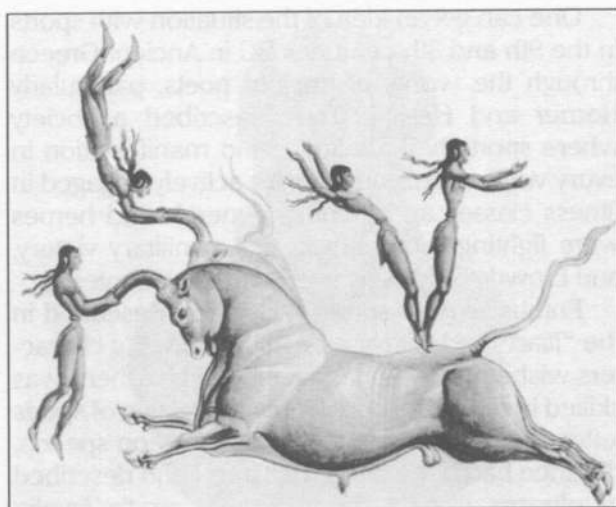
It is this period that is accompanied by many hypotheses about competitiveness of ancient Greeks which had been passed on to the ancient athletic exercises and to the new sports, which took root in the Mycenaean epoch (running and chariot racing). This period is known as the time of an interface between sports and sun worship, religious and funeral rites, when there emerged a unique spiritual world of Ancient Greece, quite different from that of the Eastern nations. It was the world of daring innovations, independence and freedom, the world of aspirations for achievements in different spheres of life, including physical and spiritual perfection of man.

In the 13th century BC the rich Mycenaean culture was destroyed by hordes of wild tribes from Northern Europe. Settlements were plundered and burnt down, the indigenous population was almost completely annihilated.

In the 12th — 11th centuries BC the Dorics, one of the most numerous of the Ancient Greek tribes, moved gradually from Northern and Central Greece to the South - West regions of Greece, and then to Crete and other surrounding islands. By the late 10th century BC the territories, which had been devastated in the 13th century BC, had been populated again. At that time, a new political structure called the "city-state" (or "*polis*", i.e., the city and the territory surrounding it) started to be established in Ancient Greece instead of the former tribal system. The *polis*-structured state worked through participation of its citizens in public meetings, courts of law, and the decision making process in the most important matters. The capital of the state was its major city. *Polises* could vary in scope and size, from very large (like Sparta, with the territory of over 8,000 sq. km) down to small ones (like Corinth or Samos, whose territories were 880 sq. km and 470 sq. km, respectively). Some state unions included several *polises*, sometimes as many as 10 — 22, like Boeotia or Phokida, for example.

The establishment and subsequent growth of city-states was due to colonization induced by a redundant sprawling of cities and their population striving for better conditions of their businesses. Ultimately, the *polis* became the center of economic, political and cultural life of Ancient Greece.

As a result of colonization, the city-state had different categories of population: free citizens, semi-free citizens and slaves. In Athens, for instance, the number of the population varied from 120 —



Acrobatic exercises on a bull

150,000 to 250 — 320,000 in the 5th and 4th centuries BC. Free citizens and their families, about half the number of the population, had always exceeded the number of slaves. In Boeotia, for example, there were even a bigger proportion of free citizens, 85 — 124,000 in a total population of 110 — 165,000, the rest being slaves (20,000 — 30,000) and semi-free citizens (5,000 — 10,000). The situation was quite different in Sparta, where free Spartan households amounted to from just 6 — 8,000 to 12 — 15 thousand out of the total population of 190 — 270,000, slaves constituting a clear majority (L. Winniczuk, 1983).

Each of the city-states had its own political system, economic structure, and education system. For instance, Sparta was a military state with a militaristic policy, whereas the political and economic life of Athens was based on democratic principles, which underlay political, economic and social practices of Athenians, as well as their relations with the outside world.

In the Homeric times there was no strict division of labor between various sections of society, the masters toiling side by side with their slaves. Later on, though, free citizens of the *polis* were precluded from physical labor. They were obliged to devote themselves to perfecting the development of body and spirit, and to engage in public affairs. It was these citizens that had as their day-to-day pastime all-round physical training, sports activities and competing in various sporting events. The system of self-defense of the city-states and keeping control of their slaves made it imperative for *polis* free citizens to start fitness training in specialized institutions. Tribal forms of non-systematic military exercises were superseded by a system of physical training to take into account peculiarities of specific cities, their location and local arms and religious traditions.

One can get an idea of the situation with sports in the 9th and 8th centuries BC in Ancient Greece through the works of ancient poets, particularly Homer and Hesiod. They described a society where sports had already found manifestation in every walk of life: youths were actively engaged in fitness classes and training, generals and heroes were fighting it out striving for a military victory, and crowds of citizens were watching contests.

Enthusiasm for sports was vividly described in the "Iliad" and "Odyssey". All of Homer's characters wished to be winners, and each of them was skilled in different sport events. Popularity of sports left its trace in the language: in common speech, distance had been often measured and described in phrases like "a discus throw" or "a javelin throw".

On the basis of the available literary monuments, it is extremely difficult to arrange chronologically the order of appearance of various sports, i.e., to say which of them were related to the Mycenaean epoch and the earlier times, and which emerged during the Homeric epoch (12th — 8th centuries BC). What is in fact known is that wrestling and fisticuffs, chariot races and running were widely practiced in the Mycenaean epoch. Fencing in heavy armor also seems to take root in those times. Other competitive events, such as jumping, javelin throwing and archery, which had been mentioned by Homer, appeared probably after the collapse of Mycenaean culture. Jumping contests must have emerged later than the other events, since they are mentioned in the "Iliad" but no mention of them can be found in the "Odyssey".

Competitiveness of Ancient Greeks

Intensive development of competitive sport in Ancient Greece was greatly influenced by agonistics, the most important element of life and culture of ancient Greeks, which can be described as a principle of competition as seen in various spheres of life (work, arts, sports) aimed at achieving the best result, recognition, glorification of certain activities, and getting a wider renown and more fame for their city-states. Agons, that is, various competitions as a form of god worship, used to attract great numbers of participants seeking to get a distinction in various areas of life. The atmosphere of intense rivalry and competition, which had been an inalienable and intrinsic component of life and culture in Ancient Greece, evolved naturally from local myths. It is an established fact that the Olympic Gods were fraught with rivalry and

competition. Indeed, what else, if not a beauty contest, was a famous court of Paris deciding which of the three great goddesses was the prettiest and, hence, deserved the apple as a prize? Many times mortal women had challenged goddesses daring to rival them in beauty or needlework, as was the case with the audacious Arachne, who wished to surpass Goddess Athena in spinning and weaving.

Deeply rooted competitiveness of the Greeks often found its expression in the form of various contests. Such contests were an effective factor in the progress of Ancient Greece, which often resulted in truly unique works of art. Musicians and poets, artists and sculptors, philosophers and orators used to compete for the top place, which was the best prize to give them distinction and the joy of victory.

Competitions included even a contest of babies. Every year, mothers brought their babies, born that year, to a special board of jurors on the Tesmophoria Feast, devoted to Demeter, the Mother of beautiful babies. The jury awarded a prize to the woman whose baby was recognized as the most beautiful.

This way, an atmosphere of justice was established, where everyone could demonstrate his skills, merits and contest superiority. Henceforth, body and soul were superior to origin and wealth. Many poets, artists, philosophers, sculptors and orators gained wide recognition and achieved prominence in society irrespective of what social layer they had come from.

A well-known story describes rivalry of local painters who wanted to prove that their works were best. Thus, Parase, a 5th-century BC artist, competed with Zethus, who had painted grapes so true to life that birds were pecking his painting. Parase's move was a picture of a thin flaxen fabric. Upon the request of Zethus to remove the curtain so that he could take a look at the painting, Parase replied that the curtain was the picture itself.

Also is known an inscription on a painted vessel by a famous master Eftemidis in 6th century BC, which read "Efronis could never have painted it this way". Efronis was another great master, an Eftemidis contemporary. That tense rivalry was commonplace of poets and masters of fine art is proved by utterance of Pindar: "Time is unable to destroy my poetic works the way it does sculptures".

It is only natural that in an atmosphere permeated with the ideals of competitiveness, superiority, striving for physical and spiritual perfection, there should have emerged major sports competitions, which were extremely popular in Ancient Greece.

Upbringing of the new generation in the spirit of sportsmanship had the same ideals underlying it as all other cultural values of Hellenic civilization, the most important among them liberation of an individual from all kinds of despotism. Man was taught to believe in himself, to trust his powers and abilities, to believe in the loftiest values of human life. Man was thought to be an image of deity, because for Hellenes gods possessed human features. A perfect body, physical and spiritual might, which manifested themselves and were put to use, as a rule, on sports arenas, were of paramount importance to ancient Greeks.

Myths and Legends of Sports in Ancient Greece

There are different theories as to the origin of sport. One of them, for a long time a leading domestic theory of history of physical culture and sports, treated sports as appearing through day-to-day practices as preparation for labor and military activities. Indeed, hunters and warriors were to run quickly, to throw the javelin, to jump, etc. When these skills were no longer vitally important, they continued as entertainment and a means of contest. Another theory considers athletics as a biological necessity and a channel, according to Plato and Fylostrat, to implement an intrinsic human motor impulse. Of equal significance in this theory is its angle on sports as a means to give vent to men's aggressiveness and to alleviate human anxieties. Both of these theories have sufficient foundations and historic proofs. However, treating of sports in Ancient Greece and of the origins of Olympism, we are to address a third theory of the origin and development of sports, the cult theory.

One can hardly expect realistically to find in the annals of history the objectives and dates of first competitions in running, wrestling, discus or javelin throwing, chariot racing; neither can we learn the names of those who had been first to feel the emotions of winners and losers in such contests. The beginnings of these and other activities in the lives of ancient nations are shrouded in the thick fog of myths and legends, so that it is impossible now to tell figments of imagination from historic facts.

Ancient Greek mythology had gone a long way of development. Its blossom dates back to the second millennium BC, when the complete pantheon was formed of Olympic gods residing on top of the Olympia mountain under Zeus, the most powerful and wise of them all. Each Olympic deity had a strictly determined function: Athena, the beloved daughter of Zeus, was Goddess of wisdom and a



Bust of Homer

brave warrior, a defender of cities and the state, and a patron of fine art and handicrafts; Hermes, God of commerce and trade, who patronized the young and athletes; Artemis, Goddess of hunting and hunters; Aphrodite, Goddess of love and beauty, etc.

Competitive spirit, superhuman efforts needed to achieve a certain goal or to accomplish a feat, which demanded a complete physical and mental abandon, are the centerpiece of Greek mythology. The myth-creating thought of ancient Greeks uplifts contests to the level of a deity and therefore gives a dimension of the ideal.

Olympic mythology is characterized by a marked anthropomorphism, the gods being described as having physical bodies and possessing common human features. Instead of the old-time legends of monsters, there come myths of heroes (such as Heracles or Theseus), who fight those monsters and defeat them. Later on Pindar and Hesiod, ancient Greek poets, had transformed Zeus to personify the principle of universal justice.

Greek religion, with its system of cults and rites, took root and was being formed along with the development of Greek mythology, contests having being part of Greek cult from times immemorial. As legends had it, all major Greek competitions had been held in commemoration of a fallen hero or a certain god. There had been a connection of sporting contests, funeral rites and religious celebrations, such as the Earth Abundance feast or funeral cults.

For instance, at the time of peasant feasts, running contests had been held between youths carrying grapes, branches of grapes or laurel. Wreaths of wild olive or celery, which would ultimately be

used to crown winners of various games, can also be traced to village celebrations.

Mention can be found in ancient Greek myths of athletic competitions. Apollo, for example, was famed as a discus thrower, and one of his throws resulted in a tragedy. Young Hyakynthos, the God's favorite, was running to where the discus was falling, when it struck him on the head and killed the youth. A similar misfortune befell hero Perseus: he also threw a bronze discus and accidentally killed his grandfather Akphisiy. The first mention of slyness and fraud in sports contests can be found in the ancient myths, too. Here is a story about Atlanta from Boeotia, a girl of astonishing physical abilities, who had no equals in running. She declared that her would be husband could be only that man, who would win a running contest with her. Only hero Milanios managed to do so, who took advice from goddess of love Aphrodite and threw golden apples in front of the girl during the run. Atlanta could not stand the temptation, started to pick up the apples on the run, and finally dropped behind.

Detailed information on athletic contests in Ancient Greece can be found in the works of Homer, written long before the advent of ancient Olympic Games. But the program of the competitions, as described by Homer, are very much like those employed much later in the Olympic Games and other major Pan-Hellenic or regional competitions.

In the "Iliad", for example, Homer describes funeral games staged by Achilles in memory of the fallen Patroclus. The program included chariot races, fisticuffs, wrestling, running, discus throwing, and fencing in heavy armor.

Each of the sports events is described in every detail, as well as the progress of the contests and the reaction of spectators. Awards were given by Achilles himself: these were beautiful female slaves, horses, bulls, mules, big cooking pots, bowls, gold and iron bars.

The custom of commemorating the dead heroes by staging sports contests had been known all through antiquity. In 490 BC Athenians fought for their freedom at Marathon plain against Persians, who outnumbered them. But the Greeks defeated the enemy, and the news of the victory was brought to Athens by Phillipiadados, the best runner of the winning Greek troops. On reaching the city square after a 40-kilometer run, he exclaimed "Rejoice, Athenians, we have won", and dropped dead. Greeks celebrated this victory by holding numerous ritual contests. Likewise was later celebrated the victory in the battle near the city of Platen in Boeotia in 479 BC.

Following this custom, Alexander the Great

honored the memory of fallen heroes with competitions after each great victory. After the example of Achilles, who had organized major competitions in memory of his friend Patroclus, Alexander the Great staged magnificent competitions in Babylon in honor of his friend Iphestion, with over 3,000 athletes participating in the event. The association of athletic contests with rituals was accounted for by dialectal relations between life and death: competing in honor of dead heroes, young athletes drew on their fame, courage and fortitude.

The games described by Homer in "The Iliad" were ritualistic in character, whereas those of the "Odyssey" were a matter of prestige and entertainment.

According to Homer, all those ancient competitions had the nature of a ritual or were part of festivals. They were held irregularly on the initiative or a whim of one person (in the above examples, Achilles and Alkinoos themselves chose sport events, invited participants and awarded prizes).

The competitions in the works of Homer gave a chance to hero-athletes to show their individuality, high moral and fighting potential, to demonstrate skills and to prove that they are better than their adversaries. When the going got too dangerous in fencing, spectators would stop the bout for fear of a tragedy. Epios, a boxing champion, after felling his opponent with a fierce punch, immediately helped him back onto his feet and tried to render first aid. Beating Menelaos in horse racing through too dangerous maneuvers, Antilochoos recognized his fault and refused to accept the winner's prize. Menelaos, however, acknowledged his young opponent's honesty and courage and also refused the prize. Therefore, the contents of Homer's works prove that courage and valor, physical strength and bravery, as well as a thirst for victory, went hand in hand with honesty, respect and dignity.

Hesiod in the 9th century BC emphasized the interrelation of sports and events of everyday life when he described a peaceful city as containing both the scenes of labor (harvesting, grapes collecting, etc.) and episodes of fisticuffs, wrestling competitions and of chariot races.

Greek mythology proves that competitive spirit, demonstrated by ancient Greeks in sports, had very deep roots. The people of that epoch had fighting spirit in their hearts and minds, and this can be seen in the lives of gods and heroes. An uncompromising struggle of gods against giants became an attractive symbol of battle for the Greeks, particularly when fighting barbarians (aliens).

In myths, gods fought each other for sovereignty over certain territories. The same is true of

mythological heroes with their thirst for struggle and victory. Heracles performed many feats, twelve of them noted in the annals of history. Theseus, a second national hero of Ancient Greece after Heracles, was immortalized for his killing of Minotaurus in the island of Crete.

Mythology presents numerous examples of competitiveness. For instance, Lithersis, the son of King Midas, used to propose to every traveller in his kingdom to take part in harvest competitions. Ikarios allowed his daughter Penelope to marry Odysseus only when the latter had a victory in running. Scythes, son of Heracles and Echidna, ascended the throne only after honoring his father's condition by defeating his two brothers in archery.

In those ancient times each sporting event was believed to have been founded by a god or a mythical hero, who must have brought it to mortal citizens. For example, Ias was considered to be the founder of pentathlon, and Apollo of boxing. This way, human competitions were elevated to the level of the divine, and an example was set of an ideal, which was worth the superhuman efforts to achieve competitors' aims. Thus, Greek mythology had formed competitive spirit which was later passed on to ancient Greek sports.

Modern sports terminology abounds in numerous terms of Greek origin, such as athlete, stadium, dumb-bells, discus, gymnastics, etc. Moreover, Greeks had never used the term "sport", borrowed from Old French "desport" connoting entertainment, and made use instead of the word "athletics".

Physical Training in the Education System of Ancient Greece

Great attention was paid to education and training in Ancient Greece. As early as the 5th century BC the Athenians were proud to know that there were no illiterates in the city. That period saw the emergence of collective forms of education when groups of children came to be formed under the guidance of tutors. Education was not mandatory by law, but parents felt obliged to take care of their children's education.

A synthesis of mental and physical perfection was the cornerstone of education system in Ancient Greece, with intellectual, musical and physical training as three major components of system. The end result of the system was to be equally developed body and spirit, which would help to achieve the harmony of beauty and kindness. Ancient Greek education reflected the civil and ethical values of antiquity, manifested in a harmoniously developed individual. The ancient

world owed this peak of pedagogical thought to Athenians, who strove for a complete and all-round realization of human potential.

The ancient system of Greek education reached its zenith in the 4th century BC due to the efforts of sophists, who were the first professional teachers. For high-quality education, boundless scope of knowledge, perfect eloquence and outstanding skills to base their opinions on solid argumentation, which were required to gain an upper hand in disputes, sophists studied literature and history in minute details, made research into mythology, and compiled descriptive lists of historical events. They knew well history of athletic competitions, the highlights of the Olympic Games and names of the winners. The best achievements of the Greek school of education were in rhetoric and philosophy, due to the famous school of rhetoric founded in 392 BC by Isoprat and Plato's Academy, which was opened in 397 BC.

Boys in Ancient Greece were to be taught by three tutors: a grammarian, a kifarist and a petroped. The first of them saw to reading, writing and arithmetic, later on taking children through major works of poets, writers (Homer and Aesop above all) and legislators. The kifarist taught them to play the kifara and lyre, and to sing. Under the guidance of the petroped, a gymnastics tutor, kids would do physical exercises, trained and competed in running, jumping, throwing and other events in the hope of a future success in major competitions.

The ancient system of gymnastics included three major components:

1) kids games (outdoor games, ball games, exercises with various objects, such as hoops, disci, javelins, etc.);

2) palestra¹, i.e. a system of physical exercises, borrowed from pentathlon (running, long jumps, javelin and discus throwing, wrestling) and supplemented with rowing, swimming, fisticuffs, archery, horse riding, running with arms, etc.;

3) orherstira, i.e. exercises, based on ball games, acrobatics, ritual, ceremonial and battle dancing.

Each of the components had its own purpose: games helped kids' physical training; palestra determined the basics of youth training; and orherstira supplemented palestra and was aimed at better agility and preparation of the students for training and competitions.

Physical education started in gymnasiums and palaestrae at the age of seven or eight. Kids played outdoor games, danced and ran to music, played

¹ The term originated from the ancient word designating a wrestling rink

ball games, jumped and did other exercises, complemented by pentathlon events. By the age of 15 physical education in gymnasiums went on along athletic lines. In addition to pentathlon, kids would wrestle, did fisticuffs and swimming. Kids from rich families stayed on in gymnasiums till the age of eighteen or twenty, improving their skills in various sports. In addition to sports, they underwent military training and were taught state administration, philosophy and oratory.

The significance of physical culture in Ancient Greece is seen in the fact that a person who could not write or swim was considered "a cripple in body and mind", and Socrates (469 — 399 BC) affirmed that "it would be a shame, because of one's own ignorance, to get old without any chance of seeing, by observing one's own body, what a human body can look like in the prime of one's age and beauty".

It should be emphasized that only free-born citizens of Ancient Greece were entitled to education. Slaves were prohibited from doing exercises to build up strength and endurance, training in palestrae and taking part in contests. They were banned from visiting gymnasiums even in city-states, where slaves generally enjoyed more or less comprehensive rights.

Education system of Athens was versatile, combining mental, spiritual and physical development of an individual, whereas in Sparta, another ancient Greek *polis*, education was of openly military nature, aimed at an upbringing of a disciplined, resolute, powerful and brave warrior with great stamina, capable of overcoming all hardships. This was the goal of physical, as well as intellectual and aesthetic education. In Sparta, for instance, intellectual training was limited to reading, writing and the general information on the history and traditions of their state. Major attention was paid to physical education and military training of remarkable purposefulness, with great hardships and ordeals to be surmounted by the younger generation, boys and girls alike.

This attitude to education was mainly accounted for by the structure of population in Sparta, completely different from that of Athens, where free-born citizens made up about half the population. In Sparta, however, it was slaves who constituted the majority of population. Therefore, control in such a state could be maintained only through a military regime.

Both in Sparta and in Athens systematic physical training started at the age of seven under special tutors, who, in Sparta, were necessarily to be from among free-born citizens. Even the youngest kids had tough games, with punches and fist fights encouraged by tutors.

At the age of 15, teenagers were to join groups of *eirines*, where training was also primarily military-orientated, with pentathlon, fisticuffs and wrestling as major component parts. Girls were trained together with boys, as they took over maintenance of order in the city when men were gone to war. Systematic physical and military training in Sparta was going on up to the age of 30, and free citizens were to keep fit even after that age. Physical education later grew less military due to the impact of various athletic contests, Olympic Games above all. Ancient training system started to include elements of aesthetics, expressiveness and efficiency of movements, since these ensured success in sports.

Education was equally one-sided in the eastern provinces of Ancient Greece, which were located on the largest islands in the Aegean Sea and on the coast of Asia Minor, with music and singing as major components. There is no evidence that gymnastics had any significant part in education there. In the island of Crete, however, citizens took care of an education system which could provide their kids with comprehensive intellectual and physical training, tied in organically with military training.

Greeks took great pains for their education system, including physical training, to be compatible with the peculiar social and political systems of their city-states. This was what Aristotle meant by saying, 'Be educated in cities'.

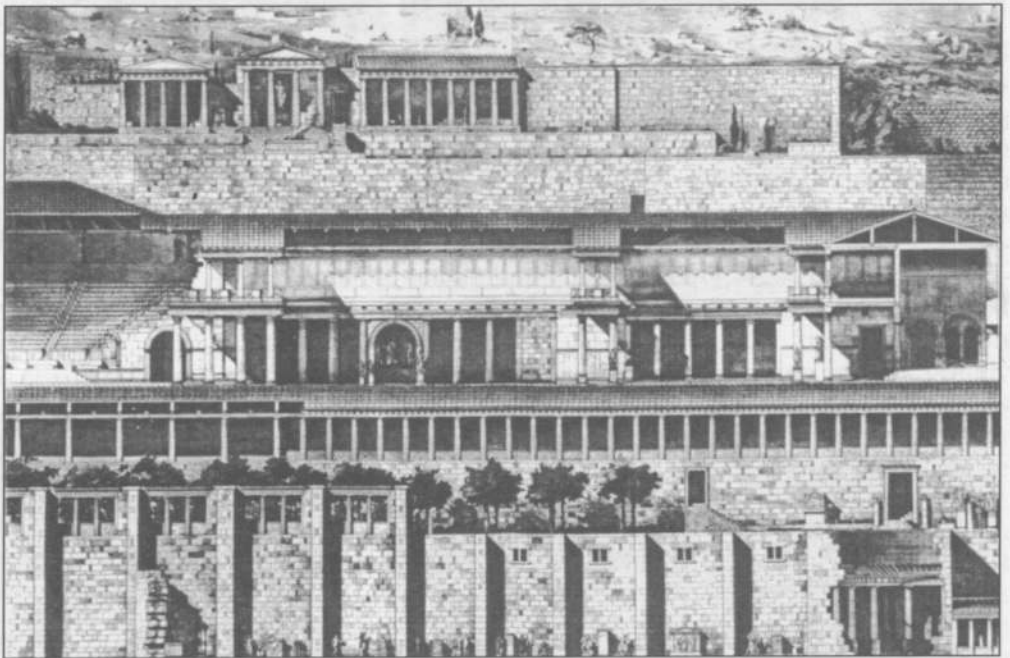
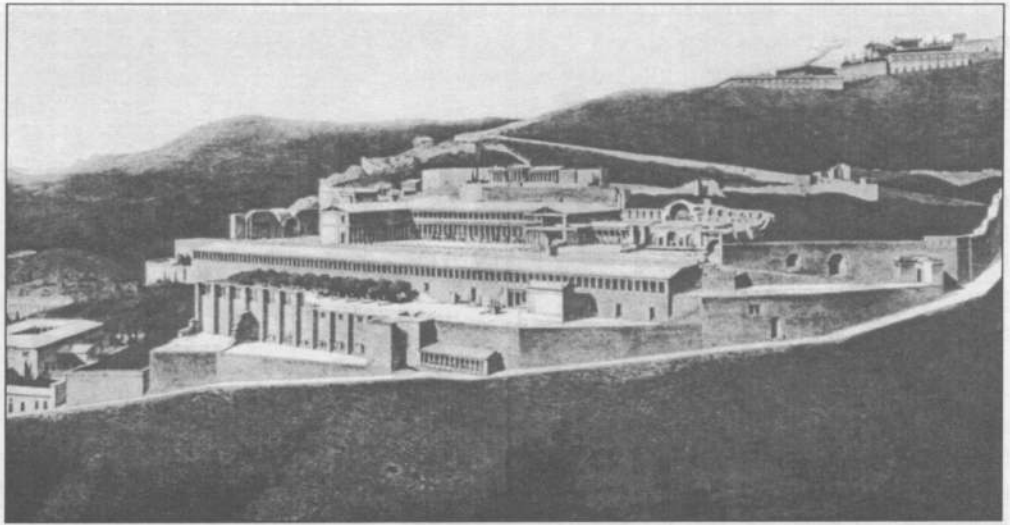
Sports Facilities in Ancient Greece

Various sports facilities used to be built in Ancient Greece, such as gymnasiums, palestrae, stadiums, hippodromes, etc.

The 7th — 6th centuries BC saw the emergence of a new tactics of warfare by phalanxes attacking in close formation, phalanxes normally consisting of eight rows of heavily armed warriors. Helmet, armor, shields, about 30 — 40 kilograms in weight, impeded easy movement, seeing and hearing. The compact formation of phalanxes was the key factor during battle, as any disorder could result in a defeat. Hence, the need for a special training for warriors to be able to quickly fall into rock-solid formations, and it had been at this point when warrior training gymnasiums first appeared (H. Mussche, 1992).

Gymnasiums and other sports facilities of those times must have been built of non-durable materials (probably clay or wood), so that our notion of the then stadiums, palestrae and gymnasiums are based on archeological and literary evidence of later periods, beginning the middle of the 4th century BC, when they started restoration and recon-

Gymnasium
in Pergamo
(H. Mussche, 1992)



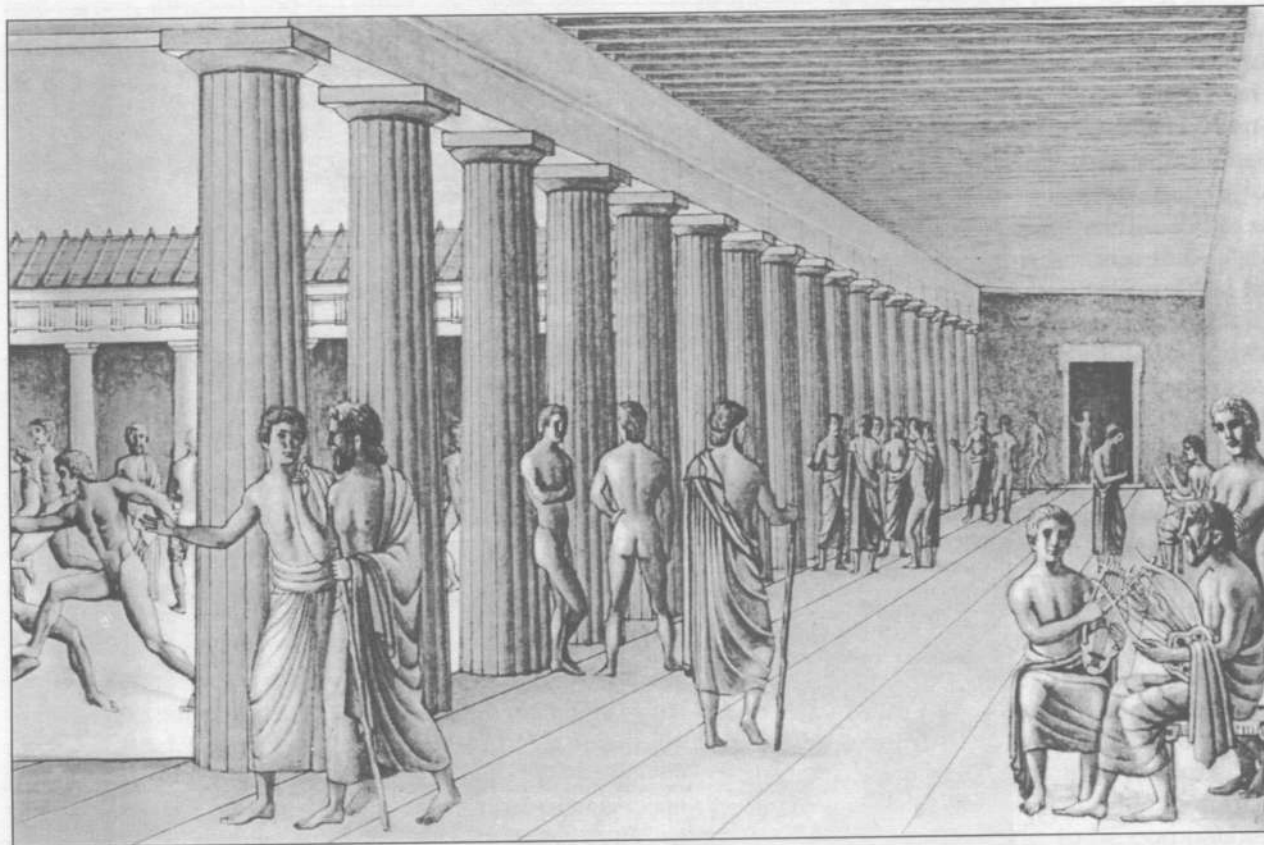
struction of already existing facilities and construction of new projects. Therefore, everything we know about stadiums in Athens, Delphi, Olympia, Messina and other cities, as well as palestrae and gymnasiums of Olympia, Delphi and Pergamum, pertains to the Greek and Roman Epochs, starting in the middle of the 4th century BC.

In the 4th century BC, battle strategy and tactics gradually changed. Armors and weapons were significantly lighter in weight, which allowed for more freedom of movement. Cavalry significance increased, thereby making improvements of phalanx tactics no longer necessary. Consequently, gymnasiums of the late 5th and 4th centuries BC had been used mainly for physical education and sports training of youths. That was when Athens built the three of its better known gymnasiums — Sinosarg, Lyceum and Academia.

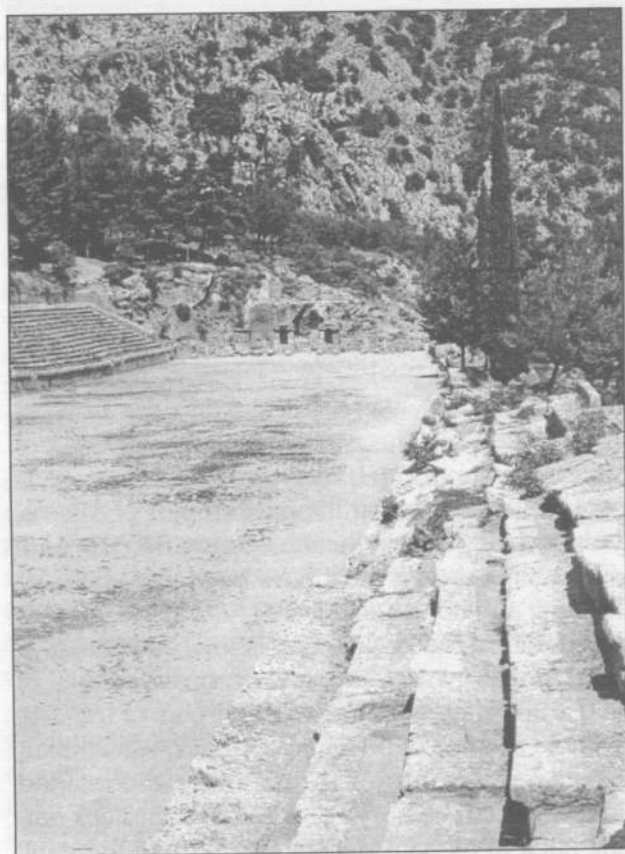
Sinosarg was situated in the South-East of Athens, with a little temple to Heracles on its territory. During the 1986 — 1987 excavations archeologists found only the classical-style ruins of what must have been the walls of a former palestra of the 5th century BC (H. Mussche, 1992).

Lyceum, located in the eastern part of Athens, was probably built in the 4th century BC. The two-stadia hippodrome must have been used both for running and horse racing.

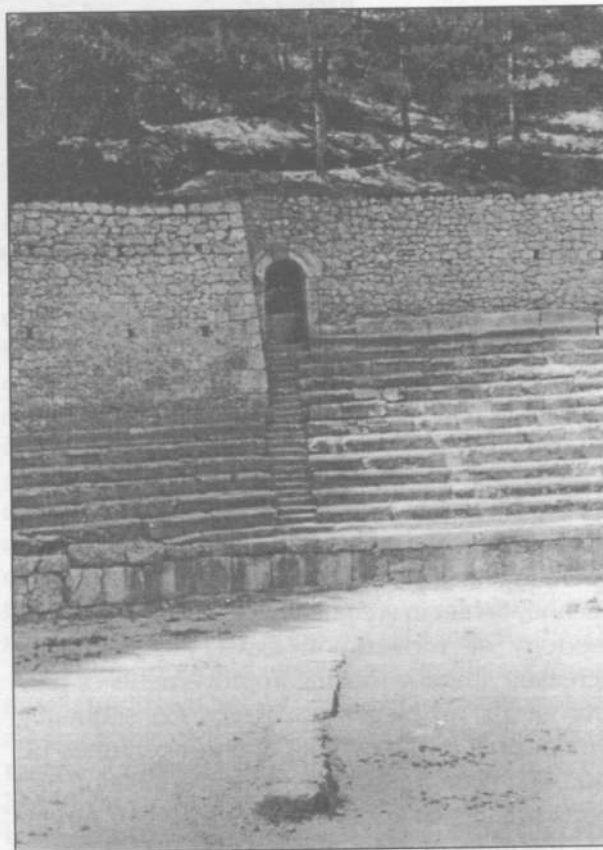
As the archeological digs show, *Academia*, a third Athens gymnasium, had occupied an area of 450 x 300 meters in the western part of the city, with a complex of buildings including a rectangular-shaped palestra and baths. Construction started in the late 6th century BC, the major facilities dating back to the late Hellenic period and the early Roman epoch.



Ancient gymnasium



Delphi stadium today



Finish line at the stadium in Delphi

The most ancient was the gymnasium in Delphi (the 4th century BC). Its greater part was built on artificial terraces 150 meters to the north-west of the temple of Pallas Athena, next to the Kasthalia spring which provided the gymnasium with water.

It was a fenced-off 200 x 65 meter area, with a covered portico of the palestra at the higher mound. In front of the palestra buildings there was a paradrome, that is, an open running track with start and finish lines. Nearby there was a sheltered track for training in bad weather (like rain or sweltering heat). The surface of the tracks used to be cleared, tilled a little, and then pressed. Both of the tracks were used for running, as well as for javelin and discus throw training. The facade had a row of plastered columns, which were later replaced with marble colonnade in the Roman Epoch. In the sheltered training area there were start and finish lines, 172.996 meters apart. There also existed a lower terrace with a 35 x 35-meter palestra, several halls and toilet rooms, as well as baths and massage parlors. Those premises were stove-heated.

In the interior yard athletes used to practice martial arts like wrestling, pancratium and fisticuffs, looked on by the statues of Hermes (the patron of the youth and athletes) or Heracles (demi-god of power and wrath).

Long jumping was also exercised in the interior yard. The pit (or the ditch) was filled with dry sand and was used in wrestling, boxing and jumping training. During festivals the sand was moistened to make it softer.

Apoditerium was a special building with columns or pilasters and benches (stands) leaning to the walls, which was half-open on the central court. Athletes took off their clothes and left it there to be oiled and massaged. After training, the apoditerium was used as rest area.

The Pergamum gymnasium was an example of a monumental construction in a Hellenic city. It was built concurrently with Acropolis and is a proof of outstanding skills of Pergamum architects.

The gymnasium, built between 197 and 139 BC, sat on three enormous terraces of the south-eastern slope of Acropolis. The palestra was on the third, the largest (230 x 160 meters) and the highest of the terraces. It was an oblong building (72 x 36 meters) of 2,628 sq. meters total area (by comparison, the area of the palestra in Delphi was 179 sq. meters, and that in Olympia 1,681 sq. meters). On the west, east and north the palestra was encircled by a 55-column portico. Later on the Roman completely reconstructed its northern part, adding the Imperial Hall, another hall for 1,000 spectators and two terraces in the east and west part of the palestra.

The gymnasium in Olympia differed from the others in that it was intended exclusively for a month of training prior to the Olympic Games.

This palestra, a typical 65 x 65-meter Hellenic construction, was built in the late 3rd century BC. In the early 2nd century BC another 220-meter-long gymnasium was attached to its northern wing, and a wide portico (about 70 meter long) was added to its southern part. A monumental main entrance and a sheltered portico for training were added to the palestra's eastern part in the late 2nd century BC.

Numerous archeological excavations and literary sources show that 26 gymnasiums were built in various Greek cities in the Hellenic period (the 3rd and 2nd centuries BC). In the 1st century BC and in the later period only nine gymnasiums were built there (H. Mussche, 1992).

By and by, gymnasiums turned into a real school of education and training, where philosophy, oratory and grammar were taught along with sports sessions. Libraries were also put up there. Famous philosophers and orators used to lecture in gymnasiums, as they thought them the best place to meet young people. The greatest ancient thinkers started their schools in gymnasiums: Plato in Academia (385 BC) and Aristotle in Lyceum (335 BC). In spite of tuition being unofficial in gymnasiums, it was greatly popular with youths who went in for sports there (D. Vanhove, 1992).

Architectural and literary monuments indicate the worship of Greek gods in the gymnasiums. Initially, their cult was quite simple: it included an image of worship (Hermes, Apollo, Heracles) and a small altar to conduct the rituals, a part of the palestra being allotted for that purpose. In the late Hellenic period temples started to be built on the territory of gymnasiums to worship Apollo, Hermes and Heracles.

Athletic stadiums were found during excavations in all the largest athletic centers of Ancient Greece, the largest and best studied being *the stadium in Olympia*. German archeologists removed 75,000 cubic meters of soil from the site of the stadium and restored its territory, with traces of the original stadium built on that site in the 6th century BC. During subsequent centuries, the stadium was undergoing constant development and reconstruction: the 192.24-meter long track was broadened, walls were put up around the stadium, as well as special places were added for start and finish, a stand for umpires, etc.

The Isthmian stadium in Corinthos was located near the temple of Poseidon. The width of its running was 21.49 meters, but its length was impossible to estimate in the absence of the south-

eastern part of the stadium. Spectators used to sit on the natural hill off the stadium. A second stadium, perpendicular to the first one, has not been excavated yet, although deep drillings indicate that it can be the best archeological site. The unearthed walls allow one to presume that it used to have a 181.20-meter long track, wide enough for sixteen athletes to run concurrently (O. Broneer, 1973).

Excavations of *the Delphi stadium* started in 1896 and were many times resumed. The stadium, which can be seen today, dates back to the 2nd century AD. But the research of 1971 — 1973 indicates a possibility of there being a more ancient stadium, built in 279 — 270 BC with 17 lanes, each 78.607-meter long (J. Aupert, 1979). The reconstruction of the middle of the 2nd century AD had slightly altered the shape of the stadium. The tracks became 177.420-meter long and 25.33 to 29.34-meter wide. Spectator stands were put up on a podium paved with stone slabs. The stadium could sit 6,500 spectators, with a stand for guests of honor in its northern part.

The 1971 — 1991 excavations showed that *the stadium in Nemesis* had been built in the late 4th century BC, with the tracks dimensions similar to those of the other stadiums (178 meters long and 23.92 meters wide).

The stadium in Athens was built in 330 — 329 BC to stage the Pan-Athenian Games, which had previously been held in other parts of Athens since 556 BC (H. Mussche, 1992).

The Origin of Olympic Games in Ancient Greece

The beginnings of Olympic Games in Ancient Greece are associated with the names of the Greek hero Heracles, the legendary King Pelos, Spartan legislator Lykurgos, and Hellenic King Iphitos.

According to an ode of the ancient Greek poet Pindar, the origin of the Olympic Games is tied in with Heracles. In 1253 BC King Augeias, owner of enormous herds of cattle, instructed Heracles to clean his vast farm yard. Heracles agreed to do so in one day, provided Augeias gave him a tenth part of the cattle. The King accepted the condition, being sure that it was impossible to complete such work in only one day. Thereupon, Heracles tore down the two opposite walls of the farm yard and directed the flow of two rivers (the Alpheios and the Pineos) through the breach, patching it up after the water had carried away all dung from the yard. When he came to claim his reward, King Augeias never gave it and Heracles had to return to Tyrinphe empty-handed.

A few years later Heracles took a terrible revenge on the King. After his service for Eurystheus was over, Heracles led numerous troops, defeated Augeias in a bloody battle and killed him with a lethal arrow. After the victory he gathered his troops and all the rich spoils near the city of Pythia, made sacrifices to the Olympic gods and in the name of the Olympic Games which since had been held every four years at the sacred plains planted with olive trees by Heracles in honor of the goddess Pallas Athena.

According to another legend, the Olympic Games were introduced by Pelops. King Oinomas of Hellas had a beautiful daughter Hippodameia. The King was foretold that he would perish at the hand of his son-in-law. So he wanted every man wishing to marry his daughter to take part in chariot races. Losers were killed by Oinomas himself. Pelops, son of King Tantalos of Asia Minor, accepted the challenge of the King, who let him to start first in the 120-kilometer race. Pelops led the race all the time, but Oinomas was drawing closer and closer, having the fastest-running horses in Greece, the present of Ares, the God of War. Oinomas almost caught up with Pelops, who turn his head in time to see the King's spear poised to kill him. But at that very moment the king's chariot fell apart, killing Oinomas. After his marriage Pelops decided to hold the Olympic festivities and competitions every four years to commemorate his victory. This is thought to have occurred in 884 BC.

There is also a third (and not at all last) legend of how the Olympic Games came about. Those times were characterized by on-going strife and wars between city states in Ancient Greece. Iphitos, the King of Hellas, turned to a Delphi oracle after an outbreak of plague for advice what to do next. The oracle suggested that Iphitos should abstain from warfare, strengthen ties with other Hellenic cities, and hold an annual "Year of Joy" to be added to local festivals. This was alleged to have opened the way for Pan-Hellenic festivities and the Olympic Games. Sparta, 350 kilometers away, being the main enemy of Hellas was also asked to join, King Iphitos appealed to the Spartan legislator Lykurgos to jointly follow that advice.

Some scientists argue that the Olympic Games used to be held in honor of the Harvest festivities. That is why, they say, the winners were decorated with an olive branch and a wreath. The season of holding the Games (August - September) seemed to support this argument. Besides, there are many other myths and legends about the origin of the Olympic Games, all of them relating to the heroes, mythology and religious festivals of Ancient Greece.

Olympia, the Venue of Olympic Games in Ancient Greece

Olympia is an old Greek settlement in the north-western part of Peloponnesus. It is washed by the Alpheios river from the south and by the Kladeios from the west and is bordering on the mountain of Kronos in the north. In the east there was a low-land inundated by the Alpheios. It should be mentioned that in the popular literature the place of the Olympic Games of Ancient Greece was often mistakenly associated with the mountain ridge of Olympus in the north of Hellas, which was believed to be the seat of gods in the Hellenic mythology.

