

petition unfurled in the men's gymnastics between the teams of the USSR and Japan. The Olympic all-around gold went to B. Shakhlin, from Kiev (Ukraine), who also won two individual gold medals (in the rings and in the side horse), two silvers and a bronze. In the rings, Soviet gymnast A. Azaryan added another individual gold to the one he had won in Melbourne. Japan won the team event, the floor exercises, the horizontal bar and the long horse vault.

The hero of the Rome Olympics was weightlifter Y. Vlasov of the USSR, who set Olympic records in all three movements and world records in the jerk and in the total. The attention was drawn to Vlasov's victory not only because of the fantastic records. What made him extremely popular was his athletic build, much less weight compared to other competitors, perfect technique, outgoing manners and intelligence. Presently, Y. Vlasov is a well-known Russian writer and politician. Soviet athletes came first in other four weight categories, all with world records in the total, and another two weightlifting golds were awarded to the athletes of the USA (Ch. Vinci) and Poland (I. Palinski).

In many events the traditional dominance of certain countries came to an end. In women's diving both gold medals went to I. Kremer of GDR, an undisputed winner of the Americans, who had straight wins in the event since 1924. V. Kapitonov won the road race, stopping the winning streak of the Italians. The USSR also got its first gold in yachting (T. Pinegin and F. Shutkov in the "Star" class). S. Filatov of the USSR came first in equestrians (the dressage).

In his fifth Olympic Games, E. Mangiarotti of Italy got a sixth gold of his long career in the team epee. All in all, he had won 13 Olympic medals (6 gold, 5 silver and 2 bronze) and 20 world championship medals (13, 5 and 2, respectively). In the individual epee the winner was G. Delfino of Italy. Hungary had a clean sweep in the saber, winning consecutively since 1928. But in the foil, a sensational victory was gained by the USSR men's team, who won both the individual (V. Zhdanovich) and the team gold, while the USSR women's foil team also came first in the team event.

Undisputed winners of the Rome Games in the team count were the USSR athletes, who got 103 medals (43 gold, 29 silver and 31 bronze) and 682.5 points. The USA, beaten by 219 points, got 71 medals (34, 21 and 16, respectively). The unified German team came third, with 280.5 points and 42 medals (12, 19 and 11).

## The XVIIIth Olympic Games (Tokyo, 10 — 24 October 1964)



Tokyo had been selected to be the capital of the Games in 1940, but it was not meant to be, because by that time the Second World War was already unleashed. The 1964 Games were tremendously important to Japan for political reasons: the country sought to clean up their record in the eyes of the world community and to put an end to the political repercussions of the war. The Japanese government managed to create a favorable atmosphere prior to the opening of the Games, so that it became the national concern for the Olympics to be a success. To this end, Japan spared no resources, raking out \$2 billion to fund the organization and running the Games. This duly bore fruit: the Tokyo Olympic Games turned out to be the best in history. The sports facilities, transport routes and hotels built for the Games were unique in architectural design, and the Opening and Closing ceremonies were great and imposing.

5,140 athletes (683 of them women) from 94 countries arrived to compete in Tokyo. The program was expanded in scope. Medals were to be won in 163 events of 19 sports, women competing in 7 sports. New Olympic disciplines included in the program were volleyball (men and women) and judo.

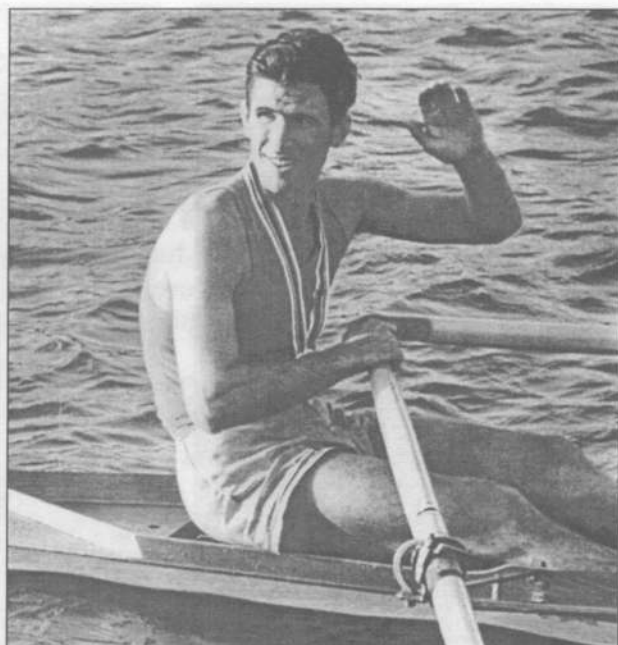
Compared to the previous Games, the competition in various events and between different countries grew even more tough. Suffice it to say that medals were won by athletes of 41 countries, Olympic champions represented 26 countries of the world. The Games produced 81 Olympic and 32 world records. Previous records were bettered in most of the events where results can be accurately measured.

The USA athletes did very well in track and field events and in swimming, winning 26 gold medals



**Valery Brumel of USSR wins the XVIII Olympic Games in the high jump**  
(Tokyo, 1964)

in 50 events. D. Schollander was outstanding, taking four golds in swimming. He won the 100-meter freestyle and the 400-meter freestyle, setting an Olympic and a world record, respectively. A. Bikila of Ethiopia became the track-and-field hero, winning two marathon gold medals for the first time in the Olympic Games history. He met a tragic end. He was sure of winning a third Olympic gold at the next Games, but had a car crash and was para-



**Vyacheslav Ivanov of USSR, three-time Olympic champion in single sculls**  
(Melbourne 1956, Rome 1960, Tokyo 1964)

lyzed. The injury confined him to a wheelchair, but in 1971 A. Bikila was back in sports, participating in the archery at the World Invalids Games. He hoped sports would put him back on his feet, but to no avail. A few years later the outstanding athlete died.

A happy coincidence helped A. Packer of England to win the 800-meter race, setting a world record (2.01,5 minutes). She was entered in the 400 meters, where she got a silver medal, but the



**Galina Prozumenshchikova, the first Soviet swimmer to win the Olympic gold**  
(Tokyo, 1964)



**Dawn Fraser, famous Australian athlete wins the third successive Olympic title in 100 m free style swimming**  
(Tokyo, 1964)

team leaders suggested she comes on for the 800 meters, too, when her regular teammate, who was to run the distance, got suddenly ill.

The gymnastics competition was the third Olympics for the outstanding Ukrainians L. Latynina and B. Shakhlin. This time they both came second in the all-around count and won gold medals in separate events (the floor exercises and the parallel bar, respectively). Altogether,

B. Shakhlin got 12 medals (6, 4 and 2, respectively). But the as yet unbeaten modern Olympic medal record belongs to L. Latynina, who won 9 gold, 5 silver and 4 bronze medals.

The highlight of boxing was the success of V. Popenchenko, the middleweight of the USSR, who was far better than his opponents. With his unusual style and perfect techniques, he knocked out the silver medalist of Rome T. Walasek of Poland, the then European champion, in the semifinal, and then, in the final, stopped E. Schulz of Germany already in the first minute of the bout. For his feats, V. Popenchenko, in addition to the gold medal, was also awarded the Barker Cup.

A Kolesov, winner in the Greco-Roman wrestling, was famous not only for his straight victories in Tokyo and for the two world champion titles (1962 — 63), but also for his great contributions to the achievements of the USSR team all through the Olympic Games of 1972 — 1988. Since 1969, he had been head of the Olympic USSR team preparation for 20 years, up to the breakup of the Soviet state. It was his high professionalism and skills that helped pool together the best efforts of athletes, coaches, organizers, researchers and catering personnel, which lay the ground for the winning streak of the USSR wrestling team in each of those Olympic Games.

The Tokyo Games saw a turnaround in fencing. All gold, both team and individual, men and women, were won by the athletes of Hungary (4), the USSR (3) and Poland (1). The teams of France and Italy had to make do with the silver and the bronze.

The contest for the team total score was more heated than four years before. The most points were scored by the USSR (607.8). The USA and Germany, who were placed second and third, got 581.8 and 337.5 points, respectively. The USSR also beat the USA in the total number of medals (96 to 90), but lost to Americans in the number of gold (30 to 36). Here are the total medals won by the two superpowers: 30, 31 and 36 (96) against 36, 26 and 28 (90), respectively. The athletes of the unified German team got 50 medals in the heated Olympic contests (10 gold, 22 silver and 18 bronze).

Following the Rome Olympics of 1960, more successes were expected for the unified German

team. But the sport organizers in the GDR and West Germany failed to achieve efficient cooperation. In fact, power wrangles, support of local athletes and misconduct during trials competitions took a heavy toll from the quality of training and competition results. Accordingly, GDR and West Germany fielded separate teams from Tokyo on, until the unification of Germany.

## **The XIXth Olympic Games**

*(Mexico City, 12 — 27 October 1968)*

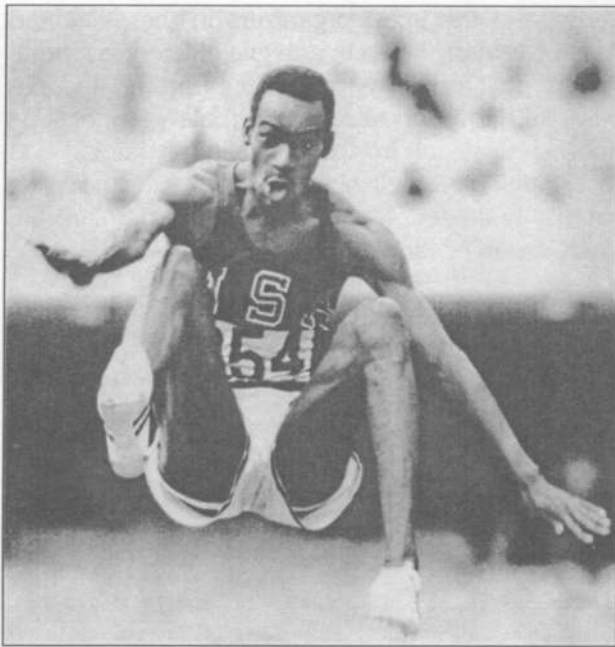


The Mexico games were the first to be held in Latin America. When the IOC chose Mexico City in preference of Buenos-Aires, Detroit and Lion, there were few people who could foresee how many discussions and doubts will have caused this decision. The doubts were voiced as to the potential of Mexico for building the modern sports facilities, offering the proper accommodation for the athletes, specialists, guests and tourists, and particularly about the climate: the Games were to be staged at the altitude of 2,240 meters above the sea level. The decision to allow South Africa to compete was an explosive issue which could disrupt the Olympic Games. On second thoughts, the IOC Executive Committee later revoked this decision.

Mexico City also was the first city where domestic strife almost canceled the Olympic Games. Ten days before the Opening ceremony, major clashes erupted there between students, teachers, trade unions and the regular troops and the police. The 10-thousand-strong rally called for the overthrow of the government. The police and troops moved to disperse the armed crowd, and in the ensuing battle many people were killed and wounded. The government opposition was annihilated, and President Ortiz gave his guarantees that nothing was going to stop the Games. Despite all apprehensions, 5,530 athlete (781 of them women) from 112 countries arrived in Mexico City.

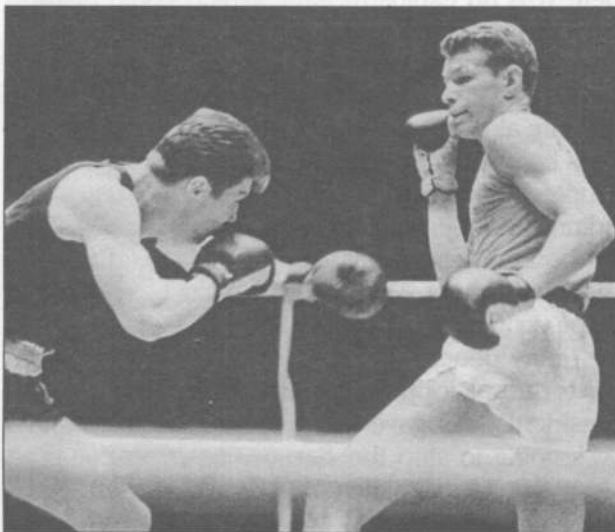
On the whole, the unusual altitude did not have a substantial negative impact on the Olympic results. The Games produced 76 Olympic records,



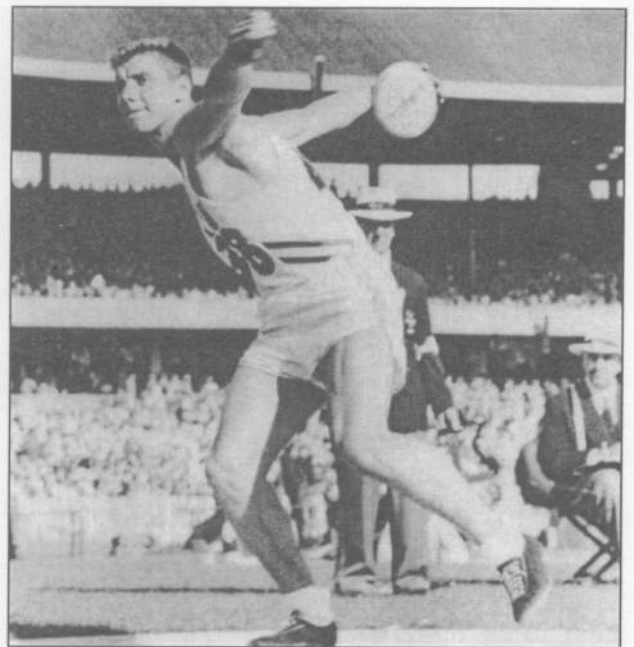


**The fantastic long jump  
of Robert Beamon of USA  
(Mexico City, 1968)**

28 of them new world records. The climate turned out of importance only in certain events, which needed particular stamina. This was an advantage to those athletes who lived at altitudes, similar to that of Mexico City. On the other hand, this helped athletes in the events, which need speed and physical power, to achieve high results. Following the Mexico Games, high and low altitude preparation became a major factor in improving the performance in a number of sports.



**Boris Lagutin of USSR, the two-time Olympic champion (Tokyo 1964, Mexico City 1968) on the ring**



**Al Oerter was a genuine giant of the Olympic Games with discus gold medals in 1956, 1960, 1964, and 1968**

The best results were achieved in the track-and-field events, where athletes set 30 Olympic and 14 world records in the 36 events of the Games program. The highlight of the Olympics was the long jump record of R. Beamon (8 meters 90 cm), the athlete, practically unknown even to specialists, who bettered the previous record by a whole 55 centimeters. Many people say, with some reason, that this was the greatest sports achievement of the 20th century.

Another sensation was born in the high jump. Certainly, the winning result of R. Fosbury (2 meters 24 cm) was not as spectacular as that of R. Beamon. However, his new technique ("Fosbury flop") soon revolutionized the high jump, and all new world and Olympic records were to be set by athletes who were using this technique.

V. Saneyev of the USSR won his first gold medal in the triple jump, while Soviet L. Zhabotinsky repeated his Tokyo success in the heavyweight weightlifting divisions.

Another unusual record was set by Al Oerter of the USA (discus throw), who won his fourth Olympic gold in a row. He got his first in 1956 in Melbourne (56.36 meters), adding more gold in Rome (59.18 meters), Tokyo (61.00 meters), and Mexico City (64.78 meters), all his winning results being Olympic records. This achievement was equaled only by Swedish yachtsman P. Elvstrom, who also got four Olympic gold medals (1948—1960), but in different yacht classes. Another Elvstrom's record is competing in eight Olympics



(1948—1960, 1968, 1972, 1984, 1988). There are two more holders of this record: equestrian R. D'Inzeo of Italy and yachtsman D. Knowles of Great Britain.

Gymnastics was dominated by V. Caslavská of Czechoslovakia, who was awarded 4 gold and 2 silver medals. In addition to the 3 gold and 1 silver medals she won in the precious Games, this result gives the athlete the rightful pass into the sports Hall of Fame.

Outstanding in cycling were French athletes. D. Morelon won the scratch, P. Trentin came first in the 1,000-meter time trial with a new world record, and both of them won the gold in the 2,000-meter tandem. D. Rebillard of France took the gold in the 4,000-meter individual pursuit.

Politically, the Mexico Games were remembered by the anti-racist action, staged by black American athletes in protest over the treatment of blacks in the USA. It was not a spur-of-the-moment outburst, the action had been planned at the US Black Congress the year before. Originally, it was planned for the blacks to boycott the Games. The decision, however, was voted down, and something new forms of political protest were suggested instead. The mastermind of using the Olympics for this protest was Harry Edwards, later on a Sociology Professor at a California University. On the eve of the Games he announced the intention of black athletes to use various forms of protest: they agreed to wear black armbands and in all ways "to demonstrate support for the black movement throughout the Games".

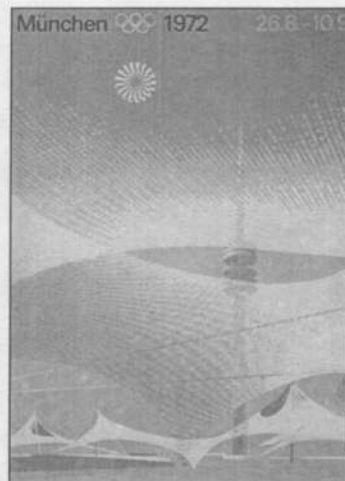
The highlight of the campaign was the action of T. Smith and J. Carlos, winners of the 200-meter gold and silver medals. They mounted the dais barefooted, in knee-length black socks and with a black glove on one hand. When the US National Anthem was played, they bowed their heads and raised the black-gloved hands. Following a many-hour emergency meeting, the U.S.O.C. decreed "to severely reprimand the action and to apologize to the IOC, the Games Organizing Committee and the people of Mexico".

The IOC, however, went even further. A. Brundage came down hard on such political demonstrations, and the IOC said the US team would be disqualified unless the perpetrators were adequately disciplined. T. Smith and J. Carlos were sent packing, but this way their action gained more political prominence.

The team of the USA won the Mexico Olympics by a comfortable margin with 713.3 points and 107 medals (45, 28, 34 respectively), beating the USSR who got 590.8 points and 91 medals (29, 32, 30). The GDR team placed a surprise third with 238 points and 25 medals (9, 9, 7), although Hungary had quite a few more medals — 32 (10, 10, 12).

## The XXth Olympic Games

(Munich, 26 August — 11 September 1972)



The first Games to be held in Europe after a 12-year break, drew 7,123 athletes (1,058 of them women) from 121 countries, which was a record number of Olympic participants.

But this was not the only feature that set the XXth Games apart from those of the past. Munich offered a unique set of sports facilities, unequalled in other countries, to wit, the Olympic village with accommodation for 15,000, the 80,000-seat stadium, the cycling stadium with a 13,000-seat stand, the swimming pool with seats for 10,000 spectators, etc. All the Olympic arenas were fitted out with the most sophisticated equipment and instruments for objective refereeing, comfortable facilities for pressmen and TV reporters who televised the Games to more than 1 billion spectators all over the world.

The unusually tough Munich Games program included 21 sports and 195 events, women competing in eight sports, with a lot of Olympic and world records set. Olympic records were bettered in all of 29 swimming events, 23 of those being world records. Track and fields events produced 25 Olympic and 12 world records, weightlifting — 32 and 7, shooting — 6 and 4, archery — 2, respectively.

The track and field hero of the Games was V. Borzov of the USSR, coached by V. Petrovsky, a noted specialist in top form achievement. The then post-graduate student of the Kiev Physical Culture Institute decisively beat American sprinters in both the 100-meter and 200-meter events. Later on V. Borzov came to be the first President of the NOC of Ukraine. Outstanding long distance runner L. Viren of Finland won two gold medals in the 5,000 and 10,000 meters, setting an Olympic and a world records as well.

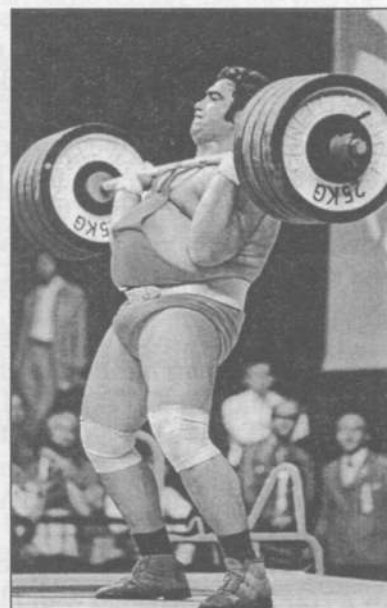
The 400-meter hurdles gold went to J. Akii-Bua of Uganda, the first African to win Olympics with a world record (47.82 sec). Another highlight of the



**Maria Mozholiou hands the burning torch to Ionnis Kirkelesis, the Greek basketball player, who starts the relay of the Olympic flame bearers on the way to Munich (1972)**



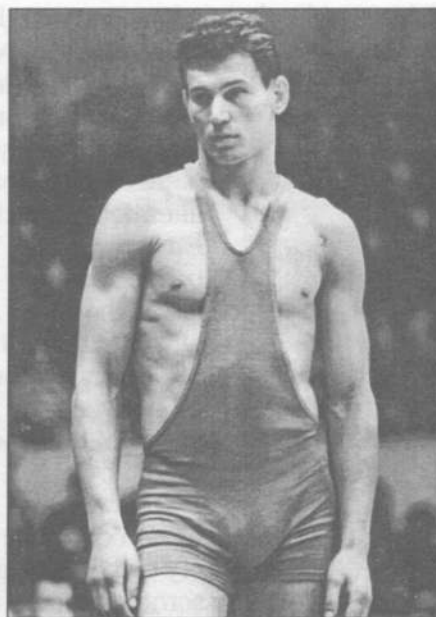
**Another triumph for Valery Borzov of USSR, the two-time Olympic champion (Munich, 1972)**



**Vasily Alekseyev of USSR won the gold medal of the XX Olympic Games in super heavyweight class (Munich, 1972)**



**Champion of the XX Olympic Games Anatoliy Roshchin of USSR (Munich, 1972)**



**Alexander Medved of USSR, three-time Olympic champion (1964, 1968, 1972) in freestyle wrestling**



**András Balczó (Hungary) one of the best pentathletes (Munich, 1972)**

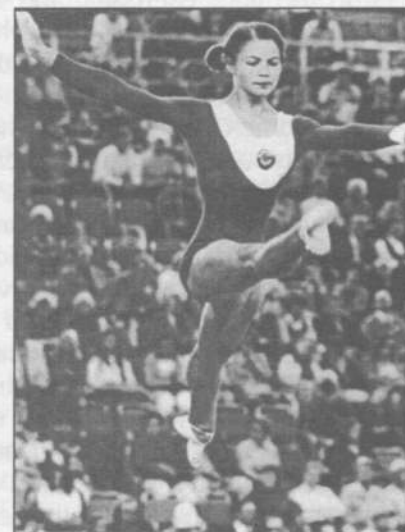
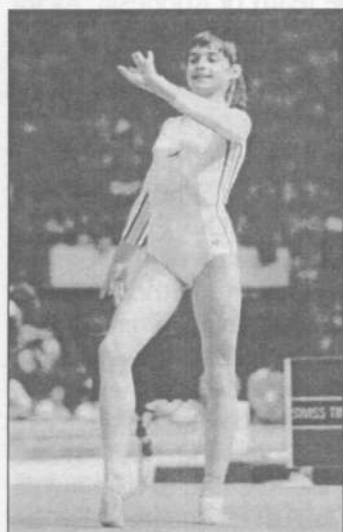
Games was a victory in decathlon of the Soviet N. Avilov, who won by a huge margin and also set a new world record (8,454 points). A. Bondarchuk of the USSR had a comfortable win in the hammer throw, bettering the world record in the event.