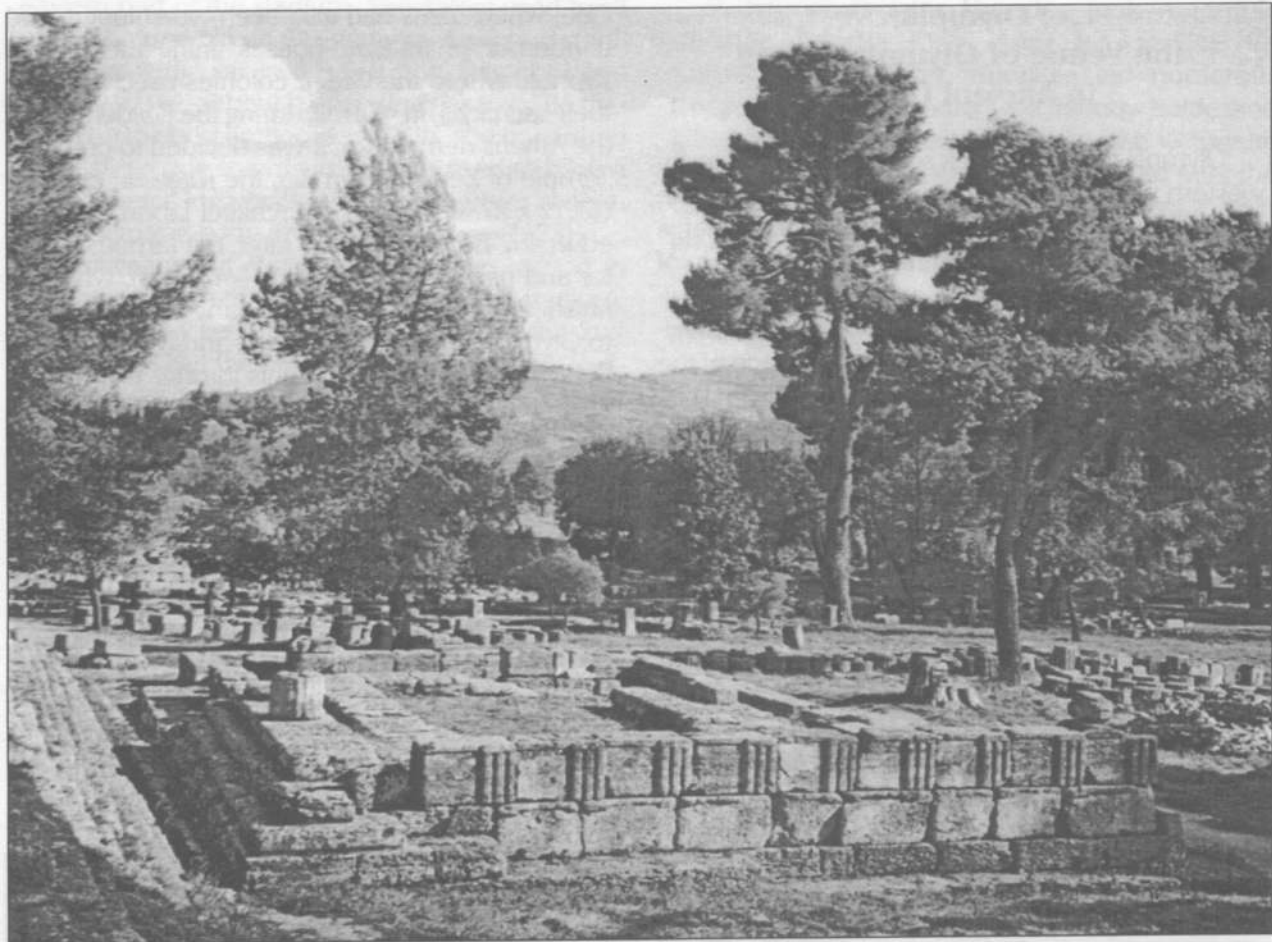
Even at the early period of the Olympic Games, Olympia had been a historic and cultural center of Ancient Hellas, with its numerous monuments built in the first half of the 2nd millennium BC. The mountain of Kronos, the Mount of Pelops, the Altars of Heracles, Zeus, Gea, Hippodameia were considered sacred areas. Among the first monumental sites to be built there were the Temple of

Gee, where Zeus had also been worshipped, and a number of treasure-houses lining the foot of Kronos, where the Greek colonies used to make their sacrifices. In 472 BC, during the Golden Age of the Athens democracy, it was decided to erect the Temple of Zeus in Olympia, the majestic creation (64.12 x 27.68 meters) of architect Libon completed in 457 BC. A few years later, the famous sculptor and painter Phidias (490 — 431 BC), who had finished his work on the Athenian Acropolis, came to Olympia and began the gold-and-ivory statue of Zeus as residing regally on his throne. There were also created unique sculptures, the most famous of them the cult statue of Goddess Hera sitting on the throne next to the standing Zeus (the early 6th century BC), the statue of Hermes in the Temple of Hera, and an equally famous statue of Nike, the Goddess of Victory, by sculptor Paionius (224 BC). The height of the statue together with a high triangular pedestal was 11.90 meters (M. Andronikos, 1992).

Since that time intensive development of Olympia was launched, with new buildings emerging, such as a guest house, a palestra, a gymnasium, a stadium, a hippodrome and other facili-



Bird's view of Olympia today



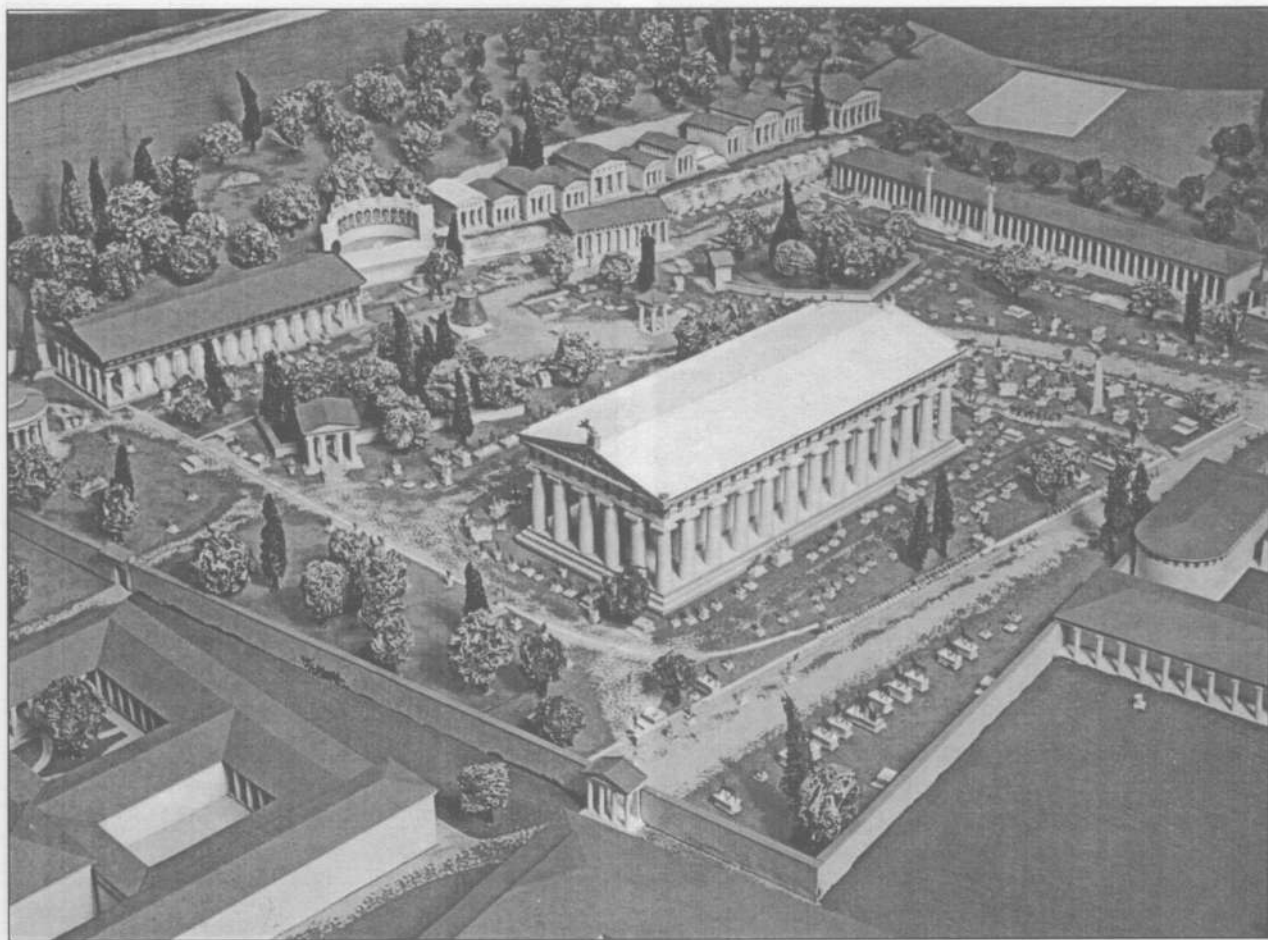
Foundation and the remaining parts of the studio of Phidias



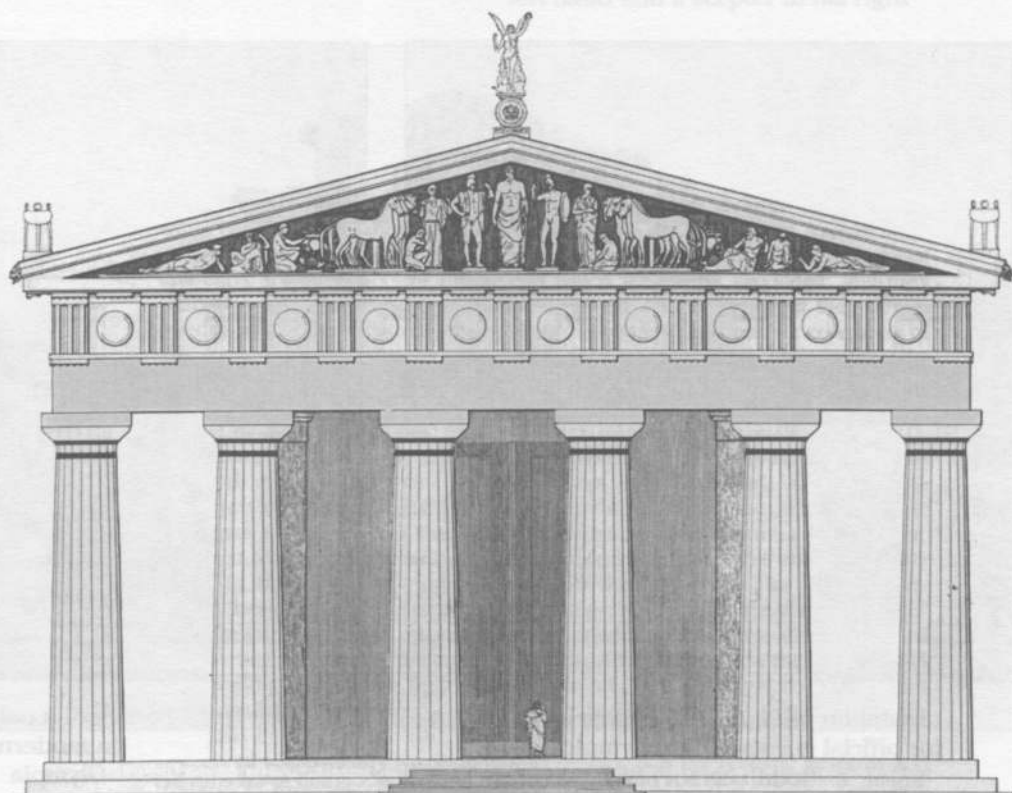
Foundation and the remaining parts
of the Temple of Zeus in Olympia
(architect Libon of Elis)



Ruins of the Temple of Zeus
in modern Olympia



Temple of Zeus in Olympia (model)



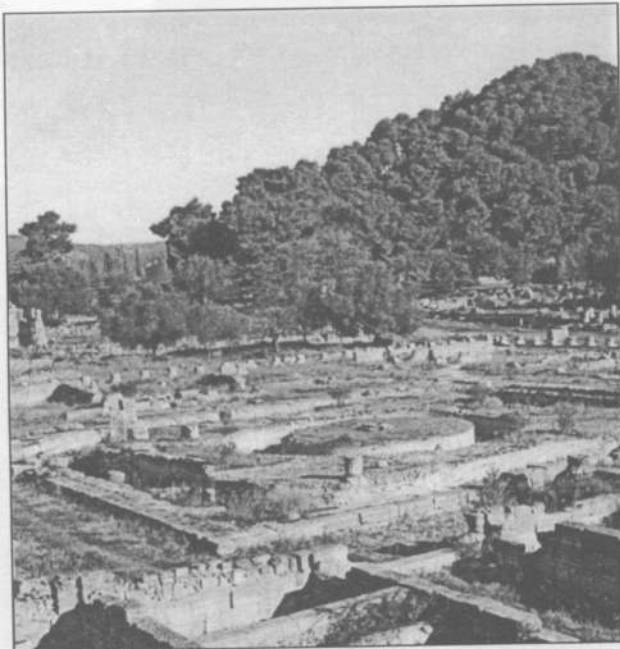
Eastern side
of the Temple
of Zeus
(reconstruction)



**Gymnasium
in Olympia**



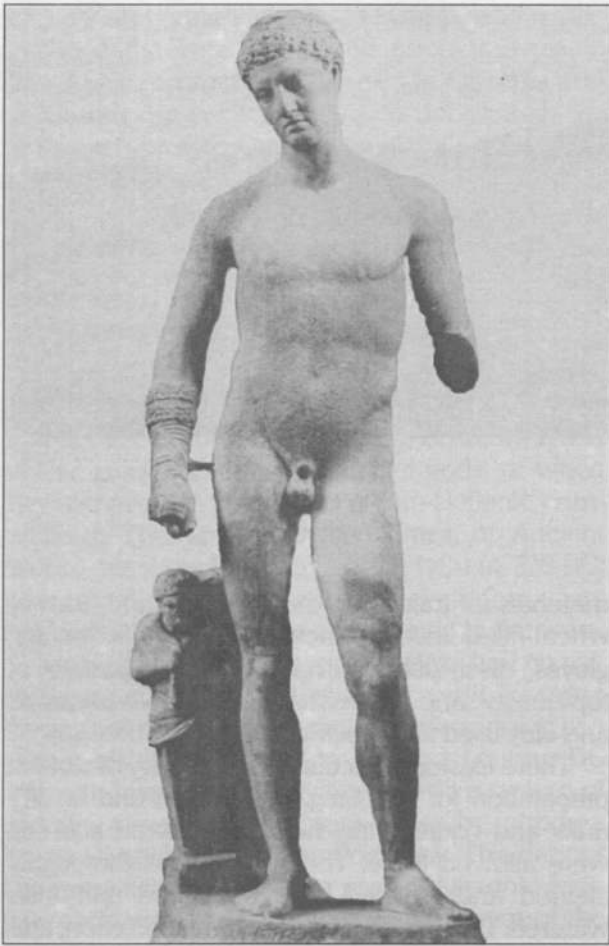
**Reconstruction
of Nike of Paionius (420 BC)**



**Foundation of Leonidion, the guest house
for official guests of the Olympic Games
(fourth century BC)**



**Portico of a palestra
in modern
Olympia**



Hermes of Praxiteles
(340 BC)



Reconstruction of gold- and ivory-plated cult statue of Zeus by Phidias. Zeus has Nike in his left hand and a scepter in his right



Hippodrome in Olympia



**The official entrance
to the Olympic stadium
(modern view)**

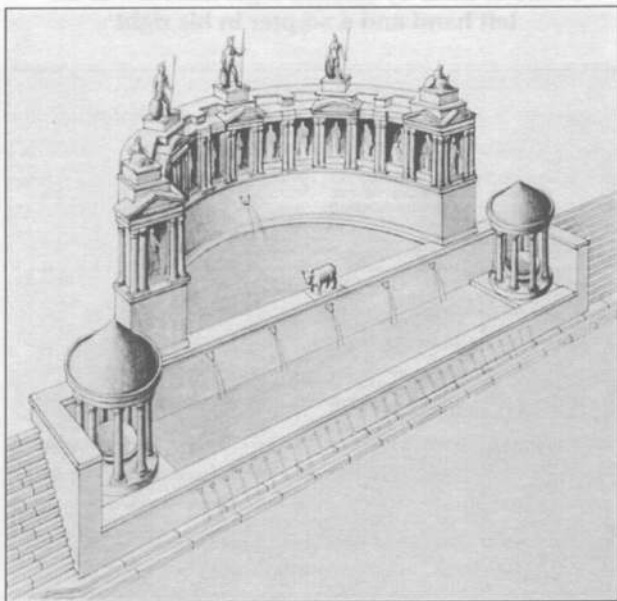


**The stadium
in Olympia
(modern view)**

ties, which allowed to stage the grandiose competitions of the Olympic Games.

The 66 x 66-meter palestra of the 3rd century BC, in the west of Altos, was surrounded by a colonnade, behind which there were various premises and half-sheltered spaces. In the interior yard, athletes used to do battlefield events of wrestling, pancratium and fisticuffs, as well as the long jump. In bad weather athletes could train in special halls in the palestra. There were also spaces for fisticuffs, wrestling and pancratium training.

There were many kinds of equipment and



Drinking Altar (Holy Place) in Niphea, Olympia
People of Olympia used to get water from mountain springs, creeks, and scarce wells. The problem of water supply had been finally resolved by Iradis Atikos who built an aqueduct to Niphea. From there water run through many pipelines to Olympia

materials for training in the palestra: sand, flour or wheat-filled leather sacks for fisticuffs, boxing gloves, discs, poles, jumping weights, baskets of top-quality sand, oil vessels, special wells to mix oil and clay used in wrestling, etc.

There existed an accurate technology of surface preparation for wrestling, pancratium and boxing rinks and courts. Only high-quality sand and soil were allowed there. The surface was thoroughly cleared and cleaned, tilled, rammed and then watered. This work took a lot of time and effort, and it was normally done by athletes themselves.

The gymnasium built near the palestra late in the 2nd century BC was an open space encircled by a colonnade, and similar to a stadium in the area. Its major part was a portico, 219.5 meters long and 11.3 meters wide. It was there that the Olympic distance (one classical stadia) had been measured of the track. Measured by judges with different length of steps, this distance varied in Greece from 175 to 197.27 meters, the longest one, allegedly measured by Heracles himself, being in Olympia. Hence the origin of the word 'stadium'. The gymnasium bordered on the living quarters for athletes preparing for and competing in the Olympics.

The Olympic stadium has been reconstructed by German archeologists in its original form. There had been few traces of the original stadium, the second one being roughly in the same spot. In the middle of the 4th century BC it was moved 75 meters to the east of the original site. The stadium built by architect Leonidas had an area of 213 x 29 meters and a natural stand for about 50,000 spectators on the slopes of Kronos.

A hippodrome (730 x 66 meters) was built for horse races. Official guests of the Olympic Games were accommodated in a guest house, with baths nearby.

Poets and orators glorified Olympia, and myths and legends were composed about the place. Pindar devoted many of his odes to Olympia and the Games. He wrote: "No star is nobler than the Sun, which provides so much warmth and brightness in the desert of the sky. Likewise, do we glorify the Olympic Games, the noblest of all games".

Olympic Games and Other Pan-Hellenic Competitions

It is difficult to affirm with any certainty when athletic games started in honor of gods, or when they had acquired the status of Pan-Hellenic competitions. The first Olympic Games of Ancient Greece are thought to have been held in 776 BC, whereupon they were organized every four years and had been maintained even during major wars.

It is well known that ancient Greeks had no calendar, so to count years, they had to settle for some starting point, or a date to signify the beginning of a certain historical period. In the 3rd century BC Athenian historian Thimaeus introduced a system of counting years by "Olympiads", thereby introducing an Olympic era in historiography. The date of any event was relative to a certain Olympic four-year cycle, the starting point being the year of the First Olympic Games.

Among other achievements of the Ancient Greek civilization linked with Olympic Games, one should mention *akheia*, a tradition prohibiting all city-states from waging wars at the time when the best athletes of Ancient Greece were peacefully competing in Olympia. It is thought that the period of general truce in Hellas lasted about three months, which time was needed for athletes to prepare for the Olympics, go to Olympia, compete in the Games and come back home. The truce was strictly observed during the Games, when even yesterday's enemies would be engaged in a peaceful contest. The Olympic Games traditions had been maintained by ancient Greeks even in hard times for the city-states. For example, in 480 BC, in spite of the Persian invasion, the Games went ahead in Olympia as before. Following the Greek defeat near Thermopylae, a few deserters asked to see the King of Persians and told him that "Hellenes were celebrating their Olympic festivities and watching gymnastics and equestrian contests". This was enough to astonish the Persians, but they were amazed even more to hear that Greeks competed in Olympia for olive wreaths, rather than for money. Upon the news that Greeks hold wreaths in higher esteem than money as a reward, a representative of the Persian nobility

addressed his Commander-in-Chief in the following words: "Whom are you leading us to fight? This nation competes for the sake of valor, not for gold!" (Herodotus).

One should not overestimate the significance of truces concluded for the duration of the Olympic Games. It had been frequently violated and hostilities would resume following the closure of the Games. Peace reigned in Olympia only during the Golden Age of the Roman Empire, and even then it was not solely through the Olympic Games. Therefore, the idea of a "sacred truce" attracting so much attention through the whole period of Modern Olympic Sports (M. Pescante, 1994) should not be idealized but rather considered as a factor of educational nature and an example of pure humanism.

During the Olympics the Games and their heroes were glorified in poems and hymns. Since 444 BC art competitions were included in the Olympic program. Wisdom was heard of philosophers Thales, Heraclitus, Plato, Socrates and Diogenes, as well as enthusiastic epics of Pindar and Archilochus, and the tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides.

The Olympic Games, during their Golden Age, were the most significant of the Pan-Hellenic forums, whose importance far exceeded their purely sports significance. Quite often they were used as an arena for different political actions. For instance, the "thirty-years peace" was concluded by Athens and Sparta during one of the Olympic Games in the 5th century BC. It was at one of the Olympics that sophist Georgios condemned the conciliatory policy of Spartans towards the Persians (408 BC). Representatives of Mytilene protested against the policies of Athens and demanded an autonomy. Many eminent politicians and military leaders participated in the Olympic Games in order to enhance their prestige. Besides, the Olympics were used as a means to arrange important deals between different states. Philosophers, orators, actors aspired to take part in the Olympic "contest of minds" and considered a victory as a summit of their creative work. The richest people used to make different donations to the Olympic competitions, thus boosting their popularity.

The early period of the Olympic Games and of other Pan-Hellenic competitions was closely associated with a cult of gods, and athletic competitions were attributed to gods' favor and had a sacrificial nature. This is confirmed by the available sculptures in honor of victories in sports. They had no individual features and most frequently represented the image of Gods in whose name the victory had been gained. However, in due course (beginning from the late 4th century BC), the cult

elements were less evident, and the victories started to be attributed to the winning athletes. This can be witnessed, for instance, in the inscription found on the statue of Aristodames (the early 4th century BC):

"I was five times crowned by Nemeia, Delphi and Olympia. My victories were due to my adroitness rather than strength. Aristodames, Hellenic wrestler, son of Phrassius."

In ancient times, naturally, there were opponents of athletic games. Some philosophers criticized the one-sidedness of physical training, which, in their opinion, was to the detriment of the all-round development of an individual, particularly that of intellectual prowess. Physicians warned young athletes against excessive physical training, which, they said, could result in exhaustion and premature weakening of the immature body. Philosopher Xenophon of Colophon (the 6th — 5th centuries BC) criticized the tradition of heaping undue honors and praise on winners of the Games, since their achievements were much less than those of pundits; strength and adroitness were not above the thought of a philosopher, and the victories of runners or javelin throwers did not make the cellars more abundant and the cities more prosperous.

However, ancient Greeks did not pay much attention to such statements, as they had no impact on the popularity of sports and the Olympic Games.

Alongside the Olympic Games some other competitions were also held in Ancient Greece, which, although less popular, were highlights in the life of their country. The most noted among them were Nemean, Pythian and Isthmian Games. All of those were Pan-Hellenic, participants including representatives of different Greek city-states.

The first *Nemean Games*, also in honor of Zeus, were held in 573 BC, that is, 200 years later than the Olympic Games. Later on they were staged every two years: in the autumn of the second year and in the winter of the fourth year of the Olympic cycle. Excavations in Nemeia uncovered the ruins of fundamental sports facilities, such as a stadium with a big stand, the foundations of numerous inns, taverns, bath-houses and a swimming pool.

The program of these Games included various sport events, with running, wrestling and pentathlon the most popular among them. The winners, like in Olympia, were awarded wreaths, but made of ivy or celery, rather than of olive branches, as was the case in the Olympic Games.

Organizers of the Nemean Games attempted repeatedly to establish peace in Hellas for the dura-

tion of the Games, but they failed, as it was often violated, especially by Sparta.

The *Pythian Games* were held in Delphi in honor of Apollo. According to a legend, the Games were set up by Apollo at the place where he had slain a terrible serpent Python. The relation of the Pythian Games and the cult of Apollo is proven by the fact that initially the program of the Games included only contests of artists, dancers and musicians, Apollo being thought of as their patron. In 586 BC, after yet another war between the Greek cities, the first chariot races were organized near the city of Delphi to commemorate the fallen warriors, and these Games became Pan-Hellenic since 582 BC. Pythiades, four-year cycles counting system, was in place since 586 BC. Influenced by Spartan traditions, athletes competed naked, the winners being awarded apples at first, and laurel wreaths later on.

As for the *Isthmian Games*, these were organized in honor of Poseidon since 581 BC, every two years in spring (in the first and third year of the Olympic cycle) in a pine grove of the isthmus near Corinth. The program included running, wrestling, chariot races as well as performances of flutists and kifarists. Winners were presented with wreaths of pine branches. Corinth was a rich and powerful city, so the Isthmian Games used to be magnificently organized and attracted a lot of spectators. Isthmian Games winners, like those in Olympia, were glorified by poets, Pindar and Bakhilid in particular.

Since 228 BC, Romans began to compete in the Isthmian Games, so sometimes Roman authorities often chose the Games to make important public announcements there. In 196 BC, for instance, Roman Commander Titus Thlaminin, following the Second Macedonian War, declared through city heralds concession of autonomy to Greek cities, and in 67 AD Greece was granted freedom by the order of Emperor Neron.

In addition to the above mentioned major competitions, different local games used to be staged in honor of Pan-Hellenic or local Gods, although the Olympic Games held priority in prestige. Comparing the significance of the Olympic and Isthmian Games, Solon pointed out that the prize of an Olympic winner was 500 drachmas, whereas that of the Isthmian Games winner was a mere 100 drachmas.

Olympic Games Organization and Programs

In the first thirteen Olympics, Greeks competed only in running the distance of one stadium (about 607 feet), this being the only sports event in the

Olympic festivals of Hellenes. The runners started from special marble plates with special toe-hold.

Two-stadia running (the distance of about 1,214 feet) was added at the 14th Olympic Games (in 724 BC). Long distance running (8, 10, 12 and 24 stadia) was introduced since the 15th Games on.

Pentathlon was added to the Olympic Games program in 708 BC. It included jumping, running, discus and javelin or dart throwing and wrestling. Hellenes did high and long jumps, as well as long jumps with tin dumb-bells. In 688 BC fisticuffs were introduced, which required special skills. Chariot races appeared in the program of the Olympic Games only eight years later as a four-horse races, well familiar to the readers of Homer. In the middle of the 7th century BC, there was another addition, pancratium (wrestling with no holds barred). Youth were allowed to compete in 632 BC in running and wrestling and, later on, also in fisticuffs. From the middle of the 6th century BC there came races of warriors in full armor, which were later limited to a shield only.

Swimming was never included in the Olympic program, although there were many excellent swimmers among the Greeks. According to Lucian, swimming was part of the training schedule of athletes.

Here is a brief description of fundamental sport events in the program of the Olympic Games.

Running was one of the most ancient sports. Mostly, running was for young herdsmen and hunters, as their life style developed the qualities required for a good runner. But a well-developed training system made it possible for other youths to go in for running, too.

Training and running contests used to be held in special courtyards of certain length, which was measured in stadia, to pick up speed and of sufficient width for many competitors to race. Subsequently, the word 'stadium', the measure of distance equal to 192.27 meters, came to designate this special court. As a rule, stadium-courts were located on mountain slopes in Olympia (for a better view of contests), or between two hills. The start and finish lines were marked with furrows or by some other similar means. It was only in later periods (not before the 4th century BC) that marble plates came to be used as permanent start and finish line markers.

Athletes threw a dice for the starting position. They were invited to the starting line by a city crier who gave then the signal to begin the heat. They ran one stadium straight forward, turned around and ran in the opposite direction, thus covering all the distance. There were various distances to run: one stadium, two stadia, 8-14 stadia and armed athletes races (2 — 4 stadia).

Discus throwing had no direct relation to military or labor activities. Homer mentioned discus competitions organized by Achilles in honor of the fallen Patroclus.

This event required physical strength, good timing and precision of movement. Subsequently it was one of pentathlon events. According to historical data, disci were made of stone (in later times of lead and alloys) and were round and convexo-convex in shape. They were 17 — 32 cm in diameter and 1.3 — 6.6 kilograms in weight. Throwing techniques did not differ much from those of today.

Long jumps, like running, were the simplest athletic contests. As a pentathlon event, the long jump developed along two lines: 1) jumps with weights (from 1.6 to 4.6 kilograms, depending on the individual weight of athletes) held in hands during the jump; and 2) jumps to the tune of a trumpet, for the athlete to demonstrate the flow and rhythm of his movement. Athletes jumped into a rectangular pit (16 meters long) filled with sand. The take-off board was in front of the pit edge to measure the length of jumps.

Wrestling was both a pentathlon event and a separate contest. Competitions were held in two kinds of wrestling: 1) in a standing position, where the winner was to bring his opponent down onto the sand three times; and 2) "lower wrestling", continued until one of the athletes gave up.

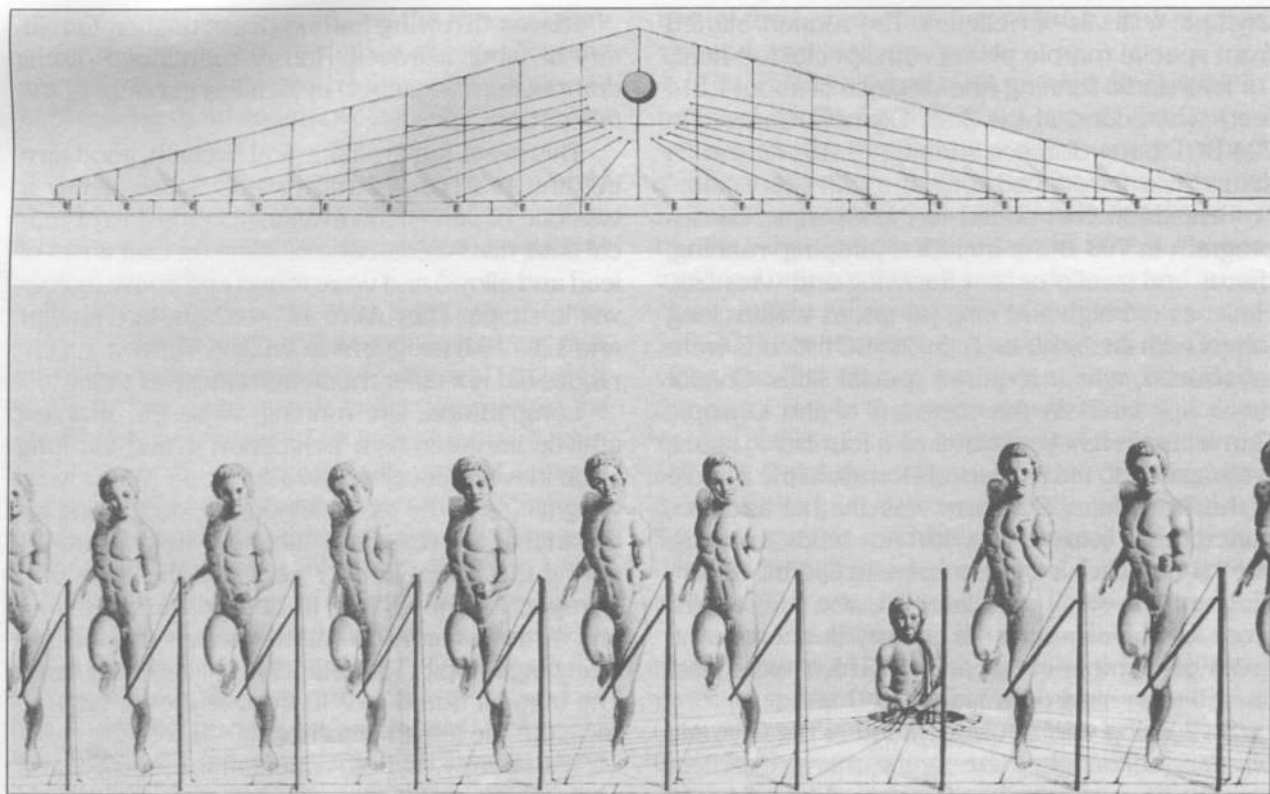
The holds of wrestling got their names depending on the actions involved. A contact of any part of the body (except feet) with sand was considered a throw. If both athletes fell simultaneously, it was not to be counted as a throw. Holds below the belt and blows were not allowed.

Javelin throwing was a skill practiced by some people in real life, especially by hunters and warriors. As a rule, there were two types of such contests: distance and target throwing. The former was more popular as a pentathlon event. Wooden javelins were used, with its length proportionate to the height of athletes. It was sharpened from the front end, with an iron pointed cap needed to shift forward the center of gravity, thus increasing the speed of flight and precision of hit. Special gadgets were used to increase the distance of the throw.

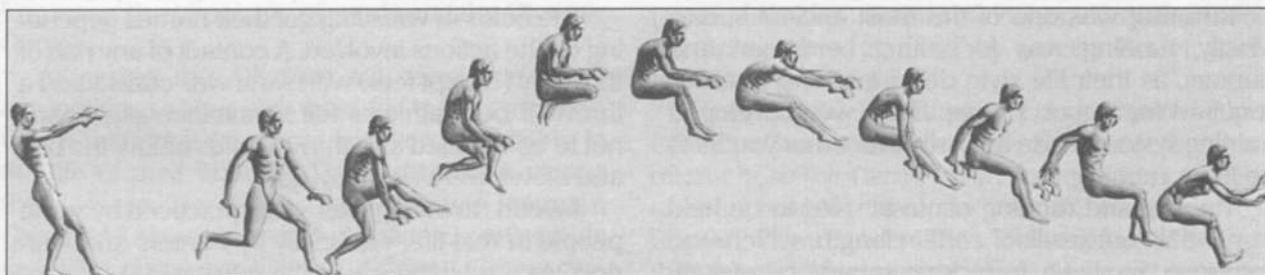
The javelin was thrown from a certain point after a run-up and the trial was considered valid if it hit the target.

Pentathlon included five events: jumping, discus throwing, running, javelin throwing and wrestling (supposedly in this sequence). How, the winner was determined in pentathlon remains unclear. It is assumed that such an athlete was to win at least three events, including wrestling as a must.

Pancratium, an ancient Greek sport, was a



Start system used in running competitions. The start lines were blocked with stumps and parallel sticks tied by a rope which was held by a starter. The starter would give athletes the signal to run by dropping the rope and opening them the way (K. Palagologos, 1976)



The techniques of the long jump with weights (K. Palagologos, 1976)

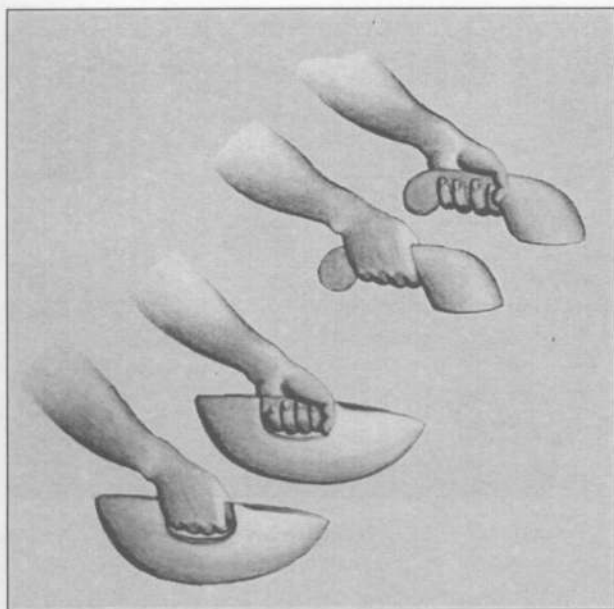
combination of wrestling and fisticuffs. It had a definite set of rules: athletes fought without gloves, and all holds and punches were allowed of wrestling and boxing. Restrictions were also imposed: athletes were not allowed to bite, scratch or stick fingers in the adversary's eyes, nose and mouth. Two types of pancratium were distinguished: one in the standing position only, and the other, which allowed to continue the bout even after the athletes fell, was mainly included in the competition program.

Fisticuffs (boxing). Apollo is believed to be the patron and founder of fisticuffs, which was first mentioned by Homer.

The fighting technique was as follows. Before the fight, athletes used to bandage their wrists and

knuckles with leather bands until the 5th century BC. The first "gloves" appeared in the 4th century BC as hand-shaped pre-rolled bands. In the times of the Roman Empire (the 2nd century BC) gloves were reinforced with iron and lead. The techniques also changed, depending on the type of gloves used. Thus, soft gloves called for speed, adroitness and perfect technique, while with weighted gloves the emphasis was on defense and the power of punches.

Unlike in modern times, fisticuffs had no time limit. The fight continued until one of the fighters lost consciousness or gave up by lifting one or two fingers. Sometimes the referee would call a short break. In case of a doubtful outcome the referee could call a stand off, with punches thrown by



Long and scythe-shaped weights used in the long jump (K. Palagologos, 1976)

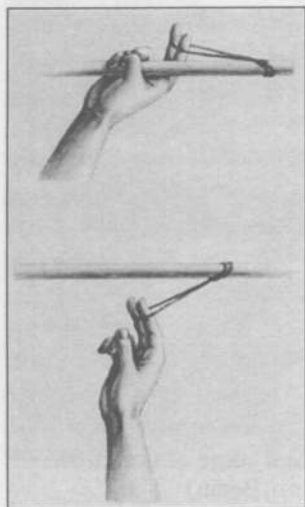
turns at a standing opponent. The turns were decided by casting a draw.

The winner in this case was declared the one who was still on his feet. Quite often such fights would be lethal.

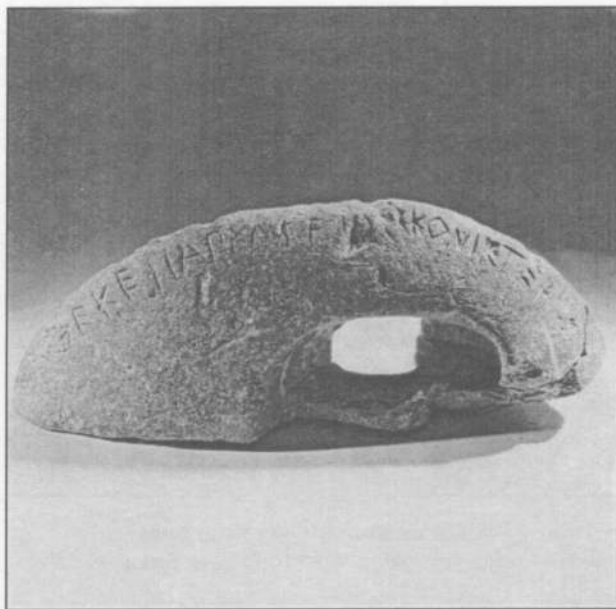
Boxing rules did not allow wrestling holds, low blows, gloves of pigskin (a tougher material), or thick layers of skin, called *amphotides*, covering the head (a prototype of modern boxing helmets), although one could use such protection in training.

Chariot races were held in a hippodrome, which was a flat, rather wide and open space fenced with poles indicating the start, finish and the turning point.

The chariots were allowed to be driven by horses (most often the case), mules or donkeys. With four horses, the strongest was on the right. There



Leather loose tied to the center of a javelin for a better throw (K. Palagologos, 1976)



Stone weight of long jumper Aktatide of Sparta

was space for two in chariots, but normally only one athlete (the coachman) would compete, riding the chariot while standing. It was against rules to cross or occupy the path of the neighbouring chariots. The main winner of the race was the owner of the horses, who got the prize, and the coachman, hired to drive, was awarded a woolen ribbon to wear on his head. There is as yet no reliable indicator of the distance of chariot races in Ancient Greece.

Horse riding contests were also held in Olympia, the riders making six rounds of the hippodrome track. In another type of horse races the riders were to run the last two rounds alongside their horses, holding on to the bridle. It was this type of riding that had been included in the program of the 71st Olympic Games.

There are many artifacts and works of art from antiquity depicting various sports, techniques, tactics and the overall atmosphere of athletic competitions in Ancient Greece.