Cuban boxers, coached by Soviet expert A. Chervonenko, overwhelmed the opponents, winning three gold medals. The Barker Cup for the best boxer was awarded to T. Stevenson, the Cuban heavyweight Olympic champion.

Soviet Greco-Roman and freestyle wrestling team dominated the scene, pulling 9 gold medals

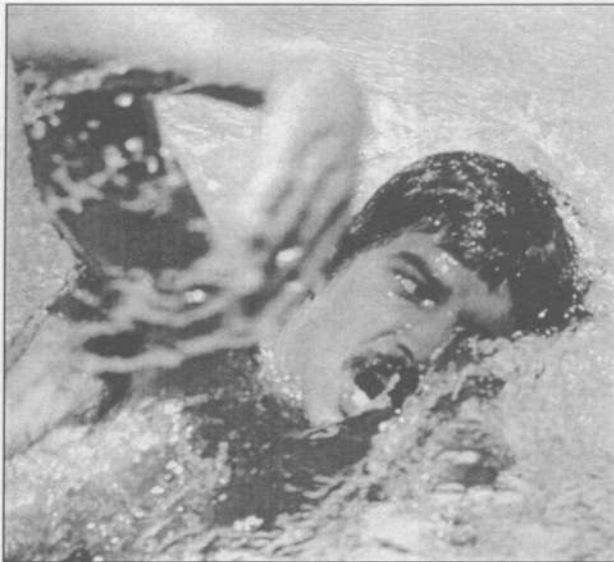
altogether. Of particular note was the gold won by A. Roshchin, who overcome his opponents in the heavyweight division at the age of 40. The last victory of his successful career was won by A. Medved, winner of three Olympic gold medals and seven-time world champion. After his last round in Munich he gave a farewell kiss to the wrestling mat.

An Olympic high of 7 gold medals was an unparalleled success of M. Spitz, the phenomenal American swimmer. Every winning start brought him a world record in the Munich Games. After the Games, M. Spitz decided to call it quits. Had he



**Outstanding gymnasts of the 70's: Nadia Komanec of Romania, Olga Korbut and Ludmila Tourishcheva, both of USSR**





**Mark Spitz of USA, winner of seven gold medals of the Olympic Games (Munich, 1972)**

chosen to stay on, he would have been swimming king for another couple of years, as was justifiably stated by his coach, the famous D. Councilman. It is interesting to note that at the age of 40, however, M. Spitz made an unsuccessful come-back try.

Men and women athletes were competing for seven sets of awards in canoeing, six of the gold medals going to the USSR. Four of the seven rowing gold medals were won by the GDR.

Soviet gymnasts met with great success in Munich, winning the all-around women's gold (L. Turishcheva) and the team event, with O. Korbut getting the gold in the balance beam and the floor exercises. In men's gymnastics, in a stiff showdown with Japan, N. Andrianov of the USSR came first in the floor exercises, and his teammate V. Klimenko was best in the side horse. But Japan had a clean sweep in the all-around count and in the team event.

The Munich Games saw another success of the Kiev yachtsman V. Mankin, who came first with his mate V. Dyrdyra in the "Tempest". In Mexico City four years previously he placed first in the "Finn".

The unofficial team competition in the Munich Games was won by the USSR, with 664.5 points and 99 medals (50 gold, 27 silver and 22 bronze). The USA came second: 638.5 points and 91 medals (30, 31, 30), the difference being particularly remarkable (20 medals) in the number of gold. The GDR team once again placed third, this time very close to the two leaders and with a significant advantage over the rest of the teams: 472 points and 66 medals (20, 23, 20, respectively). It should be noted that from 1972 on, until the breakup of the USSR, no other team could beat Soviets in the sub-

sequent Games. Moreover, results analysis shows that the USSR would have been first again, had they competed in Los Angeles in 1984, rather than staying out because of politicians' gambles.

Unfortunately, the Munich Olympic Games were marred by a blood bath, when 11 Israeli athletes fell victim to a terrorist attack of an Arab extremist group. The local authorities, the German police and army failed to stop the tragedy. In retaliation, the Israeli Air Force strafed and bombed ten terrorist camps in Arab countries. The atmosphere of hostility, war and terror, which had been going on between the Arabs and Israel since the emergence of the Jewish state, had spilled over to the Olympic Games.

The terrorist action caused an outcry in the world community. The IOC paid homage in memory of the killed athletes. But despite appeals from some countries and the mass media to halt the Olympics, the IOC decided to carry on with the Munich Games. Yet, for fear of reprisals, several teams (Egypt, Kuwait and Syria) left Munich.

Another difficult situation arose because of the problem of Rhodesia participation. This country insisted on entering the Games and guaranteed that black athletes would also be on their team. Following consultations and in conformity with a decision of the Supreme African Sports Union, the IOC allowed Rhodesia to compete in the Games on unusual terms: the country was to compete under the name of "Southern Rhodesia", and its athletes were to represent Great Britain. It was assumed that the Rhodesian government would decline the proposal, but it was in effect accepted. However, when Rhodesian arrived in Munich, with seven black athletes in the team, it became clear from their uniforms that they were going to enter the competitions as the team of Rhodesia. As for the flag and the anthem, their leader said they were "ready to go under any flag, including that of boy scouts or Moscow".

Responding to such actions of Rhodesia, Ethiopia and China said in a statement that they would boycott the Games, if Rhodesian are allowed to compete there. IOC President A. Brundage and W. Daume, Head of the Games Organizing Committee, supported Rhodesia just the same. The situation got even worse when black US athletes announced that they would join forces with their black brothers from the African countries if the IOC went ahead with this decision. In view of unpredictable consequences in the wake of the statement, the IOC had to take a vote on the matter at their August 22 meeting. By the majority of votes (36 in favor, 31 against and with 3 abstentions), the Rhodesians were barred from Munich. The comment of A. Brundage summing

up the incident was that "Political pressure on the Olympic movement is becoming unbearable".

The Munich Olympic Games were the last to be held under A. Brundage as IOC President, a talented person who had done a lot of good for the Olympic movement. After the Closing ceremony, the stadium electronic board read: "Thank you, Mr. Avery Brundage!"

## The XXIst Olympic Games

(Montreal, 17 July — 1 August 1976)



Montreal Olympics were saddled with an acute political crisis. It evolved in two separate directions, and each of those not only had an impact on the Olympic Games, but also had far-reaching political consequences.

The root of the problem had been a statement of the Canadian government in 1975 that it would not allow the team of Taiwan, which intended to come to Canada as "Republic of China", to participate in the Olympics. This decision, political observers said, had been taken under pressure from Beijing, China being then the largest trade partner of Canada. Wheat exports only to China were the basis for Canadian farmers' prosperity, bringing a \$307-million profit to the state budget of Canada in 1975.

IOC President J. Killanin sharply criticized this decision of Canada, saying that it runs counter to the fundamental Olympic principles which forbid discrimination on racial, religious or political grounds. The IOC decided to stop the Games in Montreal unless Canada reverses its stand on the matter. Several NOCs (including that of the USA) declared that they would not send their teams to Olympic Games which had not been authorized by the IOC. Pressured by the IOC, the government of Canada offered a compromise: it agreed to Taiwanese participation under their own flag and,

should any of their athletes gain a victory, to their national anthem, but would not agree to the name of "Republic of China" because Canada had never recognized such a country. This, however, proved unacceptable for Taiwan and they refused to take part in the Games.

Thus, the IOC bowed to political pressure. The Games went ahead, and Canada went down in history as the first host country to have barred from participating in the Olympics representatives of the IOC-recognized National Olympic Committee. A Chinese delegation was present at the Montreal Games as observers. At the banquet in honor of the Chinese delegation, Health Minister of Canada Mr. M. Lalonde said: "I hope that this will be the last Olympics, in which almost a quarter of the world athletes do not take part".

Hardly had Taiwan left Montreal, when Nigeria, Uganda and Zambia said in a statement that they would join the boycott declared earlier by Tanzania and Mauritius, if the team of New Zealand were allowed to compete. This was their reaction to a tour of the New Zealand rugby team to the South African Republic, which had been expelled from the Olympic movement. A number of African countries demanded that New Zealand be also expelled, but the IOC refused to consider their demand on the grounds that rugby is not a part of the Olympic program. Consequently, certain African states stayed away from the Games, while delegations of 21 countries which arrived in Montreal, withdrew after the opening of the Olympic Games. "It is a tragedy ...", IOC President Killanin said, "This has been the toughest week of my life. Athletes must be sick and tired of this politicking".

The Canadian government would not take any chances following the tragedy in Munich and introduced all possible security arrangements. Police dogs were used to search for explosives at the airport, in the transport, at the Olympic Village and other facilities. Police sharp shooters were on constant lookout on the rooftops of Olympic buildings. The teams and spectators were guarded by over 16,000 police officers. Measures like these, naturally, could not but leave an imprint on the atmosphere of the Games.

6,028 athletes (including 1,247 women) from 92 countries competed in 21 events (women in eleven of those) in Montreal. 88 Olympic records (of them 36 new world records) were set at the Games: in swimming (21), track and fields (8), weightlifting (2), trap shooting and small-bore rifle (3), and archery (2).

The highlights of track events were two gold medals of Cuban A. Juantorena in the 400 and 800 meters, bettering a world record in the 800



**The winning finish of Waldemar Cierpinski, champion of the XXI Olympic Games in marathon (Montreal, 1976)**



**John Peterson (in the air) from the USA defeats Viktor Novozhilov of USSR (Montreal, 1976)**



**The best attempt of Viktor Saneyev of USSR brings him the triple jump gold of the XXI Olympic Games (Montreal, 1976)**

(1:43.50 min.). L. Viren of Finland once again had a gold sweep in the 5,000 and 10,000-meter events, just as he did in 1972. B. Jenner of the USA had an outstanding total in decathlon (8,618 points), beating the second-placed contender by more than 200 points. A world record winner of the 800 meters T. Kazankina got another gold on the 1,500 meters.

The USSR had a clean sweep in the hammer throw, the winner being Y. Sedykh from Kiev, and his 36-year old coach A. Bondarchuk, winner of the Munich Games, getting the bronze. Later on A. Bondarchuk had a successful career as coach of

the national team of the USSR and a researcher, candidate and doctor of pedagogy, who wrote a number of theoretical papers on methods of top athletes training.

Twelve out of 20 gold medals in the Greco-Roman and free-style wrestling were won by young Soviet athletes who substituted in the team their outstanding predecessors A. Roshchin, A. Medved and others. The USSR teams also came first in both handball competitions, the women's team being 75% made up of Kiev "Spartak", the many-time USSR champion.



**Four gold and two silver medals of the 1976 Olympic gymnastics tournament in Montreal were awarded to Nikolai Andrianov of USSR (Montreal, 1976)**



**Sergey Novikov of USSR won the judo gold of the XXI Olympic Games (Montreal, 1976)**



The training system of the GDR team, orientated towards medal-intensive sports, such as track and field, rowing and swimming, started to produce excellent results. In these events only, GDR won 35 gold medals and got 460 points in the unofficial team total count.

Swimming was marked by close competition between the USA and GDR, whose athletes dominated, respectively, men's and women's events. The best result of the Games was that of K. Ender of GDR, who won four gold and one silver medals. The USSR women's swimming team, for the first time in their Olympic career, had a clean sweep in the 200-meter breast stroke, the final won by M. Koshevaya in the world record time (2:33.35 min.).

The weightlifting competition program was changed in Montreal: the press movement was scrapped, and athletes competed in two moves. The USSR got seven gold medals and Bulgaria one. D. Rigert and V. Alekseyev, both of the USSR, had convincing victories in the middle heavyweight and super heavyweight categories, respectively.

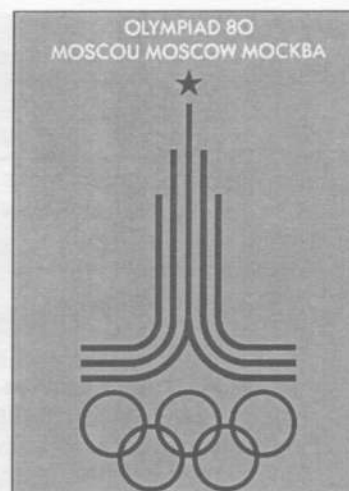
Olympic gold medalists in team events were GDR in soccer, the USA in basketball (both men and women), Hungary in water polo, Poland (men) and Japan (women) in volleyball, New Zealand in field hockey. The fact that all of these teams beat the previous Olympic champions on the way, is another indicator of how tense competition was in Montreal.

In the team competition, the USSR came first, with 792.5 points and 125 medals (49 gold, 41 silver and 35 bronze). The outstanding success of the GDR team, which placed second, was Montreal Games sensation and probably the biggest surprise in the Olympic history. GDR got 698 points and 90 medals (40, 25, 25, respectively), beating the USA by a significant margin. The USA got 603.75 points and 94 medals (34, 35, 25, respectively). The GDR and the USA teams did not compete in 1980 and 1984. They clashed for the last time in 1988 in Seoul, not long before the unification of Germany, and GDR gained another victory over the team of the USA, the largest Olympic delegation of 612 athletes.

## The XXIIInd Olympic Games

*(Moscow, 19 July—3 August 1980)*

The 75th Session of the IOC voted to stage the 1980 Olympic Games in Moscow on November 23, 1974 in Vienna. Another bidder was Los Angeles. The Program-Timetable of the Moscow Olympics was approved by the 77th IOC Session (see Table 4).



The Program included 21 events with 203 sets of medals to win (150 set in individual and 53 in the team events).

In 1975 through 1980 all the necessary sports facilities were built or reconstructed for Olympic competitions in Moscow, Tallinn (yachting), Kiev, Leningrad and Minsk (soccer group preliminaries), with most sophisticated equipment, provided by the leading USSR and foreign companies. Moscow had been practically ready to hold Olympics already in 1979. Its curtain raiser were the finals of the 6th USSR Nations' Spartakiad Games (July—August 1979) with over 10,000 competitors, 2,306 of them from abroad, from 84 countries of all five continents. Preparation for the Olympics was proceeding smoothly, and nothing seemed to cast shadows over its future. However, the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan threatened not only to disrupt the Moscow Olympics, but also to put an end to Modern Olympics altogether. President Carter was first to suggest that in protest the U.S.O.C. should boycott the Games in Moscow. Many countries supported the USA and demanded that the Games be moved to some other country, but the IOC refused to consider this possibility.

The USA brought a lot of pressure to bear on other states to join in the boycott. The governments of certain countries, which are considered to belong to the free world, pressured their National Olympic Committees to that effect, and, as a result, many countries decided to boycott the Olympic Games in Moscow. However, the atmosphere of political pressure, the use of Olympic sports as an instrument in furthering political ends, caused another wave of discontent from some politicians and sport leaders. International federations of Olympic sports expressed their protests over the actions of those governments, which had exerted pressure on their NOCs. Their statement declared that the new situation was highly dangerous and

**Table 4**  
**Schedule of XXII Olympiad events**

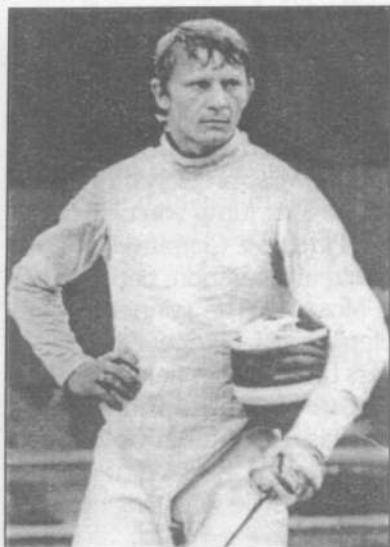
Sport event	Venue	July											August			
		20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	1	2	3
Basketball	Olympiysky Covered Sports Arena	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O <sup>2</sup>				
Boxing	Olympiysky Covered Sports Arena	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O		O <sup>11</sup>	
Freestyle wrestling	CSKA Sports Complex								O	O	O <sup>3</sup>	O <sup>3</sup>	O <sup>4</sup>			
Greco-Roman wrestling	CSKA Sports Complex	O	O	O <sup>3</sup>	O <sup>3</sup>	O <sup>4</sup>										
Cycling	Cycling track and the circuit cycling route at the Krylatskoye Olympic Trade Unions Sports centre	O <sup>1</sup>		O <sup>1</sup>	O	O <sup>1</sup>	O	O <sup>2</sup>		O <sup>1</sup>						
Water polo	Swimming pools at Olympiysky and Central Stadium	O	O	O		O	O	O		O	O <sup>1</sup>					
Volleyball	Small Sports Arena and multi-purpose Druzhba gym at the Central Stadium	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O <sup>1</sup>	O	O	O <sup>1</sup>		
Handball	Dynamo and Sokolniki sports palaces	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>				
Gymnastics	Sport Palace at the Central Stadium	O	O	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>2</sup>	O <sup>10</sup>									
Rowing	Rowing canal (Krylatskoye)	O	O	O	O	O	O	O <sup>6</sup>	O <sup>8</sup>							
Canoeing	Rowing canal (Krylatskoye)									O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O	O	O <sup>6</sup>	O <sup>5</sup>
Judo	Sport Palace at the Central Stadium											O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	
Equestrian	Trade Unions Equestrian stadium (Bitsev park), the Big Sporting Arena					O	O	O	O <sup>2</sup>		O <sup>1</sup>	O	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>		O <sup>1</sup>
Track and field	Big Sporting Arena of the Central Stadium					O <sup>3</sup>	O <sup>3</sup>	O <sup>4</sup>	O <sup>5</sup>	O <sup>5</sup>		O <sup>5</sup>	O <sup>3</sup>	O <sup>10</sup>		
Yachting	Olympic Yachting Centre in Tallinn		O	O	O	O				O	O	O <sup>6</sup>				
Swimming	Swimming pools at Olympic and Central Stadium	O <sup>2</sup>	O <sup>4</sup>	O <sup>3</sup>	O <sup>4</sup>	O <sup>4</sup>		O <sup>4</sup>	O <sup>5</sup>							
Diving	Diving pool at Olympiysky	O	O <sup>1</sup>	O	O <sup>1</sup>		O	O <sup>1</sup>	O	O <sup>1</sup>						
Modern pentathlon	Sport arenas of the sport involved	O	O	O	O	O <sup>1</sup>										
Shooting	Dynamo shooting range (Mytishchi)	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>								
Archery	Archery field at the Kriylatskoye Olympic Trade Unions Sports centre												O	O	O	O <sup>2</sup>
Weightlifting	Izmailovo Sports Palace	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>		O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O		
Fencing	CSKA Sports Complex			O	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O <sup>1</sup>	O	O	O <sup>1</sup>		
Soccer	Stadiums: Central and Dynamo in Moscow; Republican in Kiev; Kirov Stadium in Leningrad; Dynamo in Minsk	O	O	O	O	O	O								O	O <sup>1</sup>
Field hockey	Dynamo (Small Arena) and Young Pioneers Stadium	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O <sup>1</sup>	

could destroy sports and, in particular, the Olympic movement.

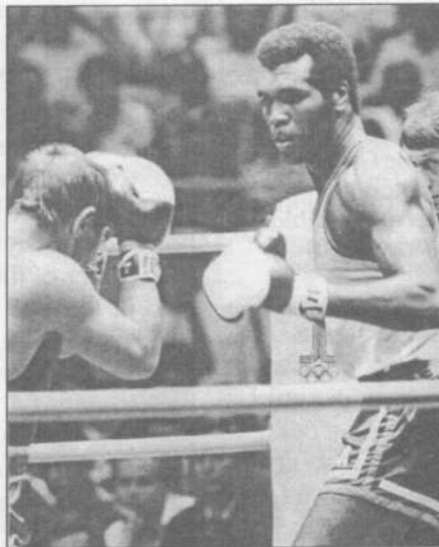
Despite the US pressure, France objected to the boycott and sent its team to Moscow. Mr. C. Collard, French NOC President, argued that the boycott of the Olympic Games in Moscow would result in a retaliatory boycott of the Los Angeles Games, which was exactly what happened in

1984. The Thatcher's government was unable to make the NOC of Great Britain stay away from Moscow.

This time, the IOC and its President M. Killanin managed to withstand the political blackmail campaign of certain Western leaders. The Games went on as planned, and in conformity to the Olympic Charter. The attitude of the IOC to the 1980 boycott



**Vladimir Smirnov**  
won the individual  
gold in the foil  
(Moscow, 1980)



**Teofilo Stevenson**, the outstanding Cuban boxer, left no chances to Petr Zayev of USSR in the Moscow Olympics super heavyweight final (Moscow, 1980)



**Sergey Sukhoruchenkov**  
of USSR won the individual  
road race  
(Moscow, 1980)

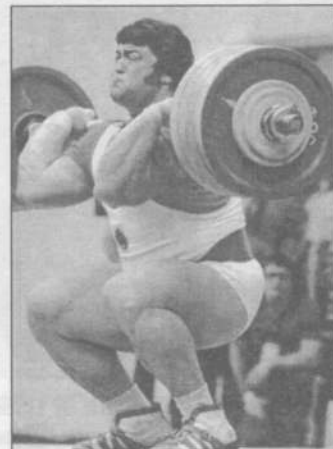
was described by Mr. Samaranch, chairman of the 84th IOC Session: "The Olympic movement has successfully resolved the difficult problem which emerged in 1980. This difficulty has only strengthened the Olympic movement and raised higher its image and respect with the world community. Our victory was ensured at the 1980 IOC Session in Lake Placid, when IOC members ruled to go ahead with the 1980 Olympic Games, irrespective of any circumstances".