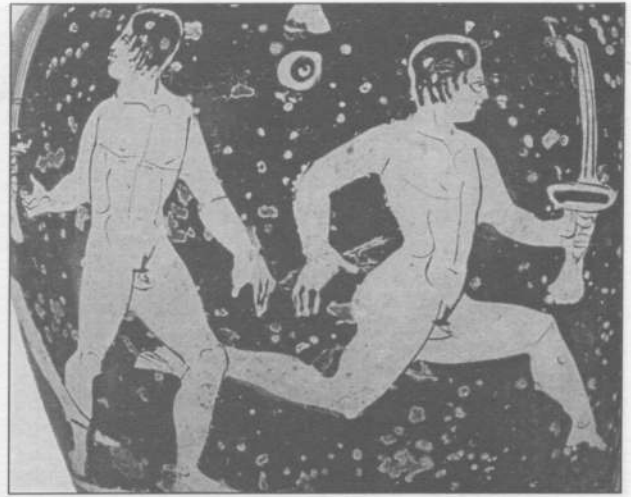
Many other sports were popular in Hellas as means of physical training and stamina building of warriors. They were included in the programs of



Binding gloves used in boxing



Athletes in a one-stadium heat
(Metropolitan Museum, New York)



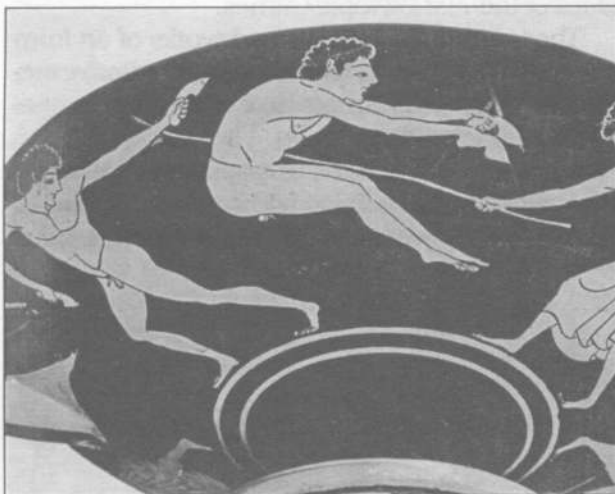
Torch Relay
(Louvre, Paris)



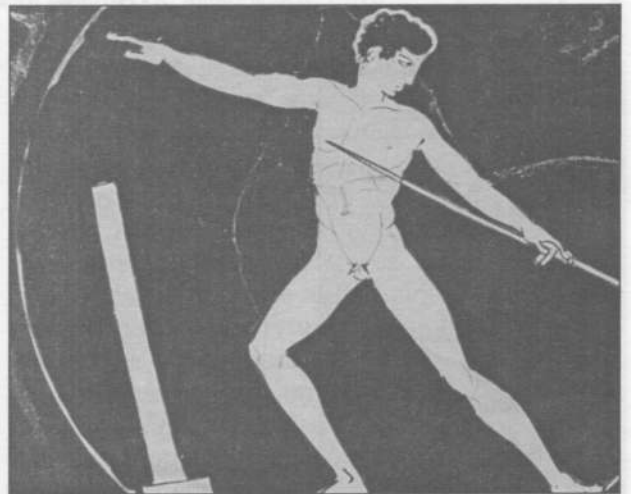
Pentathlon athletes on the amphora (sixth-century BC): a jumper, javelin and discus throwers
(British Museum, London)



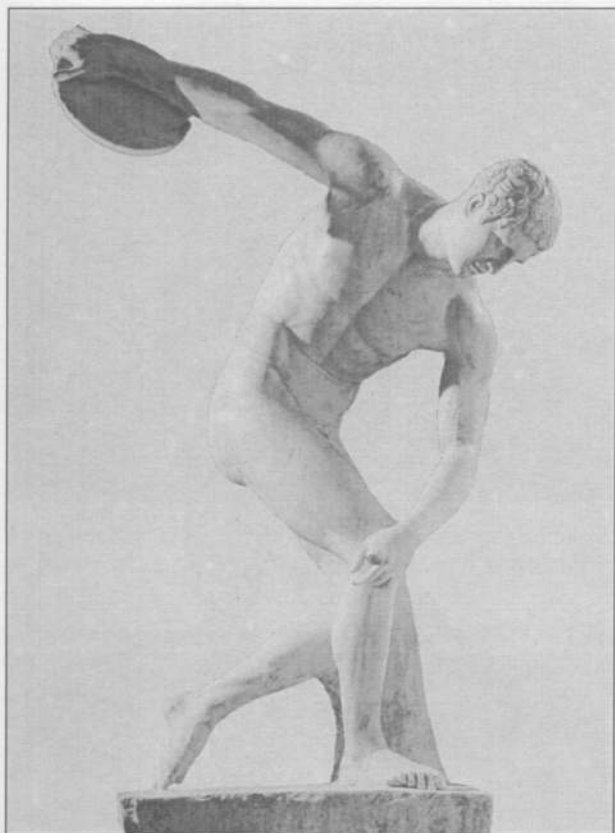
Middle-distance running
(Ashbey Castle, Northampton, England)



Long jump athlete
(Boston Museum)



Javelin thrower in the final stage of the throw
(State Museum, Berlin)



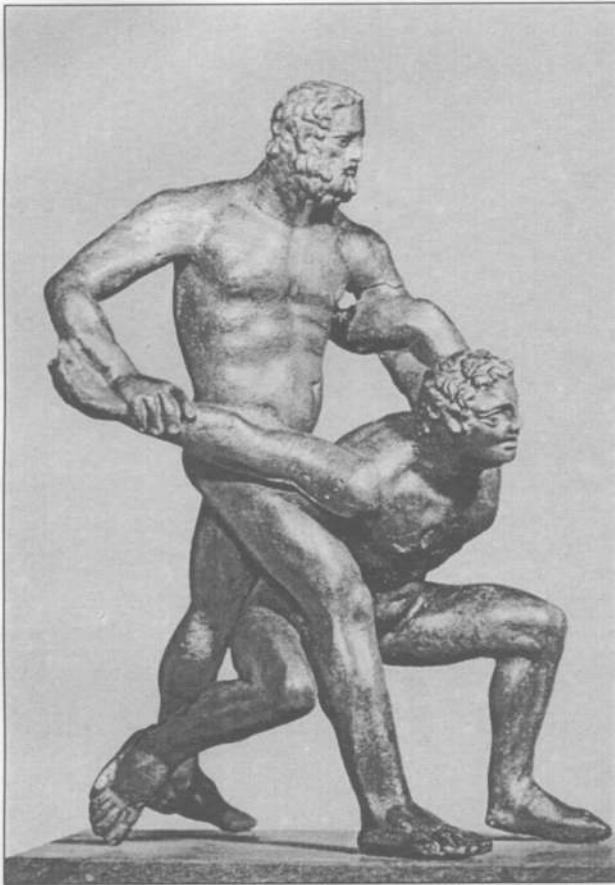
Discus thrower
(National Museum, Rome)



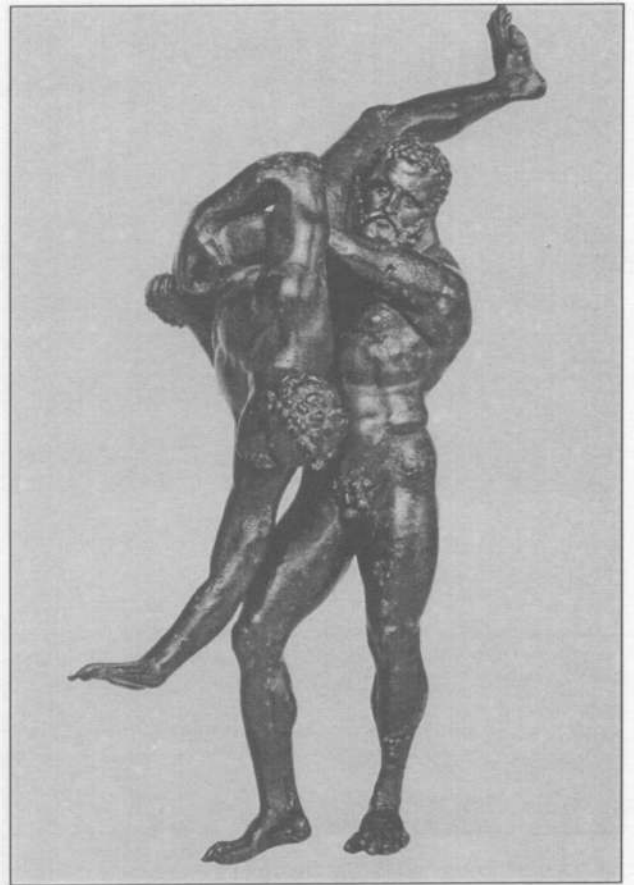
Discus throwing
(National Museum of Archeology, Naples)



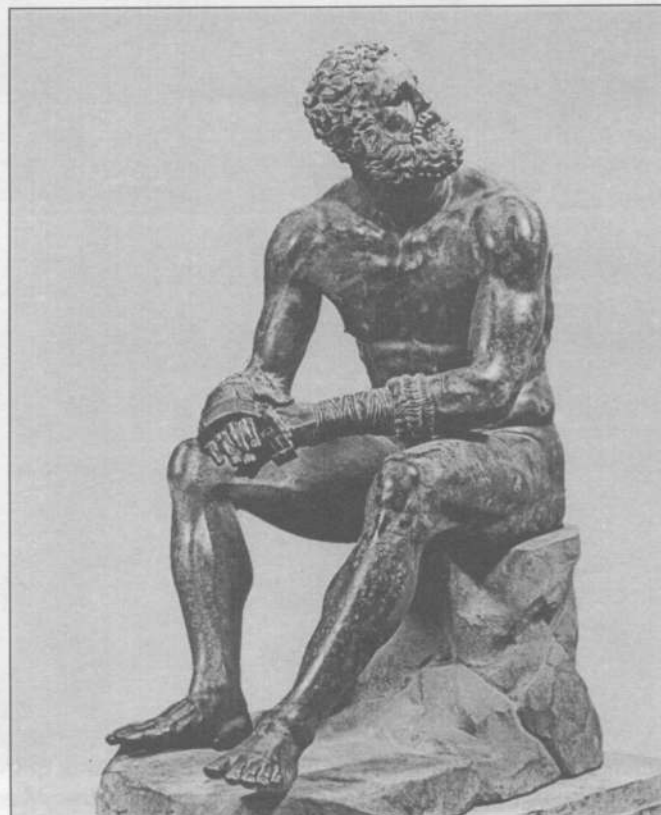
Wrestling (State Museum, Berlin)



Wrestling bout
(Uffizi, Florence)



Wrestling (bronze,
first century BC. National Museum, Athens)



**A bronze statue
of a boxer,
with scars
on his face**
(Romano
National Museum,
Rome)



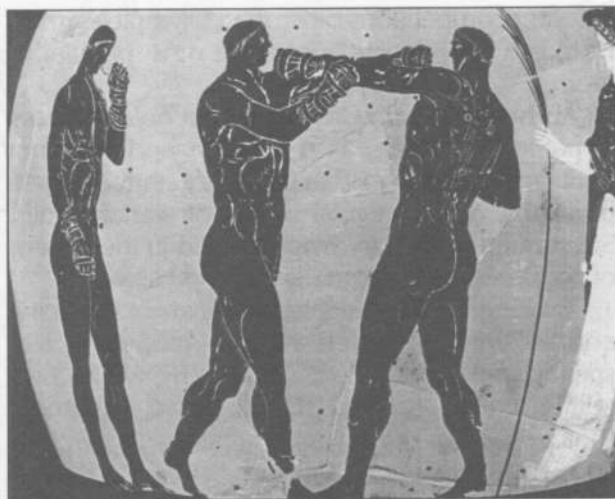
Wrestling
(bronze, third century BC. National Museum, Munich)



Pancration bout
(Louvre, Paris)



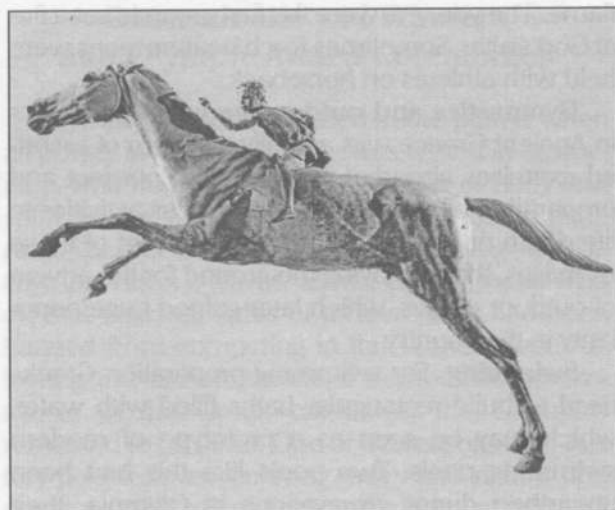
Heat of a hippodrome
(British Museum, London)



Boxing
(British Museum, London)



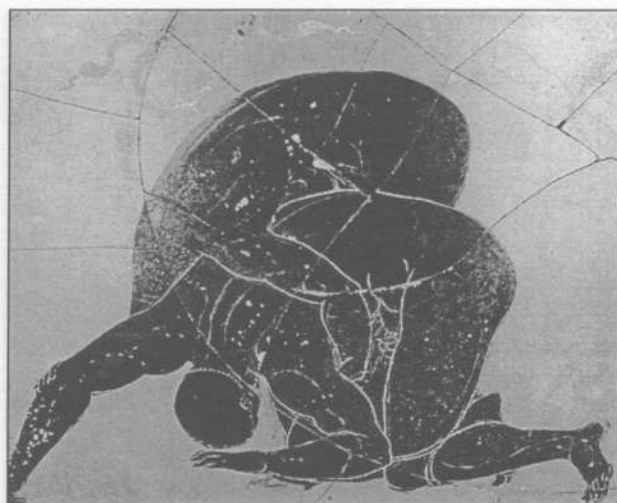
Horse races
(British Museum)



Hippodrome races: a young rider without a saddle
(National Archeological Museum, Athens)



Javelin throw
(Louvre, Paris)



Wrestling
(National Archeological Museum, Athens)

different competitions other than Olympic Games. Here is a brief description of the most popular of them.

Archery. Ancient Greeks did not hold the bow in particular esteem as a weapon, so it was not until the 4th century BC that archery started to gain popularity due to regular shows of warfare skills. Subsequently, archery was included in the system of physical and military training of youths.

Fencing. Unlike modern sports, ancient fencing competitions included heavy weaponry, like spears, short swords, etc. That is why, while competing, athletes used special protective equipment (helmets, coats of mail and cuirasses), as well as round and rectangular shields.

Torch-bearers contests. Torch bearers used to compete at the Opening Ceremony of the Games. Carrying burning torches, they would run in groups for 800 — 2,500 meters without putting out the flame. The winners were the first group to set a fire at God's altar. Sometimes torch bearers races were held with athletes on horseback.

Gymnastics and outdoor games. Gymnastics in Ancient Greece was actually a system of assorted exercises aimed at physical development and preparation of an individual for various activities in life. Cloth or leather balls were often part of those exercises, thereby laying the ground for the advent of outdoor games, which later gained huge popularity in the country.

Swimming. For swimming preparation Greeks used to build rectangular baths filled with water, which may be seen as a prototype of modern swimming pools. Two pools like this had been unearthed during excavations in Olympia, their dimensions being 4.19 x 3.02 x 1.39 meters and 24 x 16 x 1.6 meters, respectively. The smaller pool

may have been used for practice, while the bigger one for swimming contests.

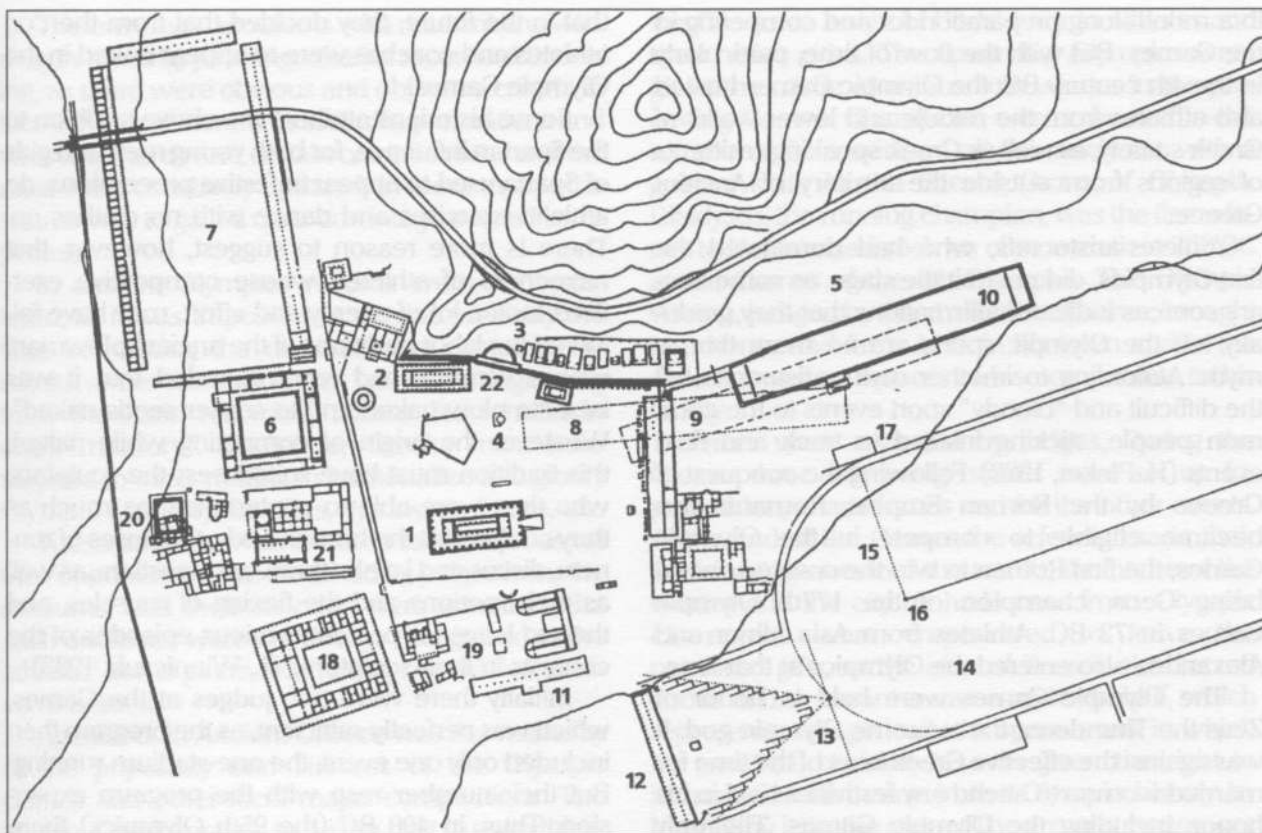
There had been no rules as to the types of swimming strokes and style. Swimming was doubtless significant as an athletic exercise, but was used predominantly as a means of keeping physically fit.

Greeks must also have been very keen on "speed boat racing" (rowing). Big boats with many rowers, like galleys for example, are known to have been used in races before the 1st century BC. Later on they were substituted by smaller boats with three to eight rowers. Rowing contests were particularly popular in Athens.

The program of the first twenty four Olympic Games (684 — 116 BC) included six sport events and were a one-day contest. The XXVth Olympics, with chariot races as a new entry, lasted two days. Gradually, the number of events rose to twenty (in 468 BC), and the duration of the Games was extended to five days.

The first day saw the opening of the Games, a simple but majestic affair. The competitions were declared open upon four sounds of trumpet. The contestants, as well as the coaches and referees took an oath to Zeus of Olympia to keep to the regulations and compete fairly and honestly. Following that, they marched on in formation, with a city crier (also selected previously on a competitive basis) announcing to the spectators some information about the athletes (their names, whereabouts, the work they do, etc.). By the end of the first day sacrifices would be made to the Olympic gods.

The second day was devoted to the contests of youths in running, jumping, short lance distance and target throwing, and fisticuffs.



The third day was the great day of the Games, when adults competed in the above mentioned events.

The fourth day saw the chariot races, an elitist contest of the Games, and the running contest of athletes in armor.

The fifth day was allocated to the determination of winners, the award ceremony and performing songs in honor of the Olympic champions.

The Olympic program was not always stable, the number of events and their sequence being altered in different periods of the Olympic movement history. But the principal scheme of the Olympic competitions remained unchanged.

Several months prior to the Games, special Olympic heralds, spondophores, would inform the rulers of the Greek states and provinces about the date of the opening of the Olympic Games and announce a period of general peace in Greece for the duration of the Games. Contestants and their coaches would arrive then a month before the Games to have enough time to get acquainted with the locality and to continue their preparation. The Games in Olympia boosted its economic and cultural development, with the emergence of new trading houses, inns, and visitors from all over Hellas exchanging freely their cultural and sporting achievements.

Main buildings of ancient Olympia:

1 — Temple of Zeus; 2 — Temple of Gera; 3 — treasures; 4 — altar of Zeus; 5 — altar of Demetra; 6 — palestra; 7 — gymnasium; 8, 9, 10 — stadiums built in various times; 11 — southern grotto; 12 — Agaptos grotto; 13 — horse racing start gate; 14 — hippodrome; 15 — horse racing finish; 16 — Hippodamia statue; 17 — lodgings of horse racing referees; 18 — guest house; 19, 20 — baths; 21 — Phidias studio; 22 — Niphea (H. Andronicos, 1993)

Olympic Games Competitions, Determination of Winners and Olympic Award Ceremonies

Olympic Games originated in the period when all power in Ancient Greece was vested in aristocracy, who considered the perfection of body and spirit to be their inherent and exclusive right. Accordingly, from the very beginning of the Olympic history, slaves, aliens, and all those who did not enjoy all rights of a free citizen had been banned from competing in the Games. Even following the establishment of democratic governments in the Greek city-states, the Olympics remained to be elitist. One of the reasons was that few people, even enjoying every civil right in the country, could afford time and money needed for training sessions in palaestrae and gymnasiums, travel and accommodation expenses in Olympia

in a month-long preparation for and competing in the Games. But with the flow of time, particularly in the 4th century BC, the Olympic Games hosted also athletes from the middle and lower walks of Greek society, as well as Greek speaking residents of regions from outside the territory of Ancient Greece.

Athletes-aristocrats, who had dominated the first Olympics, did not quit the stage, as some literary sources indicate. Affirmations that they gradually left the Olympic sports are no more than a myth. According to another myth, aristocrats left the difficult and "bloody" sport events to the common people, sticking instead to track and field events (H. Pleket, 1922). Following the conquest of Greece by the Roman Empire, Romans also became eligible to compete in the Olympic Games, the first Roman to win the coveted award being Geos, champion of the 177th Olympic Games in 72 BC. Athletes from Asia Minor and Alexandria also entered the Olympics at that time.

The Olympic Games were held in honor of Zeus the Thunderer, the supreme Olympic god. It was against the effective Greek laws of the time for married women to attend any festivities held in his honor, including the Olympic Games. The only woman who had the right to watch the contests was the priestess of Demetra, the goddess whose sanctuary was also in Olympia. Later on, women owners of chariots and horses were allowed to compete in the Olympic chariot races, the first woman to do so being Kiniska, the wife of Agesilaos, King of Sparta, in the 6th century BC. In 288 BC, a certain Bekisticha of Macedonia won the foal-harnessed chariot race.

Athletes used to train and compete naked, although initially they used to do so in loin-clothes, nakedness being considered a disgrace. There are several versions explaining why this tradition of naked performance had come about. According to one of those, loin-clothes had been canceled in 720 BC, following an incident when a runner lost his loin-clothes but continued running to win the race. There is an even more fascinating version to that effect, though. It is well known that women were not allowed to attend the Games. However, Kallipethyra, daughter of Diagor, a noted Olympian from Rhodes, dreamed of the same fame for her son and wanted to witness his Olympic success by all means. Therefore, she disguised herself as a coach and made her way into the spectator stands. When her son did win, the happy mother, forgetting all fears, ran onto the stadium, but in the ensuing mayhem her clothes were torn and the secret was out. The judges took into account her father's merits and did not punish the ambitious mother. However, in order to avoid another incident like

that in the future, they decided that from then on athletes and coaches were to appear naked in the Olympic Games.

Some historians attribute the above tradition to the Spartan influence, for both young men and girls of Sparta used to appear in festive processions, do athletic exercises and dance with no clothes on. There is more reason to suggest, however, that nakedness of athletes, whose competitive exertions took a lot of energy and effort, may have followed the labor traditions of the ancient plowman, whom Vergilius had recommended that it was best "to plow naked and to scatter seeds naked". Whatever the origin of competing while naked, this tradition must have suited best the sculptors, who thus were able to contemplate as much as they could want the human body, the poses of runners, discus and javelin throwers, wrestlers, as well as their motions and the flexing of muscles, and then to leave for posterity various episodes of the contests in their sculptures (L. Winniczuk, 1983).

Initially there were two judges at the Games, which was perfectly sufficient, as the program then included only one event, the one-stadium running. But their number rose with the program expansion. Thus, in 400 BC (the 95th Olympics) there were nine judges, but after the division of Greece into twelve provinces in 372 BC, each of the provinces appointed their own judge, thereby bringing their number to twelve. But when subsequently the number of provinces shrank to eight, there were likewise only eight judges left. In 348 BC it was decided to select ten Olympic judges, and, as far as one can see from historic evidence, this number remained unchanged until the end of the ancient Olympic Games period.

There existed a definite procedure for staging every sports event. Here is how Lucian describes the draw prior to the beginning of the wrestling competitions: "Small bean-size lots were put into a silver mug, dedicated to God. Every two lots were marked with the same letter of the Greek alphabet (alpha, beta, gamma, etc.). Each of the athletes would put his hand into the mug and draw a lot. Next to each of them there stood an official with a whip, who was holding the athlete by the hand thus preventing him from seeing the letter on his lot. When all the wrestlers had drawn their lots, one of the *Hellaniotai* (judges) would inspect their draws. Those with Alpha-marked lots were to begin the contest. If there was an odd number of participants, one of the lots was marked with a different, non-paired letter, and added to the ones in the mug. The athlete who drew this lot was to wait until the paired athletes finished their bouts. He had an advantage over the others because he would fight fresh against an already tired opponent".

There were no problems with determining winners in running, jumping, chariot races and throwing, as there were obvious and objective criteria in those events, whereas in fisticuffs, pancratium and wrestling there were certain complications and the rules were constantly updated. In these events the winner was to gain a clear advantage over all competitors.

In ancient Olympics records were not registered, as it was impossible to define precisely the time of running the distance and compare the results, whereas the word "record", originating from the Latin *recordari*, means "to remain in one's memory". Therefore, Greeks must have resorted to other means to immortalize and glorify Olympic winners, like odes, hymns, sculpture, etc.

Those athletes, who inflicted lethal injuries on their opponents, were banished by judges from the stadiums, and their victories were annulled. But such decisions were not always recognized at the athletes' home place, where they were often treated as heroes.

Agonistics in Ancient Greece was the mainstay of the popularity and success of the Olympic Games and other local major competitions. The ancient Greeks craved to be the best in everything. In modern Olympics one can see silver and bronze medalist on the rostrum standing next to the champion. Besides, an important philosophy underlying modern Olympic Games is that "the main point is competing, rather than winning". Ancient Greeks did not dare even to think of this possibility. There was only one winner in ancient Olympic events, all the runner-ups being seen as losers. According to Pindar, losers were "upset by their failure to win, they would cringe and run away out of sight of the winners".

Competing in the Olympic Games for anything else but victory would be considered blasphemy in Ancient Greece. This striving for victory found its reflection in the common Greek names. For instance, Nikandros, Nikanor, and Nikator come from *nike* (victory); Aristotle, Aristides, and Aristophanes from *aristos* (the best); and Protigor, Proteus, and Protogenes from *protos* (the first).

Four major competitions of Ancient Greece were directly associated with the cults of certain gods and, accordingly, were held to be sacred. These were the cult of Zeus in Olympia; the cult of Apollo in Delphi (the Pythian Games); the cult of Poseidon in Isthmia (the Isthmian Games); and the cult of Zeus in Nemeia (the Nemeian Games). Whenever an athlete gained victories in all the four sacred competitions, he was celebrated as "winner of the cycle", as a hero, whose name would be held in admiration for many years to come.

Victories in the Olympic Games were seen by

the Greeks as a sign of Gods' favor to athletes and their native cities. The upcoming Olympics were given the name of an absolute winner in the preceding Games. Champions were crowned in the temple of Zeus with an olive branch cut with a golden knife in the Sacred Grove of Olympia. Diaklysos, the running champion, was the first winner to be awarded such an olive wreath in 752 BC at the Games of the 7th Olympics. The Olympic wreath, hanged by the champion at home, brought him honor and fame both in his town and in the state, as well as respect of his compatriots to his family.

Prizes were awarded by judges. During the Games three refereeing boards were set up for pentathlon, chariot races and for the other events. At the end of the Games the referees made their decisions, announced the results, the name of the winner and the city he had come from. Olympic champions were empowered to leave the promised gifts on the altar of Zeus in the Sacred Grove and to mount a statue on his behalf, which represented allegorically the sports event in which he excelled; besides, he was given the right to immortalize his name in the Olympic history by imprinting it on the statue. The greatest honor was to be allowed for the statue to bear resemblance to the image of the Olympic champion who had been crowned with an olive wreath. Initially, such statues used to be made of wood, and subsequently they came to be made of stone and bronze. Sometimes the statues were made by famous sculptors who came to the Games to work there. One can name in this respect the well-known workshop of Phidias in Olympia. It is assumed that in most cases the sculptors did not bother about any resemblance and created instead idealized images to retain memory of the Olympic victory. Not infrequently, the artist did not even know the winner in person, although his task was to save his image in the annals of history, and relied only on a verbal description of the champion. The tradition to create a statue of three-time winners in Olympia came in later times. It should be remembered that until the 5th century BC the Greeks viewed the victory in the Olympic Games as a sign of the divine favor rather than a manifestation of the individual skills and abilities of an Olympian (L. Winniczuk, 1983).

In Sparta Olympic champions were glorified in their own, military way: they were allowed to fight in wars shoulder to shoulder with their King. After 500 BC in Athens, however, the Olympic winners were awarded an additional sum of money.

Among the Olympians of antiquity the most successful athletes were Leonidas from Rhodes, who gained twelve victories (164 — 152 BC) in sta-

diodrome, diaulos and running in full armor; Hermogenos of Xanthos with eight victories (81 — 89 BC); and Astylos of Kroton with seven wins (488 — 476 BC) in the same events.

On his return home, the Olympic winner received pecuniary gifts and was granted a pension. In addition, festivals used to be staged in his honor. Sometimes towns would make a passage for their Olympionics in the town wall, as if saying that the town, which is a home place of an Olympics winner needed no other fortifications. Statues were also built on such occasions, but the statue was allowed to bear resemblance to the athlete only if he was a three-time winner of the Olympics.

Winners of the Olympic Games were not forgotten during wars, either. Thus, it is known that Doriseum of Sparta, an Olympic champion in pancratium, was taken prisoner in a 407 BC battle with Athenians, but was released forthwith without paying any ransom. Alexander the Great, too, ordered the release of Dionysidore upon finding out that he was an Olympionic. When Philip, the Olympic champion, was killed during a battle in Sicily, the Sicilians buried him and even built a tomb in his honor.

It should be mentioned, however, the mixed feeling as relates athletes, particularly heavyweights, as can be seen in literature and art. They were often caricatured on jugs and pitches, with huge bellies and the appearance of a fool. Here is what Gallen wrote about them: "During exercises they exert more efforts than needed, and force themselves to eat. Often they eat at night. They wake up when other return home after work; their way of life resembles that of a swine, with the only difference that the latter does not exert efforts that exceed its capabilities..." Euripides had almost the same impression: "Among the numerous troubles destroying Greece none is doing more harm than the breed of athletes. Above all, they are unable to and do not learn to lead a decent life. How can a person of such high social standing be a slave of his stomach! Furthermore, I criticize the Greek tradition to organize huge demonstrations and honor useless voracity."

Side by side with the statues of the Olympic winners in the Sacred Grove of Olympia, they used to put statues with the names of athletes, who had broken their oath and tarnished their image by dishonesty in competition, carved in stone for posterity. Such violators were to pay heavy fines, which did not go to the state treasury, but were used instead to put up statues with the names of the wrongdoers on their pedestals.

Fouls and infringements of Olympic regulations were a frequent occurrence starting the 4th centu-

ry BC on, especially with the deterioration of the political situation in Greece. The Greek way of life, their traditions and customs underwent significant changes under the impact of other nations and states. Athletes from Alexandria and Smyrna came to compete in the Olympic Games. In 385 BC an Armenian ruler was among the Olympic winners. With time, the Greek agonistics lost its traditional character and its relations to the ideals of valor and virtue. Agonistics deteriorated into a realm of contests for professional dancers, musicians, actors and also athletes striving for money rather than a modest but honorary wreath. The symbolic honors of the past Olympics came to be scorned, just like Lucian's Anakharkis of Scythia had done. Consequently, the ideals of fair play and a noble contest were rapidly becoming a thing of the past.

It should be mentioned, too, that many other problems peculiar to modern sports, such as injuries, fanaticism, sport and private life, etc., were not alien to the Olympic sports of Ancient Greece.

It is known that the first athlete to violate the Olympic rules was a certain Eupoles from Thasos, who bribed three fisticuffs opponents in 388 BC. They were all made to pay fines. Half a century later, however, Kallipides of Athens resorted to bribery to win in pentathlon. In both instances, the fines paid for six Zeus statues which were erected in Olympia.

An ugly incident without precedent was registered later in the Olympic Games of 92 BC. Apollonius from Alexandria, Egypt, was expelled from the Games for being late to arrive. He produced various plausible causes of this delay, until his fellow-townsmen Herakleides came up with the truth. Apollonius was late because on his way to Olympia he took part in another competition for the sake of a reward. The winner's wreath was awarded to Herakleides, whereupon, blind with rage, Apollonius attacked the winner, leather belt around his knuckles. A heavy fine was imposed on Apollonius, but note should be made, however, that incidents like competing for money were no longer a rarity in that epoch.

The residents of Hellas were proud of the fact that none of their athletes had violated the sanctified regulations of the Olympic Games. However, in 12 BC their compatriot named Damonicus tarnished his name and the unblemished image of the town. He bribed his son's opponent, or, more likely, his opponent's father, to clear the way to victory for his son. Both fathers were punished as a result. Finally, mention should be made of another incident, when a certain athlete was in such an awe of his wrestling opponent from Alexandria, that he fled Olympia on the eve of their bout and

was subsequently fined, too. This way, the ethical and cultural foundations of the ancient Greek agonistics were being gradually falling apart (W. Winniczuk, 1983).

Athletes in Training for the Olympic Games

In the literature about sports in Ancient Greece little attention is paid to the analysis of athletic training. Greek coaches, however, through practice, must have worked out a sufficiently consistent system of preparation for the Olympic Games and other major competitions. Their system was based on the principles of selection and orientating talented athletes in particular events depending on their prowess and indices of physique. The motor training methods included practicing separate movements first, and the complete motion last, as well as differentiating the moves into primary and secondary. They elaborated an efficient system of developing certain physical qualities, like strength, endurance, adroitness. Even in those times, there were training periods, with the four-year Olympic cycle as the ultimate goal of all preparation, as well as four-day cycles (tetrads) of training as its major component.

Philostrate described the tetrad as a "four-day cycle of different types of day-to-day activities. The first day was for preparation. During the second day, training was at its most intense, decreasing gradually in day three, while in the fourth day training was of moderate (medium) intensity. Exercises of the first day included short and fast vigorous movements to condition the organism and prepare athletes for intensive efforts; the maximum tension at the peak gave strength to the athlete's body under great strain; in the third day the exercises were meant to relax the muscles, while on the last day athletes practiced faints and ways to stop an opponent when he would try to avoid any holds".

Gradual professionalization of sports, particularly obvious in Hellas beginning from the 5th century BC, helped to constantly improve the organization and methods of athletic training. Prior to arriving in Olympia for Olympic Games, athletes went through ten-month training in gymnasiums under professional guidance of coaches. It was a systematic, regular and strenuous schedule, which included not only purely sporting input (tactics, techniques, methods to develop certain skills and qualities), but also medical data (injury prevention and treatment, special diets, massage sessions, etc.).

In ancient times athletes used to compete in several sports in the first Olympic Games, capitaliz-

ing on their natural qualities and a short and non-systematic period of preparation. The progressing professionalism of sports, however, gave rise to a rather narrow specialization of athletes who were striving to attain perfection in one particular sports event. Well-trained athletes could compete in the Olympic Games, as well as in other Pan-Hellenic competitions and other prize contests.

In various events, a special system of training was mastered in every detail through selecting and perfecting the most efficient means and methods of athletic preparation. In boxing and pancratium, for example, athletes used in training leather bags filled with sand, flour or wheat to practice different strokes and punches. Such bags were streamlined in weight and positioning, depending on the event, physical peculiarities of athletes and the qualities they wanted to develop and perfect. In training with bags there were different exercises performed to improve strength, precision of punches, coordination and balance, as well as stamina. Ancient athletes knew full well that to win the Olympic Games, they needed to undergo strenuous training and quit the habitual way of life. Here is what Epistete had to say to athletes: "Do you want to win the Olympic Games? Very well, then, go on and do it. But you should submit to strict discipline, diet, forget about pies; you will have to train in the heat and in the cold, abstain from cold water and wine. You will depend on the coach as if he were your physician. You can sprain your arm and have your leg wrenched, as well as swallow loads of sand. Think of this, and then go in for sports".

Training was particularly strenuous a month before the Games. Coaches often resorted to the rod to discipline their charges. Intensive training was combined with a rigorous regime of rest and diet, which differed from event to event.

Athlete preparation also included acquaintance with a bit of medicine, like development of respiratory and circulatory systems, hygiene basics, various types of massage and special diets. Besides, attention was paid to psychological training of athletes as well, which was considered an important component in the system.

Massage was widely used for training, preparation for competitions, and for recuperation. Galen, who worked with athletes in the 2nd century AD, wrote this about the benefits and applications of massage: "Anybody who begins exercises without a preliminary massage, runs the risk of ruptures or strains, as well as short breath. Instead, one should have the body massaged before the exercises, warming up the body first by rubbing on it with a flax towel and then applying oil. The oil should be applied only on the warmed up body, when the pores are open and the body is ready to absorb the

oil. To achieve this, it is enough to massage the body with circular motions, neither too fast nor too slow. If done so, the skin will turn slightly reddish, whereupon the oil is to be spread by hand neither too roughly nor too gently". Besides this type of preparatory massage, they used a recuperation massage to relax the muscles and remove fatigue. To achieve this, Gallen recommended: "First, the body should turn pink after manual rubbing by a rough flax towel, from the upper arms to the wrists; then the same is to be applied to the chest and the stomach, with more power applied to the legs..."

In antiquity, Greeks considered warm baths and bath-houses harmful for athletes, as they relaxed too much and could lose their competitive edge. Hot water was thought to take a toll of the athletes preparedness and fitness. But this attitude was changed in the Hellenic-Roman period, beginning from the 1st century BC. Under the Roman influence, bath-houses became increasingly important for athletes in their preparations.

Note should be made of the negative assessment by ancient Greeks of excessive training and participation in competitions. For instance, Euripides noted that monotonous special diets did not assist in the normal life of athletes. Hippocrates also used to say that unvaried training and diet could be dangerous for human organism and lead to its degradation. Excessive muscles violated symmetry of the body and led to physical destabilization, which resulted in underdevelopment and weakening of other physical characteristics.

Athletes were coached by professional teachers in gymnasiums. According to the available literary monuments, such teachers (coaches) taught young athletes sports techniques, gave instructions in performing exercises and competing in contests. Accordingly, their clothes were fixed on the shoulder only, for them to shed the clothes and immediately aid their students. The coach was to speak naturally and convincingly because "otherwise, — as Philostrate put it, — the exercise loses its power". Coaches were to know everything about training: massage, diets, hygiene, medicine. He should also be a good physiognomist to be able to spot the temper and character of the athlete, as well as to control his state. According to Aristotle, the teacher, like a physician, could not act without common sense. His methods were to suit the nature of the athlete, as different persons needed different intensity and methods of training.

In Ancient Greece, there existed a tradition of well-known athletes becoming coaches as a rule. Although the qualifications of coaches was principally founded on their personal experience, some of them wrote books on training methods, special diets, methods of massage and on other problems

pertaining to athletic exercises. The coaches were professionals, like sculptors, architects and actors. They worked on private contracts or under contracts with municipalities. In the 2nd century AD gymnasiums started to hire physicians, who often helped to train athletes, in addition to their direct professional duties.

There was also specialization of teacher-coaches who took part in training athletes. They were *gymnastis*, *petropedes* and *alipetes*, depending on the functions and responsibilities performed. *Gymnastis* developed training programs for athletes, *petropedes* implemented them, and *alipetes* prepared athletes for training sessions and contests, massaging and oiling their bodies.

The names of some of these coaches came down to the modern period. Ikios of Toronto, the pentathlon champion, made a famous coach and wrote a book, in which the central subjects were such important components of athletic preparation as diet and day-to-day schedule of life. Herodic of Selimbria, another coach, gained fame by combining athletic training and medicine, and testing various methods first on himself, and then on other athletes.

Crisis Phenomena in Ancient Greek Sports and the End of the Olympic Games

Beginning from the 5th — 4th centuries BC, the Olympic Games of Ancient Greece were gradually losing their religious nature, and gaining significance as spectacular events meant to bring fame to the city-states and their rulers. The number of athletic festivals was always rising, so that many other competitions were to be seen in between the Olympic Games. The festivals were generously funded, and in addition to the traditional events (like running, pancratium, etc.), more spectacular events came to be included in their programs: chariot races, horse racing, and torch bearers racing.

Among the participants of the Olympic Games of that period were athletes from many Mediterranean states, and even from Asia. Previous restrictions were lifted, thereby making it possible for aliens and the poor to compete in the Games. The winners were awarded sizable pecuniary prizes and valuables, as well as material privileges in their home towns. With the flow of time, the Olympic ideals were gradually diluted by commercialism and luxury of the Games, to the extent that Olympic sports were turning more and more professional.

Eventually, athletics came to be aimed at winning, victories bringing fame, profit and various

perks. Educational purposes were being pushed away to the background, which was ultimately one of the reasons for sports fading into oblivion in Ancient Greece. This was justifiably emphasized, for instance, by H. J. Marrion (1950): "I have already pointed how prominent a place was allotted to athletic practices among the priorities of the ancient culture. Excessive honors, however, proved fatal for sports. Just like in modern times, sports popularity and glorification of champions, the overriding striving for a win in major international competitions laid the ground for professionalism. This is how amateur athletes grew into something exceptional. Intense competitiveness and the fighting spirit were the main criterion in selecting the best, highly skilled athletes. Sports had finally turned into a profession, which in no way differed from all other professions".

American historian H. Gardiner (1979) described well the crisis of the Olympic spirit in Ancient Greece: "The popularity of athleticism, the increased number of competitions and prizes to be won, have totally changed the nature of sports. Instead of spontaneous, sports turned to be organized. This brought both positive and negative results: the organization of competitions got unquestionably better, but sports had lost its meaning as pure leisure and a thing of the past. The pleasure was gone".

The professionalization of sports in Ancient Greece was not accidental; it was a direct result of political, economic and social life factors, which underlay the gradual transformation of sports and a revision of sporting values and ideals.

According to numerous documents, the Olympic champions were awarded huge prizes (between 3,000 and 6,000 drachmas), which could sustain a family of three or four for five and even ten years (H. Pleket, 1992).

The crisis of ancient Olympic sports was even more acute following the Roman conquest of the Greek states in 146 BC. The loss of independence led to various political, economic and social changes in the life of the Greek society, which took a huge toll of their sports. Many competitions were to be scrapped, and interest to sports was greatly lost. The significance of the Olympic Games also took a dive. And again, as at the inception, the Games became mostly local.

Gymnasiums, however, kept on functioning in Ancient Greece, and not only as the preservations of sporting values and ideals, but as spiritual strongholds and the centers of national and cultural heritage. The Olympic Games carried on as before. They were not banned by Romans, although attempts had been made to stage them in Rome.

Ultimately, many Roman officials in Ancient

Greece became adherents of the revival of various local and regional competitions and proponents of constructing new stadiums and gymnasiums. Thus, the popularity and significance of the ancient festivals of Olympic Games had also been restored.

Roman Emperor Augustus (30 — 14 BC) paid considerable attention to the Olympic Games. Further on, Emperor Nero (54 — 68 AD) was also keen on the Olympics and had even participated in one of them, the 211th Games. Olympia once again became a prosperous city, Romans, Africans and Asians competing in the Olympic Games side by side with Greeks.

Yet the Olympic ideals of antiquity deteriorated even more during the Roman period. In spite of the efforts of some Roman Emperors, who sympathized with the Olympic values of the ancient Greeks, to favor the development of sports, they fell on deaf ears, for the Romans could not fathom the essence of the Olympic ideals. Contests grew brutal, especially boxing, wrestling and pancratium. Moreover, under the influence of Rome, the program of competitions began to include gladiator bouts and fights against wild animals. The first athletic unions emerged at that period, too. They were financed and patronized by Emperors themselves. Union members competed in various contests, their principal adversaries being members of other professional unions.

Naturally, the organization and rivalry of professional unions improved athletic skills, perfected training schedules, and facilitated implementation of progressive methods and techniques in practice. At the same time, professional sports further diluted the Olympic ideals and values. Sports more and more moved away from its mythological roots, and broke natural ties with other spheres of life.

According to the available historic data, records of Olympic champions ceased to be kept in 267 AD. Since that time through to 361 AD, no monuments have been found to prove any athletic competitions had been held in that period. It was only in 369 and 373 AD that there emerged some records about Thiuomenos of Philadelphia, Asia Minor, who placed first in wrestling, and about the last Olympic champion Varazdath, King of Armenia, who won the wrestling competition of the 291st Olympic Games in 385 AD.

The fate of the Olympic Games was sealed in the period between 392 and 395 AD, so we are not certain whether the last Games could have been held as late as 389 AD. The edict of 392 AD, signed by Emperor Theodosius I and his sons, severely condemned the pagan traditions, such as sacrifices to the pagan gods and spirits, fortune-telling on the animals' internal organs, and other rites.

Observance of the habits from the past centuries was declared a most serious offense, on a par with treason. The tradition of the Olympic Games could also have been banned, for they were known to be dedicated to Zeus and to be opened with sacrifices. But why could the Games not been continued, since they had been freed of the pagan and religious element and in view of the fact that Emperor Theodosius I did not, in principle, oppose athletic competition, as well as given the Antiochia Games, also called Olympic, which continued until 520 AD?

Probably the Emperor did not venture to abolish the popular sporting festival in Antiochia for fear of the riots in that populous and rich city of independent spirit. Olympia, on the other hand, was far away from major cities, and there was no danger of upheavals in the absence of permanent residents there. To stop the Games, it would suffice, instead of a special edict, to prohibit athletes and spectators to stay for long where they had used to during the previous Olympics. The Games could also have been canceled simply for lack of money. The province of Olympia, populated mainly by shepherds, was one of the poorest in Ancient Greece. By that time the Games funds had long fallen into the hands of the local Roman administrators or the Christian church. The organizers of the Olympic Games had often been saddled with financial problems long before the end of the 4th century AD, so that the famous Games were more than once expected to be called off (Winniczuk, 1983).