Moscow greeted 5,217 athletes (including 1,124 women) from 80 countries. The Games were boycotted by such major sport nations as the USA, People's Republic of China, Japan, West Germany, with almost 30 more countries joining the boycott for various reasons. As a result, Moscow Games fielded fewer contestants, than did Montreal and Munich Olympics.

Some unfriendly experts and mass media put in a lot of efforts trying to prove that Moscow Games had been inadequate. As an example of such efforts, one can quote an excerpt from "Encyclopedia of Olympic Games" by D. Wallechinski, published in 1984 by "Penguin Books" (New York): "Toughest security was in place: winners in track and field events were physically barred from making a winner's lap. Soviet fans' boorish behavior was the worst since the Games in Paris in 1924. In the absence of the traditional adversaries from West Germany, Japan and the USA, they whistled and jeered at Polish and East German athletes." Some other authors went as far as to affirm that, in the absence of athletes from the USA, Japan, West Germany and other major countries of the West,

the Games in Moscow have degenerated into a "pompous clown show" (Sun Byung Kee et al, 1984).

However, if one is to use serious analysis instead of emotions, quite the opposite conclusion is unavoidable. In political terms, the Games in Moscow, as well as in Los Angeles four years later, were a vivid example of the Olympics being used as a cold war instrument in a worsening antagonism of the two political systems. Organizationally, the Moscow Games promoted the authority of the IOC, international federations and NOCs, which proved capable of independent decisions and of withstanding political pressure. The Opening ceremony in Moscow was a clear indication that the Games can become another highlight of the Olympic movement. "I have participated in the Opening ceremonies of all Olympic Games since 1928", said S. Tofelt of Sweden, President of the



**Sultan Rakhmanov**  
of USSR won the  
super heavyweight  
gold in weightlifting  
by a comfortable  
margin  
(Moscow, 1980)

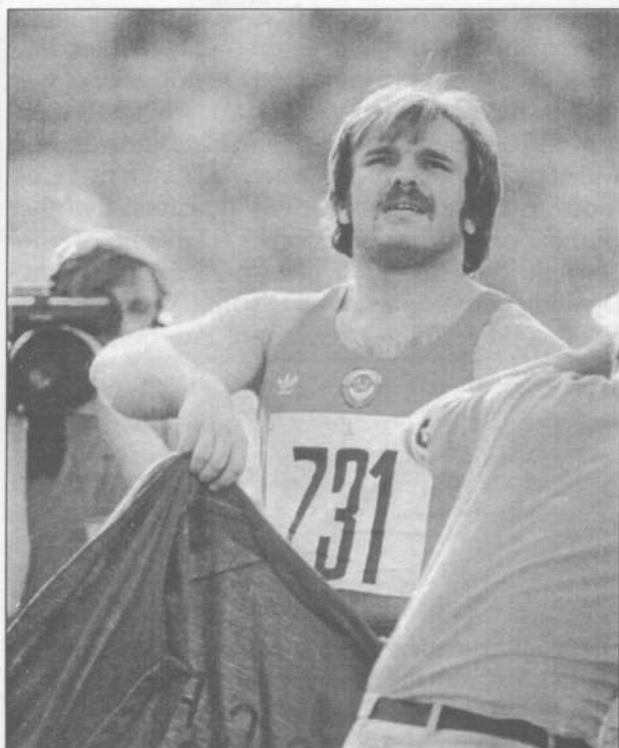




**Soviet athlete Anatoly Starostin, the youngest (20 years) in the history of the Olympic Games champion in modern pentathlon (Moscow, 1980)**

International Pentathlon and Biathlon Union. "And I can say with certainty that I have never seen a better one than in Moscow".

In fact, Moscow Games results were not worse than the results of the three previous Olympics. Suffice it to say that the Olympic Games of 1980 produced 36 world records, whereas in Montreal, Munich and Mexico there were 34, 23 and 28, respectively. Participating in the Moscow Games were nations whose athletes had gained about 70% of all the gold medals and points. Absence of the USA, West Germany and other countries did not make competition level any the worse in most of the events, except for track and field, swimming, rowing, men's basketball and diving.



**Yury Sedykh of USSR, champion of the XXII Olympic Games (Moscow, 1980)**

The USSR, Poland and GDR were the best in track and field events, the highlights being the world record of Y. Sedykh (81m 80 cm), his second gold in the hammer throw; the high jump world record of G. Wessig of GDR (2m 36 cm), the world record victory of W. Kozakiewicz of Poland in the pole vault (5m 78 cm) and the long jump win of L. Dombrowski of GDR (8m 54 cm). W. Cierpinski of GDR, the winner of the Montreal marathon, had another gold in the event in Moscow. The winner in both 5,000 and 10,000 meters was M. Yifter of Ethiopia.

The USSR wrestlers had another field day. They had mastered a more intense and speedy wrestling style which was called for in view of the time cut in the bouts, and won five gold medals in Greco-Roman and 6 in free style wrestling competitions.

The Cuban school of boxing proved its worth on the Moscow ring, their athletes winning 6 gold medals and the super heavyweight T. Stevenson getting his third Olympic gold (a second boxer to achieve the feat after Hungarian L. Papp).

The foil team of France made a comeback in Moscow, winning 4 gold, 1 silver and 1 bronze medals.

In the absence of Americans, the swimming pool events were dominated by the USSR and GDR in men's and women's competitions (respectively). The best results were achieved by Soviet V. Salnikov in the 1,500-meter freestyle (14:58.27 minutes) and B. Krause of GDR in the 100-meter sprint (54.79 seconds), both of them new world records.

The newly built Olympic cycling track in Krylatskoye (Moscow) provided for surprising speed records. Thus, L. Hesslich of GDR won the scratch, his team mate L. Thoms won the 1000 time trial, R. Dill-Bundi of Switzerland came first in the individual pursuit, the GDR did likewise the team pursuit event, and the USSR team was the winner of the 4,000-meter time trial. In the group road race a comfortable win went to the Soviet racer S. Sukhoruchenkov, who used unusual tactics on the distance. He pulled away from the field of over 100 at the beginning of the race, accompanied by his Soviet mate Y. Barinov and C. Lang of Poland. Few experts thought they will stay the whole distance. But, with three laps to go, Sukhoruchenkov broke free and came first, followed by C. Lang and S. Barinov.

The weightlifting competition brought 23 Olympic and 13 world records, with outstanding performance of D. Nunez of Cuba, Y. Russev of Bulgaria, Y. Vardanyan and L. Taranenko of the USSR. The competition was so stiff, that even the heavyweight favorite V. Alekseyev, a sure bet, failed to make at least one successful try and was eliminated.

In gymnastics A. Dityatin of the USSR won eight medals at one fell swoop (3 gold, 4 silver and 1 bronze), the biggest rake-in in the whole history of the Olympic Games.

The USSR team outstripped by far their rivals, winning 195 medals (80, 69 and 46, respectively). GDR and Bulgaria placed second and third with 126 (47, 37, 42) and 41 medals (8, 16, 17), respectively.

## The XXIIIrd Olympic Games

*(Los Angeles, 28 July—12 August 1984)*



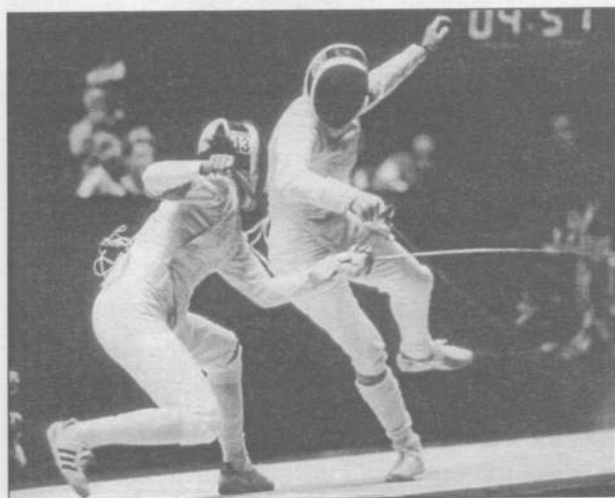
After the boycott of the Moscow Games, initiated by President Carter and supported by many countries in 1980, more problems were only to be expected at the next Olympics. Indeed, making use of a tense atmosphere in the USA on the eve of the Los Angeles Games as a pretext, the USSR staged another boycott, the victims being not only the Games, with competition level downgraded in most events, but athletes of 14 Socialist countries, many of them (the USSR, GDR, Hungary, Bulgaria, Cuba) undoubted leaders of Olympic sports.

Praise is due to the organizers of the Games, who had done gigantic work for Los Angeles Olympics to be a success. They had solicited the

participation, albeit formal, of an overwhelming majority of the NOCs. As a result, 6,797 athletes from 140 countries arrived in Los Angeles. The local mass media played the numbers up, saying that boycott means nothing, because the majority of NOCs, recognized by the IOC, agreed to field their teams.

The unofficial Organizing Committee of Los Angeles Games, headed by Mr. P. Uberotte, which ran the Olympics for the first time, made the Games profitable and ensured their excellent organization and informational support. Unfortunately, the city, which had built the first-ever Olympic village in 1932, rejected this idea in 1984 and accommodated the delegations in hostels of the local University instead.

But even the near-perfect organization of the Games could not possibly save the sporting face of the Olympics. Because of the absence of the top contenders, competitions in most events proved nothing but a remarkable performance. 125 world champions stayed away. Whatever the method of the Los Angeles Games analysis, it is easy to see that, had all Socialist countries taken part in the Games, seven of the ten Los Angeles Olympic champions would have had different names. Indeed, what Games could be recognized as successful without athletes from GDR and the USSR in track and field, without Soviet gymnasts, GDR and the USSR rowing teams, swimmers from GDR, Hungary and the USSR, Soviet and Bulgarian athletes in weightlifting, Hungarians in pentathlon, etc.? The weightlifting Olympic results in Los Angeles, for example, were 30—60 kilograms less than those of the "Druzhba" (Friendship) tournament,



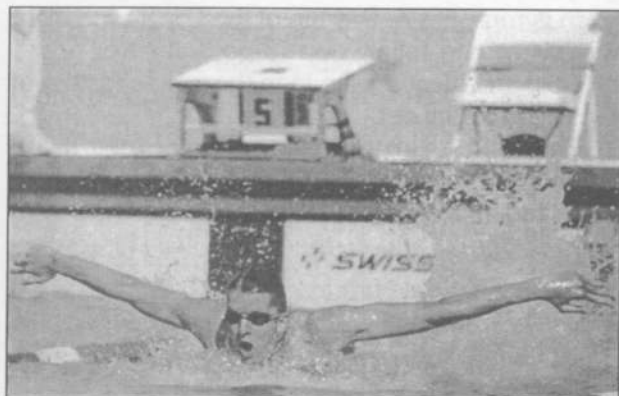
**Luan Jujie (left) from China**  
wins individual foil title  
(Los Angeles, 1984)



**Ulrike Mayfarth (Germany) wins the high jump**  
competition with new Olympic record  
(Los Angeles, 1984)



**Second successive victory of Tessa Sanderson in javelin throwing (Los Angeles, 1984)**



**Michael Gross, legendary swimmer from FRG (Los Angeles, 1984)**

which was held at the same time in the USSR. Another evidence of low competitiveness during the Games is that only eleven world records were set in Los Angeles.