Numerous causes for the Games to founder and be stopped are also suggested by Professor H. Pleket of Norway (1992), who wrote: "I believe the demise of the Olympic Games was accounted for by the decline of the urban life and the financial difficulties in the Roman Empire late in the 3rd century BC. The Games went on, but they attracted less and less spectators. It should be noted that the list of the Games winners was practically stopped after 277 AD. That period (260 — 270 AD) was marked by a big inflation of the Roman money. I tried to prove in my article "The Olympic Benefactors" that the Olympic officials in Hellas had relied upon donations of rich foreigners, kings and members of aristocratic families from different

Greek cities. Later on, those cities, where aristocracy had come from, were taxed by Romans to cover their ever increasing military expenses. As a result, the funds of Greece had been drained, which was the cause of the decline of all sports, the Olympic Games in particular. Beginning from the 4th century AD, the coach in gymnasiums turned into a kind of a physician, whose responsibilities included "repairing" broken limbs and rendering first aid. The rest was taken care of by the Christian disregard for the body, physical culture and athletic competitions. It is difficult to say, what was the main thing to bring down Olympics: poor economy, absence of financial support for gymnasiums, athletes and the Games, changes in mentality or attacks on sports by Christianity. Chaotic society and public turmoil must have destroyed both the material basis of ancient sports and belief in sports. Christianity ruined the pagan faith. And, although Europe has a lot of credit to give to Christianity, this religion also perpetrated one infamous deed by destroying mass-scale sports practiced by athletes and numerous fans in ancient times. The prohibition of the Olympic Games by Emperor Theodosius merely accelerated and completed the process which had begun long before the edict".

The battle of 395 AD between Byzantine and Gothic troops on the banks of the Alpheos in Olympia destroyed or badly damaged the sports facilities and other buildings, which had been used in the Olympic Games. The destruction of Olympia was completed by powerful earthquakes in the 6th century AD and by burning down the pagan temples on the order of Emperor Theodosius II (426 AD). Further on, Olympia was buried under a thick layer of sand and silt after the great flood of the Alpheos and Kladeos rivers.

The idea of studying ancient Olympia is believed to have been suggested first by Don Bernard de Montfaucone of France in his "Paleography of Greece" (1707). Yet the first excavations were started in Olympia in 1824 by Lord Stankof, the British archeologist. As a result of the excavations, a plan of ancient Olympia had been made up, which was constantly updated after subsequent expeditions. This made it possible to recreate a most authentic map of the ancient Olympia.

REVIVAL OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES

Baron Pierre de Coubertin, the famous French figure of enlightenment, is justifiably considered to be the initiator of the modern Olympic movement. His lasting and purposeful activities had allowed to revive the Olympic Games and to turn the Olympic movement into a significant component of the life of the world community. Many experts quite reasonably associate the revival of modern Olympic Games with the development of the international athletic movement and the establishment of international sports organizations in various sporting events in the second half of the 19th century. It should be noted, however, that attempts to restore the Olympic ideas and to breath a new life into the Olympic Games had been made long before the project of P. de Coubertin.

Attempts to Revive the Olympic Games

There is an argument (by L. Coon, 1982) that the idea of the Olympic Games had been returned to public circulation by Mateo Palmieri (1405 — 1475), an outstanding Italian statesmen of Renaissance, at the time when there emerged a tendency to revert to the ideas of antiquity. From then on, prominent politicians, educators, physicians, playwrights and philosophers gave special attention to ancient Greek sports. The first known attempt to organize competitions, similar to the ancient Olympics, was made by Englishman Robert Dover early in the 17th century. "The Olympic Games" held in his manor during Whitsundays used to attract many spectators. The program included wrestling, fencing, field hockey, jumping, stick combat and hammer or javelin throwing. These games were described in detail by poets M. Dryton and B. Johnson (1636), portraying R. Dover, the strongman, as another Heracles (P. Graham, 1976). The article "Olympiads in England" by A. Robins (1908) treated of sports festivals (even then called 'the Olympic Games'), which were frequently held in the 17th-century England.

Gilbert West (1703 — 1756) from England, whose doctorate subject was history of Olympic Games, is considered to be the first serious researcher of Olympic sports in Ancient Greece. He made an in-depth analysis of Olympic ideas and appealed for a rebirth of the Olympic Games.

G. West was an ardent proponent of the competitions, held since 1604 and called 'Olympic Games', as they had gained popularity and by later had been discontinued.

Attempts to restore athletic competitions in the Olympic vein were also undertaken in North America. In 1779, member of the US Congress M. Dryton proposed to stage athletic festivities with fireworks, similar to the Olympic Games of the ancient Greeks, to celebrate Independence Day in the USA. But his opponent H. Lawrence, also a congressman, stressed in reply that "the Olympic Games and other stupid things had brought the downfall of Greece". "The Olympic Games" organized by Dr. W. Brooks in the middle of the 19th century in the town of Wenlock, USA, proved to be a hallmark of sports history. The Games pentathlon champion was awarded a silver coffee-pot, sent by the King of Greece for the occasion.

In the opinion of many historians, the idea of a restoration of the Olympic Games was put forward in 1793 by Johann K. F. Guts-Muts, a German advocate of the theory and practice of physical education, who had drawn the attention of his contemporaries to the heritage of ancient Greeks, and their Olympic Games in particular.

The issue of reviving the Olympic Games was raised many times during the 19th century, when different countries (Sweden, Canada and some others) made attempts to stage various competitions under the name of "Olympic Games", in the spirit of the Games of antiquity, to resort to the cultural heritage of Ancient Greece.

Greece also made attempts to stage a comeback of the Olympics. After liberation of the country from the Turkish yoke in 1832, there were appeals to return to the ideas of the Olympic

Games through national competitions. Yet they had never come through as originally envisaged.

In 1858, E. Tsappas, the Greek Army major and a very active person with great wealth (1800 — 1865), suggested to the King of Greece to give a fresh start to the tradition of the Olympic Games. He established an Olympic Foundation and built a spacious hall for athletic competitions. The Royal Decree set up an Organizing Committee for the games, which were given the name of "Pan-Hellenic Olympics" and were timed to coincide with the Industrial and Agricultural Exhibition to be held in Athens in 1859. The program included short and long distance running, jumping, wrestling, the discus and javelin throw, horse-racing, rope climbing and a teams' tug-of-war events. Among the contestants were athletes from Greece, Asia Minor, Egypt and Cyprus. King Otton I of Greece awarded laurel wreaths and pecuniary prizes to the winners of this competition. Thereafter, the Olympic Games, which were planned for 1863 had to be scrapped following the King's death and the ensuing political instability in the country. But later on the Games were successfully held in 1870, 1875, 1888 and 1889 (P. Graham, 1976).

Credit is also due to be given to the efforts of A. Cooper, a staunch supporter of the Olympic ideas, who put forward an idea in 1891 to organize the "Anglo-Saxon Olympics" for the countries of the British Empire and America. The idea found support in England, Australia, Canada, and South Africa.

In fact, none of the above mentioned "Olympic Games" turned into national, let alone international, competitions of any regularity. As P. Coubertin put it, "those attempts to revive the Olympics had been premature and futile".

The idea of continuing Olympism, however, was also supported by historical and archeological research. The first attempts to start excavations of Ancient Greece Olympic sites in the 18th century did not meet with success, though.

But in 1829, a French government expedition succeeded in unearthing the remains of local buildings and quite a few exhibits of tremendous artistic and historical value. There were also a number of privately funded expeditions, whose results, although less significant, were important, as they had caught the eye of the general public and aroused willingness to conduct a more thorough research into the history of the ancient Olympics.

Enormous excavation efforts in and around Olympia were undertaken by Ernst Curtius (1814 — 1896), an archeologist who happened to be an advocate of the Olympic ideas. At different times (but particularly in the period between 1875 and

1896), he made important discoveries relating to the Olympic Games of Ancient Greece, in spite of the thick layer of river sediments, which hampered his excavations. Both his work and pronouncements about the Olympic Games gave a boost to the development of the Olympic ideas. As E. Curtius propounded in one of his scientific reports, "... even if God has other commandments the world over, which make for a loftier peace than the Olympic truce, even then Olympia will remain a sacred land for us. We ought to bring to our world, glittering with brighter lights, the majestic ancient culture, selfless patriotism, willingness to give sacrifice for the sake of art, and the joy of contest, surpassing any other power of life".

Besides, an important role in the revival of the Olympic Games was played by national systems of physical education and the sports movement, which were being developed in the 17th and the 18th centuries. The Olympic ideas came natural to those systems in Germany (I. Bezedov, K. Zaltsmann, I. Guts-Muts, et al.), England (T. Arnold, D. Lock, G. Spencer), France (J.-J. Rousseau, D. Amorose, G. Demeny), Sweden (P. Ling, P. Lidbek, J. Ling), Czechoslovakia (M. Tir, I. Fugner), and Russia (E. A. Pokrovsky, E. M. Dementyev, P. F. Lesgaft).

The revival of the Olympic Games was greatly helped by the expansion of various sports in the second half of the 19th century and by staging major international competitions. For instance, the First World Championship in swimming (440 yards) was held in Sydney, Australia, in 1846, where the winner was W. Redman. In 1858 Australia hosted yet another Swimming World Championship (110 yards), where Australian Joe Benneth beat Englishman Charles Stadman.

Beginning from the 50's of the past century, Holland started to stage major international competitions in speed skating, with athletes from America, Denmark, England, Holland, Norway, Russia, watched by 20 — 30 thousand spectators.

Competitions were started in other events, too. For example, major shooting competitions were staged in Buda, Hungary, in 1871 for the best shots from Austria and Hungary, the USA, Germany, Turkey, Switzerland. The first Wimbledon tennis tournament on grass courts was held in 1877 in England, with international field of participants. The first speed skating World Championship was held in Amsterdam in 1889. Track and field European championships took off in 1897, while the European championships in rowing were started in 1893.

In order to manage sports development, active formation of national and international bodies was launched, with unions, federations, leagues spring-

ing up in various countries. To cite just a few, there emerged such bodies as the National Baseball Federation of the USA (1858), the English Football (Soccer) League (1863). Later on, there appeared national federations in gymnastics, swimming, speed skating, yachting, wrestling, cycling, track and field, and weightlifting. Later on, many countries established their national federations in gymnastics, swimming, speed skating, yachting, wrestling, cycling, track and field and weightlifting.

The International Gymnastics Federation (FIG) was created in 1881, followed by the International Federation of Rowing Societies and the International Skaters Union in 1892. Along with federations and unions of this sort, there emerged national and international sporting associations, which were obviously influenced by the state interests, political and religious issues. But, since many of those bodies were open for a broad international cooperation in sports, their efforts could ultimately bring about the revival of the Olympic Games.

By the end of the 19th century, the idea of the Olympic revival had overwhelmed almost all members of the sports community and had been supported by a number of statesmen the world over. Few could presume at that point that this idea would be implemented by Pierre de Coubertin, French educator, since France then was not among well-developed countries in terms of sports.

Pierre de Coubertin and the Revival of the Olympic Games

The world owes the revival of modern Olympic Games to Baron Pierre de Coubertin, the historian, man of letters, the pedagogue and the sociologist.

P. de Coubertin was born on January 1, 1863 in Paris, in the family of painter Fred de Coubertin, which belonged to ancient French nobility. In childhood he was keen on riding, fencing and rowing. At the age of 12, he read a book "School years of Tom Brown", which impressed and drew him to the issues of physical education. In his childhood Coubertin visited Italy, Germany, Austria, Switzerland with his parents. In adolescence he made a few visits of England and was greatly impressed by the philosophy of Thomas Arnold, one of the proponents of the English school of physical education. Coubertin attended a Paris lyceum, and then entered Paris University, obtaining a Bachelor's degree in Arts, Science and Law there. He continued his education at the Free School of Political Sciences in Paris, majored in French philosophy and history of English educa-



Charles Herbert of Great Britain (left) and William Sloane of the USA (right), who had played an important part in the rebirth of the Olympic Games

tion. He was greatly influenced by Caron, Professor of Arts and Rhetoric, who taught Greek and history of Ancient Greece and the Roman Empire.

The views of Coubertin, undoubtedly, were formed under the impact of the political developments in Europe and, particularly, the defeat of France by Prussia. It was the period of the decline of France as a great power. The German nation emerged on the world arena, and its education system proved its superiority.

The American historian of the Olympic Games Bill Henry (1981) described that period of Coubertin's life as follows: "The time when the young Coubertin was inspired by the idea of the revival of the Olympic Games came after the war. Like many Frenchmen, he entered adult life disappointed and dissatisfied with the limited opportunities the future had to offer."

In spite of his small height, he was a person of great energy, with articulate and accurate speech and bold projects. That is how Coubertin was described by his contemporaries.

Young Coubertin saw the way for France to join the great nations through comprehensive education, and development of the best human qualities by the French nation. That is why, according to B. Henry, he turned his attention to Great Britain, the country which was still running the immense empire. Accordingly, he set himself the task of studying the motivations of the English society, above all the pedagogic works of T. Arnold, which therefore had a decisive influence on his philosophical outlook.

Thomas Arnold (1795 — 1842) is truly considered to have founded the modern system of physical exercises. When T. Arnold was Rector of Rugby College in 1827, he was faced with a situation, which had been common to many educational institutions of England. T. Arnold came to a conclu-

sion that colleges, educating the next generation, were all in the cobweb of a contagious moral disease. All kinds of misdemeanors, hard drinking, spreading lies, the tyranny of senior students over freshmen, lack of discipline, disobedience, neglect of school rules and regulations, general laziness and idleness were to be seen everywhere. Moreover, the moral degradation of physically unfit majority went hand in hand with lack of exercises.

Fourteen years of his work at that college resulted in a principally new education system, with sports and physical education as its centerpiece. He was certain of sports being an effective means of preparing youth for adult life. The central pedagogic idea of T. Arnold was elaboration of accurate rules of athletic competitions, interrelationships of team members based on the principles of team spirit, mutual support and fair play, which were to be adhered to in an environment of organized physical education and sports. The teams of T. Arnold were organized in conformity with the ideas of self-government, a detailed system of physical education and regular competitions. Therefore, Rugby College Athletic Union teams were seen as a good example to be followed. Cricket, rowing, rugby and soccer were further complemented by swimming, fencing, boxing and other sports, tied-in with pedagogy.

In 1886 — 1887 Pierre de Coubertin published a number of articles on the issues of physical education. Unlike most of his contemporaries, he called for creating something new in this respect without blind copying the foreign example, particularly the militarized system of education founded on the German gymnastics.

In 1870's the French government, concerned about the physical preparedness of the nation, had introduced compulsory gymnastics programs in schools, based on the German tradition. Reformers demanded that the government introduce a more comprehensive overhaul of the education system drawing on the best achievements of other countries of the world. Coubertin was commissioned to investigate the structure of education in the leading countries and develop recommendations to improve the French system of education. He coped with this task and called for major alterations to be introduced in French education.

According to P. Coubertin, the principal reserve to improve the education system in France was to be a mandatory revision of the attitude to physical education as a critically important factor to improve the health of the nation. He rejected the German system of physical education as being excessively coarse and militarized, and recommended instead an improved version of the British

system based on outdoor games and recreation activity.

Through his research into motor activity and sports influence on human health, culture and education in various countries, Coubertin arrived at his own vision of sports as both a means to educate and a vehicle to develop international cooperation, strengthen peace and mutual understanding of nations. This was the result of both his investigations of physical education and sports in the late 19th century, and historic studies of this area in different countries. The closest to and consonant with Coubertin's ideas of the role of sports in society, were those of Ancient Greece, their system of athletic exercises and sports, and particularly the ancient Olympic Games.

Pierre de Coubertin submitted his Olympic idea proposal to the French government. The first step to implement it was the development of a comprehensive system of international competitions as the cornerstone of international sporting cooperation. Yet his appeal got a cold response in France, so he had to defend and advocate his ideas in other countries of Europe and in the USA.

Coubertin's project founded on the revival of Olympic Games, seemed attractive and acceptable to many national athletic federations, which were aspiring to develop various sports events, and to various government bodies interested in obtaining an additional mechanism to pursue state policy and improve the national prestige.

Coubertin recalled that his campaign to revive the Olympic Games idea had been launched on August 30, 1887, following the publication of his article, which advised the French public of the need for a more comprehensive physical education for schoolchildren and announced the establishment of the Physical Training League. In 1888 and 1889 Coubertin published two books, "Education in England" and "English Education System in France", where he laid down his ideas in more details.

On July 1, 1888 Coubertin expounded the basic principles of his idea to revive the Olympic Games at a meeting of the Physical Exercises Committee at the French Ministry of Education. All that the Committee did was to approve this idea, because their only responsibility was to ensure a basis for the Olympic Movement.

Coubertin also described his idea in his work "The 21-year-old Campaign" (1908) as follows: "Nothing in ancient history aroused as much thought and interest in me as Olympia. This was a fabulous town, which saw matters, human in content and material in its form, uplifted and sanctified by the idea of patriotism, with its source of nourishment on that soil. Time and again that town

recurred in my mind's eye, with its porticoes and colonnades. Long before the idea to revive the Olympiads became lodged in my consciousness, I had dreamt about those ruins being restored to its original sight and splendor. Germany has found the ruins of Olympia, so why could not France be the first to restore Olympia's former fame? The time has come for athletic internationalism to play its part in the world."

An active person and a skilled organizer, P. de Coubertin made a note of the futile attempts of the Greeks to stage the competitions of 1859 — 1889, and decided to rely on the most prominent sports leaders from various countries in his effort to breath new life in the Olympic Games, so that the Olympic movement acquired an international character from the very beginning. With this purpose in mind, Coubertin started extensive correspondence with specialists from different countries, organized a number of international competitions in various sports event, and visited the USA and Great Britain. Coubertin made his first trip to the United States in 1889 as a participant of the conference on physical education. In 1890 he organized an International Scientific Congress devoted to physical education in Paris. His notes about the Congress boosted Coubertin's popularity and allowed him to establish close ties with athletic organizations in the North America and Great Britain. At the same time, he was elected Secretary General of the newly created Union of Sports Societies of France. In 1892, pressing sports issues were discussed by the history-making Union Assembly held in the main conference room of Sorbonne. The subject of Coubertin's lecture was "Physical Exercises in the Modern World". It was, in fact, his first step to make sport an international phenomena, and his first public appeal to revive the Olympic Games. In the closing part of the lecture Coubertin said: "There are people who speak of avoiding wars. Those who consider them dreamers, are wrong. There are others who speak of the progressively diminishing chances of a war breaking out, and I can see no utopia there at all. It is clear that telegraph, railroads, telephone, scientific congresses and exhibitions have done more good for the world than all treaties and diplomatic agreements taken together. And I believe that sports can do even more. Those who have seen 30,000 men plodding in rain to see a soccer match will agree that I am not exaggerating. Let us export our runners and fencers: this is going to be a free trade of the future. When this day comes, becoming a custom of the old Europe, it will provide a new powerful impetus to the world peace... All of this will bring us to what I call Stage Two of our program. I hope you will help us in future just as you

did in the past, to implement this new project. I mean that, in accordance with modern life, we shall be able to revive a great and wonderful phenomenon of the Olympic Games".

Visits to the USA and England ensured the support of Coubertin by the active adherents of the Olympic Games revival, such as Dr. William Brooks, founder of Much Wenlock Olympic Society (1890) and the US National Olympic Committee (1895), William Sloane, Professor of Political Sciences at Princeton, extremely popular in the University circles, both of whom were leaders of sports development in the USA, as well as Charles Herbert, winner of numerous major running and rowing competitions in the 1870's, who went on to become an outstanding organizer of sports and an advocate of the Olympic idea and of the establishment of International Federations (D. Anthony, 1994).

Coubertin appreciated highly their activities. In particular, he wrote about Dr. Brooks in 1890 that sports had no better adherents and faithful supporters of the idea to revive the Olympic Games than W. D. Brooks, who, in spite of 82 years of age, stayed active and cheerful and did his best for the development of sporting contacts. According to Coubertin, W. Sloane did a lot to disseminate the idea of the revival of the Olympic Games at American Universities. In the first IOC bulletin, issued in 1894 in Paris, Coubertin wrote: "In the fall of 1893, I returned to the United States... In Chicago I had stayed in the luxurious Athletic Club and visited the Olympic Club in San Francisco. In all the Universities I visited, I was given a warm welcome and nowhere did the idea of the revival of the Olympic Games was received with more enthusiasm than in that country. In particular, William Sloane gave a tremendous support to the project when he gave a lunch at the New York University Club. Attendees were most receptive of the ideas of sports and history..."

Proceeding towards his goal, Coubertin was actively involved in practical matters. In October 1892, he invited the British rowing team to France (the British dominated rowing at that time). Later on, he started to prepare the French team for the rowing regatta in Henley (1893). There were three independent rowing societies in France. This brought about a lot of organizational problems, like selection of participants, who is to pay the costs, what expenses are to be reimbursed, or who are to be considered "an amateur". The charter of the two of them allowed for athletes to accept money as prizes. But Coubertin succeeded in persuading them to adopt British rules that prohibited such prizes. Rowing in England was practiced by the more well-to-do sections of society. The question

was if all members of the French team would be received in England. The British did not allow to compete both those who had accepted pecuniary prizes and athletes who were born into working class families. As a result of Coubertin's efforts, the British made certain concessions in order to avoid future complications in their relations with France. In 1890 — 1892 Coubertin and his associates were actively introducing physical education into French school programs.

From 1891 to 1894, Coubertin expanded sports exchanges and the propagation of the Olympic revival through the British-American-French union, which had been well-established by then. To get more supporters, he propagated his Olympic revival ideas in a lot of meetings with various people. For example, on the eve of one of such events in January 1894, a few months before the Congress in Sorbonne, Coubertin sent out a circular letter which said: "First of all, we need to keep up the principles of chivalry and honor, which characterized ancient sports, for it to stay in the forefront of education today, just as in Ancient Greece. Human frailty has always made attempts to turn an Olympic athlete into a paid gladiator. But these two attitudes are incompatible, and we are to make our choice... What we need is reforms, but we ought to discuss them first. This Congress will consider the compromises and contradictions in amateur sports. And the last item on the agenda is the request to approve at least, if not implement, the preparation of an international agreement to start modern Olympic Games, so that every four years sportsmen of the world could get together and the spirit of international politeness was achieved through chivalrous and peaceful contests".

According to an American historian J. Lucas, after the Assembly of the Union in Paris in 1892, Coubertin was finally convinced that it was necessary to develop the Olympic idea on the international, rather than national, level. Assisted by the British and American Athletic Unions, Coubertin set up a Committee to prepare the convocation of the IOC Founding Congress.

In 1890's Coubertin worked very closely with a Dominican priest Henry Martin Didon (1840 — 1900), Principal of the Dominican Lyceum in Paris over the last few years of his life. They tried out different sports programs in that Lyceum. Above the entrance one could read the Latin dictum "Citius. Altius. Fortius", which was later changed by Coubertin to read "Citius. Fortius. Altius" in his book "Moral Influence of Athletic Sports" (1897).

The process of revival of the Olympic Games and the creation of the IOC was greatly facilitated by a number of factors, such as the rapid progress

of means of communications and transport, which provided for the exchange of material and spiritual values between nations, the world industrial trade fairs, conferences, and the emergence of international organizations, including sporting international bodies.

Pierre de Coubertin realized that at the beginning of the 1890's there emerged objective prerequisites for the revival of the Olympic Games. This is what he wrote in his book "The Olympic Games from 776 BC to 1896": "The 19th century witnessed an increased interest in sports everywhere: in Germany at the turn of the century, in England in the 1850's, and in the United States and France in the latter part of the century. Simultaneously, the great discoveries — railways and the telegraph — helped reduce the distances and people started a new life; races began to mix, getting to know each other better, and each of them felt an urge to compare itself against other races".

The Congress of 1894 and its Role in the Olympic Movement

In January 1894 Coubertin sent invitations and the program of the Congress to many foreign clubs and personally invited W. Sloane (the USA), C. Herbert (England), W. Blank (Sweden) and F. Kemeny (Hungary) to attend the Congress. Unfortunately, his efforts had no practical support in France. There were also several refusals to attend for nationalistic reasons. But Australia and Japan sent a written confirmation of their decision to join the Founding Congress.

Some two thousand attendees gathered on June 16, 1894 in the big conference room of the University of Sorbonne in Paris. The letters of invitation had been inscribed with the title "Congress for the Revival of the Olympic Games". There were 79 delegates representing 49 athletic organizations from 12 countries, including the USA, Italy, Spain, France, Greece and Russia. P. Coubertin was full of praise for the assistance of W. Sloane and C. Herbert in organizing the Congress.

Trying to revive the Olympic Games, Coubertin drew on the history of Ancient Olympics. For the Games to serve best the modern world, he ascribed inspiration features to the ancient traditions. To this end, he developed in every detail the Games organization and procedure, and added some new features, which he thought were needed to live up to the expectations of the world community. These were the international character of the Games, inclusion of more events in the program of competitions, voluntary participation of amateurs in the Olympics, etc.

The Congress delegates worked in two sections. The first section discussed the problems of amateur sports and finally approved of Coubertin's views, who had always opposed top athletes turning into circus performers. This section were critical of the aristocratic principles of sports amateurism in England. The second section worked on the concepts of Olympism.

Prior to the opening of the Congress, Coubertin published an article "On the Revival of the Olympic Games", where he described the Olympic principles and ideals, which later on became the central issues of the Congress proceedings:

1. Modern Olympics, like the ancient festivals, are to be held every four years.

2. The renewed Games (unlike ancient Olympics) should be modern and international, their program including such events as were practiced in the 19th century.

3. The Games contestants are to be adults.

4. A clear-cut definition is to be introduced of the notion of an "amateur". Money is to come into play only in preparing the Games, for the construction of sports facilities, and staging the festivities.

5. Modern Olympics are to be "mobile", which means that the Games are to be hosted by different countries.

The IOC Charter, which was the principal document approved by the congress, stated the following:

1. In the interests of morality, the International Congress and individual countries consider it necessary to revive the Olympic Games on the international basis and in the modern form, maintaining the ancient Olympic traditions.

2. Athletic associations of all nations are to be invited to take part in the Games. Each country shall be represented by its citizens only. Every four years, prior to the Olympic Games, individual countries are to hold trials or preliminary competitions, so that only the best athletes represented them at the Olympics.

3. The program of the international Olympic Games are to include the following sporting events: running, jumping, the discus throw, weightlifting, yachting, swimming, rowing, speed skating, fencing, wrestling, boxing, equestrian, shooting, gymnastics, and cycling.

4. Only amateurs are eligible to compete in all the events, except for fencing. Professionals are not allowed to compete in the Olympic Games. (The attachment on "AMATEURISM" stated: "those athletes, who are professionally engaged in sports, and those who had received or are in the receipt of pecuniary remuneration for practicing sports, are not eligible to compete in the Olympics. Accordingly, pecuniary prizes shall never be

awarded to the winners of the Olympic Games. Instead, there shall be only honorary awards").

5. The Committee is empowered to expel from the competitions those who had ever opposed the Olympic idea or the idea of the modern Olympic Games.

6. Track and field events are to be complemented by a major competition called "pentathlon".

One of the most important results of the Congress, undoubtedly, was the creation of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), whose members were given the task of propagating the ideas of modern Olympism and representing the IOC in their respective countries.

The Emergence of the International Olympic Committee

The list of the IOC members, compiled by Pierre de Coubertin, was as follows: Ernest Callot (France), General Aleksei Boutovsky (Russia), Colonel Victor Balck (Sweden), Professor William Sloane (the USA), Jiri Guth-Jarkovsky (Bohemia, Austro-Hungary), Franz Kemeny (Hungary, Austro-Hungary), Charles Herbert and Lord Ampthill (England), Dr. Joze Zubiaur (Argentina), Leonard Cuff (New Zealand), Count Lucchesi Palli and Duke Andria Cafara (Italy), and Count Max de Bousies (Belgium). Baron Pierre de Coubertin was elected Secretary General of the IOC, and Demetrius Bikelas the first IOC President. The main concern of Coubertin in drafting the list of IOC members was to make the Committee truly international. So it was not by chance that the word "International" precedes the word "Olympic" in the name of the Committee. In fact, Coubertin would have never managed to revive the Olympic Games, had it not been for the support and assistance of his friends and associates.

E. Callot, head of the Association of Gymnastic Societies of France and IOC Treasurer from 1894 to 1909, was one of the closest associates of P. de Coubertin. F. Kemeny, a long-time friend of Coubertin, was editor of the "Hungarian Pedagogical Encyclopedia" and the author of numerous articles on the problems of education and physical training. In 1893, V. Balck was elected President of the International Union of Speed Skaters, so he participated in the proceedings of the Congress both in this capacity and as Director of the Stockholm Institute of Gymnastics and President of the Swedish Gymnastics Union. As for A. Boutovsky, he seems to have established contacts with P. de Coubertin as early as 1892, when studying the system of teaching gymnastics and



A group of IOC members (Athens, 1896):
sitting (from left to right) are Pierre de
Coubertin, IOC Secretary General; D. Vikelas,
IOC President (Greece); A. Boutovsky
(Russia); standing: W. Gebhardt (Germany);
D. Gut-Jarkovsky (Bohemia); F. Kemeny
(Hungary); V. Balk (Sweden)

Comité International Olympique

Règlement ~~Statuts et Règlement~~

*307. — Le Comité International Olympique a pour but
le développement du sport à l'échelle internationale, la mission
de veiller au développement du sport olympique,
soutenir les efforts des nations pour le développement du sport,
et d'assurer la célébration régulière des Jeux Olympiques.
Le Comité International Olympique a pour but de rendre
cette célébration plus et plus parfaite
digne de son glorieux passé et conforme aux idées
claires dont s'inspirent ses fondateurs. Son
but principal est d'organiser tous les événements
et en général de prendre toutes les mesures propres
à assurer l'accomplissement harmonieux de son œuvre
durable.*

*RECRUTEMENT. — Le Comité International Olympique
est personnellement et de concert lui-même à l'œuvre
d'un monde de hommes, de tous les plus hauts
degrés, pour représenter le monde du sport olympique.
Il n'est pas limité des membres directs et indirects
comme les délégués du Comité International Olympique
auprès des fédérations et sociétés de sport et d'éducation
physique de tous les pays représentés. Ils ne possèdent
aucun mandat de vote, mais ils ont le droit de voter
à l'exception de ce mandat de vote, de l'exception de ce
mandat de vote, de l'exception de ce mandat de vote.*

Les membres du Comité ont tous le droit de voter.

An excerpt of Pierre de Coubertin's text
about the operations of the IOC
(24 June 1894)

athletic disciplines in Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Belgium and France. In his book "Body Exercises in France", A. Boutovsky gives to the Russian public valuable information about the origin and development of sports in French schools, which he had learned from Coubertin's works and as a result of face-to-face meetings with Coubertin.

It should be mentioned that the first official Bulletins of the IOC contained no information concerning the International Olympic Committee as an organization. The only document available now is the text (composed and edited by Coubertin) on the IOC procedures, which later appeared in full in the 1908 version of the IOC Charter.

The IOC had developed an unusual, but rather undemocratic, system to bring new members into the IOC, whereby candidates were elected by the IOC, rather than delegated by their respective countries. At present the system is still in use.

The Congress was a huge success. There were many speeches at the closing session of the Congress on June 23, 1894, the records of which, regrettably, had been lost by now. The text of Coubertin's speech, however, had been preserved. Here it is:

"We, representatives of international sports, have unanimously voted to revive the idea, which dates back more than 2,000 years. This idea makes human hearts beat faster and stimulates the loftiest instincts of life... Some adherents of the old school lamented over the fact that we have held this Congress in the very heart of Sorbonne. They knew full well that we are rebels, and that we were going to demolish the structure of their outdated philosophy. And they were right, gentlemen! We are indeed rebels, and that is why the press, whose

representatives have always supported noble revolutions, understood us and gave us their assistance. I do appreciate their support.

I am sorry, gentlemen, for my rhetoric and for taking you to such majestic heights. If I go on, the champagne will evaporate and leave us bored. This is why I propose yet another toast. I raise my glass and will drink it to the Olympic idea, which, like a ray of the omnipresent sun, has pierced the age-old darkness to light up the threshold of the 20th century with joy and hope."

The Charter, adopted by the Congress, specified the following tasks of the IOC:

1. Regular organization of the Olympic Games.
2. Seeing to it that the Games are becoming more and more worthy of the famous Olympic history and the lofty Olympic ideals.
3. Efforts to increase the number of organizations which assist in holding amateur competitions.
4. Leadership of the amateur sports movement and ensuring the strengthening of friendly ties of athletes.

According to sports historians, the IOC was not very active in the first years of its existence. Here is what Pierre de Coubertin wrote on this issue to American historian Bill Henry in a letter dated 1934: "It is hard to imagine how slowly the IOC had been set up. In fact, it did not start active operations until the beginning of the 20th century. Its members were friends, who gathered around me with all their indifference and nice smiles. Nothing had happened, judging from the public opinion". Further on Coubertin admits that the development of Olympism was rather artificial at that time.

Section Two

Summer Olympics and Winter Olympic Games



SUMMER OLYMPICS

The Games of the First Olympiad

The decision of the Paris Congress (1894) to organize the First Olympic Games in Athens in 1896 was welcomed by the majority of the Greek population. However, the government of Greece refused to allot additional funds for this event due to insufficient understanding of sports by Athenians, lack of facilities to hold competitions, etc. Many political figures and statesmen supported their government stand. For instance, Stephanos Dratomis, an influential politician, stressed the lack of resources in Greece to implement the wonderful idea of Pierre de Coubertin and suggested the Games be postponed until 1900 to be held as part of the World Exhibition program in Paris.

Pierre de Coubertin had to write to F. Kemeny and ask him to see if it would be possible to hold the Games of 1896 in Hungary. There was a flat refusal from the Hungarian government, for lack of the needed funds. Following these setbacks, Coubertin still insisted on holding the Games in Greece.

In his opinion, the Games could go ahead through the support of individual donors, without an excessive burden on the government budget. This point of view was shared by Constantine, the Crown Prince of Greece, who launched a special Olympic Games Support Commission. He appointed T. Philemon, the former mayor of Athens, Secretary General of the Commission and called on the citizens to donate to the Olympic Games Fund. Donations came not only from residents of Greece, but also from London, Marseilles, Constantinople and other cities with rich Greek communities. The money donated by Georgios Averoff from Alexandria helped reconstruct the ancient Olympic stadium. A cycling track and a shooting range were also built in Athens, as well as tennis courts in the downtown area of the city.

The National Olympic Committee of Greece supervised preparation of competition venues for

the First Olympiad, and completed all preparatory works within twelve months. The IOC and National Olympic Committees of other countries were busy selecting athletes to compete in the Games, which proved to be not so easy. Here is what Coubertin wrote about that situation: "Most of gymnastics associations of Germany, France and Belgium overflow with the feeling of their being absolutely special: their members cannot stand those events in the program which they do not cultivate. They are particularly hateful of the so-called "English" events... Some other associations would agree to send their teams only after receiving information of the interest aroused by the sporting festivities being planned... And, to crown it all, the German press had declared the Olympics to be a purely French-Greek affair. In the meantime, every means was being tried to promote the forthcoming competitions by Mr. Kemeny in Hungary, Major Balck in Sweden, General Boutovsky in Russia, Professor Sloane in the USA, Lord Amphil in England and Dr. Guth-Jarkovsky in Bohemia".

In organizing the Games, P. de Coubertin had to take into consideration the current political relations and contradictions between the states, particularly those of Germany and Greece. In 1859, the Committee For Participation in the Olympic Games was set up in Germany.

On April 6, 1896 in the presence of 80,000 spectators King George of Greece declared the Games of the First Olympiad open. "It was an exciting moment. 1,502 years ago Emperor Theodosius banned the Olympic Games, doubtless thinking that he promoted progress by scrapping this hated vestige of the heathen past. It was now a Christian monarch who announced an official cancellation of the Emperor's edict.... When the King took his seat again, the 150-strong choir sang the Olympic Ode, written for this occasion by the Greek composer Samara", Coubertin recalled.

Athletes from 13 countries arrived in Athens to compete in 9 sports events. The centerpiece of the Games was considered the marathon, and its first winner was S. Louis of Greece, who ran the 40-

kilometer distance in 2 hours 58 minutes 50 seconds. Here is how Coubertin described that victory: "When Louis appeared in the stadium, the thrilled 60,000 spectators, who awaited his arrival, jumped up from their seats. Pigeons were again released in the sky... Some spectators nearest to the winner tried to reach Louis and carry him in triumph on their shoulders. They would have smothered the winner to death, had he not been for Crown Prince Constantine and Prince George who led him away from the arena".

It should be mentioned that already during the I Olympiad the Games organizer and the IOC came face to face with the problem of amateurism, which would accompany the Games until 1980.

The winners were awarded on the last day of the I Olympic Games, April 15, 1896. They received an olive branch delivered from Olympia, a diploma designed by a Greek artist, and a silver medal made by the famous engraver Chaplain.

So what was the role of the I Olympic Games? Given the fact that Coubertin's works have not been published yet in this country, it may be useful to quote his assessment of the Games:

"For Greece, for example, the results of the Games was probably double-fold, sporting as well as political... Having in mind the potential impact of physical culture on the future development, particularly spiritual forces of the nation as a whole, a natural question arises: didn't 1896 start a new age of development for Greece? It would be very interesting if sports could become a factor to bring about a solution to the Eastern problem! ... These are mere hypotheses, and the future will prove our prognostications either right or wrong...

So much for Greece... Modern sport needs unification and purification... Every country has its own rules, so we even fail to reach a consensus on who is and who is not an amateur... In a sad atmosphere like this professionalism is getting stronger in sports by the hour... I am pretty sure that no process of education is complete, especially in this age of the triumph of democracy, without an active participation of athletes. However, to cope with an important role assigned to them in education, the behavior of athletes should be based on the principles of dignity and complete absence of material incentives.

I am convinced that the winners wished no better award at the stadium of Athens than to hear the spectators greet their national flag hoisted to honor their victory. It were indeed these thoughts that set me off on the road to revive the Olympic Games. My endeavor finally met with success after much effort. If my enterprise is a success, — as I am sure will be the case, given the support of all civilized

nations, — it can be a factor, at least indirectly, to strengthen peace all over the world. Nations go to wars because they do not understand one another. Peace will not be possible until all prejudices, which currently set nations apart, have been done away with. What can be a better means to achieve this aim than regular meetings of young people from all countries! In ancient times, the Olympic Games had made for the development of sports and strengthened peace. It is not utopian to expect the Games to bring about similar achievements in the future."

The Games of the I Olympiad proved beyond any doubt the humanitarian and pacifist nature of the Olympic movement.

Following the success of the I Olympic Games, Greece expected all subsequent Games to be staged in Athens, which would make the city the modern Olympia. But the IOC ruled to hold them instead in various countries of different continents, thereby making the Olympic Games truly international. The IOC had nothing against Greece playing host to major competitions in between the Olympics. Such competitions were planned for 1898 and 1902, but the plans did not come through for organizational and financial reasons.

Periods of the Olympic Games

In its one-hundred-years history, Olympic sports has gone a long route of development and had not been fast in achieving the current popularity, features and scope. Therefore, analysis of modern Olympics is best done if the development of the Olympic movement is broken down in accurately specified periods. Historians and sociologists have different approaches to the definition of such periods. It has been suggested, for instance, to link the periods with the tenure of IOC Presidents (L. Coon, 1982) or to introduce them depending on the role and significance of the Olympic movement in the life of the world community (L. B. Sunik, 1983). Yet another approach was to establish a link between Olympic sports development and the highlights of the world history. For example, V. V. Stolbov (1989) synchronizes history of the international sports movement with the three historical periods of this century: prior to the Great War, the period between the First and Second World Wars, and after World War Two.

We believe the determination of periods in the development of such a complex phenomenon as modern Olympic sports should not be based on a single criterion, whatever its significance may be. One should take into consideration the whole

Games	Year	Place	Number of athletes			Nations	Event
			M	F	Total		
I	1896	Athens, Greece	245	—	245	14	43
II	1900	Paris, France	1,206	19	1,225	26	85
III	1904	Saint-Louis, USA	681	6	687	13	88
IV	1908	London, England	2,000	36	2,036	22	110
V	1912	Stockholm, Sweden	2,490	57	2,547	28	102
VII	1920	Antwerp, Belgium	2,591	77	2,668	29	158
VIII	1924	Paris, France	2,956	136	3,092	44	126
IX	1928	Amsterdam, Netherlands	2,724	290	3,014	46	109
X	1932	Los-Angeles, USA	1,281	127	1,408	37	117
XI	1936	Berlin, Germany	3,738	328	4,066	49	129
XIV	1848	London, England	3,714	385	4,099	59	136
XV	1952	Helsinki, Finland	4,407	518	4,925	69	149
XVI	1956	Melbourne, Australia	2,813	371	3,342	67	145
XVII	1960	Rome, Italy	4,736	610	5,346	83	150
XVIII	1964	Tokyo, Japan	4,457	683	5,140	94	163
XIX	1968	Mexico City, Mexico	4,749	781	5,530	112	172
XX	1972	Munich, West Germany	6,065	1,058	7,123	121	205
XXI	1976	Montreal, Canada	4,781	1,247	6,028	92	198
XXII	1980	Moscow, USSR	4,093	1,124	5,217	80	203
XXIII	1984	Los-Angeles, USA	5,230	1,567	6,797	140	221
XXIV	1988	Seoul, Republic of Korea	6,279	2,186	8,465	159	237
XXV	1992	Barcelona, Spain	6,657	2,707	9,364	169	257
XXVI	1996	Atlanta, USA	7,350	3,874	11,224	197	271

Table 1
Summer Olympic Games

complex of political, economic, and purely sporting factors, which have an impact on the development of the Olympic movement at a given historic moment. This approach offers the following periods of modern Olympic Games:

The First Period: I — V Olympic Games (1896 — 1912);

The Second Period: VII — XIV Olympic Games (1920 — 1948)

The Third Period: XV — XXIV Olympic Games (1952 — 1988)

The Fourth Period: Starting from the XXVth Olympic Games (1992 on).

The general characteristics about the modern Olympic Games is given in Table 1.

Note should be made of the fact that various reference books and encyclopedias give somewhat contradictory data as relates the number of countries and athletes competing in the Games, and sports events. One can get different data even in the IOC Archives or the Olympic Museum. This can be accounted for by the fact that in some cases exhibition events were taken into consideration, whereas in the others this was not the case; some reports included the number of countries that arrived at the Games, whereas other reports accounted only for the countries whose athletes had actually entered the competitions. This peculiarity applies both to the Summer and Winter Olympic Games.

General Characteristics of the First Period of the Olympic Games (1896—1912)

The First Period is characterized by a relatively low popularity of the International Olympic movement and the Olympic Games. The idea to hold the Games every four years was easier said than done. It was for this reason that the IOC timed the Olympic Games of 1900 and 1904 to coincide with the World Exhibitions in Paris and St. Louis, respectively. In fact, of the 625 participants of St. Louis Games, only 92 athletes represented eleven countries, the other being Americans. The situation somewhat changed in London and Stockholm. The lackluster organization of the Games in 1900 and 1904 brought sharp criticism by the world sporting community and threw a lifeline to the declining idea of holding the Olympics in Greece. The NOC of Greece, supported by Coubertin, suggested to stage the Intercalated (or Interim) Games in 1906 in order to give a kick start to the development of the Olympic movement. The idea found support in many countries. Realizing the need for the revived Games to get additional momentum on historic home ground, P. de Coubertin actively supported the organizers, the most active of them being Technical Director of the new Games, Professor Ioannes Chrysaphes.

The Intercalated Games were held April 22—May 2, 1906, drawing in 884 participants (including seven women) from 20 countries, which was considerably more than the official Olympic Games of 1904 (625 athletes from 12 countries). But this tradition did not catch on, however.

The Vth Olympic Games of 1912 in Stockholm deserve special attention. In spite of a tense political atmosphere in Europe, the Games drew in 2,541 athletes (57 of them female) from 28 countries. That Olympiad brought high athletic performance results, with 20 Olympic records in track and field events. Donald Lippincott (the USA) ran 100 meters in 10.6 sec. Many observers nicknamed the Games "Jim Thorpe's Olympiad" in honor of the US athlete who placed first in pentathlon and decathlon. Yet in 1913 he was deprived of his medals, supposedly for having violated the status of an amateur. Of interest is also the fact that among the participants of the 1912 Olympic Games was A. Brundage, the future President of the IOC.