However, excellent results were produced in certain events there, and new stars were born in Los Angeles, who would shine for many more years. The first to be mentioned among them, of course, is Carl Lewis of the USA, winner of three individual events: the 100 and 200-meter sprint and the long jump. He successfully matched this achievement in Seoul in 1988, and also came up on the medal platform another four years later in Barcelona. Outstanding in Los Angeles were also track and field athletes S. Coe of Great Britain, S. Aouita of Morocco, D. Thompson of Great Britain, R. Kingdom

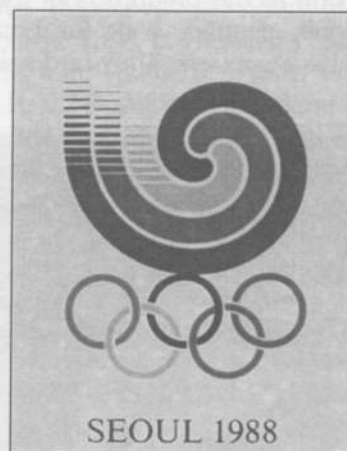
of the USA. Two gold medals went in women's events to V. Brisco-Hooks of the USA, who set an Olympic record in both cases. The stars of the swimming pool were A. Gaines of the USA, M. Gross of West Germany, A. Baumann (Canada), Americans T. Cohen, M. Meagher, T. Coulkins and other athletes, who bettered many Olympic and world records. The USA team was first in the total count, winning 174 medals (83 gold, 61 silver and 30 bronze). Romania, in the absence of other Socialist countries, placed second with 53 medals (20, 16, 17) and Canada third, getting 44 medals (10, 18, 16).

### **The XXIVth Olympic Games**

*(Seoul, 17 September—2 October 1988)*



**Carl Lewis, the most prominent athlete of today in the 200 m distance (Los Angeles, 1984)**



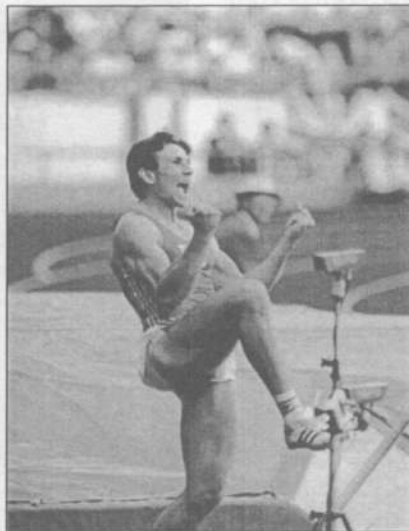
The Seoul Games significance lies not only in the medals and victories achieved, over and above that, the Games also had become an international highlight through their lofty humanitarian values.

Many western observers stressed with reason that the government of South Korea had used the Olympic Games to break free from the country's political isolation. "The people of South Korea





**The East German team  
in the 100-kilometer team  
road race (Seoul, 1988)**



**Sergey Bubka of USSR got  
the gold in the pole vault  
(Seoul, 1988)**



**Moulay Brahim Boutaib of Moroc-  
co pulled an upset victory in the  
10,000 meter race (Seoul, 1988)**

hopes that the Games in Seoul will do good to their country, just as the 1964 Games in Tokyo did to Japan. The Tokyo Games, on the one hand, helped restore international respect of Japan, and, on the other hand, they gave an impetus to Japan turning into a major economic power", American journalist W. Jefferies had pointed out.

Doubtless, these indeed were the two principal motives behind the Korean move. Yet, when announcing their Olympic bid, Korean officials had little hope of winning and said that, should their bid be rejected, they would host the Xth Asian Games in 1986. Said C. Hwant, the Associated Press Agency reporter in Seoul at that time,: "most of the population of South Korea were of the opinion that Seoul was bidding for the Olympics only to support

the country's international image and for a subsequent bid to stage the Asian Games".

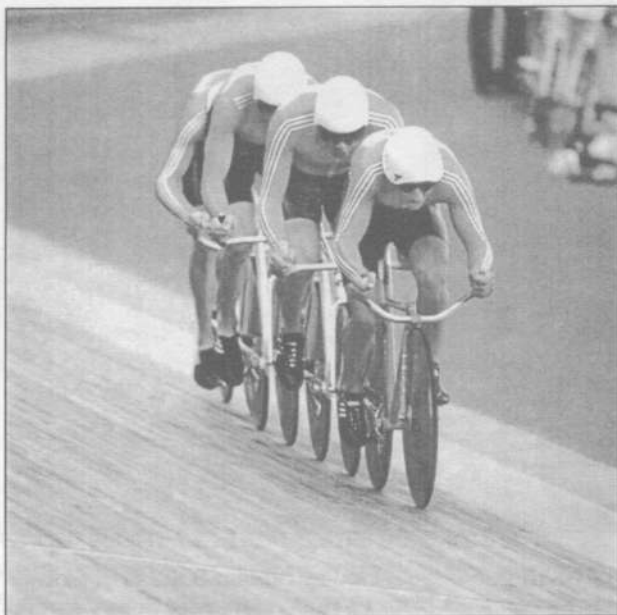
When Seoul's bid to host the 1988 Games was approved by the IOC Session in September 1981, many politicians and sports leaders it had been the worst decision possible. In fact, the decision came in the wake of the Moscow Olympics boycott and in the midst of a retaliation boycott of the Los Angeles Games by many socialist countries. There had been demands from some officials to reverse the IOC decision on Seoul, particularly from North Korea and Cuba. The problem was further compounded by the fact, that almost 30 IOC-recognized NOCs had no diplomatic relations with the Republic of Korea. Moreover, the shooting down of a South Korean jumbo jet over the territory of the



**Jacqueline Joyner-Kersee  
of USA won the long jump  
with a jump of 7.40 meters  
(Seoul, 1988)**



**Even superb skills of Zinaida Turchina from  
the Soviet team were not enough to stop  
the Republic of Korea on their way to the  
Olympic victory in handball (Seoul, 1988)**



**The 4-kilometer team pursuit was won by the USSR team (Seoul, 1988)**



**The joy of victory is celebrated by Soviet soccer team players after the final match (Seoul, 1988)**

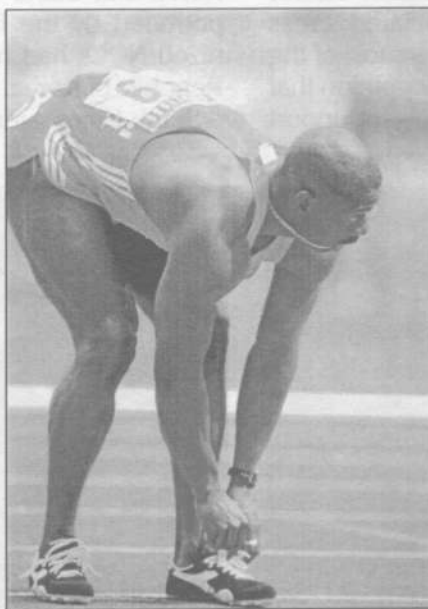
Soviet Union brought to a breaking point the already tense relations between Seoul and Moscow. However, in spite of all this, Mr. Samaranch, the IOC President, brushed off resolutely all proposals to move the Olympics somewhere else in a statement that "The Games will be held in Seoul, or they will not be staged altogether".

International sports leaders, particularly the IOC President, supported by realistic politicians and

officials of many states, managed to sustain and strengthen the Olympic movement. Here are several facts to demonstrate the enormous work done by the IOC, Korean President and the government for the Games in Seoul to be a success. Mr. Samaranch made his first visit to Seoul in 1982, and within the following 6 years he had 10 more visits there, to take part in various events and to see the preparation progress. The Organizing Committee



**Sergey Beloglazov of USSR triumphs in the Olympic free-style wrestling competition (Seoul, 1988)**



**Ben Johnson of Canada is getting ready for the sprint start (Seoul, 1988)**



**The 1,500-meter victory of Vladimir Salnikov of USSR, a swimming veteran, was one of sensation of the XXIV Olympic Games (Seoul, 1988)**



**Steffi Graf, the outstanding German athlete and Olympic champion in tennis, in action (Seoul, 1988)**

of the Seoul Games (SLOOC) had sent 16 delegations reporting on the preparation to the sessions of the IOC Executive Committee, five of the delegations being led by the President of Korea, and three times delegation's head being Korean Prime-Minister. Numerous consultations should be also mentioned of Korean leadership with representatives of the IOC, NOCs and International Sports Federations, as well as meetings of international sport organizations with politicians and officials of many countries. The success of the Seoul Games was also made possible by a change in the world political atmosphere, the gradual recognition of the supremacy of universal human values over everything else, particularly over the ambitions of some short-sighted politicians.

Accordingly, the Olympic Games in Seoul lived up to the most optimistic expectations, showing to the world perfect examples of peaceful coexistence and laying a reliable cornerstone for the success of future Olympics.

Following the Los Angeles Games, the American mass media had played up the success of the USA team as leaders of the Olympic sports, claiming that the 1984 Games had been the most outstanding in the Olympic movement history. This is why the showdown of the best world athletes, the first to be held in Seoul after a 12-year break, was expected with interest and some concern not only by experts, but, even more so, by certain politicians who had become accustomed to use sports as an arena of their political ambitions. In the meantime, in the years after the Los Angeles Olympics American athletes preparation, given a boost by

the Olympic success, had reached new highs, with their best athletes achieving excellent results both in their "traditional" areas and in the events which had not brought them success in the past.

The 1986 and 1987 world championships results could be used as a basis for the future Olympic competition prognostications. Many experts believed that the USSR could win in Seoul, provided an efficient preparation were fulfilled over the last pre-Olympic year. After a number of starts in spring and following the spring training camp sessions of the best athletes, the experts who were responsible for the Olympic preparation, had been positive of the USSR team victory. "I have no doubt that we shall win the Games as a team", said A. Kolesov, head of the USSR team preparation program, at a meeting of the USSR Sports State Committee. Obviously, the USA sports leaders had different thoughts and expectations when they decided to bring their best athletes to Seoul as members of the most numerous national delegation there.

By 17 January 1988, the deadline for to confirm the acceptance of the IOC invitation to compete in Seoul, 161 NOCs had done so. Only several countries declined the invitation, and among them, regrettably, Cuba, the country with many world class athletes. On 17 September 1988, 160 teams took part in the Opening ceremony of the Olympic Games in Seoul.