Neither the appearance of female athletes at the Games, nor the fourteen sessions and three Congresses of the IOC, nor the detailed articles by P. Coubertin were enough to offset the inadequate concept of the Games organization, the competition program being unstable and drawn over a few weeks. The ancient Olympic Games principle of uniformity of time and place was not employed. Many events had no universally accepted regulations. Moreover, the epoch, which was leaving into oblivion, was contaminated with a lethal dose of the nationalistic virus, causing ever increasing political tensions.

The case of Fred Lortz (the USA), who attempted a ploy to win the 1904 marathon in St. Louis, and that of Jim Thorpe, who was disqualified following the 1912 Olympics in a campaign unleashed against the non-white citizens in the USA, made the IOC leadership think about the Code of Athletes' Honor. In 1913, Karl Winningham wrote his "Code of Remarks and Suggestions to Improve the Olympic Games". "The oath of the ancient athletes, I think, was a public manifestation of their spiritual beauty. We have to come up with something similar. We just have to, if we do not want to witness the decline of modern sports, threatened by the scourge of corruption", P. Cou-

bertin insisted, putting forth the idea of putting together the Olympic Oath.

On the whole, this period of the Olympic movement development played an exceptionally important role in facilitating the progress of sports in the world and in individual countries, uplifting the significance of sports as a major area of human activities, in the acceptance of sports by the general public and in furthering the development of physical education. It was mainly due to the Olympic movement that there appeared different international associations and national bodies with a view to supervise and support the development of sports. Suffice it to say, that during this period such major associations were established as the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF) in 1912; the International Amateur Swimming Federation (FINA) in 1908; the International Federation of Football Associations (FIFA) in 1904; the International Amateur Wrestling Federation (FILA) in 1912, etc.

This period also saw the elaboration of international regulations for competitions, the registration of world records and unification of requirements to sports facilities. The Olympic Games, major international and national competitions gave a boost to the development of the material basis of sports all over the world, like the construction of stadiums, gyms, swimming pools, shooting ranges and other facilities.

More attention began to be paid to a speedy development of the system of athletic preparation and training. The successful methods of training were copied in the world, achievements of national athletic schools were studied and shared by other countries, which led to the improvement of techniques, making more efficient the physical and tactical training and preparedness of athletes.

Since the First Period of its development, the system of Olympic sports turned into an arena of cooperation for athletes, specialists and fans from many countries. In addition to sports, the mutual interests of athletes from various countries simplified and helped establish ties in other areas of life as well, such as culture, science, etc. The four-year cycles of the Olympic sports, culminating in the regularly held Olympic Games, rather than assorted competitions, made sporting cooperation consistent, providing for a tremendous potential of the Olympic movement to bring nations together.

Chronology of the I—V Olympiads

The First (I) Summer Olympic Games

(Athens, 6-15 April 1896)



The Games of the I Olympiad of modern times were declared open on April 6, 1896 at the Athens Marble Stadium, with about 80,000 spectators in attendance. Competing in the first modern Olympic Games were three hundred and eleven athletes from 12 countries (Australia, Austro-Hungary, Bulgaria, Great Britain, Germany, Greece, Denmark, France, Switzerland, Chile, Sweden, the United States). Greek athletes made up about 70 % of the field, the German delegation included 21 athletes, and the delegation of France was 19-strong. Only male athletes participated in the Games.

Russian athletes, although they had trained hard, failed to arrive for lack of financial support. Just a few athletes from Odessa, who had most actively prepared for the I Games, actually set off for Greece, but they never reached their destination for lack of money to cover their travelling expenses. Only Nikolay Ritter of Kiev arrived in Athens and entered wrestling and shooting competitions, but then recalled his application (V. Steinbach, 1979).

The Games program included nine events (Greco-Roman wrestling, cycling, gymnastics, track and field, swimming, tennis, shooting, weightlifting and fencing) with 43 sets of awards to be won.

James Connolly of the USA, winner of the triple jump (13 m 71 cm), was the first modern Olympic champion. Spiridon Louis of Greece, who came first in the marathon, was honored as national hero by his compatriots. In addition to fame and the Olympic rewards, he was awarded a golden cup of the French academician Michel Breal, who had

insisted on the inclusion of the marathon event into the Games program, a barrel of wine, a coupon for free meals for a year, free suits and the barber's services for the rest of his life, a ton of chocolate, ten cows, and thirty rams (L. Coon, 1982).

Paul Masson of France won three gold medals in cycling, in the scratch, 1,000-meter time trial, and 10-kilometer track race. Another cycling highlight was the chivalry of another Frenchman, Leone Flameng in the 100-kilometer race. When his opponent, Georgios Kolettis of Greece broke his bicycle and stopped to change it, the Frenchman waited for him to do so before resuming the race. This gentlemanly behavior made him one of the most popular athletes of the Games, alongside E. Clark of the USA and A. Konstantinidis of Greece.

There was no division into weight categories in wrestling at that time. The first champion was C. Schuhmann, the German wrestler who turned out to be the lightest of all other contestants of the wrestling competition. Incidentally, he also won another three gold medals in gymnastics (long horse vault and the team's gold in horizontal and parallel bars).

L. Elliot of England (71 kg) and V. Jensen of Denmark (111.5 kg) got the weightlifting gold in the one-hand and two-hand exercises, respectively). Greek athletes came on top in rifle shooting with three gold medals to their credit, and two US athletes placed first in pistol shooting.

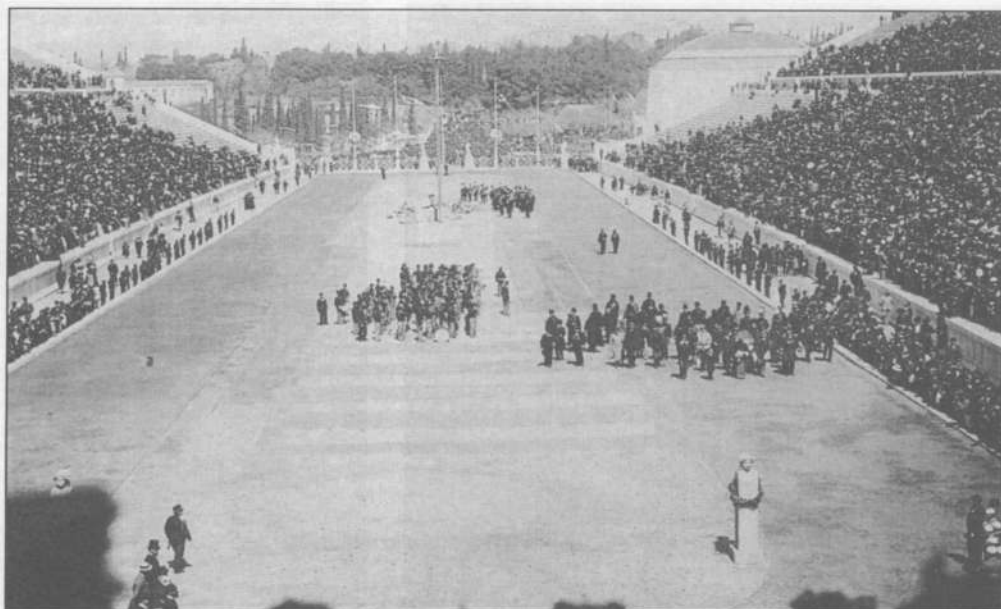
Convincing was the victory in tennis by John Boland of England, who won all matches in the singles, winning also the doubles together with Fritz Traun of Germany.

The famous Hungarian swimmer A. Hajos Gutmann was impressive in the 1,200-meter race, which was unfolding in stormy weather. It is interesting to note that 28 years later this athlete participated in the Olympic Games again, winning a silver medal in the Arts competition (architecture) for his design of a stadium.

Fencing produced two winners: the Frenchman E. Gravelotte in the foil and I. Georgiadis of Greece (the saber). Leon Pyrgos, owner of an Athens fencing school, was undisputed champion in the Master Foil tournament for professionals.

The first Athens modern Olympics established the tradition of playing an anthem and hoisting the national flag in honor of Olympic champions. The award ceremony took place on the last day of the Games, winners being presented with a gold medal and an olive branch cut in the Sacred Grove

The first day of the 1896 Olympic Games: a photograph of the arrival of the royal couple at the Stadium



James Connolly, the first modern Olympic champion (Athens, 1896)



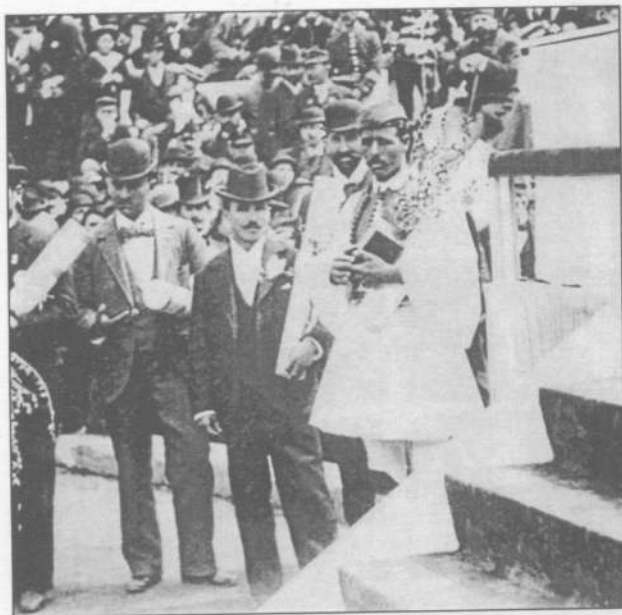
Robert Garret, the gold medallist in discus throwing (Athens, 1896)



Alfred Hajos Gutmann, gold medalist in the 100 m and 1200 m speed races (Athens, 1896)

Cycle races on the third day of the games: the 100 km race

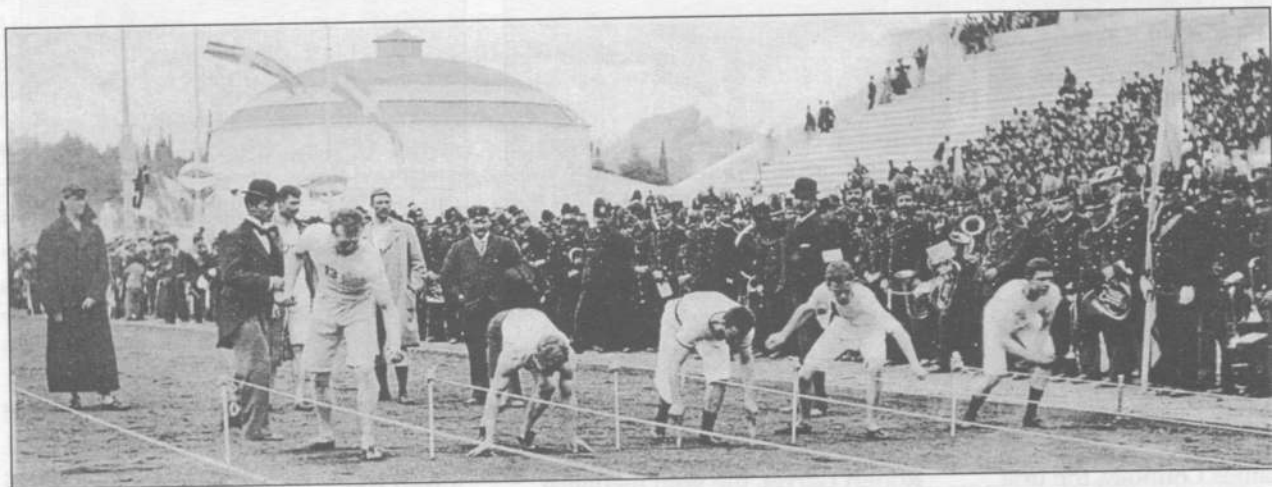




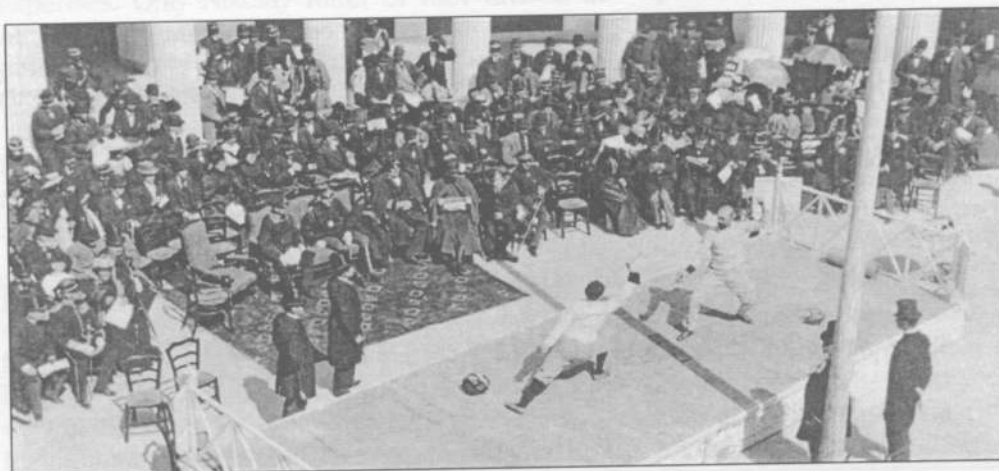
The Greek athlete Spyridon Louis is honored for his win in the marathon (Athens, 1896)



(From left to right) German athlete Carl Schumann, Olympic gold-medalist in Greco-Roman wrestling (100 kg category), is congratulated by Greek wrestler George Tsitas (Athens, 1896)



Start at the 100 m distance



Fencing competition

in Olympia. Most of the medals of the I Olympiad went to the Greek athletes (10 gold, 19 silver and 17 bronze), the US athletes received 19 medals (11, 7 and 1, respectively), and Germans got 14 (7, 5 and 2, respectively). Representatives of Bulgaria, Chile, and Sweden obtained no medals in Athens.

Even the very first Games proved wide-spread use of the Olympiad for political ends. The Greek mass media, thrilled by the spectacular success of their nation in the I Olympics, used it as a means to glorify Greece, depicting it as the country belonging to Western civilization.

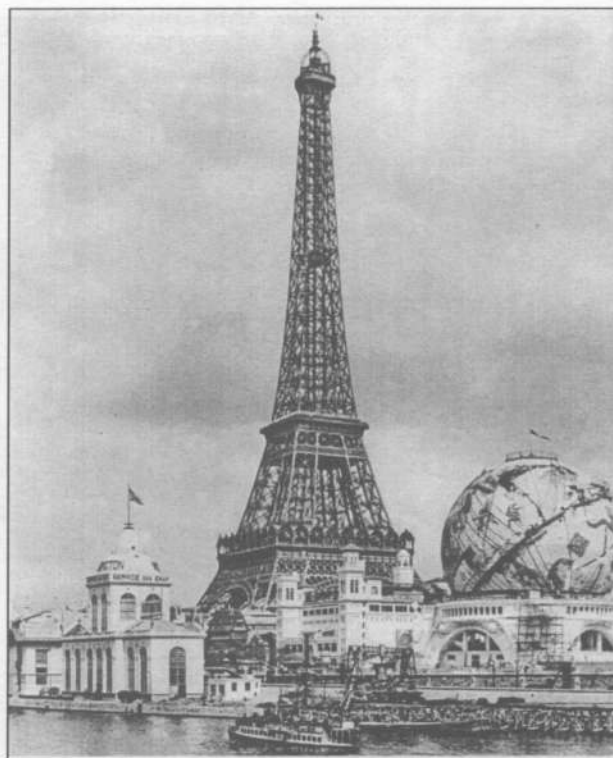
Not everything went smoothly with the Games organization, in spite of the great enthusiasm and efforts of the organizing committee. The Olympiad would doubtless have had more success, had more than thirteen nations accepted the invitation, which had been sent out to 34 countries. Some nations did not send their strongest teams, the best athletes staying away from the Games. Nevertheless, the 1st Olympic Games of modern age achieved the major objective of the organizers by reviving the Olympic tradition and proving the vital significance and vitality of the Olympic ideas. The IOC President Demetrius Bikelas was the first to stress that result, when he said: "The revival of the Olympic Games crowns the victory of Hellenism. There were numerous obstacles in our path, but Athens demonstrated with dignity that the ties with the ancient Olympia had not been lost..."

The Games of the IInd Olympiad

(Paris, 20 May — 28 October 1900)



This time the Games were timed to coincide with the World Exhibition in Paris. This arrangement was thought to benefit the Olympic sports, give more profile to the Games and draw more spectators to make the Games more popular. In



The Eiffel Tower, erected for the world's fair in 1889, and a huge globe were the symbols of the 1900 fair held simultaneously with the Olympic Games

reality, however, the Exhibition almost completely overshadowed the Games, turning the Olympiad into its second-rate appendage.

The organizers of the Exhibition gave no helping hand to the Organizing Committee of the Paris Olympiad, which was left to its own devices doing everything possible to save the Games. Even P. de Coubertin had to admit that "the only place in the world, which is indifferent to the Olympic Games, is Paris". It remains a mystery even today, how it had been possible to practically bar Pierre de Coubertin from organizing the Paris Games. The organization of the Olympiad turned out to be in the hands of bureaucrats who had nothing to do with sports. All they did was to downgrade the importance of the Games to keep the spectators glued to the exhibits of the World Exhibition. The extension of the Olympiad to last from 20 May till 28 October did not do any good to the Games, either. In fact, the Games had been part of the entertainment offered by the Exhibition, so that the Paris Olympiad went down in history as "The Olympics of Chaos".

1,225 athletes (including the first ever 19 female athletes) from 26 countries took part in the Games. According to the official documents of the IInd Olympiad, among the participants were three athletes from Russia (two in the equestrians and one



Alvin Kraenzlein
of the USA won four
gold medals
of the Second
Olympic Games
(Paris, 1900)



John Flanagan,
famous hammer
thrower
at the beginning
of the century
(Paris, 1900)

in shooting). The program included some highly unusual events, from balloon flights to life-saving. The incompetence of the organizers made it possible for the program to include sports which had never been part of ancient Olympics (horse polo, pigeon shooting, etc.) and exclusion of wrestling and weightlifting, which had been part of the program of the 1st Olympiad.

The results of the Paris Games had never been summed up and the winners got their awards years after the Games by mail, because there had been no Closing Ceremony held. Even now it is impossible to indicate the exact number of official competition held, or the number of champions and medal-winners. Some specialists mention 98 winners in 15 events, whereas some others main-

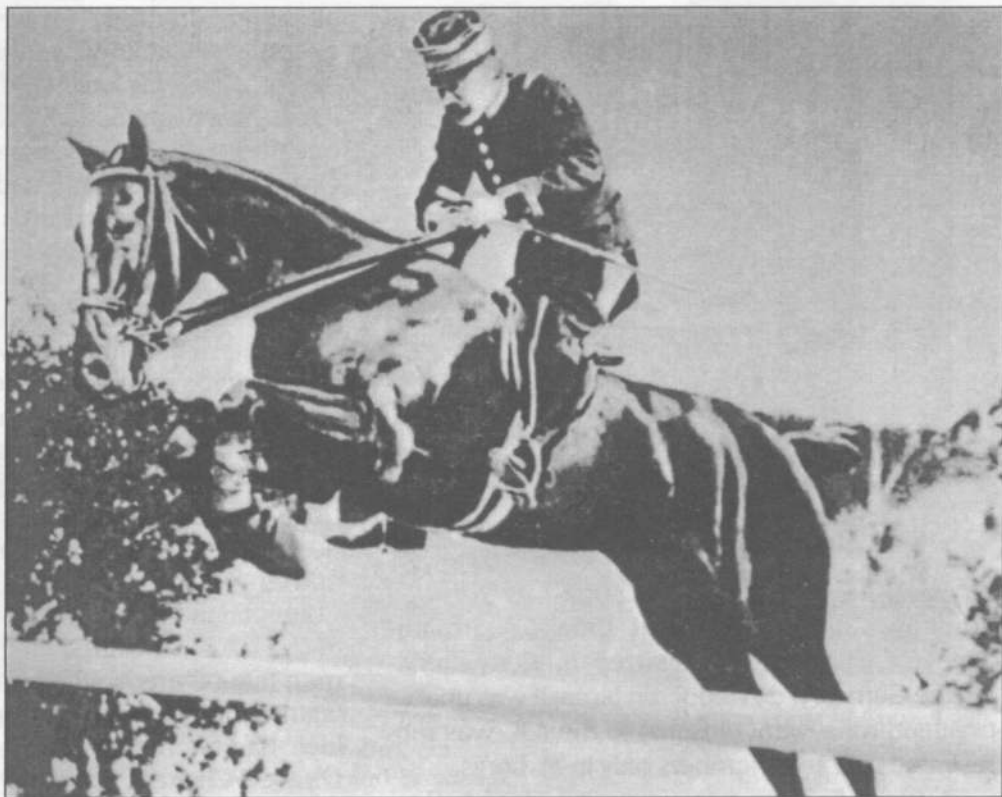
tain, on the basis of the data of International Sports Federations, that actually there had been 56 competitions. The Olympic Encyclopedia of 1980 quotes 83 sports events. According to some sources, sports event like horse polo, croquet, archery, etc. had been included as the demonstration part of the Games, while others argue that those events are to be considered as part of the official competition program of the Games. Even until this day, France and Germany are locked in discussions as to who had been winners of the 1900 rowing contest of the four-oared shell with coxswain, as one heat was won by the Germans, the other by the French, and the final had never been held.

However, all that chaos aside, the Games of the



Marathon
in Paris, 1900

Dominique Garderes
of France, winner
of the equestrian
high jump
at the Second
Olympic Games
(Paris, 1900)



IIInd Olympiad proved both the vitality of the Olympic movement and the extensive development of sports in the world. This can be proved by the fact that female athletes had competed in the Games tennis and golf competitions and the number of participating nations had increased (Spain, Italy, Canada, Cuba, Holland, Norway, Haiti took part in the Games for the first time, and India was the first Asian state to participate in the Olympics). Many new entries in the program later became regular and popular Olympic sports event, such as rowing, soccer, the hammer throw, yachting, equestrians, etc. One of the peculiar features of the Games was that not a single champion of the Ist Games were able to repeat their success in Paris.

The most impressive results in the track and field events were achieved by the US athletes. In the 100-meter dash Francis Jarvis clocked in 10.8 seconds, which stood unbeaten until 1924. Raymond Ewry of the USA team won three gold medals in the standing high, long and triple jump, and his compatriot Alvin Kraenzlein got four gold medals in the 60-meter dash (7.0 sec.), the 110-meter hurdles (15.4 sec.), the 200-meter hurdles (25.4 sec.) and the long jump (7 m. 18 cm.). Irving Baxter, also of the USA, placed first in the high jump (1 m. 90 cm.) and the pole vault (3 m. 30 cm.).

The fencing tournament, where professionals were allowed to compete, ended in a triumph of the French team, France also dominating the field

of 136 athletes in gymnastics. Led by Gustave Sandras, the French gymnasts won six gold medals. In rowing one of the gold medals was awarded to the youngest champion in the history of Olympic Games, the 10-year-old coxswain of the Dutch team, which outpaced four other teams.

It is considered that France won more medals than any other nation (26 gold, 36 silver and 33 bronze medals). The USA athletes were awarded 20 gold, 15 silver and 16 bronze medals, and the haul of Great Britain was 17, 8 and 12, respectively.

The Games of the IIIrd Olympiad

(St. Louis, July 1 — November 23, 1904)

The IOC granted the right of hosting the IIIrd Olympiad to the United States as a reward for the achievements of American athletes at the first two Olympic Games. Initially, it was planned to hold the Games in Chicago. Later on, however, the authorities of St. Louis as the organizers of the 1904 World Exhibition, supported by the US President Theodore Roosevelt, brought pressure to bear on the IOC to reverse their decision in favor of St. Louis.

The IOC had not learned a lesson from the circumstances of the Paris Games. Once again the Olympic Games were viewed as merely an accessory of the Exhibition. There was neither Opening nor Closing ceremonies. High travel costs prevent-



ed many athletes of Great Britain, Germany, Greece, Austro-Hungary, Switzerland from attending the Games. P. de Coubertin himself was unable to attend for several reasons, so the IOC was represented by three members only in St. Louis.

A mere 687 athletes (including six females) from 13 countries competed in 10 sport events, the lion's share of participants, naturally, being from the host nation (533).

Among those who did not make it to St. Louis were the strong teams of Great Britain and France. Therefore, the 1904 Olympics can be considered

as being "domestic" American Games. In most events, for lack of adequate opposition, the Olympic title was fought out among American athletes. American Schools and Colleges championships were held as part of the prolonged Olympic competition, with American athletes competing in the uniforms of their clubs, rather than under their national flag.

The winners of the St. Louis Games were awarded 89 sets of medals. It should be noted, however, that winners of various local competitions, viewed as parts of the Games program, were also proclaimed Olympic champions.

The image of the Games of the IIIrd Olympiad was tarnished by the attempt of the organizers to stage 'anthropological days', or competitions for non-whites, such as Negroes, American Indians and the likes. This idea was castigated by Coubertin in his speech at the IOC session: "Why in hell have we started all this thing, if racists and man-haters are spitting on us by introducing 'anthropological days' at our Olympics? The great idea has been spat upon, just as has been the Olympic Charter..."

The organization of the St. Louis Games was even worse than that in Paris. This is the only conclusion to be drawn on the basis of the analysis of the reports in the American press of that period. Once again the attempt to combine the Olympic Games and the World Exhibition turned a complete flop.



Ralf Rose yielded to Martin Sheridan in the last trial (St. Louis 1904)



Sprinter Archie Hahn of the USA won three gold medals at the Third Olympic Games (St. Louis 1904)



African Zulu marathoners Lentauw and Yamasani. (St. Louis 1904)



Ramon Fonst of Cuba, hero of the Third Olympic Games in fencing (St. Louis 1904)

In spite of the organizers errors, a number of outstanding results were produced, which should naturally be mentioned. Archie Hahn of the USA won three gold medals in running (60, 100 and 200 meters) and set world record in the 200 meters

(21.6 sec.), which stood for 28 years. R. Ewry of the USA reconfirmed his excellence by winning all the standing jump events as he had done four years previously. Anton Haide, the German who was resident of the USA and member of the American



Gold jump of Ray Ewry (St. Louis, 1904)



Refreshment for a marathon competitor

team, excelled in gymnastics, winning 5 gold and 1 silver medals. Two gold medals each were awarded in swimming to a Hungarian Zoltan Halmay (50 and 100 yards), Emil Rausch of Germany (880 yards and one mile) and Charles Daniels of the USA (220 and 440 yards). American boxer O. Kirk placed first in bantamweight after boxing and weight categories were introduced for the first time in the Olympic program, and went on to win in featherweight, too.

Ramon Fonst, an outstanding Cuban athlete and winner of the Paris Games in the individual epee, was among the heroes of the Games in St. Louis. In the USA he won two individual gold medals in the foil and the epee, and another medal in the team foil event. In 1899, when he was 16, R. Fonst won his first major international competition, the "World Championships of Foreign Residents of France", followed by the gold Olympic medal the following year. Almost 40 years later the 56-year-old Fonst gained a victory in the IVth Games of Central American and Caribbean states. In his life time he won 125 medals and 25 major prizes. In addition to the outstanding fencing career, this amazing athlete was awarded the Paris Cup in cycling, the big gold medal for his trap shooting victory, and eight prizes at major boxing tournaments. These days, Cuba hosts fencing competitions in honor of this remarkable athlete for the top world fencers.

The biggest scandal of the Games was incredible cheating of Fred Lorz of the USA. A cramp forced him to stop running after eleven kilometers of the race. A fan decided to help and gave him a ride in his car. Naturally, they had left behind all the other competitors, when F. Lorz left the car, started running again and crossed the finish line, hailed by the unsuspecting spectators. Before the real champion, Thomas Hicks of the USA, appeared on the stadium, reeling from exhaustion and ready to faint, F. Lorz had already been presented the gold medal by daughter of President Roosevelt and the orchestra had played the national anthem of the USA in his honor. When the situation was rectified, Lorz was slapped with a lifetime ban, but readily admitted his wrongdoing, was later reinstated in the A. A. I. well before the ban ran out, and managed to win the national marathon.

Quite naturally, in the absence of the best of European athletes, the overwhelming majority of medals went to the athletes of the USA — 70 gold, 75 silver and 64 bronze medals.

The team of Cuba won 5 gold, 2 silver and 3 bronze medals, and Germany got 4, 4 and 5 medals, respectively.

The Games of the IVth Olympiad

(London, 27 April — 31 October 1908)



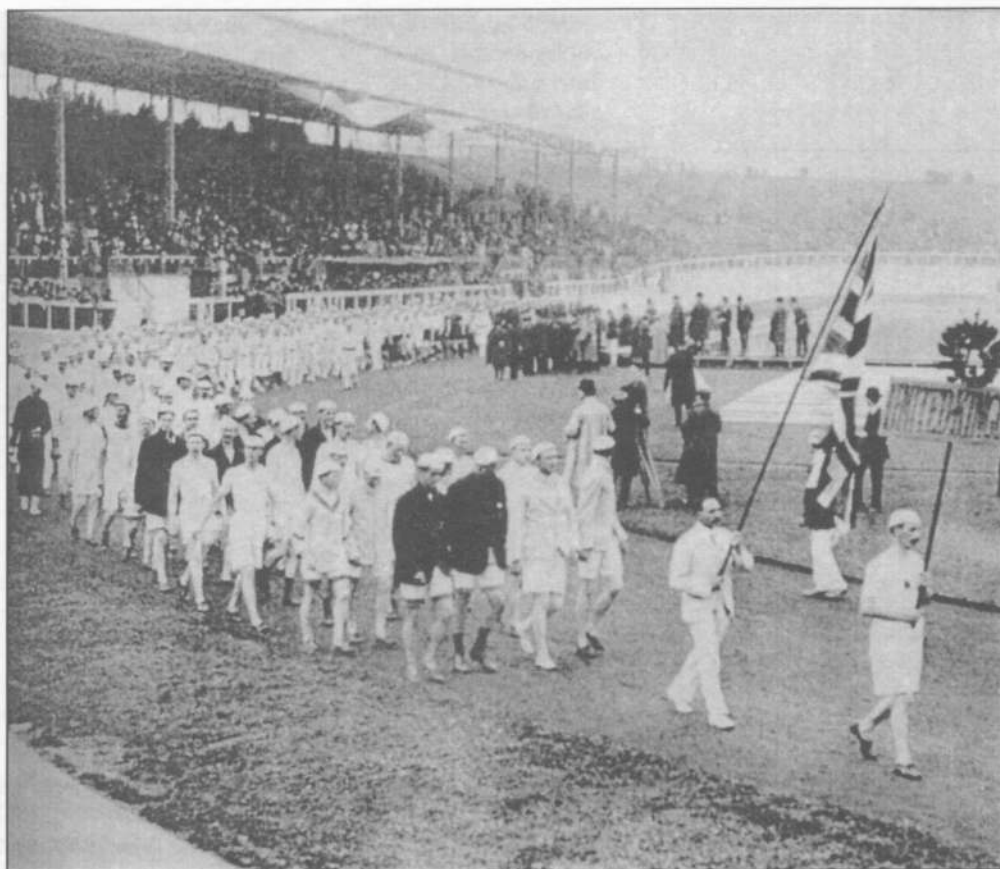
The Fourth Olympic Games were originally intended to be staged in Rome. But in 1906, the Italian government refused to host the Games pleading difficulties with construction of sports facilities. Then London offered to take over. The English authorities managed to construct in a relatively short period of time a stadium seating 70,000 (White City Stadium) with a cinder track as well as a cement track for cycling, a swimming pool and a wrestling gym.

Although the Games coincided with the Franco-British Exhibition held in a London suburb the same year, the concern of the IOC about the Games becoming once again an accessory of another event proved unfounded. The Games proved a success surpassing all the previous Olympics.

The London Games drew in the largest ever number of competitors, with 2,036 athletes (including 36 females) from 22 countries, which is more than the number of contestants in the three preceding Olympic Games taken together. Great Britain was represented by 710 athletes, the largest ever team in the Olympic Games history. For the first time the competitors included a team from Russia, which included five athletes: Nikolay Panin-Kolomenkin, Nikolay Orlov, Andrey Petrov, Yevgeniy Zamotin and Grigory Demin.

The program of the Games was also expanded to include 20 sports events: boxing, wrestling (Greco-Roman and free-style), cycling, water polo, motor-nautical sport, gymnastics, rowing, jeux-de-pommes, track and field, lacrosse, yachting, swimming, diving, polo, rugby, rackets, shooting, soccer, field hockey. Female athletes competed in archery and tennis. For the first time the Games had an ap-

**Opening
Ceremony
(London, 1908)**



**Dorando Pietri
of Italy struggling
to finish his
marathon run
at the 1908
London Olympics
(with A. Conan-
Doyle, the famous
writer, his right,
according
to some reporters)**





Melvin Sheppard of the USA beat 42 contenders from 15 nations in the 1,500-meter run (London, 1908)

pendage of winter sports, figure skating for men and women.

One cannot but stress that the IVth Olympics showed a significant improvement in the athletes skills, which led to a stiffer competition. Representatives of 14 countries were awarded the

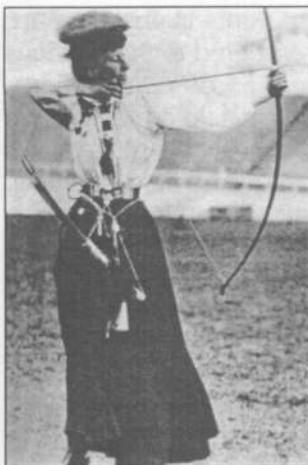
champion's laurels, a marked increase compared to the previous Games. Many remarkable athletes produced exceptionally high results for that period. For instance, the 35-year-old R. Ewry of the USA added to his six gold Olympic medals of the two previous Games two more top awards in the high



First-time partners Schilles and Auffray of France win 2 000-meter tandem race (London, 1908)

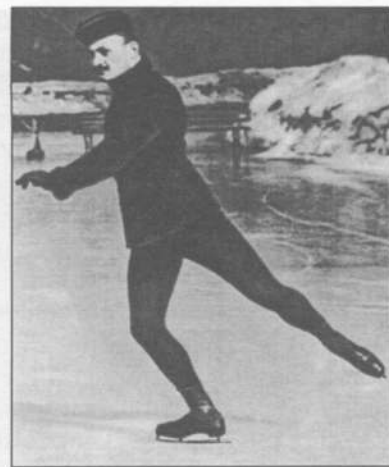


Protesting Sunday competition 110-meter gold medalist Smithson(USA) hurdles with Bible (London, 1908)



Sybil. Newall
of Great Britain,
winner of the 1908
women's archery
competition
(London, 1908)

**Nikolay Panin-
Kolomenkin,**
the first
Russian to win
Olympic Games
(London, 1908)



and long standing jump. Given a further two gold medals of the Intercalated Games of 1906 in Athens, which had been recognized by the IOC as unofficial competitions, R. Ewry had collected 10 gold medals, more than any other athlete in the Olympic Games history. Excellent results were also achieved by other American athletes. Melvin Sheppard got three gold medals in the 800 meters (1.52.8 min., the world record), the 1,500 meters (4.03.7, the Olympic record) and the relay; Frank Irons placed first in the long jump (7m. 48 cm.); Forrest Smithson won a gold medal in the 110-meter hurdles (15.0 sec.); Charles Bacon was winner of the 400-meter hurdles (55.0 sec.); and John Flanagan set a world record in the hammer throw (51 m. 92 cm.). Track and field athletes from some other countries also did well. For instance, javelin throwing was dominated by Eric Lemming of Sweden, who set a new world and Olympic record of 54 m. 92 cm. Timothy Ahearne of Great Britain placed first in the triple jump (14 m. 92 cm.).

The US athlete had a clear advantage in the track and field events, winning 15 of the 27 gold medals. But in some other events the team of the USA was beaten by other nations. For instance, boxing with its five weight categories was dominated by Great Britain, whose athletes also won five of the six gold medals in cycling and collected all the gold in rowing, yachting and tennis.

Another highlight of the London Games was the first ever Olympic soccer tournament. Eight teams were entered in the competition, but due to some political differences two nations recalled their applications, and the field included six teams from five countries. It may be of interest to quote the scores of soccer matches: Great Britain v. Sweden 12:1; Denmark v. France 11:0. In the semi-finals Denmark beat the first team of France 17:1, a record score in the Olympic history. In the final match Great Britain won against Denmark 2:0.

Among the Olympic champions in other events were athletes from Sweden, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Russia, Belgium, France, Canada, Italy, Norway, South Africa, and Australasia (the combined team of Australia and New Zealand).

The Olympic debut of Russian athletes should be considered a success, with three of the five getting medals. N. Orlov and A. Petrov (Greco-Roman wrestling) were awarded silver medals, and N. Panin-Kolomenkin became the first Olympic champion from Russia (figure skating). The official report of the Olympic Games ran as follows: "Panin was far ahead of his opponents both in complexity of elements and in the beauty of execution". This outstanding athlete was also five-time champion of Russia and medal-winner of the World (1903) and European (1904 and 1908) Championships in figure skating. Also he was good at soccer and tennis, an excellent rower and yachtsman. As if that was not enough, he was also 12-time champion of Russia in sporting pistol and 11-time Russian champion in army pistol shooting. He won the 1928 All-USSR Spartakiad in pistol shooting at the age of 56. As a researcher and a pedagogue, he wrote a few of books, got his Ph.D. and was awarded the title of the USSR Merited Master of Sports in 1940. N. Panin died in 1956 at the age 84.

Marathon was the most dramatic event of the IVth Olympic Games in London. Dorando Pietri of Italy, who was the first to appear at the stadium, was almost out on his feet. His movements were uncertain, and he found it difficult to get his bearings. Instead of turning left, he turned right. Realizing his mistake, he started in the opposite direction but fell 70 meters from the finish. Then rose, made a few shaky steps and fell over again. Rising and falling, the Italian forged slowly ahead, and with 20 meters to go, another athlete entered the stadium (John Hayes of the USA). Just a few meters from the finish line Pietri fell down once

again and blacked out. Two officials helped him across the finish line. Heated discussions of the judges resulted in his disqualification for outside assistance. He was left without an Olympic medal, but during the award ceremony D. Pietri was invited to the central stand where a member of the Royal family presented him for outstanding sportsmanship a gold cup, similar to that awarded to Olympic champions. The same day, the Bishop of St. Peter's cathedral commented this incident this way: "What matters in the Olympiad is participation rather than victory". These words are attributed to P. de Coubertin by mistake.

After the Olympic Games the first lists were published of the unofficial team count. Soon this count gained extreme popularity, in spite of objections from the IOC.

The British team was placed first in the unofficial team count with 147 medals (57 gold, 50 silver and 40 bronze) and 303.5 points. The US team was second with 47 medals (23, 12 and 12) and 103.3 points, and Sweden was third with 25 medals (8, 6 and 11, respectively) and 46.3 points.

The Games of the Vth Olympiad

(Stockholm, 5 May — 22 July 1912)



Sweden had repeatedly suggested to stage the Olympic Games in Stockholm ever since the establishment of the IOC in 1894. In 1904 the IOC finally agreed and Sweden started enthusiastically preparing for the Summer Games of 1912. The preparations were greatly facilitated by the direct assistance on the part of the King of Sweden. Consequently, the Stockholm was well prepared for the Games. Sports facilities and the whole system of running the Games were thoroughly planned accurately executed. 2,547 athletes (including 57 females) arrived in Stockholm from 28 countries.

The number of sports events in the program was slightly reduced as compared to the previous Olympics. The total number of competitions, though, was even increased. Male athletes competed in Greco-Roman wrestling, cycling, water polo, rowing, equestrian, track and field, yachting, swimming, diving, modern pentathlon, shooting, tennis, fencing and soccer. The program for female athletes included tennis, swimming and diving.

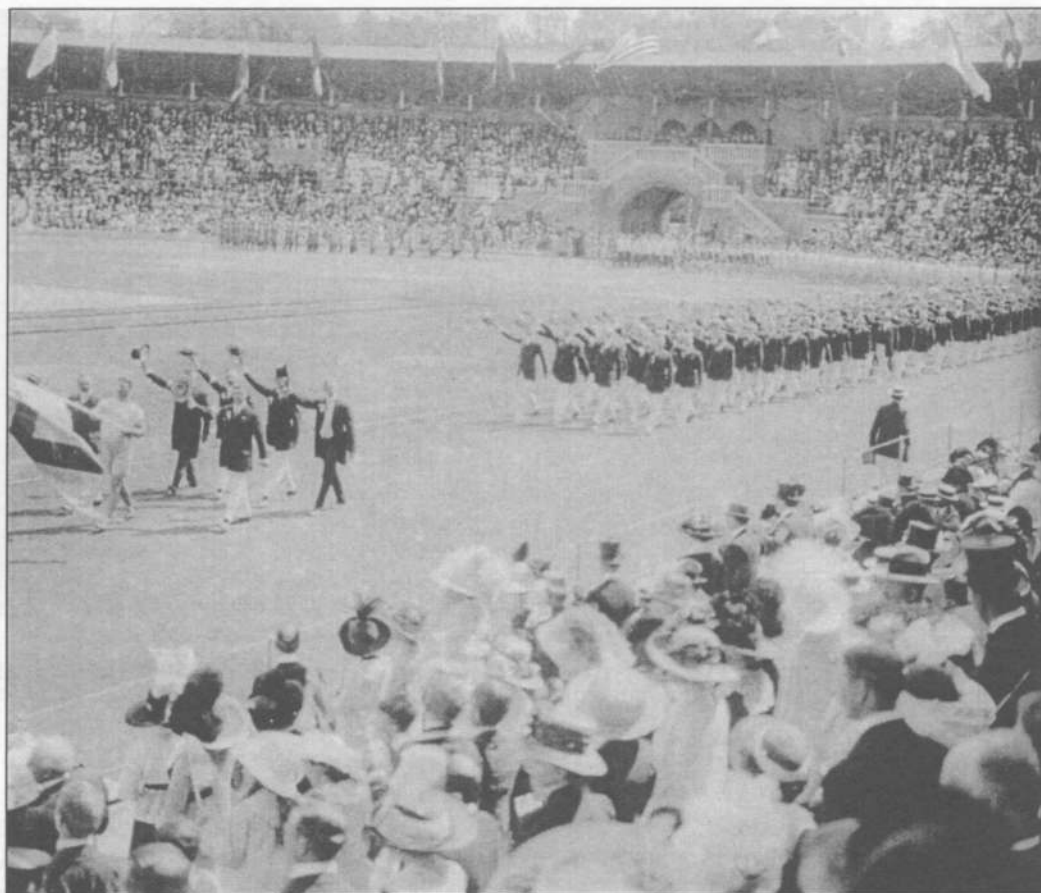
Russia sent a numerous delegation of 169 athletes, who took part in almost all events of the Olympic program. The Russian Olympic Committee, established in 1912, was sure of successful performances of the Russian athletes in Stockholm. In its appeal to the Russian sporting bodies, the Committee said: "Russian athletes had not taken part in the first three Olympics. It was only in 1908 that some sports societies sent five representatives to the Olympic Games for the first time. One of those five athletes placed first, and another two finished second. This achievement, as well as the fact that Russian amateur athletes had often surpassed their famous opponents in wrestling, rowing, shooting, soccer and other sports and games, both in Russia and abroad, make one feel confident that, given the right organization, Russia can be a success in the 1912 Olympic Games." But that hope was not to be. The Russian team proved very ill prepared and placed only fifteenth, with a mere two silver and two bronze medals.

The 1912 Games in Stockholm produced a number of outstanding results, competition being really stiff in many events.

Like in the previous Games, most of the nations competed in track and field events, where there were thirty sets of awards to win. Unlike the 1908 Olympiad, where track and field events had been dominated by the USA, the tide turned in Stockholm. Gold medals were awarded to Swedes Hugo Wieslander (decathlon), Eric Lemming (javelin), and Gustaf Lindblom (triple jump); Kenneth McArthur of the South-African Union (marathon); Platt Adams (standing long jump); Armas Taipale of Finland (discus), D. Goulding of Canada (10-kilometer walk); Arnold Jackson of Great Britain (1,500 m.), etc. The biggest haul of gold medals was collected by Hannes Kolehmainen of Finland, who won three gold medals in the 5,000 and 10,000-meter running and in the 12-kilometer cross country race.

The official reference books do not have the name of Jim Thorpe of the USA in the list of Olympic champions. This athlete, American Indian by descent, won the pentathlon and decathlon events by a huge margin. In fact, he scored 8,412.915 points in decathlon, beating the runner-

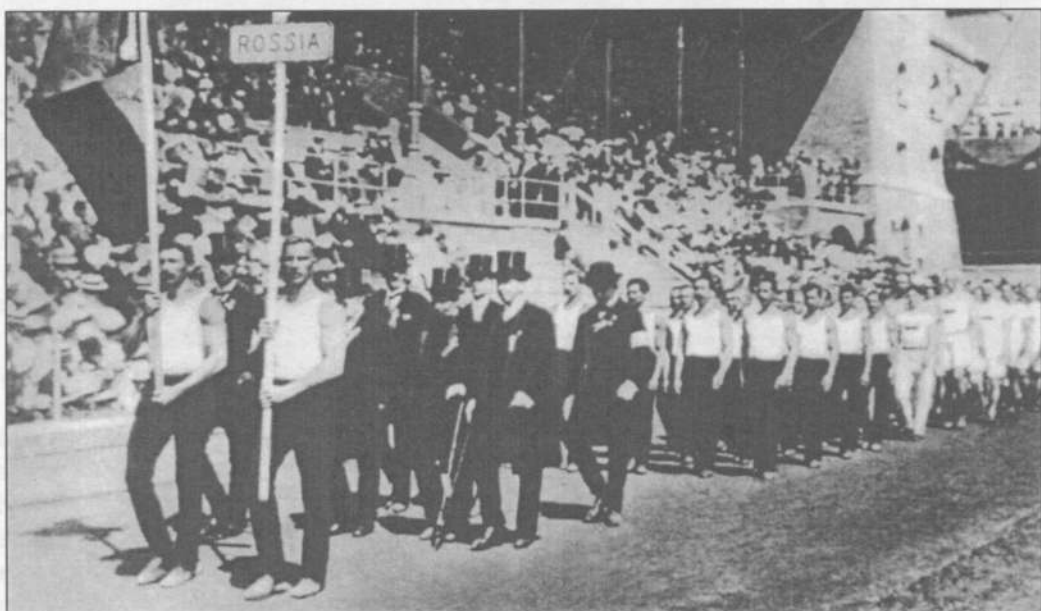
**The Opening
Ceremony
of the Fifth
Olympic Games
(Stockholm,
1912)**

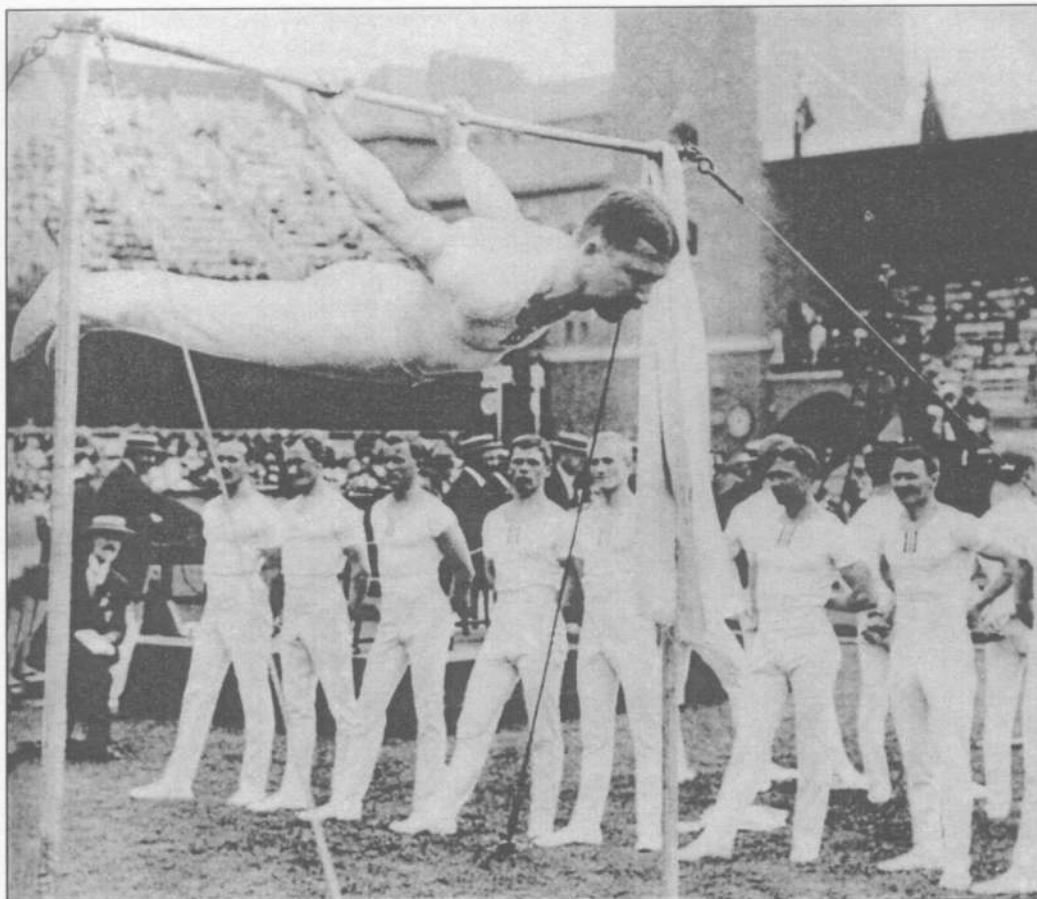


up by 700 points. At the award ceremony the King of Sweden called him the greatest athlete of all times. On his return to the US, Thorpe was enthusiastically welcomed by Senators and Congressmen, and even President sent him his greetings. But Thorpe's triumph effectively refuted the theory and practice of the white race superiority, so later on, on the pretext of his receiving petty

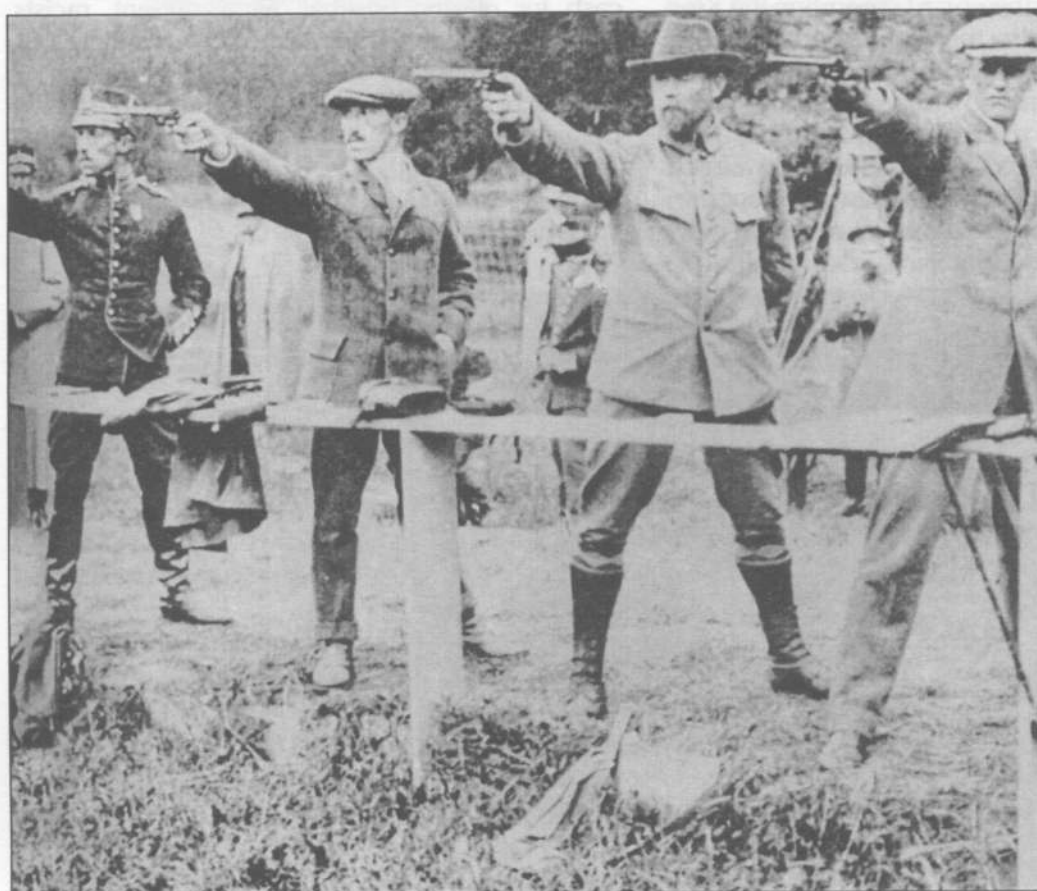
cash for playing baseball as a student, racists slapped a lifetime ban on the talented athlete. His medals were sent back to the IOC, along with a request by the Executive Board of the US Athletic Union to reconsider the final placing in the events. To the credit of the Swedish decathlon athlete Hugo Wieslander, he refused to accept Thorpe's gold medal 20 years after his death.

**The Russian
delegation at
the Opening
Ceremony
(Stockholm,
1912)**





Norwegian gymnastics team, winner of the free exercise and apparatus competition (Stockholm, 1912)



Swedish gold medalists in the 30-meter team rapid-fire pistol competition (Stockholm, 1912)



Jim Thorpe of the USA in action
(Stockholm, 1912)

The field of the wrestling competition included 180 athletes from 17 countries. Under the then regulations, the bout went on for an hour. If the referee did not register a throw, the winner was decided on points. In the semifinals and in the final the bouts continued until a clear-cut victory. As a result, A. Ahlgren of Sweden and I. Beling of Finland continued their bout for six hours, and A. Asikainen of Finland and M. Klein of Russia even for ten hours. Moreover, the Russian, winner of the latter semifinal, had to go straight into the final bout, for the organizers would not let him take time for proper rest. Many specialists are certain that must have cost M. Klein the Olympic title, and the gold medal in middleweight went to C. Juhaneson of Sweden.

The first ever modern pentathlon event was won by G. Lilliehock, Lieutenant of Swedish Royal Guards, who placed first ahead of 32 rivals from 10 countries.

Young Duke Kahanamoku of Hawaii caused a major sensation in swimming. He covered the 100-meter distance by the crawl style, breaking the world record of Charles Daniels in the preliminary round and setting a new world record in the semifinal (1 min. 02,4 sec.). Harry Hebner of the USA also introduced a new style in the backstroke, which helped him defeat the favorite, O. Fahr of Germany.

A highlight of the running deer shooting event was the victory of Sweden, particularly one of the team members, Oscar Swahn, who was 64 years and 258 days on the day of their triumph. No other athlete in the history of the Games had been able



Takedown in Greco-Roman match, the only type of wrestling held in 1912 (Stockholm)

to become an Olympic champion at such an age.

The Vth Olympiad stood apart from the other Games because of the inclusion of literature and arts into its program by the decision of the IOC session in Paris in 1906. The gold medal for literature was awarded to G. Hohrod and M. Aschbach for their "Ode to Sports". It turned out that the names had been used as a pseudonym by P. de Coubertin to conceal his identity. That was the first and only gold medal awarded to the great advocate of the Olympic sport movement.

The Games ended in the triumph for Sweden, whose athletes won 24 gold, 24 silver and 17 bronze medals (137 points in the unofficial team count). The US team placed second, with 126 points and 61 medals (23, 19 and 19, respectively). The third spot went to Great Britain who got 41 medals (10, 15 and 16) and 76 points.

General Characteristics Of The Second Period Of The Olympic Games (1920—1948)

This period covers the years between the two World Wars and includes the first three postwar years. The political, economic and moral shocks of that period had a direct impact on the Olympic sports. It proved impossible to hold the XIIth and XIIIth Olympic Games, and dramatic events unfurled at the 1936 Games in Berlin.

It was at that period that Pierre de Coubertin went into retirement in 1925. In his statement, which many called his testament, he wrote: "Although I am still official President of the IOC, I decided to quit... But first, let me warn you, the men who to a certain extent decide the fate of sports, against the impact of modern trends which stand in the way of sports development.

For 30 years I have been fighting for the idea of Olympic sports. I have faced hostile opposition and had to fight hatred, too. In spite of all that, I succeeded in making up the IOC membership of 52, with 41 countries represented in the IOC from Europe, Africa, America and Asia. Sport is fraught with the same dangers all the time: on the one hand, public opinion, whose favors sport needs, can turn away from sports, tired of the need to support to sports; on the other hand, it is the striving to stage manage shows, to corrupt athletes and please spectators... Despite a number of disappointments, I still believe in the peace-making, moral and educational virtues of sports".

No serious attempts had been made in that period to stage intercalated games in Greece similar to those held in 1906. But there was no let up in the efforts of Greece to keep a high profile in Olympic sports. In the early 1920's Ioanis Chrysaphis and a group of his supporters from the Greek Antique Pedagogy Society launched an idea to restore an ancient gymnasium and develop it into a prestigious International University. Pierre de Coubertin gave his full support to those plans. But it was not until 1961 that the idea was eventually implemented, in the form of the International Olympic Academy.

In the 1920's the IOC was doing its best to take into account the current political situation in the world. In 1920 and 1924 Germany was barred from the two Olympic Games, German athletes getting the IOC permission to compete in the Games only after Germany had joined the League of Nations and the International European organizations. Although the Olympic Games were constantly hailed by the organizers and the mass media as an important instrument of strengthening international cooperation, certain circles and states used the Olympic forums to stir up national antagonism. The IOC policies of that period deserve serious criticism. It is difficult to account, for instance, for the election of a third member to the IOC from Germany, Italy and Japan in 1938, when those countries were preparing full steam to unleash a new war.

The IOC moral crisis culminated in the XIth Olympic Games held in Berlin in 1936, although

the decision to select Berlin had been taken by the 29th session of the IOC in 1931, before the Nazis came to power. 43 members of the IOC voted for, 16 against and 8 abstained. When Hitler became German Chancellor, world community started to doubt the right of Germany to host the Olympics. Thereupon on-going conflicts began between the Berlin Games organizers and the IOC as relates compliance with the Olympic Charter.

The IOC sent a written warning to the German government in 1933 that preparation of the upcoming Olympic Games would be moved to another country, should Germany refuse to reinstate the authority of the German Olympic Committee to organize the Games, of which right the Committee had been forcibly deprived. The world press made public such developments as the dissolution of the German Athletic Union and the creation of the Nazi Sports Committee, the conflict between the German Olympic Committee and the Nazi government over the Games organization, and the expelling of Jewish athletes from athletic clubs.

At the 31st session of the IOC in Vienna in 1933, a representative of the German government gave false assurances and empty promises to admit Jewish athletes to the Games. By that time, however, the IOC had come into possession of numerous cases of the Olympic Charter violations and set up a special commission, headed by the would-be IOC President Avery Brundage of the USA, to spot check the situation. The US Amateur Athletic Federation threatened to withdraw from the Games if the ban for Jews to compete was not scrapped. Jewish athletes of the USA launched a public campaign against holding the Games in Berlin.

The IOC Special Commission discovered numerous cases of abuse and bestialities perpetrated by Nazis against Jewish athletes. Yet the preliminary report of the Commission, published in the American press, maintained that Germany could stage the Games anyway, so the IOC at its Oslo session in 1935 decided against moving the Olympics to some other place in 1936.

A conference was held in June 1936 in Paris in defense of the Olympic movement ideas, which found the idea of staging the Games in a fascist country incompatible with the Olympic principles and called to hold instead a Peoples' Olympiad in Barcelona. A Council to move the Games from Berlin to another city was set up in New York. Over 20 teams arrived in Barcelona from different countries in July 1936, but the fascist coup on the eve of the Peoples' Olympiad opening (July 18) made the alternative Games impossible.

The Olympic Games in Berlin proved a triumph for the black American athletes and another blow for the racist prejudices. The ten black Americans won 6 gold, 3 silver and 2 bronze medals. Even the victory of Germany in the unofficial team count failed to overshadow the defeat of the racist policies pursued by fascist Germany.

The 1936 Games analysis shows that the IOC failed to prevent the Nazi regime from using the Berlin Olympiad and the Winter Olympic Games in Garmisch-Partenkirchen in their political interests. Back in 1933 Hitler indicated that Germany had gotten in a tight fix in its foreign policy, so that the Olympic Games and the accompanying cultural events should help Germany gain international prestige. Thus, the Olympic movement, its ideals and principles had been used by the totalitarian system to obtain international recognition and to distract public attention from the aggressive plans of Germany.

The IOC, on the other hand, spared no effort to outlaw the international sports movement of the working class, mainly due to the negative feelings of the IOC leaders, particularly President H. Baillet-Latour, towards the Soviet Union. In practical terms this stance led to a sports blockade of the USSR. P. de Coubertin failed in his attempts in the early 1930's to reverse this stand by drawing the IOC attention to the extensive development of sports in the Soviet Union and the need for a broad involvement of workers in sports. The facts above, as well as barring Germany and its World War II allies from competing in the VIIth Olympic Games proved that politicization of the international Olympic movement was in progress.

The process greatly intensified after the 1936 Games went under a barrage of criticism for nationalism, chauvinism and political intrigues. The crisis came to a head at the IOC 1938 session in Cairo, which issued a special statement warning against the dangers of the Olympic ideals being threatened by the attempts to use the team count results for glorification of individual countries.

The world political situation, in the wake of the emergence of the Berlin-Rome-Tokyo military block, dramatically changed the atmosphere around the Olympic movement. Japan refused to host the XIIIth Games in Tokyo, whereupon they were planned to be moved to Helsinki. A complicated situation developed yet again around the 1944 Olympic Games. Rome was very active in the bid to host the XIIIth Games there, but the 1939 IOC session selected London as the venue of the upcoming Olympic Games.

World War II, which broke out in 1939, disrupt-

ed severely the Olympic sports. The IOC lost its President. Henri de Baillet-Latour died in 1942. It was impossible to hold the Games in both 1940 and 1944.

Despite the complicated political situation and its negative impact on sports, that period, however, saw an intensive improvement of the international Olympic movement in terms of its structure, the legal basis and management, relationships between states, the IOC, NOCs and federations, etc.

The activities of the Executive Committee was in good shape in 1926—1927, with its decisions being published in a special bulletin. The measures taken to coordinate the efforts of the IOC, NOCs and International Federations helped improve the Games programs. The first discussions between the IOC leadership with International Federations and National Olympic Committees were held on the eve of the 1928 Games.

The IOC managed to bring order in the Olympic Games programs, the procedure of holding exhibition events, and the award ceremony. The Olympic Oath was first taken at the 1920 Games in Antwerp by V. Bouane, the fencer who later was elected President of the NOC of Belgium:

"On behalf of all the athletes, I hereby promise that we shall compete in these Olympic Games, respecting and complying with the rules of the Games, in the authentic sporting spirit, for the glory of sport and in honor of our teams".

The IOC supervised the development of system to prepare for the upcoming Olympic Games, and the practice was first introduced of holding training camp sessions and the joint accommodation of athletes in the Olympic village.

That period also saw attempts to break the Olympic Games down in separate competitions on the regional, sex or professional grounds. Suggestions were heard to hold Olympics for females, students, Latin America, Balkans, etc. The IOC rejected those attempts, thereby maintaining the integrity of the Olympic sports. The IOC Executive Committee did a lot for female participation in the Games to become regular, rather than merely token and symbolic. Many events were introduced for female athletes in the Olympic Games program in track and field, swimming, fencing, gymnastics, cross country skiing and speed skating. Simultaneously, there emerged a problem of amateur sports. The IOC was unable to resolve the problem, but excluded baseball, rugby and tennis from the Olympic program. There were acute differences of opinions as for certain issues in skiing and soccer.

Early on in World War II the IOC was directed by its Vice-President Sigfrid J. Edstrom who greatly contributed to the fresh start of the Olympic movement after the war. Already in August 1945 the IOC Executive Committee, which was held in London, granted St. Moritz the right to host the Winter Olympic Games in 1948, and the right to host Summer Olympics the same year to London. The decision of the Executive Committee was approved by the IOC session in 1946.

President of the IOC appealed to the athletes of the world in December 1946 to take part in the 1948 Olympic Games and said, in particular: "The world youth are meeting together again to cross swords in friendly sporting competitions. We have endured two terrible world wars. Warmongers have encroached on our culture. But the future belongs to the young people whose main task is to undo our mistakes and blunders. The fulfillment of this task is contingent on friendly relations between the young people in the world. And the best means to secure friendly relations is the Olympiad." The IOC did not overlook the excessive politicking of the Olympic movement in the 1930's and adhered to the principles of the Olympic sports, which had been formulated by P. de Coubertin. All the IOC activities centered around the effort of making the Olympic movement serve the cause of mutual understanding between nations, peaceful coexistence and mutual assistance.

Having deeply analyzed the post-war political situation in the world, the IOC undertook active steps to involve the Soviet Union in the international Olympic movement. Representatives of the USSR were invited as observers to attend the Olympic Games of 1948. An active process was started of the Soviet sports federations joining the International Federations, and then the USSR Olympic Committee joining the IOC.

A simultaneous IOC effort was launched to restore the rights of the NOCs of Germany and Japan (both being left out of the 1948 Games). The USSR Olympic Committee was recognized by the IOC in 1951, electing the Soviet representative K. A. Andrianov member of the IOC. The same year, the IOC recognized also the NOCs of Japan and of the Federal Republic of Germany. Of major importance for the development of the Olympic sports was the decision to establish the International Olympic Academy, as had been suggested by the Greek scientist I. Ketseas at the IOC session in Rome in 1949. The principal tasks of the Academy were to be the development of sports science, the popularization of Olympic ideals, studies in Olympic sports, etc.

The Helsinki session of the IOC held in 1952 on the eve of the XVth Summer Olympic Games concluded the Second Stage of the Olympic movement development. Sigfrid Edstrom handed in his resignation because of old age. The new President of the IOC elected there was Avery Brundage.

The Second Period of the Olympic movement development, despite its numerous problems and contradictions, had demonstrated an increased prestige of the Olympic movement. The number of IOC member-countries over that period rose from 23 to 52. The Olympic movement was joined by countries of Latin America, Asia and by a number of European states. It was that period that brought understanding that a successful Olympic movement was possible only on the foundation of the Olympic ideals, which had been worked out by Coubertin and his associates.

Besides, the Second Period of the Olympic movement helped improve further the international Olympic system. The IOC activities underwent a significant reorganization, achieving full-fledged cooperation with NOCs and the International Sports Federations. The system of preparation and staging the Olympic Games was much improved. A number of new international sports bodies emerged, such as the International Shooting Union (UIT) in 1921; the International Hockey Federation (FIH) in 1924; the International Amateur Basketball Federation (FIBA) in 1932; the International Amateur Boxing Federation (AIBA) in 1946, etc.

To sum up, note should be made of the Second Period of the Olympic Games coincided with the most unfavorable times for sports development, with on-going political tensions, wars, post-war devastation, etc. But all those obstacles apart, sports continued on the development course, especially the Olympic sports. An increased repute of the Olympic sports acted as a booster for the development of physical culture in many countries of the world, including the colonies, which can be seen in the increased number of their representatives at international competitions and at the Olympic Games.

During that period many expensive sports facilities (stadiums, tennis courts, specialized gyms, etc.) had been erected in many countries, and the training system of the Olympic athletes significantly improved. Active research into sports, particularly Olympic sports issues, was the most obvious feature of the period in question. One cannot overestimate the importance of an extensive development of the general theory of training and the theory and methods of athletes' training in various sporting events, which certainly contributed to the progress of the Olympic sports.

Chronology of the VII — XIX Summer Olympic Games

The VIIth Summer Olympic Games

(Antwerp, 30 April — 12 September 1920)



Because of the Great War, the IOC had to cancel the VIth Olympiad which was to be staged in 1916 in Berlin.

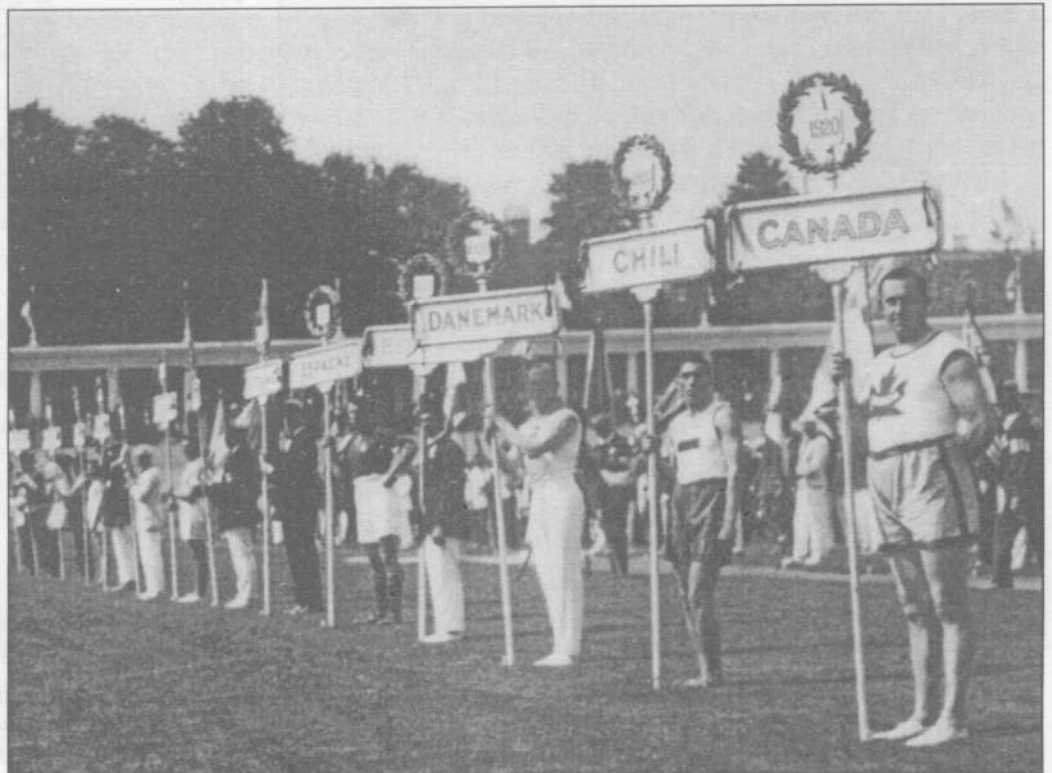
After an eight-year intermission, Antwerp, Belgium welcomed 2,668 athletes (including 77 females) from 29 countries for the VIIth Olympic Games. Soviet athletes had not been invited because of the political and economic boycott of

the Bolsheviks-run Soviet Russia being extended to sports. Germany and its war-time allies had also been rejected, for painful memories of the war still lingered in people's minds.

The Games spread over four months. Figure skating and hockey started in April, while soccer in August and September. The Opening ceremony, however, took place on 14 August, and the Closing ceremony on August 29. Compared to the previous Games, the program was slightly expanded to include boxing, free-style wrestling, archery, weightlifting, and rugby. Also included in the program were two winter sport events, figure skating and ice hockey.

Those Games heard the first ever Olympic Oath taken, which had been written by P. de Coubertin in 1913. Also for the first time, there appeared the Olympic flag with five interlacing rings of blue, yellow, black, green and red against the white background.

The war consequences took a heavy toll of the competition. But even in the absence of Germany, its allies and Russia, many events produced excellent results. The USA athletes failed to repeat their past triumph and won only one third of the gold medals in Antwerp. Finland and Great Britain collected 15 gold medals each. The outstanding Finnish runner Paavo Nurmi won three gold and



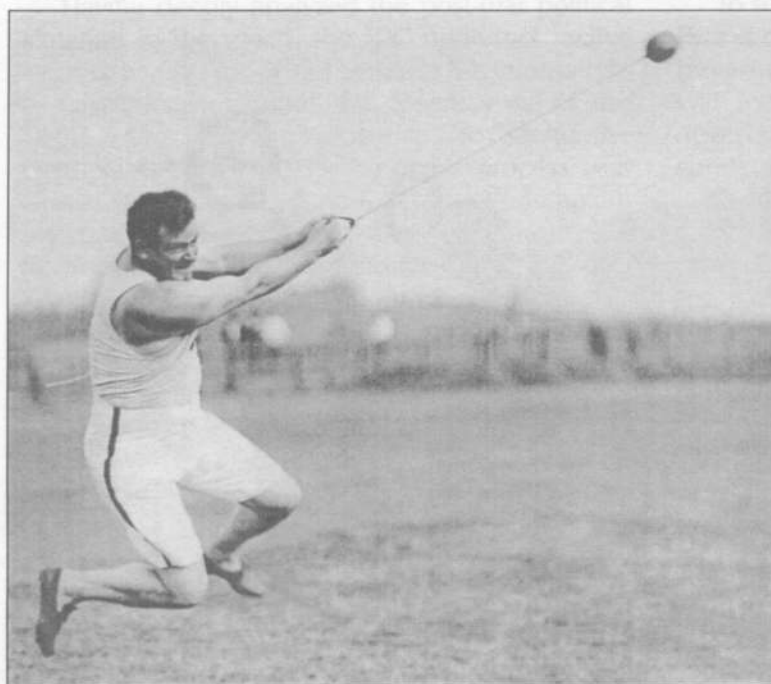
The Antwerp Games featured the record number of participating countries (29)



Victor Bouane of Belgium, the first athlete to take the Olympic Oath (Antwerp, 1920)



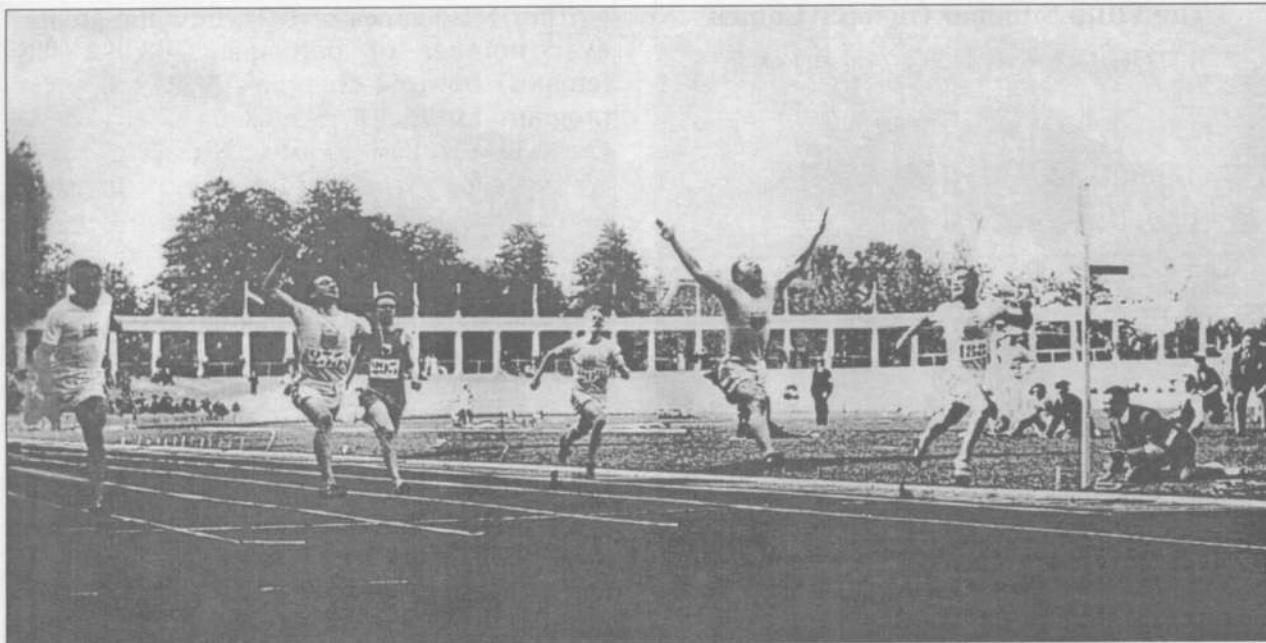
Platform diving competition (Antwerp, 1920)



Patrick Ryan (USA), champion of the VII Olympics in hammer throwing (Antwerp, 1920)



Eddie Eagan — champion of Summer and Winter Olympic Games (Antwerp, 1920)



Charles Paddock, winner of the 100 m final (Antwerp, 1920)

one silver medal in running, and was recognized as hero of the Antwerp Games. Finland won a further three gold medals in throwing events: "Ville" Povahola in the shot put (14.81 m), Elmer Niklander in the discus (44.68 m), and Jonni Myrrä in the javelin (65.78 m).

Champion of the Stockholm Games N. Nadi of Italy set an absolute record in the history of fencing, having won five gold medals. It is interesting to note that his brother Aldo also got three.

The swimming part of the program was marked by the new world record in the 100-meters free style event by D. Kahanamoku of the USA, 1912 Olympic champion. The best among female swimmers was E. Bleibtrey, also of the USA, who won three gold medals (100 and 300 meters free style and in the 4 x 100-meter relay).

The field of contestants in shooting included 367 athletes from 18 countries. Six of them won three gold medals each (M. Fisher, D. Fenton, J. Jackson, K. Frederick, O. Schryver of the USA and O. Lilloe-Olsen of Norway).

The soccer final was played out by the teams of Belgium and Czechoslovakia. The host nation team had beaten strong teams of Spain (3:1) and Holland (3:0) on the way to the final and were leading 2:0 by the end of the first half in the final match. With two minutes to go, Steiner of Czechoslovakia tripped an opponent and was sent off. Then the whole Czech team left the field and was subsequently disqualified. The soccer awards were presented to Belgium, Spain and Holland.

A freak situation developed in yachting, where

one boat only started in seven of the 14 classes on the program, the other ones including only two or three boats. Each boat competed in one class only. That sort of competition, naturally, was a rather low key event.

The USA eight made a big stir in rowing when they outstripped the favorites, the British eight. J. Kelly of the USA won two gold medals in the scull and the pair-oars, getting a sweet revenge for having being refused participation in the 1914 Henley regatta in England on the grounds of his low origin and menial labor. Later on J. Kelly was elected President of the US National Olympic Committee.

The first and last ice hockey tournament to be included in the program of Summer Olympics was won by Canada (hockey was part of the Winter Olympic Games starting in 1924).

The Antwerp Games had other interesting points, too. For instance, American boxer E. Eagan got the gold in the light-heavyweight division. Twelve years later he became champion in the four-man bobsled at the Winter Olympics, the only feat of this sort in male Olympic sports history. The 1,500-meter track and field silver went to F. Baker of Great Britain, future winner of the Nobel Peace Award, who in 1980 opened the Olympic Scientific Congress in Tbilisi, Georgia (the USSR).

In the unofficial team count, the USA placed first (203.5 points and 95 medals: 41 gold, 27 silver and 27 bronze medals), Sweden was second (121.5 points and 64 medals: 19, 20, 25) and Great Britain third (88 points and 43 medals: 15, 15, 13, respectively).

The VIIIth Summer Olympic Games

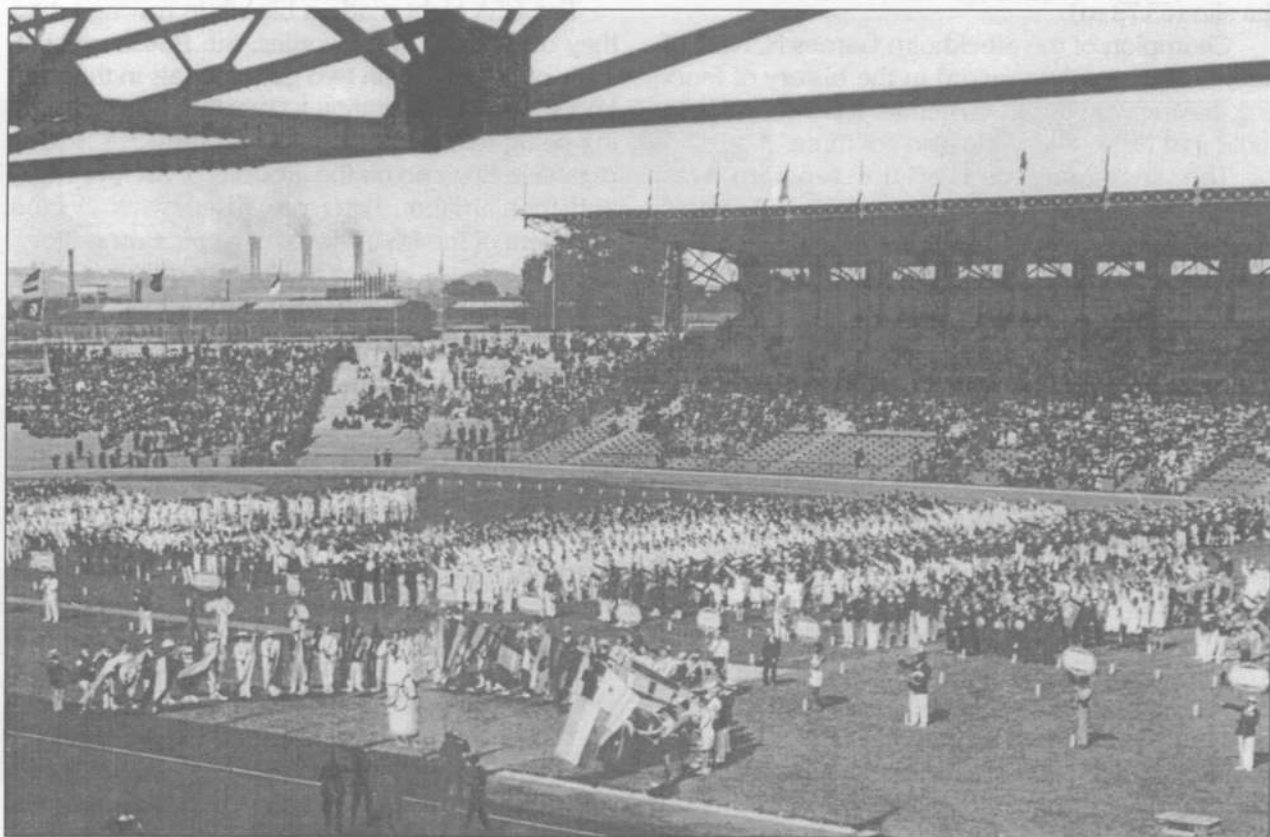
(Paris, 4 May — 28 July 1924)



The capital city of France was the first city to have the honor of hosting Olympics for the second time. Rome, Prague and Los Angeles were also in the bidding, but the IOC decided in favor of Paris, probably to honor the authority of P. de Coubertin and because 1924 was the 30th anniversary of the modern Olympic movement.

The Paris Games of 1924 drew the greatest ever number of participants, 3,092 (136 females) from 44 countries. The competition program for male athletes included boxing, Greco-Roman and free-style wrestling, cycling, water polo, gymnastics, rowing, equestrian events, track and field, yachting, swimming, diving, rugby, horse polo, modern pentathlon, shooting, tennis, weightlifting, fencing and soccer. Female athletes competed in swimming, diving, tennis and fencing. There were also demonstration competitions in French boxing, pelote Basque, volleyball and basketball. Tennis was included in the program for the last time due to disagreements between the International Tennis Federation and the IOC over the amateur status of tennis players.

The level of competition in Paris proved quite high, with eight world and 14 Olympic records broken and stiff competition in most events. Paavo Nurmi was an undisputed hero of the Paris Olympics, beating all of his rivals by a comfortable margin. Having set a new Olympic record in the 1,500-meter final (3 m.53.6 sec.) he went on to set another Olympic record in less than an hour in the 5,000 meters (14 m. 31.2



The Opening Ceremony of the Eighth Olympic Games
(Paris, 1924)



**Wills/Wightman (USA)
defeat McKane/Covell (GBR)
(Paris 1924)**



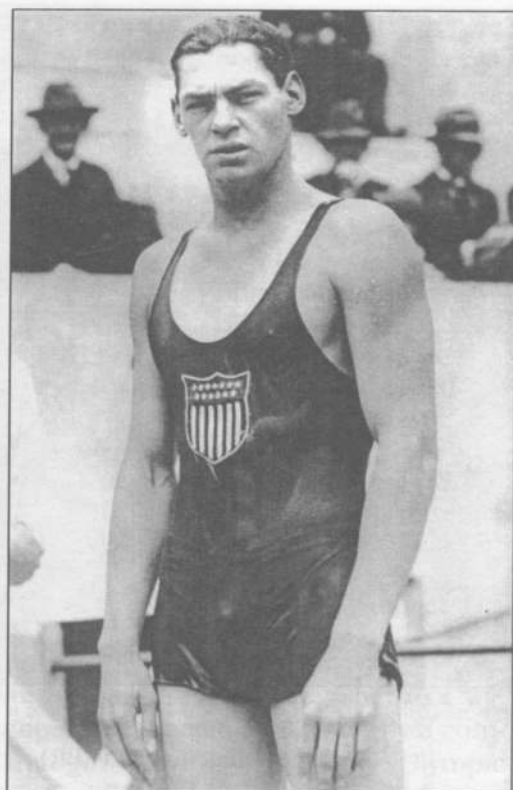
**Finland's Jonni Myrrä defends his title
obtained in Antwerp in 1920 (javelin throwing)
(Paris 1924)**



**America's eight-oared shell after its triumphant finish
(Paris, 1924)**



At the Games of 1920 and 1924 Morris Fisher won 5 gold medals



Johnny Weissmuller in the 100-meter freestyle heat (Paris, 1924)

sec.). In the 10-kilometer cross country run, with only 15 runners of the 38 reaching the finish spot, Nurmi came first 1.5 minutes ahead of his compatriot V. Ritola, who had been winner in the 10,000-meter event.

The USA track and field team improved on their 1920 Olympic record, winning 12 gold, 10 silver and 10 bronze medals. Finland also did well, winning eight top awards.

L. Stukelj of Yugoslavia won the all-round title in gymnastics. At the 1928 Olympic Games he placed third in the all-round competition and won the gold in the rings. He withdrew from sports after the 1936 Olympics, where he placed second in the rings. In spring 1994 L. Stukelj, who was 95, was invited to visit the IOC Headquarters and the Olympic Museum in Lausanne as the oldest Olympic champion.

The swimming competitions produced new Olympic records set by J. Weissmuller of the USA in the 100 and 400 meters (59.0 sec. and 5 min. 04.2 sec.), who added another gold in the 4 x 100-meter relay. This athlete achieved more fame through starring in the Tarzan movies, than as a result of his achievements in sports.

R. Ducret of France won a gold and two silver medals in fencing. A. White of the USA got two

gold medals in diving. Sweden had a clean sweep in pentathlon (B. Lindman, the Olympic champion in Antwerp, G. Dursen and B. Uoggla).

That time around, A. Swahn pulled only two bronze medals, bringing his total to 3 gold, 3 silver and 3 bronze medals of the Olympic Games in 1912, 1920 and 1924. Moreover, his father Oscar also competed in three Olympics (1908, 1912 and 1920), winning three gold, one silver and two bronze awards. That was a family feat, unequaled in the Olympic Games history.

Soccer gold was awarded for the first time to a nation from Latin America (Uruguay).

The 1924 Games set the tradition of determining the total team count on points awarded for the top six places in individual and team events according to the following system: 7 points for the first place, 5 points for the second, 4 for the third, 3 for the fourth, 2 for the fifth, and 1 point for the sixth place.

The Olympic Games of 1924 ended in a convincing victory of the USA team, whose athletes won 99 medals (45, 27, 27) and got 625.55 points. France placed second, with 39 medals (13, 15, 11) and 277.5 points, and Finland in the third slot: 37 medals (14, 13, 10) and 256.5 points.

The IX Summer Olympic Games

(Amsterdam, 17 May — 12 August 1928)



The IOC agreed to hold the Games of 1928 in Amsterdam, the only city to bid for the right to host the Olympics that year.

The program of the Games and the number of participants were almost the same as at the previous Olympics: 3,014 athletes (290 of them female) from 46 countries. Germany returned to the

Olympic family after a 16-year break. Female athletes started to compete in gymnastics and track and field events.

There was stiff competition in many events. But wrestling, boxing and gymnastics were marred by numerous refereeing errors, which spurred on the talk of the need to introduce the Olympic Oath and Fair Play Award for judges and referees, rather than athletes.