The Games in Seoul held Olympic records in the number of participating nations, athletes, coaches, officials, reporters (over 20,000), awards (237 sets of medals), security officers (over 120,000), and, finally, in the number of the TV audience watching the Olympics (3 billion in 139 countries).

Competing in the XXIVth Olympic Games were 9,627 athletes. Delegations of more than 200 were sent to Seoul by 14 NOCs, 9 NOCs sent delegations of 101—200 members, 16 NOCs — the 51—100-member delegations, 71 NOCs — delegations of 9—50, the other NOCs represented by up to eight members. The largest delegations were those of the USA (612 members), the USSR (504) and South Korea (467), with the smallest representation from Burma (2 athletes), Andorra, Butane and Gabon (3 each), Haiti (4), Sudan and Niger (5 each). The IOC covered the expenses of eight athletes and three officials of every NOC participating in the Games.

The Seoul Games program included 23 sports, two sports (tennis and table tennis) and 16 events more than at the 1984 Games in Los Angeles. From the very first day the Olympic arenas saw an exceptionally high level of closely fought out competition, which brought 104 Olympic records, 30 of which were new world records.



The USSR team triumphed in Seoul, getting 874.3 points and 132 medals (55 gold, 31 silver, 46 bronze) and setting more than half of all the records of the Seoul Olympic Games. Soviet gymnasts V. Artemov and D. Bilozerchev pulled the biggest gold catch (4 and 3, respectively). Two gold medals each were won by gymnasts V. Lyukin, S. Kharkov, S. Baginskaya, E. Shushunova; O. Bryzgina (track and fields), N. Zhuravsky and V. Reneisky (canoeing), and G. Umaras (cycling). Gymnasts got 11 gold medals, track and field athletes — 10, and weightlifters — 6. Four gold medals were awarded to Soviets in Greco-Roman and Free style wrestling, 3 golds in canoeing and the small-bore rifle shooting, 2 in swimming, and one apiece in boxing, trap shooting, fencing and rhythmic all-around. In team events the USSR teams placed first in soccer, basketball (men), volleyball (women) and handball (men). In Seoul the winning margin of the USSR was larger than in the previous Olympics. They beat GDR and the USA in the number of gold medals by 18 and 19, respectively.

The GDR team beat the USA to the second place again, like they did in 1976. This time they got 636 points and 102 medals (37, 35, 30, respectively). Their best results were in swimming (11 gold medals), rowing (8), and in track and field events (6). Among the heroes of the Seoul Games was K. Otto of GDR, who won 6 gold medals in swimming, a record number of gold for women's Olympic sports. According to some experts, GDR athletes could have won 6—8 more medals in track and field events, canoeing and swimming, had they not curtailed the program of pharmaceutical support for fear of doping controls, which were definitely more efficient in Seoul than at the previous Olympic Games.

The USA team placed third, with 632 points and 92 medals (36, 31, 25, respectively). Their most successful events proved those of track and fields (13 gold medals) and swimming (8). They also won the gold in three boxing categories, and two gold medals in each of the following sports: diving, free-style wrestling, tennis, and canoeing. The best athlete of the USA team, swimmer M. Biondi, got 5 gold, 1 silver and 1 bronze Olympic medals. Runner F. Griffith-Joiner and swimmer J. Evans got three gold medals each.

A sensation of the Games was the fourth place of the Republic of Korea team, whose athletes won 12 gold medals, that is more than did the athletes of West Germany, Great Britain, China, Bulgaria, Hungary. Koreans got three gold medals in archery, two gold medals in judo, boxing, and table tennis, and one gold medal in wrestling (both Freestyle and Greco-Roman).

West Germany was outstanding in fencing and equestrians. Their women athletes got a clean sweep, winning all three medals in the foil, and A. Fichtel and A. Schmitt the individual men's gold in the foil and the epee, respectively. West German equestrians won four gold medals: 3 in the team events and one in the dressage (N. Uphoff).

A lion's share of the gold total of Hungarians (11 gold medals) belonged to their swimmers, pentathlon team members and rowers. T. Darnyi got two of the four Hungarian gold medals in swimming (the 200-meter and the 400-meter individual medley). Two gold medals each were fetched also by S. Gyulay (kayaking) and J. Martinek (pentathlon).

The Games in Seoul produced an unusual record, when Kerstin Palm of Sweden arrived to compete in fencing in her seventh Olympics (1964—1988).

The Olympic Games in Seoul were marred by doping problems, the Bulgarian weightlifting team, for example, having to pack up early because of this offense. Doping abuse came to the forefront of the Olympic movement problems.

### **Beginning of the fourth period of modern Olympic movement**

The Cold War era is over, the world has recognized supremacy of universal humanitarian values, the Berlin Wall has tumbled down, political regimes have been changed in Eastern Europe, Germany has been unified and the USSR has broken up, the team of the Commonwealth of Independent States has competed for the last time, the world sports community have criticized the boycott of Olympic Games, etc. What impact are these events to have on the Barcelona Olympics? What route will be taken in future by the Olympic sports?

The results of the Olympic Games in Barcelona have been recognized as a most successful competition in the history of modern Olympics. And the 12th Jubilee Olympic Congress, which was held in 1994 in Paris, defined the guidelines of Olympic sports further development.

One can state today that the XXVth Olympic Games in Barcelona set the beginning of a completely new period in the development of Olympic sports. Most importantly, the 40-years-old confrontation came finally to an end on the Olympic arena between the socialist and capitalist systems. Socialism as it had been practiced all through these years in the USSR and some other countries, disappeared from the political scene. But the phenomenon of the Olympic sports system in these

countries will for ever stay in sports history as a brilliant, if full of contradictions, part of the world Olympic movement.

It would be naive to think that with the demise of the USSR and GDR, and with an overhaul of political systems in the other East European countries, Olympic Games will be free of political tensions. Prognosis will probably founder about the USA being the only remaining clear-cut leader at subsequent Olympic Games.

Today it is relatively clear what atmosphere will be like in Atlanta (USA), at the XXVth Olympic Games. But the situation around the Games of the year 2,000 has been full of controversy already now. Announcing their bids for Berlin and Beijing hosting the Games in that year, Germany and China did not conceal the political undertones of their actions. Both countries hope to further their political and economic ends through the Games, just the way it had been achieved by Japan, the Republic of Korea and Spain. The IOC decision of 1993 to stage the Olympic Games of the year 2,000 in Sydney, Australia, will hardly detract from the resolution of China and Germany to take another chance in the future.

The outcome of Olympic competition is very difficult to predict. Today one can prognosticate a stiff showdown of the USA, Germany, Russia and China. There are few doubts that these four will dominate the upcoming Games for several years to come. But the question remains open as to the outcome of the struggle between the big four. Will Germany be able to restore the advantages of sports in GDR, which have been rashly destroyed in 1991—92? Can they pool together the potential of the two Germanys and come up with a complex program of Olympic preparation? Will it be possible for Russia to preserve its potential under new political and economic conditions, changing track of its Olympic movement along quite new historic lines? Will China succeed in this situation to take advantage of its vast human capital and to come forth in Olympic sports? Will the USA recognize, from its past mistakes, that force and pressure, which they have been accustomed to use in politics and economy, makes no sense in the Olympic sports system? Will they come to understand that their current leading position in sports, which had fallen in their hands by mistake, in the wake of the USSR and GDR withdrawing from the Olympic arena, can be less stable in reality than it appears today?

Success at Modern Olympics, in our opinion, will be dependent on whether these countries will be able to come up with viable answers to these questions.

In the near future more countries are to join in the struggle for Olympic medals, particularly coun-

tries of the former Soviet Union. Ukraine, Byelorussia, Kazakhstan and some other nations have a fair chance of being among the leaders of the future Olympic Games. They have in place valuable sport traditions, qualified coaches and athletes, a system of children's and youth's sports, a good system of training and retraining, famous schools and other factors needed for an efficient preparation for Olympic Games. The Olympic future of these countries will depend on the way they succeed in drawing on these factors under new historic conditions.

It is unrealistic to expect that the demands will be supported and implemented of the adherents of the classical Olympic ideals, whereby sports should have nothing to do with politics, commerce and professional sports. Quite contrary, there are reasons to assume that the tendency of 1980s and the early 1990s will go on strong: sports will keep closer links with various spheres of social life. Analysts say that for sports to be completely isolated from problems and controversies of real life is more dangerous for the Olympic movement than attempts to relate it organically with the world politics, economy, mass media and professional sports. The question is how to do this without losing the independence of the Olympic sports, their values and ideals. Some experts believe that the ideals and independence of Olympic sports are being diluted under the impact of outside factors, such as politics, commercialization, dope taking, etc. On more serious analysis, one can see that the international Olympic movement has managed not only to preserve its authority in Olympic sports, but also to ensure the support of its stability, authority and independence by politicians and businessmen. Which is only natural: having lost its independence, the Olympic movement would become less attractive to political leaders and business circles.

Likewise, it would be wrong not to notice that transformations of the Olympic values and of the Olympian spirit, which had been laid down by P. de Coubertin, present a most serious problem for the Olympic sports. Today the IOC is facing the task of strengthening the Olympic ideals in the circumstances of the ongoing real life.

There is little doubt that in the near future the problem will linger on of relations between powerful states, developed both economically and in terms of sports, and the underdeveloped countries, which can not afford to pay due attention to the development of Olympic sports.

Nor can it be said that the anti-doping campaign of the IOC, NOCs, and ISFs (International Sport Federations) has eradicated the problem. Although the 1992 Games in Barcelona, unlike those in Seoul, had no incidents of this kind, it

would be premature to state that the doping problem had become less acute in the Olympic sports.

However, despite all complexities and contradictions of the present stage of Olympic movement development, there are ample grounds to affirm that the international Olympic movement has now entered its Fourth Period as a highly respectable and united entity, with a clear vision of its place in the universal system of values and an understanding of its potential, problems, shortcomings and prospects for further progress. All of these peculiarities allow one to be optimistic about the future of the Olympic sports.

### **The XXVth Olympic Games**

*(Barcelona, 25 July — 9 August 1992)*



After the successful Games in Seoul, the authority of the international Olympic movement has greatly increased. Coming out of an extended crisis, from the mass boycott of the Montreal Games by the African states in 1976 and through a worsened atmosphere of the Olympics in Moscow and Los Angeles, the Seoul Games had strengthened the international Olympic movement and made it more close-knit. After the Olympic Games in Seoul, any attempts to use sports as a weapon of political blackmail have become so unpopular that their organizers can not but lose their face and respect from the sports world.

Sure enough, Barcelona hosted what had turned out to be the most representative and peaceful Games in the whole Olympic history. 9,364 athletes (including 2,707 women) from 169 countries arrived in Barcelona, along with the delegations of Cuba, which stayed away from Seoul, and the athletes of South African Republic, who were allowed back into the fold of the Olympic family. Germany was represented by one team

only. Following the break up of the USSR in 1991, and for the lack of time for the newly independent states to prepare all the paperwork required to set up their NOCs and apply officially for the Olympic debut, the former republics of the USSR had to participate in the Games as a unified team of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), in conformity with a special decision of the IOC. Separate delegations were sent only by Latvia, Estonia and Lithuania, whose IOC membership, canceled on the eve of the Second World War, had been restored immediately upon the dissolution of the USSR.