Pigeons were let fly for the first time at the opening ceremony as a symbol of peace, and a fire was burning at the Olympic stadium all through the Games, also for the first time, which had been lit up in Olympia by the mirror reflecting the sun and taken to Amsterdam by a relay of runners through the territory of Greece, Yugoslavia, Austria and Germany.

Track and field events, just like four years previously in Paris, were dominated by the athletes of the USA, who won 9 gold, 8 silver and 8 bronze medals. Finland did well yet again, with 5 gold, 5 silver and 4 bronze medals. But that time around they conceded more awards to Canada, Great Britain, Sweden, France, Japan and some other nations.

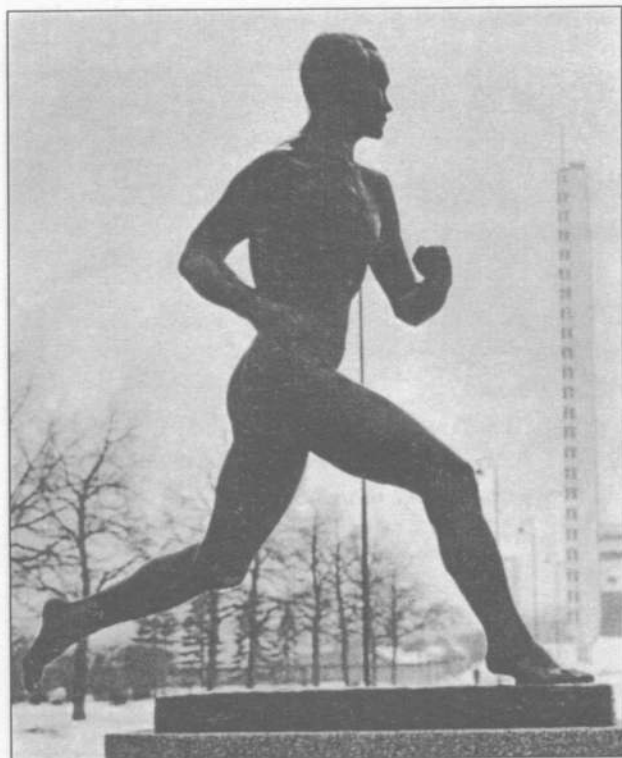
It was the last Olympic Games for the remarkable Finnish athlete Paavo Nurmi, who celebrated the end of his athletic career with



The Opening Ceremony of the Ninth Olympic Games
(Amsterdam, 1928)



Betty Robinson streaked to victory in the 100 meter dash, the first Olympic track and field event for women (Amsterdam 1928)



Monument to Paavo Nurmi off the Olympic stadium in Helsinki



Ethel Catherwood to victory in the high jump (Amsterdam 1928)



**Unexpected victory of Boughera El Ouafi (France)
in the marathon (Amsterdam, 1928)**

another gold medal in the 10,000 meters. His was a really outstanding record. He set 24 world records in eight years, 1921 through 1929, from 1,500-meter to 20-kilometer events. As a token of respect and gratitude of the people of Finland



**Viho Ritola, Paavo Nurmi (both of Finland) take the
lead in the 5,000-meter heat (Amsterdam, 1928)**

to the outstanding athlete, they put up a bronze sculpture of the running Nurmi next to the Helsinki Olympic Stadium.

The athletes of Italy and Argentina proved their worth in boxing, winning three and two gold

**Spanish athletes
were the first
in team jumping
competitions.
The photo shows
Jose Alvarez
Marques
(Amsterdam,
1928)**





**Moment of eight-oared shell competitions
at the Amsterdam Games (1928)**

medals, respectively. Finland, Sweden and other European nations edged the USA out of the top spots in free-style wrestling. The competition in Greco-Roman wrestling was even more stiff, where none of the winners of the previous Games managed to repeat their success. Six events were won by representatives of various countries.

Competition was also very stiff in swimming. J. Weissmuller dominated the 100-meter free-style event (58.6 sec.). Alberto Zorilla of Argentina won the 400 meters, clocking in 5 min. 01.6 sec. Arne Borg, a swimmer from Sweden, dominated the 1,500-meter free-style event (19 min. 51.8 sec.). Yoshiyuki Tsuruta of Japan clocked in 2 min. 48.8 sec. in the 200-meter breaststroke, and George Kojac of the USA won the 100-meter breaststroke. Female swimming events were won by Albina Osipowich, Marina Norelius of the USA, Hilde Schrader of Germany and Marie Braun of the Netherlands.

Men's gymnastics was dominated by Swiss athletes who won five gold medals out of the seven. The Dutch team placed first in the female all-around team event.

The soccer competition, with a field of 17 teams, was again won by Uruguay, like in 1924.

In cycling the IOC introduced a set of regulations, which was very similar to that of these days, and included 1,000-meter time trial, 1,000-meter individual sprint (the scratch), 2,000-meter tandem, 4,000-meter pursuit and 168-kilometer road race. Denmark won both individual (H. Hansen) and team events in the road race. V. Falk-Hansen, also of Denmark came first in the time trial, R. Beaufrand won the scratch, and the Dutch and Italian teams were best in the tandem and pursuit, respectively.

The USA team once again ended up on top, with 56 medals (22 gold, 18 silver and 16 bronze medals) and 389.5 points. Germany places second with 31 medals (10, 7, 14) and 240.5 points, and Sweden was third with 25 medals (7, 6, 12) and 160 points.

The Xth Summer Olympic Games

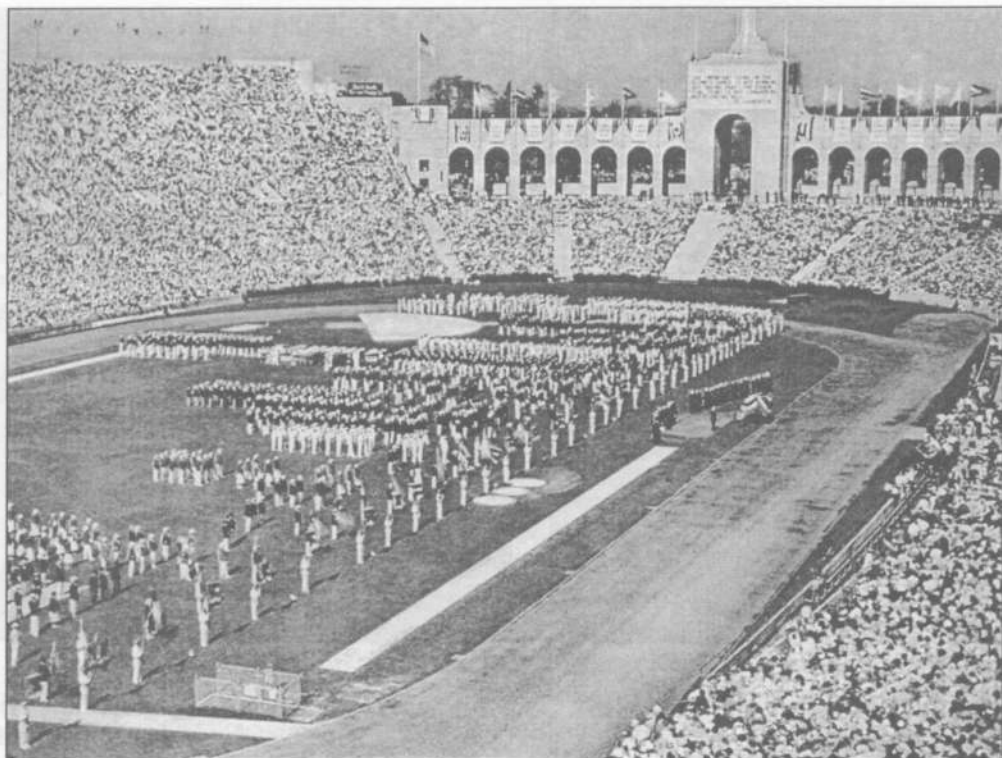
(Los Angeles, 30 July — 14 August 1932)



The number of participants was almost two times less than each of the preceding four Games, because of the enormous distance to travel from Europe to Los Angeles. 1,408 athletes (of them 127 females) arrived in the USA from 37 countries.

The program included 16 events, with 126 sets of medals to be won. The contents of the program

**The Opening
Ceremony
of the Tenth
Olympic Games
(Los Angeles, 1932)**



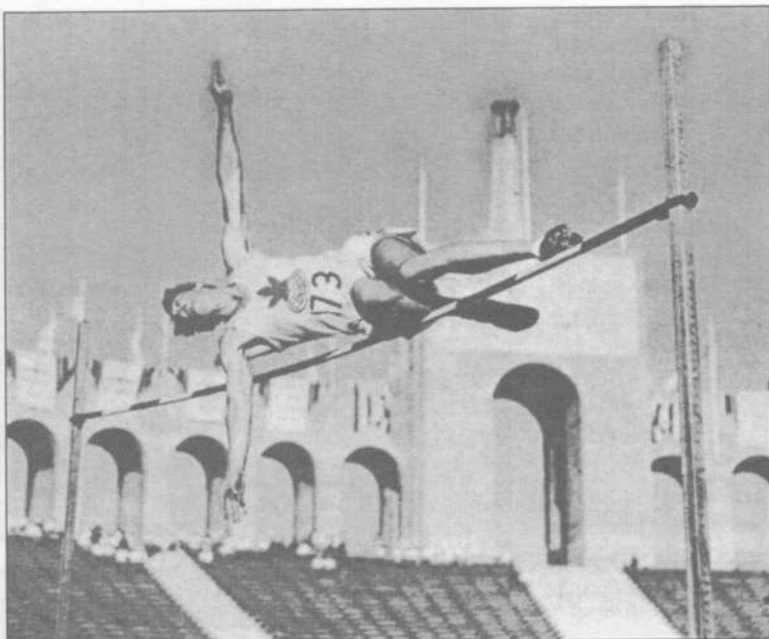
**Despite his small height, Eddie Tolan
(right with Ralph Metcalfe) won both
the 100- and 200-meters
(Los Angeles, 1932)**



**Mildred Didrikson —
an outstanding athlete
from the USA
(Los Angeles, 1932)**



**Dramatic moment at the distance
of cross country in pentathlon**
(Los Angeles, 1932)



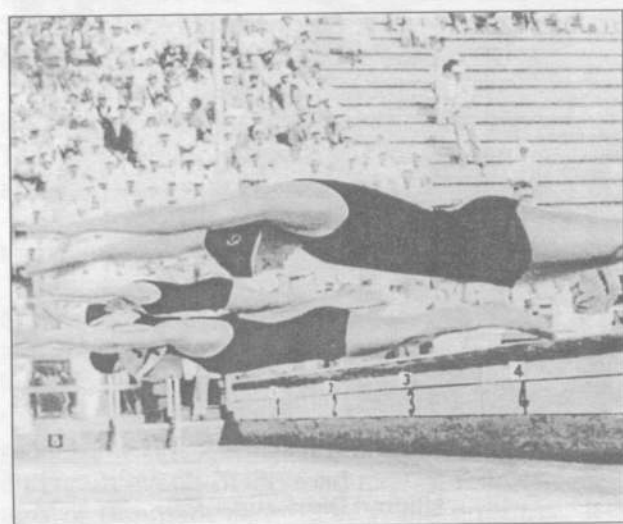
**Duncan McNaughton (Canada) winning
the high jump with a height of 1.97 m**
(Los Angeles, 1932)

was the same as in Amsterdam, the only exception being that shooting was a substitute for soccer.

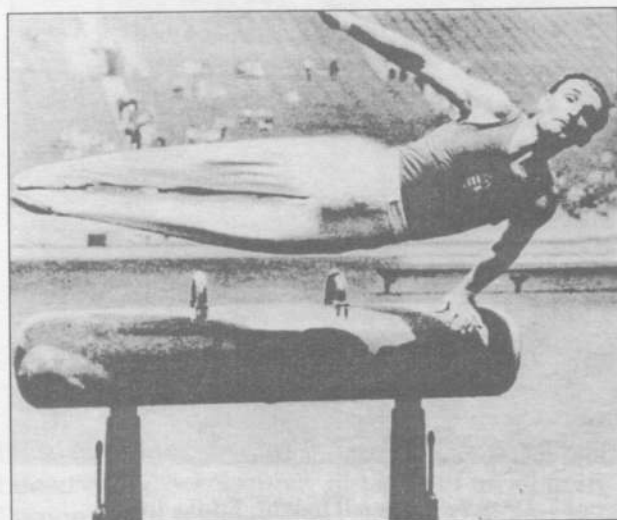
The relatively small field of participants did not downgraded the level of the Games competitions, which produced 116 Olympic records, 21 of them new world records.

The best results were achieved in track and field: 54 Olympic records were set in Los Angeles, eight of those surpassing the current world records. Only in the long jump the athletes failed to better the results of the previous Games.

Twenty one-year-old Mildred Didrikson of the USA won two events, the 80-meter hurdles and the javelin throw. In her memoirs she wrote: "As early as in my teens I knew well what I would like to be. My goal was to make the greatest female athlete in the world". It is difficult to say if indeed she had been a great athlete, but an outstanding athlete she had been, beyond any doubt. After the Los Angeles Games she turned a pro golf player, went on to win lots of top golf tournaments over her professional career, including world championships, and was recognized as the world best female



Start at 100 m freestyle (women)
(Los Angeles, 1932)



**István Pelle of Hungary in gold-medal pommel
horse performance** (Los Angeles, 1932)

**A view
of the individual
road race**
(Los Angeles,
1932)



golf player. Associated Press Agency five times declared her Female Athlete of the Year: in 1932 for her achievements in track and field events, and 1945—47 and 1950 for excellence in golf.

There were three world and 36 Olympic records set in swimming. The big surprise was produced by the Japanese swimmers, who won 5 of the 6 events. It is interesting to note that Kusuo Kitamura, winner of the 1,500-meter event, was only 14 years old. His record of 19 min. 12.4 sec. stood for 20 years. Winner of the 100-meter freestyle event Yasuji Miyazaki, also of Japan, was only one year older than Kitamura.

Italians G. Marzi and G. Cornaggia-Medici won the individual foil and epee, and Hungary was out of reach in the saber. E. Muller-Preis of Austria celebrated her Olympic debut with a gold medal. The next two Games brought her two bronze medals. She finished off her career at the 1956 Olympics at the age of 43.

Heavyweight J. Richthoff of Sweden repeated his Olympic success in free-style wrestling. V. Kokkinen of Finland, champion of the Amsterdam Games, confirmed his superiority in Los Angeles. I. Juhansson of Sweden won gold medals both in Greco-Roman and free-style wrestling. Another wrestler from Sweden, the Olympic champion of 1920 and 1924 C. Westergren, placed first once again after an eight-year break. What is even more interesting, he collected the gold medals in different weight categories.

Of interest also are the results in some other events. I. Enekes of Hungary (the flyweight division) was the only European to hold his own against the formidable opposition of the Americans, to stop the US athletes, racing certainties to pull all the Olympic gold in boxing. In weightlifting Europeans took a revenge, winning all the gold medals, three of them being awarded to the French athletes.

Los Angeles was the first Olympic city to accommodate athletes in the Olympic village, which had been specially built for the occasion 20 kilometers

from the city. The 700 prefabricated houses were put up a stone's throw from the sports facilities, restaurants and recreation zones, which offered the athletes a friendly environment for socializing, sharing training methods and recuperation.

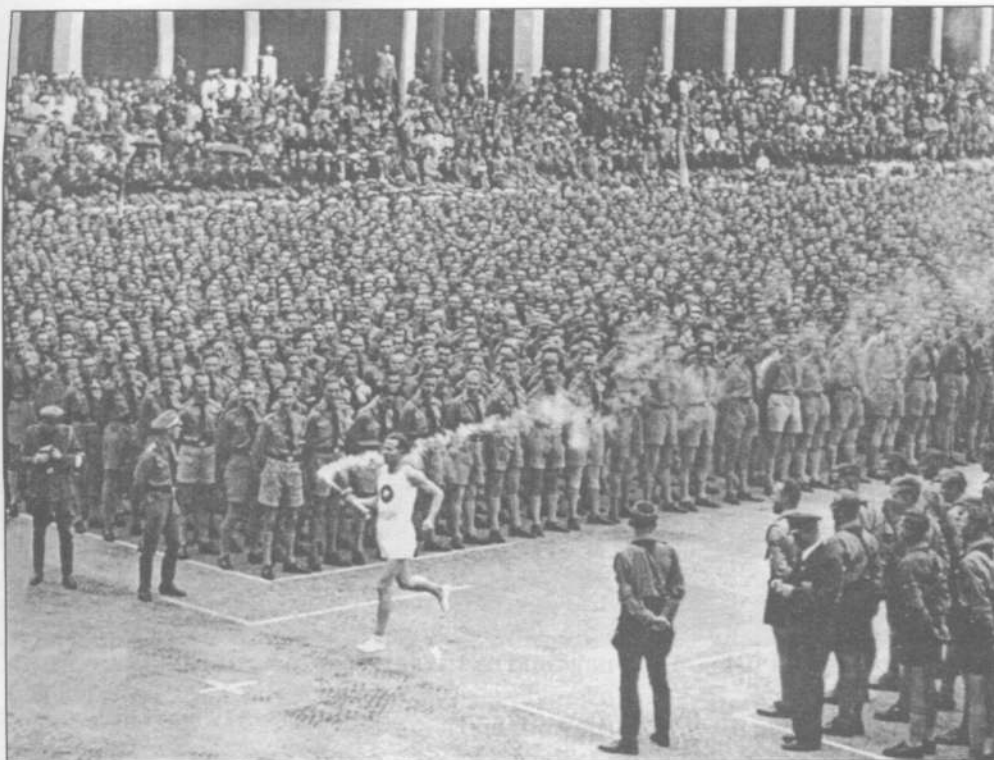
The USA had a comfortable victory in the team count, getting 103 medals (41 gold, 32 silver and 30 bronze) and 683.2 points; Italians placed second with 36 medals (12, 12, 12) and 242 points, and Germany was third with 21 medals (4, 12, 5, respectively), 163.5 points.

The XIth Summer Olympic Games

(Berlin, 1 — 16 August 1936)



Bids to stage the Games had been submitted by Alexandria, Barcelona, Berlin, Budapest, Dublin, Buenos Aires, Cologne, Nuremberg, Frankfurt, Rome and Helsinki. This right was granted to Berlin in spite of strong opposition from the world com-



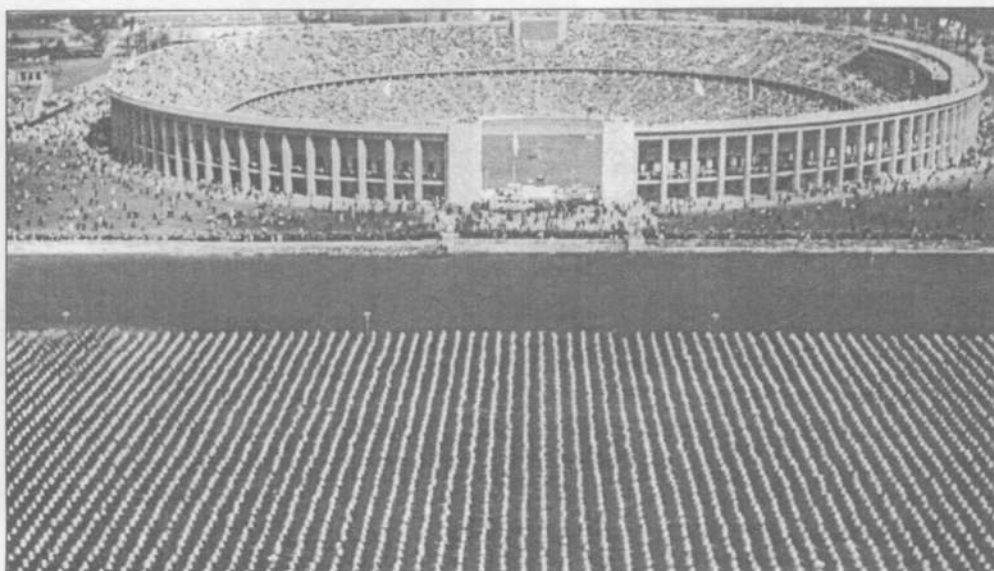
The first torch ceremony at the Olympic Games

munity. Taking advantage of the then regulations, the German Olympic Committee announced their wish to host Winter Olympics in Garmisch-Partenkirchen the same year.

After Hitler came to power in 1933, IOC President H. de Baillet-Latour demanded that the German government either pledges to comply with the Olympic Charter or renounces hosting the 1936 Games. Such guarantees had been given.

Of the two representatives of Germany in the IOC, Theodore Lewald headed the Summer Olympics Organizing Committee and Karl Ritter was head of the Organizing Committee of the Winter

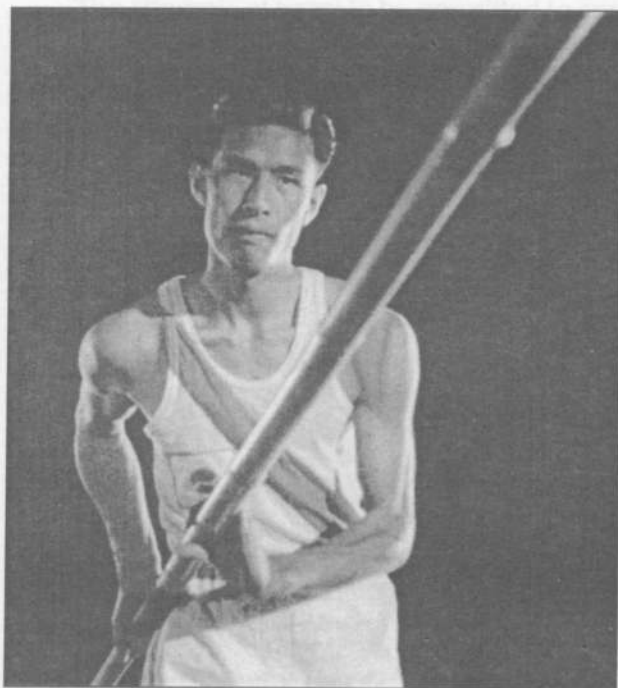
Olympic Games. Following the IOC Vienna session, which considered the problems that had cropped up in preparation for the Games in Germany, Hitler decided to dismiss both of the German officials and replaced them with G. Osten, the newly appointed State Director for Sports. H. Baillet-Latour called for an appointment with Hitler and made an official statement that it was through the efforts of the two German representatives at the IOC that the Games had been allowed to be held in Germany. Should they be dismissed, the IOC would cancel its decision to choose Germany as the host nation. Hitler had to surrender to that demand.



15,000 Berlin youth took part in the Opening Ceremony of the 1936 Olympic Games in Germany



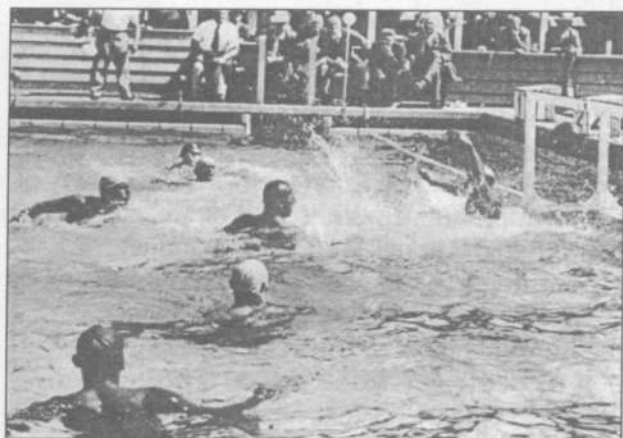
Germany's Gotthardt Handrick, won the pentathlon gold medal (Berlin, 1936)



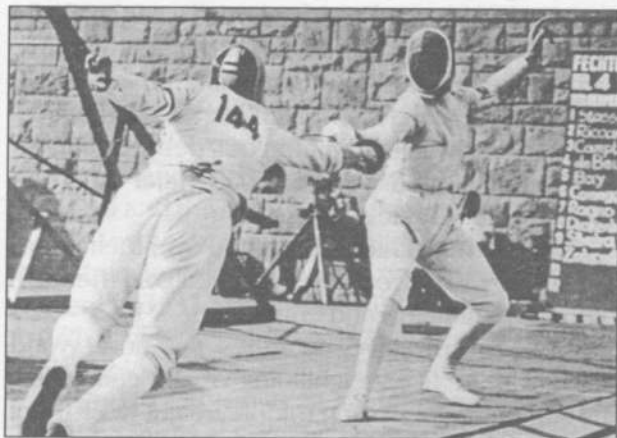
Suet Oe of Japan cleared 4.25 meters in the pole vault, 10 cm short of the winner, Earle Meadows of USA (Berlin, 1936)

The atmosphere in sports in Germany, prior to and during the 1936 Olympics, essentially reflected Hitler's views on physical training and sports, which had been expounded in his book "Mein Kampf", written in 1924 while he served time in prison. The book paid much attention to physical training in Germany and blamed the past setbacks and defeat of Germany, among other things, on the unduly intellectual education system of the country. According to Hitler, "in a racially-nationalistic state school is to pay much more attention to physical fitness of the youth. They must train their bodies every single day, at least an hour in the morning

and in the evening, practicing sports and doing gymnastic exercises". Boxing was thought to be a must. "No other sports could be more efficient to develop aggressiveness, make faster decisions and strengthen the body, making it more powerful and agile", he went on to say. After coming to power, Hitler introduced regular sports meetings of national-socialist, which were racially selective just like the Games in Ancient Greece. The policy of racial superiority permeated the social fabric of the German society, including sports, where an anti-Semitic campaign had been whipped up against the Jewish athletes on the eve of the Berlin Games.



Second Olympic victory of Hungarian water polo players (Berlin, 1936)



Olympic victory: Riccardi (Italy) attacks Campbell-Grey (Berlin, 1936)



Jesse Owens, winner of four Olympic gold medals (Berlin, 1936)

Jesse Owens takes off to win the long jump (Berlin, 1936)

The Olympic Games in Berlin played host to 4,066 athletes (including 328 female athletes) from 49 countries, the biggest being the German delegation (406). The new entries on the program were handball and kayaking, with female gymnastics being included again. As a result of their thorough preparation for the Games, German athletes placed first with 89 medals (33, 26, 30) and 573.7 points. The USA finished second with 56 medals (24, 20, 12) and 403.3 points, and Italy was third: 22 medals (8, 9, 5) and 167.6 points.

The German victory in the team count did not substantiate the Hitler racist policies: track and field events were enough to refute the absurd idea of the overwhelming superiority of Aryan athletes. Jesse Owens, the US Negro recognized as the hero of the Berlin Games, won four gold medals and set four Olympic records, the ten American Negro athletes winning 10 gold medals among them, including six gold awards.

Czechoslovaks had a fabulous debut in canoeing, winning gold in the 1,000-meter and the 10,000-meter Canadian pairs.

The German athletes prevailed over their opponents in rowing (five out of the seven gold medals), modern pentathlon and equestrian.

Athletes from five countries set new world records in the five weightlifting weight categories, the star performer being middleweight K. El-Touni of Egypt. Not only did he outclass his opponents by 35 kilograms, but actually lifted 15 pounds more than the winner of the Light Heavyweight division.

R. Charpentier of France won three gold medals in cycling events (the individual road race, the team time trial, and the 4,000-meter team pursuit).

The hero of the fencing tournament proved to be G. Gaudini of Italy, who won two gold medals in the individual and team foil, and a silver medal in the team saber competitions. This athlete had already received the Olympic gold and bronze in 1928 and three silver and one bronze medals in 1932, in addition to ten foil world championships titles (twice in the individual event) in 1929—1938.

The springboard diving gold medalist Marjorie Gestring of the USA set a special record being only 13 years and 268 days old on the day, the youngest ever female Olympic champion.

The high athletic achievements of the Games and the fact that an overwhelming majority of the NOCs had sent their teams to Berlin failed to alleviate the oppressive atmosphere. The IOC Bulletin, which was later issued on the 60th Anniversary of the Olympic movement, said it all in few words, "The [Berlin] Games were permeated with an overpowering spirit of militarism and nationalism".

The XIth Games in Berlin stood out in the Olympic movement, not so much for excellent organization, modern sports facilities, good conditions for the athletes, coaches, doctors, reporters and guests, but rather for the Nazi propaganda making attempts to use the victory of the German team to prove "superiority" of the Nazi state. In the political terms, the

1936 Games set a precedent for the Olympic Games of the "cold war" period, which led to the same outcome: the political differences of the East and West countries turned a number of the Olympics in 1952—1988 into a vehicle to demonstrate the superiority of their own system and flaunt their political ambitions.

The XIV Summer Olympic Games

(London, 29 July — 14 August 1948)



The Olympic Games of 1940 and 1944 had to be missed because of World War II. Initially, the IOC planned to stage the 1944 Games in London, but that proved impossible. The city was devastated by the war and had to live under severe economic restrictions. There was even certain public opposition in London when the British government agreed to host the 1948 Games in London.

The post-war economic and political complications in the world overshadowed the efforts to prepare for the London Games. A good example of the situation was that the first reports about the Games did not appear in London Times until July 6, 1948, just 23 days away from the Opening ceremony. Nevertheless, when the day arrived, there were 4,099 athletes (including 385 females) from 59 countries to compete in the Olympics.

The 1948 Olympic program was discussed by the IOC at its 1947 session in Stockholm, where the issues came up of the NOC of the USSR joining the IOC and of sending an invitation to the Soviet team to take part in the London Games. As a result, as many sports federations of the USSR were not members of the IFs, the Soviet NOC failed to meet all the requirements needed to be eligible for the IOC membership, to say nothing of the Soviet athletes being unable to well prepare for the Games in the country that had been ravaged by war.

The attempts of Israel to be permitted to compete in the Olympic Games of 1948 came to nothing because of a threat of boycott from Arab countries. Israelis had to wait until the recognition of Israel as a legitimate country by the USSR to enter the field of the participants of the 1952 Games.

The program of the London Olympics included 19 events, female athletes competing in gymnastics, kayaking, track and field, swimming, diving and fencing.

Athletes of the USA dominated track and field events, winning 11 of the 24 gold medals. Robert Mathias, 17, of the USA, was one of the Games sensations in decathlon. Sweden also did well in track and field, winning six events.

Europeans won all but one gold medal in female track and field events. Fanny Blankers-Koen of Holland, recognized the best female athlete of the XIVth Games, was outstanding, beating her opponents in all four running events.

Olympic titles in weightlifting were contested by 118 athletes from 30 countries. The USA won four and Egypt two of the gold medals, whereas in the previous Games top spots had been occupied by European athletes.

Turkey dominated the free-style wrestling (four out of the eight gold medals in contention), and Sweden did even better in Greco-Roman wrestling, winning five top awards of the possible eight.

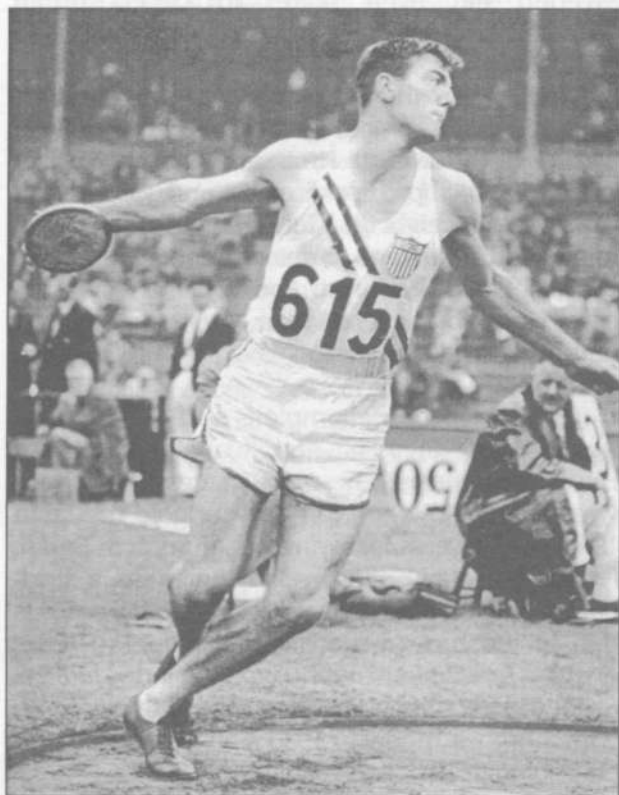
Laszlo Papp, the outstanding Hungarian boxer, won his first Olympic gold in London, in the Middleweight division. He then went on to win two more Olympic titles in 1952 and 1956, in the Light Middleweight division. That feat has been unequalled by anyone to date. After his triumph of 1956, L. Papp turned pro and continued his success story for several years, winning his last European title in professional boxing in 1960, at the age of 40.

Only six Olympic champions of 1936 made it to the top spot in 1948, and five of them were Hungarian fencers. The most successful of those was Ilona Elek, who won another gold medal in 1948, twelve years following her triumph in Berlin. French fencers also did well, winning the individual foil and the team foil and epee. Special credit is due to the bronze medalist E. Muller-Preis, the Austrian female fencer who won the individual foil event in 1932, when she was 20, and followed up with a bronze medal in 1936. She was also world champion in 1949 and 1950.

Equestrian events of all the previous Olympics had been dominated by European athletes, but in London that tradition came to an abrupt end, when H. Marilez Cortes of Mexico won the



**The Olympic torch
at the Wembley
Stadium
(London, 1948)**



**17-year-old Robert Mathias of USA,
Olympic champion in decathlon
(London, 1948)**

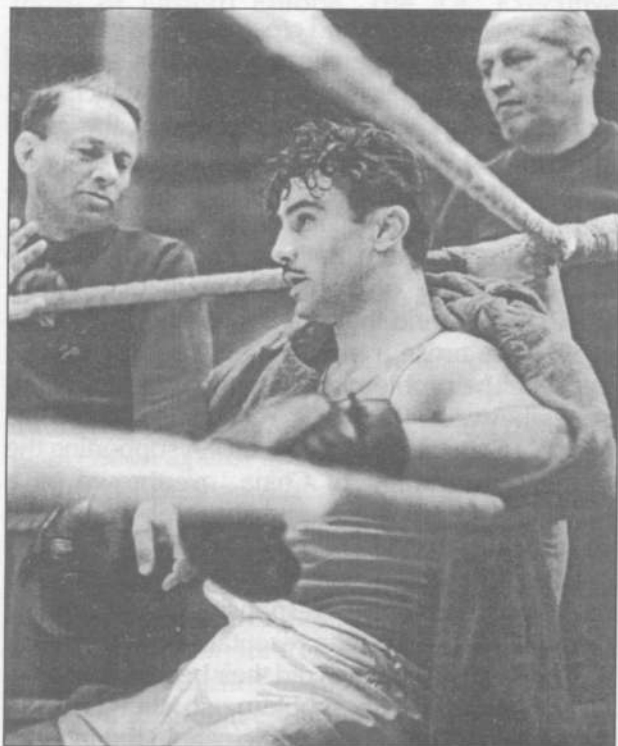


**Fanny Blankers-Koen of Holland
won four Olympic gold medals
in London (1948)**



**Karoly Takacs of Hungary,
winner of the Olympic gold
medal in free pistol (London, 1948)**

**Laszlo Papp of Hungary,
the first boxer to win three
Olympic gold medals
(1948, 1952, 1956)**



Olympic title in the individual jumping (Prix des Nations), the Mexican team following suit in the team event.

When the team of Sweden placed first in the dressage, the International Equestrian Federation stripped them of the award under the undemocratic "exclusivity" rule, because G. Petersson was alleged to be just a non-commissioned officer. Four years after the incident, though, the same team won the Olympic gold again.

Karoly Takacs, a shooter from Hungary (25-meter rapid pistol), had an unusual sports fate. Already a champion shooter, he had lost his pistol hand in an accident. Undaunted, this courageous athlete did not quit sports, but taught himself to shoot with his left hand. Three years later, in 1939, he had another gold medal of the world championships, and at the Olympic Games of 1948 K. Takacs went on to become Olympic champion, setting the world record in the process.

Two gold medals in kayaking were awarded to the famous Swedish athlete G. Fredriksson (1,000 and 10,000 meters). At the 1952 Games he placed first in the 1,000 meters and second in the 10,000 meters, and repeated his London jackpot success in 1956. At the age of 40 G. Fredriksson competed in the 1960 Olympic Games and won a gold medal in the 1,000-meter kayak pairs and a bronze medal in the 10,000-meter kayak singles. Three gold medals were awarded in London to the Czech

canoeists (1,000 and 10,000-meter Canadian singles and 1,000-meter Canadian pairs).

In the unofficial team count the USA placed first with 548 points and 84 medals (38, 27, 19), Sweden was second, with 301.2 points and 44 medals (16, 11, 17), and France finished third, with 231.5 points and 29 medals (10, 6, 13).

The General Characteristics of the Third Period of Olympic Games (1952 — 1988)

The period covers a 40-year stretch of certain stable trends and relatively sharp transitions from one stage in the Olympic movement to another. The complexities and controversies of the period pertain to all its aspects, from purely political to sporting ones, tied in with the Olympic program and Games results. Within this period the IOC was further transforming into an arena of big politics. The major problems and controversies in the political life of world community had a direct bearing on the activities of the IOC, the IFs and the NOCs.

With the USSR and other socialist countries joining the Olympic family, there immediately arose a question if Olympic sports could become an arena for peaceful cooperation of the opposing political systems, and whether the IOC would be able to draw in its fold capitalist, socialist and

developing countries and create a friendly environment for their cooperation. It was this aspect of relations in the Olympic movement which had mostly determined its development in the Third Period.

Ever since the early 1950's the IOC had to mediate in all kinds of politically motivated conflicts and differences between nations. For example, with the emergence of People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1949 and the establishment of its NOC in 1950, there arose a problem of its recognition by the IOC. The problem was compounded by differences between the USSR' recognition of PRC as the only Chinese state, and the USA supporting the former government of China, overthrown as a result of the revolution and the civil war in the country, which had to move Taiwan, where they declared their own state, Republic of China, and took upon themselves responsibilities of running the whole of China. Representatives of the USSR and other socialist states did their best for an objective solution of the problem, so that People's Republic of China could participate in the international Olympic movement. Meanwhile, this state was represented by a single athlete at the 1952 Olympics, prior to the IOC recognition of Beijing in 1956. Following that, People's Republic of China withdrew from the Olympic movement after the IOC recognized Republic of China (Taiwan). It was not until 1979 that PRC reinstated its IOC membership.

The situation around Korea was by no means less complicated. The IOC recognized the NOC of South Korea under the name of "Korea" in 1947, and its athletes participated in most events of the Olympic program ever since 1948. People's Democratic Republic of Korea, upset over the name given to their national team, boycotted the Winter and Summer Olympic Games in 1948. They had their debut at the 1964 Olympic Games, following the official recognition of the NOC of People's Democratic Republic of Korea in 1963. But the conflict between the two Koreas and the IOC was back again because of the organization of the Olympic Games in Seoul, with PDRK demanding to hold the Games on the territory of both states. When this demand was rejected, PDRK boycotted the Games, and several states joined the boycott, too.

Germany also had its share of problems. With the emergence of the two German states (West Germany and the GDR) after World War II, participation of their athletes in the Olympic Games was also contingent on the solution of political issues. The IOC recognized the NOC of Bundesrepublik Deutschland in 1950, West German athletes joining the Olympic move-

ment in 1952. The path of the East German athletes to the Olympic Games was much more complicated, and it took a lot of concerted efforts on the part of the world sports community to restore justice. The major obstacle was the policy of NATO member-states aiming to curb the international rights of the GDR. The first hopeful sign was the 1955 IOC decision to allow East Germany to compete in the Olympics as part of the unified German team, which took part in the Games of 1956, 1960 and 1964. However, this palliative could not but bring political squabbles and strained atmosphere between the sports leaders, coaches and athletes of the two states, which made the appointment of team captains, athletes selection and other important matters extremely difficult. This further complicated the relations between both the athletes and the two German states. Eventually, the IOC condemned discrimination of the GDR by the NATO member-states by its decision of 1965 to make the GDR eligible to compete in the Olympic Games as a separate team (although under the name of "East Germany" and with no right to hoist the national flag). It was also decided to move the venue of World Championships should the host country refuse to accommodate the team of the GDR. Credit is due to the IOC for enforcing this decision: for example, the USA and France were stripped of their successful bids to host the World Championships in weightlifting and Alpine skiing, respectively, for non-compliance with the IOC requirements. The IOC's next move was to lift all restrictions as relates the GDR concerning the name of its team, the national flag and anthem. For equal measure, it must be stressed that the GDR was provoked into bringing too many political issues in sports, of which that country had been repeatedly accused in the 1970's and 1980's, by the political discrimination against it in the 1950's and 1960's.

The negative impact on political conflicts on the world Olympic movement made the IOC and the IFs decide at their joint conference "Sports and politics" held in Lausanne, Switzerland, to issue a statement which, in part, ran as follows: "The IOC and the International Sports Federations vigorously oppose all and any political, racial and religious interference in sports, particularly such that interference which puts obstacles in the way of a free exchange of athletes and officials. The IOC is already applying this consideration relating to the Olympic Games, and will continue to resolutely do so, to the extent that, should this be necessary, the

venue of the Games will be moved or the Games canceled altogether. Many International Federations have approved similar regulations. It is strongly advised that the other IFs follow suit and take appropriate steps to enforce such regulations. The IOC decided neither to support the Olympic Games bids of cities nor patronize regional games unless all athletes are guaranteed equal rights there.

International Sports Federations have agreed to better coordinate their work in order to ensure compliance with these decisions.

The right to host regional games, regional and world championships shall be given only to those countries, whose governments pledge to provide free entry to athletes and officials, and whose Organizing Committees commit themselves to sending out invitations all eligible parties.

Failure to comply with the above regulations will result in further appropriate measures by the corresponding IF.

All and any violations of the above shall be reported by the appropriate IF to the IOC and the other IFs; the report shall be included on the agenda of the upcoming session of the IOC Executive Board; and if the latter recognizes the violation as serious, the responsible country may be barred from attending the subsequent Olympic Games."

The IOC and IFs were trying to conform to this decision from then on, which allowed them to a great extent to maintain the unity of the international Olympic movement, despite political tensions during the Games of 1976—1988.

Another test for the International Olympic Committee was its opposition to apartheid, which had been accepted as a state policy by the South-African Union since 1948 (Republic of South Africa since 1961). Apartheid spread also to sports in that country. The UN defined apartheid as a system of legalized racial segregation and discrimination for the purpose of the establishment and support of the supremacy of one racial group over all others. In South Africa its manifestation was total oppression of the black majority by the white minority, and in sports apartheid found expression in blocking the black athletes from both professional and amateur careers.

At the 1959 and 1964 IOC sessions the NOC of the USSR, supported by other countries, got the IOC approval of their move to bar South Africa from the 1964 Olympic Games for their continued policy of racial discrimination. But the IOC session of 1967 decided to revoke this decision, making South Africa eligible for the 1968 Olympics. The decision went under a barrage of criticism from other nations, particularly

those of Eastern Europe. The IOC Executive Board extraordinary session in Lausanne called because of an impending split of the international Olympic movement, approved a recommendation that effectively revoked the IOC go-ahead to South Africa participation in the Olympic Games, and annulled the invitation sent to that country to take part in the 1968 Games.

Struggle against apartheid in sports had been one of the IOC top priorities over the subsequent period of time. As a result of the joint pressure from the IOC, IFs and NOCs, the International Declaration and the International Convention against apartheid in sports, adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1977 and 1985, as well as the establishment of the UN Commission against apartheid in sports in 1988, ultimately helped change for the better the situation in the South-African Republic, which led to the permission for that country to take part in the Olympic Games of 1992. However, it would be naive to suppose that the problem has been completely eradicated and that no follow-up effort is needed on the part of the world Olympic community.

Another headache for the IOC over the Third Period has been the Games boycotts and certain attempts to use the Olympic Games to achieve certain political ends. In protest against the Soviet invasion of Hungary in 1956, a number of countries (Holland, Switzerland, Spain and some others) decided to stay away from the Melbourne Olympics. With the Soviet mass media never mentioning the boycotts, the world public opinion viewed the boycott as an effective action of protest. The two biggest boycott campaigns were those of the XXII and XXIII Olympic Games in Moscow and Los Angeles. In 1980 the Moscow Games were boycotted by many countries, including the United States, Canada, West Germany and other leading sports nations, to protest over the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. Four years later 14 socialist countries (among them the USSR, GDR, Hungary, Bulgaria) retaliated by staying out of the Los Angeles Games.

The boycott of the Seoul Games by several countries (Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Cuba, Ethiopia), unlike the two previous boycotts, had no particular impact on the political and sports atmosphere of the 1988 Olympic Games.

The real tragedy struck in Munich. The favorable atmosphere of the Munich Olympics was totally disrupted by the terrorist action of the "Black September" Palestinian organization. The terrorists took a group of Israeli athletes

hostage in order to put political pressure on the government of Israel. Incompetent attempts to defuse the conflict and rescue hostages resulted in the slaughter of the eleven Israelis, in whose memory later on a monument was erected on the territory of the Israeli Sports Center in Nathania off Tel-Aviv. The inhuman action brought a storm of protest throughout the world. Following the incident, President of West Germany G. Heinemann spoke at the Munich Olympic Stadium calling for the international Olympic movement to work for unity and comprehensive cooperation in sports. Avery Brundage, the IOC President, addressed the athletes with an appeal to carry on the competitions: "We cannot afford the Olympics to become a place of trading, political or criminal actions; we cannot allow a bunch of terrorists to destroy one of the main channels of international cooperation".

Credit is due to the IOC for the fact that it never gave in to the boycotts and had its way with holding the Games in the targeted cities thereby showing how futile those attempts had been to change the IOC decisions. The firm stand of the IOC, particularly during the preparation for the Seoul Games in 1988, undoubtedly contributed to the stabilization of the international Olympic movement against the background of tough political conflicts of 1980—1988, and made it possible to ensure the participation of 160 states in the Seoul Olympic Games.

A most significant trend in the development of the Olympic movement in the Third Period was the spreading of Olympic sports in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Almost every Games of this period saw an increase of the number of participating nations representing those continents. For instance, among the participants of the 1964 Olympic Games in Tokyo was a numerous group of countries, which had gained independence from the colonial yoke (Algeria, Ivory Coast, Cameroon, Congo, Madagascar, Mali, Niger, Senegal, Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Chad, as well as the Dominican Republic, Libya, the Mongolian People's Republic, Nepal). Athletes of Barbados, British Honduras, Virgin Islands, Guinea, Honduras, Congo (Kinshasa), Kuwait, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Salvador, Surinam, Sierra Leone and the Central African Republic made their debut at the XIX Olympic Games in Mexico City. The Games of 1992 had the largest field of participating nations, with the teams from 172 countries of the world.

The increasing popularity of the Olympic sports and an increase in the number of countries involved were, undoubtedly, positive devel-

opments both politically and in sporting terms. However, these factors also brought a number of problems and controversies into the Olympic sports. To begin with, the 1960's prediction concerning "third world" countries, particularly those of Africa, joining the top contenders for the Olympic medals had fallen through. Except for Kenya, Ethiopia and Morocco, athletes from the African continent were nowhere near the real fray for the Olympic awards. To give an example, in Seoul 108 countries did not win a single medal. The 15 nations, which are generally defined as developing countries, were able to get only 3% of the total number of medals, the remaining 97% being awarded to less than 40 developed capitalist and formerly socialist states. Many of the medals won by the developing nations can be accounted for not so much by the development of the Olympic sports there, as by the favorable geographical and climatic factors (like medium and high altitude) in the countries of athletes residence and training. This goes to say, for example, about the long distance running achievements of Ethiopia, Kenya and Djibouti. Some athletes, who brought fame to their home countries (like the gold medal of the swimmer Nesti of Surinam), had been able to do so after a period of training in the major sports centers of the USA and other developed countries.

And the reasons for this are an open secret: lack of modern technical and material base for the Olympic sports in the developing countries, lack of qualified coaches and systems for training specialists, of modern scientific support for training and preparation, lack of funding and the low standards of life keep sports on the ground. The gap widens still further as a result of speedy development of sports in the leading countries and in the nations with economy in progress (such as the republic of Korea, China, Spain), where sports is a major factor of promoting the national prestige. It would be wrong to say that the IOC did not pay attention to this problem. The IOC had worked consistently on to support the Olympic movement in the developing countries in the 1960's. However, many IOC members remained indifferent, and some suggested such measures, which would not require much IOC effort, like launching a special fund, allocation of small amount of money to support the poorest NOCs, etc.

Regular assistance was available to the developing countries in 1961, when the IOC accepted a suggestion by the Soviet Olympic Committee to create a special fund for popularization of the Olympic sports. Under that scheme, the IOC would render technical, orga-

nizational and material assistance to support the Olympic movement there. The so called "Olympic Fund" was made up of donations from the USSR, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, France, Switzerland, from various organizations of other countries and private donations. But the amount was not enough for the assistance to be available on a permanent basis.

Bilateral sports relations of the leading and developing countries could really play an important role in this area. The USSR, for example, used to send its specialists to assist the less developed countries and taught foreigners at its physical culture institutions. Sports specialists from many countries of the world came for studies and internships to the State Institute of Physical Culture in Kiev at that time. Since 1960, over 600 students from more than 50 countries (GDR, Poland, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, China, etc.) got their diplomas from that institution. Many members of the academic staff of the Institute worked to help sports in India, Cuba, China, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Bulgaria, Poland, Algeria, United Arab Emirates and other countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America.

After the IOC signed an agreement in 1973 on broadcasting rights to cover the Olympic Games, money started flowing in from major international TV companies, and the financial situation of the IOC improved to the extent that it became possible to launch the Olympic Solidarity Fund and distribute substantial and ever increasing amounts to support the Olympic sports in the less developed countries. Thus, in 1978 only, the 1,000 grants of the Fund, earmarked for preparation of coaches, allowed to organize training courses for some 7,500 specialists in 32 countries. The total figure for financial support to different countries was \$700,000 that year. In addition, the NOCs of 100 countries received free designs and specifications for construction of sports facilities.

Through the Olympic Solidarity Fund, athletes and coaches of developing countries were regularly sent to the best educational centers and training camps for joint sessions to study the latest achievements in the science of sports. Conversely, skilled athletes and qualified coaches from the developed countries visited the developing nations for workshops and seminars. International Federations, particularly those of Soccer, Gymnastics, Track and Field, and Swimming, were also very active in that process.

Also of importance proved the activities of UNESCO for the purpose of sports promotion, support of recuperative physical culture and sports science. By the mid-70's, contradictions between the IOC and UNESCO had been suc-

cessfully resolved. In the past, some IOC officials had argued that the activities of UNESCO in physical culture and sports were undermining the IOC jurisdiction. But with time, everyone became aware of the need to coordinate those activities, and in 1979 a special agreement was signed by the IOC, UNESCO and the Intergovernmental Commission on Physical Culture and Sports (established 1976) to that effect.

In later years UNESCO intensified its efforts to support the development of science, publication of works and holding scientific conferences on topical problems of the Olympic movement, physical culture and sports. On the eve of the Olympic Games, Olympic Scientific Congresses were held under the auspices of UNESCO, with active participation of the leading Ukrainian sports experts. Thus, seven representatives of Ukraine presented their reports at the Congress in Malaga, Spain in July 1992.

Despite all the efforts and attention paid by the world community to the popularization of Olympic sports in the developing countries, the gap between those nations and the developed countries had in fact increased. Modern sports had become an ever more expensive business. With every passing year, it costs more and more to hold competitions, to organize training sessions, to supply sports equipment to athletes and ensure scientific support to sports. Naturally, most of the world countries had less resources to stay in the race for awards than the developed nations. This acute contradiction came up, for example, in a speech of Fidel Castro of Cuba in 1985: "The Olympic movement emerged at the age of colonialism. Until now, the Olympic Games have served as a means to flaunt well, good nutrition, perfect technology of the rich, industrially developed nations. One should take a closer look at the worth of medals won by third world athletes, having no sports facilities, teachers and coaches, adequate food for kids, from whose ranks those athletes had come. Their medals should be offset against the medals won by the United States and other industrially developed countries. Very often those Games generate disdain towards third world countries, the countries of Asia, Africa, Latin America — so backward, so incompetent, so weak, so limited culturally, that they, as a rule, are unable to win a single medal at the Olympic Games. Every four years, such meets accentuate the inferiority of Indians, Negroes, Asiatic, the dark-skinned nations and the superiority of the white society, although most of medals are won by American Negroes

on behalf of the white society, the society of the industrially developed and rich United States. I am speaking in support of a proposal that the United Nations participate in this business. In our countries, there is sufficient intellectual and physical potential for sports, but we lack social and economic development, we lack sports facilities and sufficient nutrition even for athletes, to say nothing of the general public.

I think sports is getting the same kind of treatment as the economies of the third world countries. Big European cities are currently locked in a disgraceful and unruly battle for the right to host the Olympic Games of 1992. London, Barcelona and Paris, capital cities of the former metropolis in charge of huge colonies, keep on bickering about the venue of a sports masquerade open to a limited number of neo-colonial athletes. Is there any chance of the Olympic Games being hosted by Ethiopia, Mozambique, Angola, Congo, Republic of Guinea, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe, or, for that matter, by African countries? Is there really any chance to host the Games in Ecuador, Peru, Guyana, Panama, Nicaragua and over 100 other countries of the third world? Will they ever have such a possibility? That is why I stress once again that the UN must have its say in the matter".

Although one-sided, this attitude is shared by many developing countries.

One of the most controversial issues of the Third Period was the list of names on the IOC, which had a direct bearing on the activities of that international body. In the early 1950's it included representatives of a relative small number of countries, mostly Western states, with many of the International Sports Federations having no representation there. Yet it was next to impossible to change its members, for under the then acting IOC Articles, NOCs and ISFs were not supposed to delegate their representatives to the IOC, which accepted new members as it saw fit and appointed its representatives to the member-states of the International Olympic movement.

In the 1950's the USSR, along with other socialist states and a number of developing countries came out in favor of the IOC ruling bodies accepting more members in line with the current historic realities in the Olympic sports, such as the establishment of new NOCs, recognized by the IOC, more clout of East European countries in the international Olympic movement and an extensive involvement of the developing countries of Asia and Africa. The Soviet Union submitted to the IOC a well developed program on the matter in 1959.

The situation gradually changed, although originally many items on the program had been reject-

ed by the majority of IOC members, who thought them too radical. The changes brought about more active involvement of the developing countries in the international Olympic movement, some improvements in the Olympic competition program in the interests of the whole world community, and an inclusion of noted sports leaders of formerly socialist and developing countries and the ISFs in the governing bodies of the IOC.

In 1966 Rome hosted the First Session of the NOC General Assembly, whose decisions soon became a major driving force in the Olympic sports.

The Olympic program was gradually expanded, in line with the emergence of new ISFs and new sport events: just compare the 18 sports and 149 events in the 1952 program and 25 sports and 257 events in 1992. International Federations in Olympic sports came to be more influential both in staging the Olympic Games and in the development of the international Olympic system.

The Xth Olympic Congress held in Varna, Bulgaria in 1973, after a 43-year interval, had heated discussions of the issues pertaining to the relations of the IOC with NOCs and ISFs, proposals concerning the organization of the Olympic Games, etc. Along with the 66 IOC members, the Congress was attended by 66 representatives of 26 ISFs and 187 representatives of 82 NOCs. As a result, major changes had been effected in the international Olympic movement, which was turning into a worldwide system, with more prominent role played by Eastern Europe (the former socialist states) and the developing countries. The IOC ruling bodies membership had also been altered. They now include representatives of the formerly socialist commonwealth countries (13) and of 17 African states. The IOC also opened the way to the ruling bodies to women. Those were major steps on the way of a further democratization of the IOC operations in conformity with the realities of modern times.

The Olympic movement in the Third Period was significantly determined by the officials running the IOC at different times. The period coincided with the tenure of three IOC Presidents: Avery Brundage (1952—1972), Michael Morris Killanin (1972—1980) and Juan Antonio Samaranch (since 1980 until present). The presidency of Killanin was mainly mild and free of dramatic reforms, whereas those of Brundage and Samaranch were quite the opposite.

The style of A. Brundage could be defined as orthodox, far from taking into account all changes in international sports which had developed over his term of office. Trying to free the IOC of any political or national problems, he

unnecessarily complicated the solution of many issues relating to democratization of the Olympic sports, recognition of some NOCs, and acute problems of sports in China, Taiwan, North and South Korea, West Germany and the GDR, and facilitating cooperation between countries of different political systems, as well as between the highly developed and developing nations. A. Brundage also had considerably aggravated the so-called problem of amateurism in the Olympic sports. Foisting an obviously overly idealistic notion of an Olympic athlete as being a "pure amateur" who gets no outside material support, he gave an excuse to some officials of the international Olympic movement to launch a comprehensive campaign accusing athletes of the USSR, Hungary, Poland, Czechoslovakia of "pseudo-amateurism" and "state amateurism". Moreover, they often raised the problem of sports being professional in those countries. Things were back to normal only following the resignation of A. Brundage: state support was encouraged of athletes' preparation, compensation was allowed for lost income while in training, etc.

M. Killarin, on the other hand, was adherent of moderate policies in the international Olympic movement. He did not permit radical reforms but instead took into account real factors in the developments of the world community and in sports. He contributed much to the broader cooperation between the IOC and ISFs, the IOC and NOCs, the IOC and UNESCO, thereby increasing the productivity of developments in the Olympic sports. One can hardly overestimate his merits in the development of the international cooperation, especially as relates assistance to the developing countries and launching the IOC "Olympic Solidarity" Program. He succeeded in defusing the critically important problems in the wake of boycotts of the XXI and XXII Games in Montreal and Moscow. He was able sidestep the orthodox principles of amateurism in the Olympic sports and set off an active development of the financial base of the IOC through cooperation with TV companies.

When Juan Antonio Samaranch was elected President of the IOC, his subsequent decisions shocked even many of the radicals in the Olympic movement, let alone proponents of the classical notions of the Olympic ideals and values. The rejection of the notion of "an amateur athlete", close cooperation with leaders of various states (who more often than not were pursuing contrary political objectives) seeking to maintain the integrity of the Olympic movement, the introduction of all kinds of commercialism in the Olympic sports, admittance of professional athletes to the Olympic

Games, bringing together the Olympic and professional sports, and a number of other major changes gave reason to speak of the Olympic sports developments in 1980's and 1990's as "an epoch of Samaranch" and "the Olympic revolution".

Those changes have had a mixed reaction of specialists, reporters, politicians and representatives of commercial and other circles. Yet one cannot but admit that the activities of Samaranch have ensured close involvement of the Olympic sports with various social aspects in the life of the world community. The IOC has done great diplomatic and organizational work to have overcome many controversies both in the Olympic movement and among many countries, notorious for playing out "the Olympic card" to suit their political ends. In the late 1980's political pressure on the Olympic sports became very unpopular, as the whole world had recognized by that time the need to ensure the integrity of the international Olympic movement.

The Olympic Games in Seoul and Barcelona greatly strengthened the image of Olympic sport as a major factor of domestic and foreign policies of states, which can mitigate internal political tensions, facilitate the recognition of a host country by the world community, provide for inter-state cooperation, and raise significant profits. By strengthening their ties with the Olympic movement, major international TV companies helped make it more popular, raise more capital to finance competitive sports, as well as bring athletes and coaches closer together. The authority, stability and financial security of the Olympics were also provided for by the biggest world producers, which tied in their commercial programs with Olympic sports, acting as sponsors and official suppliers of goods and uniforms for the Olympic Games.

Greater stability of the international Olympic movement in its Third Period was accounted for by more comprehensive cooperation of the IOC with National Olympic Committees, International Sports Federations, and regional sports associations, which made it possible to better coordinate the Olympic sports system and to resolve quite a few sensitive issues.

Praise is also due to the IOC and Mr. Samaranch, IOC President, for the fact that over the preceding years they have not sought to hide from or to turn a blind eye on problems and controversial issues. Instead, they have made every effort to resolve them in practice. This is how they handled such matters during the Los-Angeles Games, when the IOC managed to find

Team	Mexico city, 1968						Montreal, 1976					
	Medals				Points	Place	Medals				Points	Place
	gold	silver	bronze	total			gold	silver	bronze	total		
USA	45	28	34	107	713.3	1	34	35	25	94	603.75	3
USSR	29	32	30	91	590.8	2	49	41	35	125	792.5	1
GDR	9	9	7	25	238	3	40	25	25	90	638	2
Hungary	10	10	12	32	194	4	4	5	13	22	177.5	6
Japan	11	7	7	22	190	5	9	6	10	25	170.5	7
W.Germany	5	11	10	26	184.5	6	10	12	17	39	279	4
Australia	5	7	5	17	139	7	—	1	4	5	51.75	19
Poland	5	2	11	18	126.8	8	7	6	13	26	181.5	5
France	7	3	5	15	122	9	2	3	4	9	68.75	15
Gr. Britain	5	5	3	13	107	10	3	5	5	13	91	12
Czechoslovakia	7	2	4	13	103.5	11	2	2	4	8	77	14
Italy	3	4	9	16	102.5	12	2	7	4	13	101.5	11
Romania	4	6	5	15	100.5	13	4	9	14	27	177.5	6
Bulgaria	2	4	3	9	66.8	15	6	9	7	22	156.5	8
Canada	1	3	1	5	54	17	—	5	6	11	108	10
Cuba	—	4	—	4	25	25	6	4	3	13	90	13

Table 2
Results
of the leading
sporting coun-
tries in the XIX
and XXI Olympic
Games

a way to handle many complicated issues, which otherwise could have split the Olympic movement. This way they managed to bring the Olympic community to the Seoul Games of 1988 as a close-knit and monolith body. There was a similar situation on the eve of the XXVth Olympics in Barcelona. The Olympic sports once again were faced with worsening crises, following the unification of Germany, the breakup of the USSR and the emergence of newly independent states on its territory. Accordingly, Mr. Samaranch and a number of other leaders of the international Olympic movement did a lot so that the Games would be open for a united German team and the CIS team as an inheritor of the legal rights of the former USSR. To make this possible, Mr. Samaranch made a few visits to Moscow and Kiev where he had consultations with Russian President B. Yeltsin and Ukrainian President L. Kravchuk, had a number of meetings with leaders of NOCs of the CIS countries, etc. Eventually, this colossal work had a great impact on further strengthening of the Olympic movement. Treating the epoch of Samaranch as a separate period in the history of Modern Olympics would have been reasonable enough even without the world developments at the turn of the 1980s and 1990s, which have changed dramatically the situation on the political scene of the world and, naturally, in sports (the demise of the socialist system, the new states springing up on the territory of the former USSR, the unification of

Germany, alteration of the social and political systems in Eastern Europe, dissolution of Yugoslavia, etc.).

The Third Period of the Olympic movement is also characterized by marked changes in the program of Olympic Games, in the training system of Olympic athletes, in its research methods and medicinal support, development of the Olympic material basis, in the system of refereeing, etc. All of these factors led to an increase in the number of competitors, to greater popularity of Olympic sports in the world, exceedingly high results and more intense competition on the Olympic arena.

Over the first decade of the Third Period (Olympic Games of 1952—1960) the competition program remained virtually unchanged (18 sports and 149—151 events). The early 1960s saw a gradual and planned increase of the scope of the Olympic competition program. Thus, in 1964 the program included 20 sports, with 163 gold medals to be won. In 1972 there were already 22 sports and 195 events. In 1980 (Moscow), 1988 (Seoul) and 1992 (Barcelona) the figures for the programs were, respectively, 23 and 203, 23 and 237, 25 and 257. There were many underlying factors accounting for this tendency, such as the initiative of certain regional sports associations and NOCs, an increased area where this or that sport came to be practiced, efforts to draw more women athletes in the Olympics, the particular interest of TV companies and certain representatives of business circles. Analyzing the current Olympic program,

one can not but agree that it reflects the interests of the world sporting community much better than previously.

A constantly rising level of competition on the Olympic arena and the ever increasing significance of Olympic awards became a powerful stimulus for improvements in the organization and methods of athletes training, one of the major factors probably being the Olympic success story of the Soviet team in the Games of 1956—64 due to an efficient and scientifically based system of athlete preparation. Later on, the Soviet expertise was made use of by athletes and coaches of other countries, particularly those of GDR, Cuba, Bulgaria and Hungary. In addition, those and other countries have introduced their own ways of perfecting the training and preparation system of athletes in various sports. The principal components of this system have been identified as:

- selecting talented young athletes and organizing the preparation of reserves for national teams;
- long-term planning of athletes training, the structure and contents of Olympic cycles preparation;
- efficient means and methods of perfecting various aspects of athletes fitness and form;
- use of additional factors (like altitude training, fitness equipment, special diet, etc.) to upgrade the efficiency of athletes preparation;
- developing a research-and-methodological system for athletes preparation;
- construction of integrated and specialized sports centers for top athletes;
- a system of incentives (both moral and material) for coaches, athletes and other specialists.

Naturally, all of this requires significant government support, which indeed was rendered practically in all of East European states, in the USSR and in Cuba.

In the 1960s and 1970s, many countries of the world used to build and organize big sports centers for Olympic athletes, with everything necessary for top-class training, rest, recuperation,

research, etc. Gyms, swimming pools, stadiums were provided with most sophisticated equipment and facilities. Within a short time, a system of such centers was created in the USSR, GDR, Bulgaria, Hungary and in some other countries. In this way it proved possible to centralize training of the best athletes, increase dramatically the volume of training input, and to ensure a high level of competition over the whole period of training and preparation, on the basis of proper diets, recuperation, medical service, research, etc. It was in such sports centers that athletes, coaches and researchers of different countries had started an active exchange of methods, approaches and experience.

Such timely measures allowed athletes of the aforementioned countries to increase dramatically the efficiency of training and preparation, compared to the countries of the West, which, pretty soon, yielded excellent results. One can see it by comparing the awards won at the 1968 and 1976 Games (see Table 2).

The progress of the GDR team was particularly impressive: they have increased the number of medals won by 3.6 times, including a 4.4 increase in the number of gold and a 2.7 increase in the number of total team points, eventually overtaking the US team in the unofficial team rating.

Table 3 compares the results of eight leading capitalist and eight leading socialist countries at the 1968 and 1976 Games. In 1968 the socialist countries were beaten by the capitalist ones by a large margin in all the main indicators, their results amounting to only 87.9% of those of the adversaries' total. In 1976, however, the situation changed drastically: the sum total of the capitalist eight amounted to a mere 56.3% of that achieved by the socialist eight. Moreover, two teams (the USSR and GDR) beat all the eight developed capitalist countries both in the total number of awards and, particularly, in the number of gold medals.

One can say that it was the Olympic success of socialist athletes that started the reforms of the training and preparation system and gave

Table 3
Achievements
of the top eight
capitalist and top
eight socialist states
at the XIX and XXI
Olympic Games

Teams	Mexico City, 1968			Montreal, 1976		
	Total medals	Gold medals	Total points	Total medals	Gold medals	Total points
Capitalist states (USA, Japan, W.Germany, Australia, France, Great Britain, Italy, Canada)	221	82	1612.3	209	60	1474.25
Socialist states (USSR, GDR, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, Cuba)	207	66	1445.6	333	118	2990.5

rise to powerful centers of Olympic preparation, state programs of sports development and national funds for Olympic sports support, better financing of preparation for Olympic Games, and comprehensive introduction of research results in sporting practices. Particularly active work along these lines was done in the USA, West Germany, Italy, Canada, France, Great Britain, where significant changes were introduced in the whole system of athletes' Olympic Games preparation within a comparatively short period of time (late 1970s — early 1980s). Later on, such changes occurred in Korea, People's Republic of China, Spain and in other countries.

In the 1980s the leading capitalist countries did much better than their socialist adversaries in many areas (financial support of national teams preparation, stimuli for athletes and coaches, procurement of research and sports equipment, hiring major specialists). But they failed to close the gap. Despite the boycott of the Olympic Games in 1980 and 1984, Socialist countries dominated the world championships and other major international competitions. This tendency was particularly marked at the Seoul Olympics in 1988, although the socialist system was already on the brink of collapse. Nevertheless, the USSR had another comfortable victory, with the GDR team beating the USA for the second place.

On the whole, the increasingly intensifying showdown in sports between capitalist and socialist countries, and, in the late 1970s — early 80's, between the USSR and GDR teams, as well as those of Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, China and other countries at the Olympics, world championships and major regional competitions, helped to dramatically improve the organizational, methodological and material foundations of training, turning it into an efficient system.

The modern system of training and competitions in the Olympic sports made for setting up a unique area of research into the potential of the human body adapting to extremely hostile conditions and environment. Many scientists who specialize in a research of yet untapped reserves of human stamina were drawn by the versatility of Olympic sports, intense training and competition programs, unpredictability of the outcome and by many other factors. This is currently one of the peculiarities of Olympic sports as a vehicle of a scientific advance in studying the human organism.

Special research conducted recently in laboratories all over the world, have proved that no profession can match the efforts put in by ath-

letes in training and competitions. Hard physical labor under severe climatic conditions can not cause such adaptation transformations in the human body as is the case with highly trained athletes. It is true even about the exertion of woodcutters toiling for hours in the tropics, or of farm laborers 3,000—4,000 meters above the sea level, the sherpas of Himalayas or the rikshaws of Asia. No representative of these professions is able to match the adaptation capabilities of the cardiovascular and breathing systems of long-distance runners, cyclists, skiers and athletes in other sports, which need particular stamina. It has been proven that the level of extreme toughness of demand for stamina in intensive training and in Olympic competitions exceeds that of other professionals in their usual work and life routines, except for emergencies where people fight for life (W. Hollmann, T. Hettinger, 1980; V. Platonov, 1988, 1992).

The interest shown to sports by scientists of various laboratories, who study the potentialities of a human organism, proved to be extremely useful to the world of sport, as the depth and scope of knowledge have significantly increased in the areas of physiology, biochemistry, psychology and sports medicine. This has led the system of top athletes preparation to a new high.

It should be noted that, regardless of the confrontation of the two political systems over the previous 40 years and conflicts between certain countries that plagued the international Olympic movement, Olympic Games remained an arena of peaceful cooperation for many states. This experience is of immeasurable value to the world community in terms of setting an example to be followed in other spheres of human activities. The Modern Olympic movement has undoubtedly demonstrated that industrious work in seeking mutual interests and reaching possible compromises can help achieve mutual understanding and fruitful cooperation without resorting to force.

Naturally, it is impossible to make all participants happy with the situation in the contemporary world of Olympic sports. The complexity and variety of the international Olympic movement, social, economic, political, racial, demographic and other differences of member countries give rise to so many problems and conflicts that it would be wrong to speak of stability and a complete well-being of the Olympic sports. However, in summarizing the characteristics of the Third Stage of Olympic sports development in the early 1990s and comparing it to the situation as it was in the early 1950s, it would also be wrong to overlook the huge progress made by the Olympic sports over the previous 40 years.

The XVth Olympic Games

(Helsinki, 9 June — 3 August 1952)



It was planned to stage Olympic Games in the capital of Finland as far back as 1940, but the Second World War had intervened. Twelve years later 4,925 athletes from 69 countries (including 518 women) converged on Helsinki, this being the largest-ever field of participants. The fact that athletes of the USSR and of other socialist countries were among the contestants for the first time, provided for a particularly tense competition on the arenas and in the overall Olympic atmosphere.

The 1952 Olympic Games saw the first sports showdown of the two world superpowers. Later on the fray, which has run for 40 years now, was joined by all other leading Western and Eastern block countries, as well as by Cuba and Japan. The Helsinki Olympics, which turned out to be a heated battle between Soviets and Americans, and between socialist and capitalist countries, started the on-going scramble for records and Olympic honors. The stiff competition of the two systems was certainly initiated by politicians and government officials, mostly Soviet and US, rather than by athletes themselves. Leaders of West Germany, GDR, Bulgaria, Romania, Great Britain, Cuba and other states have also contributed to the on-going strained atmosphere at the Olympic Games.

The positive concomitant of the Helsinki showdown of Americans and Soviets was a very high level of Olympic results, including 66 Olympic records, 18 of them world records. As Olympic champion R. Mathias put it, "Because of Russian participation, more pressure was put to bear on American athletes [in 1952] than on the eve of the 1948 Olympics". And Soviet athletes were under as much pressure to beat Americans.

The Helsinki Olympic program included 17 sports and 149 events. Women competed in 6 events: gymnastics, canoeing, track and field, diving and fencing.

The first-ever Olympic gold of Soviets was won by N. Romashkova (Ponomareva) in the discuss throw. This outstanding athlete won another gold medal eight years later, at the Rome Olympic Games. G. Zybina (shot put) also won a gold medal setting a new world record (15 m 28 cm).

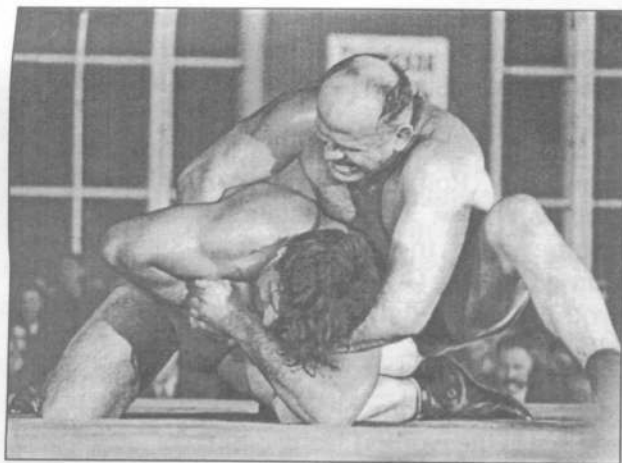
Track and field events produced some excellent results in a competition of equals. Suffice it to say that in the women's long jump nine athletes 30 times beat the previous Olympic record.

R. Mathias of the USA was outstanding in decathlon, and not simply because he added another gold to the one he had won in London four years previously. His winning result (world record 7,887 points) proved over 900 points more than the result of second-placed M. Campbell, also of the USA. A. Ferreira da Silva of Brazil had a brilliant Olympic debut, setting a world record (16 m 22 cm) in the triple jump. Four years later he beat all of his contestants in Melbourne. After his sporting career he became a famous movie star. The hero of the Helsinki Games was by right E. Zatopek of Czechoslovakia, who won three gold medals in the 5,000m, 10,000m and in the marathon, setting Olympic records in each of the events.

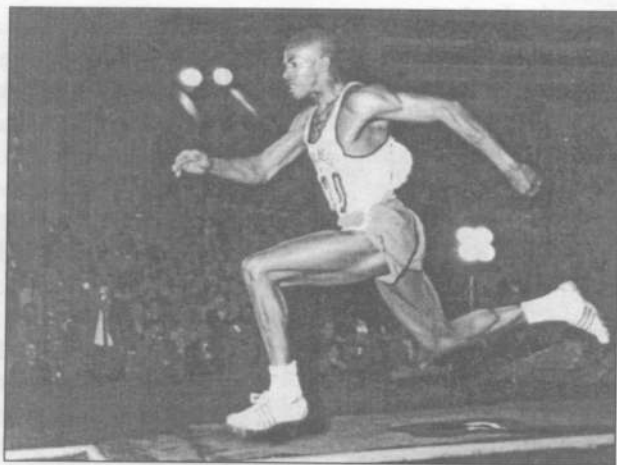
The women's swimming events were marked by outstanding performance of Hungarian athletes. They won seven medals (4 gold, 2 silver and 1 bronze), setting six Olympic records in the process, one of them (4 x 100-meter freestyle relay) a new world record. US men's swimming team also won seven medals. US athletes also lifted all the four medals in diving, the best performance being put in by P. McCormick who won gold both in the springboard and platform diving.

The weightlifting competition was an all-out face off of the USSR and USA teams (3 and 4 golds, respectively). 244 athletes from 37 countries competed in Greco-Roman and freestyle wrestling for 16 sets of medals, the USSR coming on top with six gold medals. The other medals went to the wrestlers of Sweden, Hungary, Finland, Turkey, the USA and Japan.

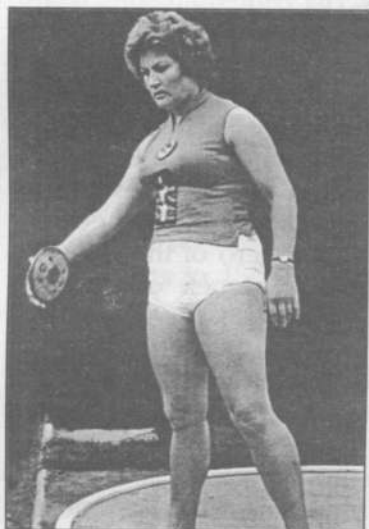
The Soviet team had a comfortable victory in gymnastics, with a 31-year-old V. Chukarin and M. Gorokhovskaya. Outstanding M. Gorokhovskaya won seven medals (2 golds and 5 silvers), the best result in women's events in the history of modern Olympic Games. Medals in gymnastics were also awarded to the athletes of Hungary, Switzerland and Sweden.



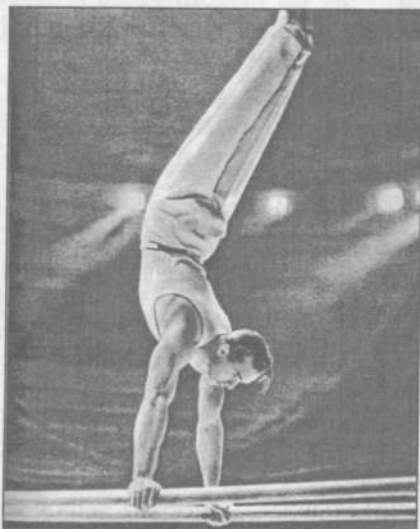
**Greco-Roman wrestling Olympic champion
Iogannes Kotkas of USSR
(Helsinki, 1952)**



**Ademar Ferreira da Silva of Brazil, champion
of the XV Olympic Games in the triple jump
(Helsinki, 1952)**



**Nina Ponomareva, the first
Soviet Olympic champion
in the discus throw
(Helsinki, 1952)**



**Victor Chukarin of USSR, champi-
on of the XV and XVI Olympic
Games, doing the horizontal bar
(Helsinki, 1952; Melbourne, 1956)**



**Emil Zatopek secured victories
over 5,000 m, 10,000 m
and in the marathon
(Helsinki, 1952)**



**Lis Hartel (Denmark) should be
satisfied with silver medal
in dressage competition
(Helsinki, 1952)**

V. Chukarin's is a highly unusual life story for an Olympian. A 1941 graduate of a physical culture vocational school, he left immediately thereafter to the front line when the war broke out. Very soon his artillery unit got surrounded by Germans and he was taken POW, spending four years in a concentration camp. In 1945 he came home in such a bad shape that sport was to unthinkable. However, by training hard he came on top, winning the USSR Championship for the first time in 1949. He repeated his all-around success at the 1956 Olympic Games in Melbourne at the age of 35. He was also second to none at the World Championships in Rome in 1954.

The USA team won 5 out of 10 gold medals in boxing, the middleweight gold being awarded to F. Patterson, who later on was the world champion in professional boxing.

In the unofficial overall team count, the USA and the USSR came level with 494 points each, although the Americans won many more golds (40), whereas the Soviets got 22. The rest of the medals were won by the USSR (30 silver and 19 bronze) and the USA (19 silver and 17 bronze). Hungary came third, with 259.5 points and 42 medals (16, 10 and 16, respectively).

The XVIth Olympic Games

(Melbourne, 22 November — 8 December 1956)



The IOC had decided to stage the Olympic Games in Melbourne as far back as 1949. However, even at that time there were some doubts about the choice due to the enormous distance to Australia and in view of the absence of a proper stadium in Melbourne. Equestrians were out of the question because of a ban on the import of horses to Australia. Under local laws, a six-month quarantine was mandatory for all animals to be brought to

Australia. Eventually, though, all problems had been overcome: a cricket field was converted into an Olympic stadium, and equestrian events were to be held in Stockholm, Sweden.

But then, just on the eve of the Olympic Games launch, an extremely explosive political crisis broke out in the wake of the Soviet invasion of Hungary and the military action of France, England and Israel against Egypt.

Hungary took up arms against the USSR in November 1956, demanding that Russia withdraw its troops from their country and preparing to leave the Warsaw Pact. The insurrection was then crushed by force, and on November 5 the Budapest Radio announced that several Hungarian top athletes had been killed in action: Jozsef Csermak (1952 Olympic champion in the hammer throw), Gabor Benchedek (member of the Hungarian pentathlon team at the 1952 Olympic Games). In protest against the Soviet invasion the Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland pulled out of the Games. Iraq did likewise in protest against the aggression of England, France and Israel in Egypt, and China boycotted the Games because Taiwan had been allowed to compete in Melbourne.

But the Melbourne Olympics went on as planned, and were a success, despite the difficult political situation. Awards in 17 events were contested by 3,342 athletes (including 371 women) from 67 countries there, and 158 athletes (13 women) participated in equestrians in Stockholm on 11 — 17 June. The Games produced some excellent results and the competition was stiff in the majority of events. Seventy seven Olympic records were set, 24 of them world records (5 records in track and field, 11 in weightlifting, 4 in swimming and two apiece in shooting and cycling).

The USA athletes dominated the track and field events, winning 16 gold medals out of 33. But the laurels of the hero of the Games were given by right to the Soviet long-distance runner V. Kutz, who had straight victories in the 5,000m and 10,000m and set two Olympic records in the distances.

Four of the 1952 track and field champions came first again in Melbourne: S. Strickland de la Hunty of Australia (the 80-meter hurdles), A. Ferreira da Silva of Brazil (the triple jump), W. Parry O'Brien of the USA (the shot put) and P. Richards of the USA (the pole vault).

In gymnastics the all-around winners were Soviets V. Chukarin (men's) and L. Latynina (women's). The men's and women's team competitions were fought out between the USSR and Japan and between the USSR and Hungary, respectively.



Ron Clerk,
outstanding runner from Australia,
brings the Olympic torch into the
Melbourne
Olympic stadium
(Melbourne, 1956)

Helsinki Olympics foil champion Ch. d'Oriola of France and 1952 epee champion C. Pavese of Italy came first once again in Melbourne. Team events in both the foil and saber were won by the Italians, and Hungary was a clear winner in the saber both individually (R. Karpati) and in the team event.

A whole constellation of stars from Australia dominated in the swimming pool, winning eight out of 13 swimming events. Accordingly, specialists spoke of the emergence of a new swimming school of Australia, where coaches came up with a number of innovations in the swimming techniques and training methods.

On December 8, the last day of the XVIth Olympic Games, the USSR soccer team beat Yugoslavia in the final match (1:0) and was awarded gold medals. Soviet football players won another Olympic gold in Barcelona, the last Olympics before the breakup of the USSR.

The water polo final match was marred by a savage fist fight between Hungary and the USSR, which was somehow ended with Hungarians coming out on top.

Following the Melbourne Games, 56 Hungarian athletes applied for political asylum and chose to stay in the West, which was played up by the



The finishing kick
of Vladimir Kuts
of USSR, 5,000
and 10,000-meter
Olympic champion
(Melbourne, 1956)



Gymnast Larisa
Latynina of USSR
won 18 Olympic
medals over
her career

media as political highlight of the Games and as a triumph of the US propaganda.

In the unofficial team count the clear winners was the USSR team, with 622.5 points and 98 medals (37 gold, 29 silver, 32 bronze). The USA got 497.5 points and 74 medals (32, 25 and 17, respectively), and Australia came third with 238.5 points and 35 medals (13, 8 and 14, respectively).

The XVIIth Olympic Games

(Rome, 25 August — 11 September 1960)



Rome won its bid to stage the Olympics in a close contest with many other major cities of the world, such as Athens, Brussels, Budapest, Buenos-Aires, Mexico, Los Angeles, New York, and Tokyo.

The Rome Olympic Games went down in the Olympic history as the Olympics characterized by an excellent organization, a great number of participating athletes, outstanding results and numerous sensations. The only incidents to mar the excellent record were a tragic death of the Danish cyclist K. Enemark Jensen, of doping overdose, and the political confrontation of the West and East, which had a negative impact on the atmosphere of the Games.

The confrontation in Rome, apart from the political tensions between the USSR and the USA, and GDR and West Germany, was also caused by the propaganda campaign in the mass media, the statements of team leaders and coaches, and even by some decisions of the Games Organizing Committee. For example, a few days before the departure of the USA track and field team to Rome, when asked by a TV reporter "Will you beat the Russians?", Larry Snider, the team's senior coach, replied: "We'll kill them" (Sun Byung Kee et al, 1984).

In the Rome Olympic village athletes received accommodation on political grounds. Soviet and East European athletes were put up in the Eastern section of the village, whereas the athletes of the USA, Great Britain and other capitalist countries got lodgings in the Western section. There was also a "buffer zone" for the teams of Switzerland, Liechtenstein and other neutral countries. Although the athletes of GDR and West Germany were competing in a unified team, they lived in separate zones. Athletes of Western and Eastern countries also had to have meals at different restaurants. Naturally, this did not help mutual understanding and cooperation. In spite of this, the Rome Olympics saw the beginning of goodwill relations between the American and Soviet athletes.

5,346 athletes (610 of them women) from 83 countries competed in Rome. Just as in Melbourne, the program of competition there comprised 17 events, the women competing in 6 events.

Athletes set 76 Olympic and 30 world records (8 in track and fields, 13 in weightlifting, 7 in swimming, 1 in shooting, and 1 in cycling).

The star of the track was W. Rudolph, the black athlete of the US women's team, who won three gold medals (the 100 meters, the 200 meters and the 4x100-meter relay). The track and field men's team of the USA came in for a nasty surprise in the traditionally "American" events: they lost the gold to A. Hary of the Unified team of Germany in the 100m sprint (he clocked in 10.2 seconds, breaking the Olympic record), the 200 meters was won by L. Berutti of Italy (20.5 seconds, the world record), and the Germans got another gold in the 4x100-meter relay in the world record time of 39.5 sec.

Besides, another highlight of the Olympic track events were several unexpected results. Thus, the marathon was won by a bare-footed Ethiopian A. Bikila, who blazed the winning trail for many other African long distance runners. The 5,000-meter distance was remarkably won by M. Halberg of New Zealand, who had a paralyzed left arm, the result of a severe injury he sustained at the age of 16, which nearly cost him his life. Going through rigorous training, he became so good an athlete that he managed to come 11th in the 1,500m event in Melbourne before finally striking gold in Rome.

The gymnastics competition was dominated by the USSR athletes. L. Latynina once again was the outright winner in the all-around count, the silver and bronze also going to the Soviets. The USSR came first in the team event and in 3 out of 4 individual disciplines. An intense com-



Wilma Rudolph of USA
won three gold
medals at the Rome
Olympic Games
(Rome, 1960)



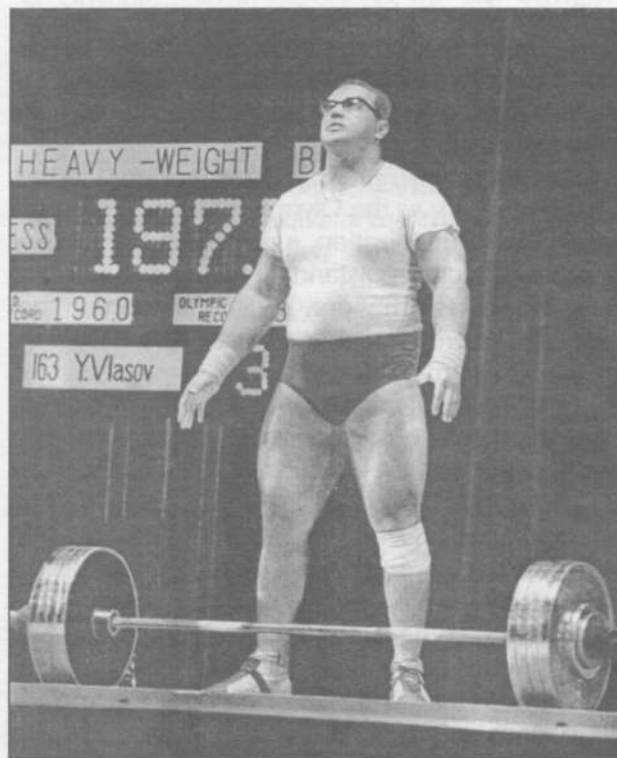
**Viktor Kapitonov of the
USSR, winner of the team
road race at the XVII
Olympic Games
(Rome, 1960)**



Abebe Bikila
on his way
to the Olympic victory
in marathon
(Rome, 1960)



Boris Shakhlin (USSR) one of the most outstanding
gymnasts of the Olympic sports
(Rome, 1960)



Yuriy Vlasov of USSR,
the Olympic weightlifting champion
(Rome, 1960)