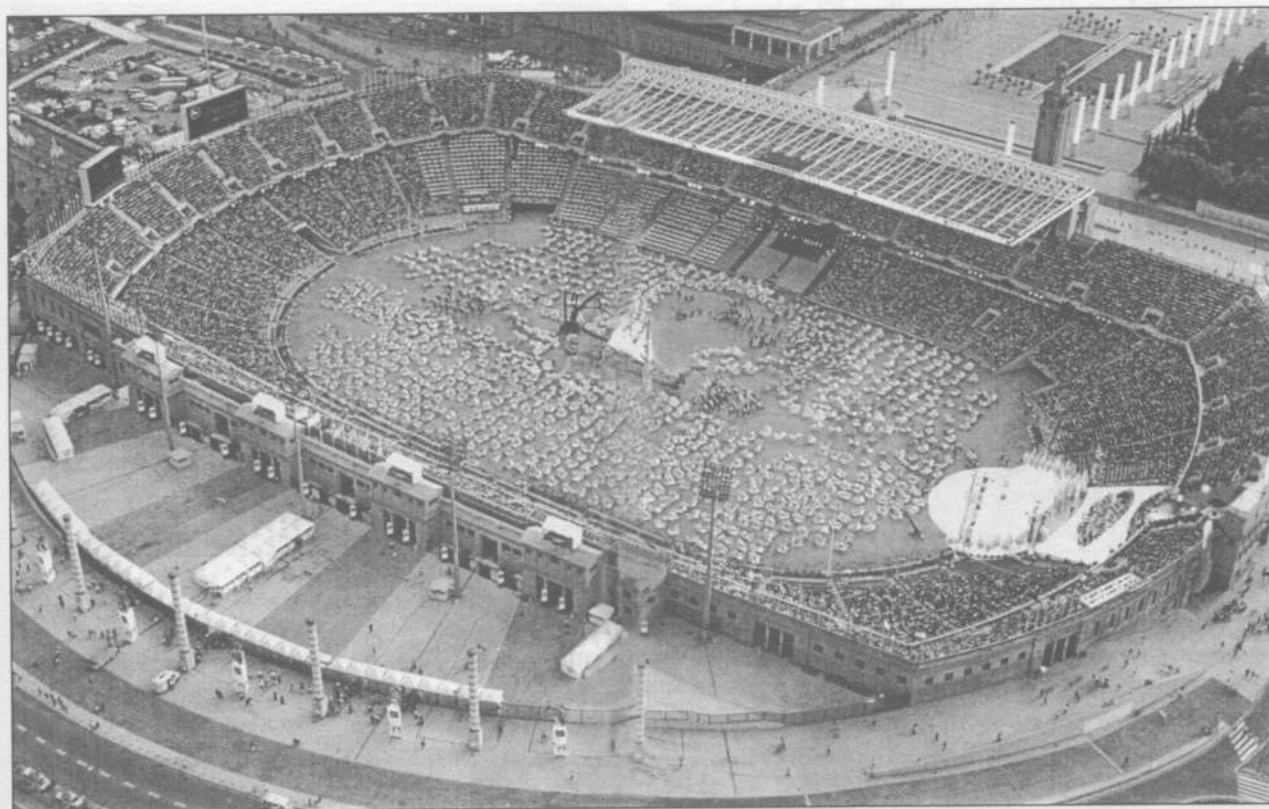
As a result, it was anyone's guess what kind of balance of forces could be expected in Barcelona. The unification of Germany, in the opinion of some observers, could make the team a sure contender for victory in the team count. Little did we know about possible consequences of a speedy and unreasonable disruption of an efficient system of East German sports. Starting in 1990, dramatic political and economic changes in the USSR had a heavy negative impact on financing the Olympic preparation of athletes. The break off of the state support system made the athletes of Russia, Ukraine, Byelorussia and other former USSR republics train and prepare in a very difficult situation during the last pre-Olympic year. The loss of access to the Olympic centers in the Baltic states, the world biggest center of altitude training in Tsakhkadzor (Armenia), and a major sea center in Esheri (Georgia) made the situation worse still, because these problems, along with lack of financial support, disrupted essentially the whole system of Olympic preparation. Accordingly, the leadership of the CIS team, national federations, the team's coaches had to introduce last-minute major alterations in the organization and methods of the athletes' preparation.

Pre-Games prognoses had given away the first place to the USA team, with Germany and the CIS fighting for the second slot. But this was not meant to be. The CIS team came first by a large margin, winning 112 medals (45 gold, 38 silver and 29 bronze). In the absence of GDR, the USA team placed second, getting 108 medals (37, 34, 37 respectively), and Germany third with 82 medals (33, 21, 28). Among the top ten were also China — 54 medals (16, 22, 16), Cuba — 31 (14, 6, 11), Hungary — 30 (11, 12, 7), Republic of Korea — 29 (12, 5, 12), France — 29 (8, 5, 16), Australia — 27 (7, 9, 11) and Spain — 22 (13, 7, 2).

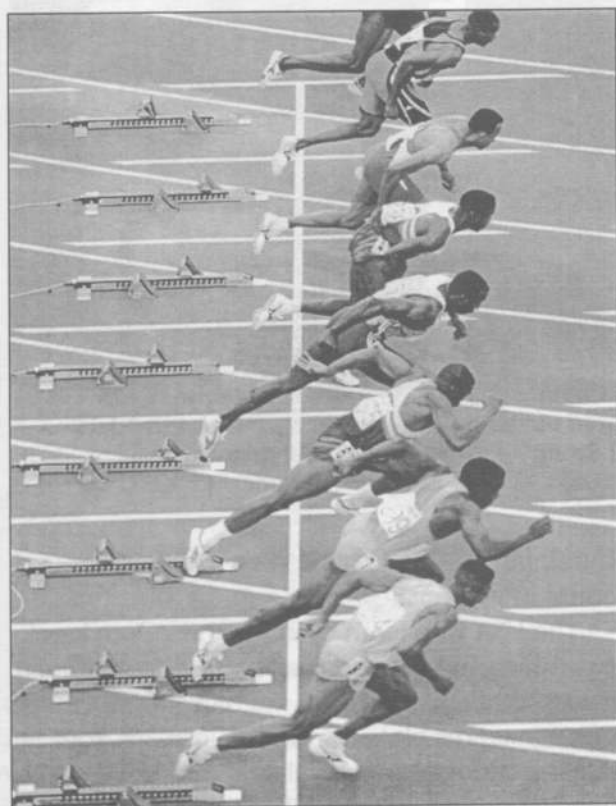
Awards were won by athletes of 64 nations, an increase compared to the number of medal-winning countries in Seoul.

Most medals for the CIS were won by their athletes in track and fields, swimming, gymnastics,





**Bird's view of the Opening Ceremony of the XXV Games  
at the Olympic Stadium in Barcelona (1992)**



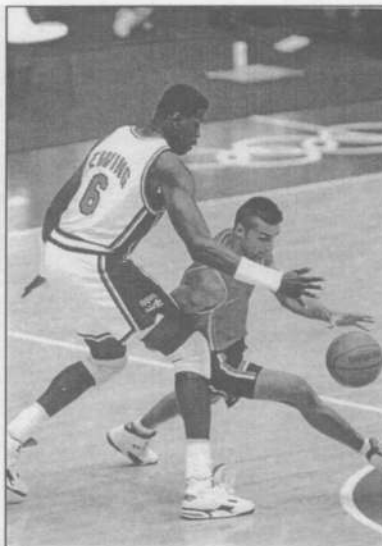
**The start of the Olympic 100-meter sprint final  
(Barcelona, 1992)**



**Germany won in a close finish of the 100-kilometer  
team road race (Barcelona, 1992)**



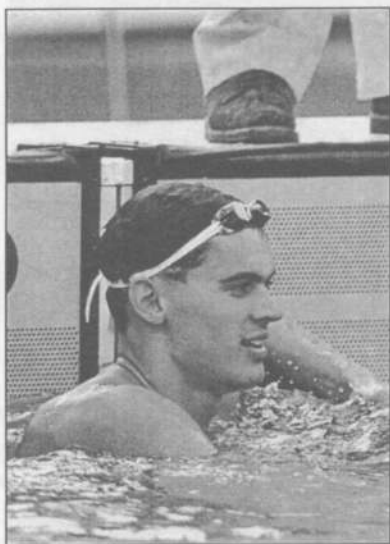
Mike Powell could not stop Carl Lewis from winning his third consecutive Olympic long jump title, Powell won the silver (Barcelona, 1992)



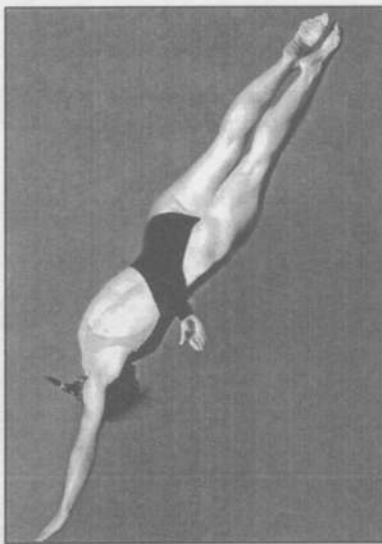
Episode of USA-Spain basketball match at the Olympic Games (Barcelona, 1992)



Carl Lewis of USA won another gold medal in long jumps (Barcelona, 1992)



Aleksandr Popov of CIS was second to none in the swimming sprint at the XXV Olympic Games (Barcelona, 1992)



Fu Minchao of China on her way to the gold medal in springboard diving (Barcelona, 1992)



Vitaly Scherbo of CIS won six Olympic medals in gymnastics (Barcelona, 1992)

wrestling and weightlifting. Gymnast V. Scherbo of Byelorussia got six gold medals. Outstanding was the performance of Russian swimmers Y. Sadoviy (3 gold medals) and A. Popov (2 gold medals), who became a swimming sensation. The wrestlers were traditionally very strong winning a total of eight gold medals in all wrestling events, with weightlifting athletes adding another five gold medals. A. Timoshenko of Ukraine was starring in rhythmic all-around, and another

Ukrainian, T. Gutsu, came first in the all-around count in gymnastics.

The USA won team events in the slalom kayak, swimming and synchronized swimming, track and fields, basketball (men), yachting, and tennis. German teams placed first in equestrians, rowing, hockey, canoeing, and cycling. Cubans were winners in baseball, boxing and volleyball, Chinese in diving and table tennis, Spain in soccer, France in fencing, Poland in modern pentathlon, Japan in



**Michael Barrowman of USA beat his opponents in the 200-meter breaststroke at the XXV Olympic Games (Barcelona, 1992)**

judo. Usually, the host nation of the previous Games would do much worse at the subsequent Olympics, but Republic of Korea put an end to this tradition, by winning 29 medals and repeating their Seoul success.

### **The Games of the XXVI Olympiad in Atlanta: Results, Lessons and Problems**

*(Atlanta, 19 July — 4 August 1996)*



The Games of the XXVI Olympiad, or the Centennial Games, that were celebrated from 19 July to 4 August 1996 in Atlanta, Georgia (USA), were indeed the biggest sport event of modern age. They drew the attention of about 11,000 competitors from 197 states, hundreds of thousands tourists, a huge army of mass media representa-

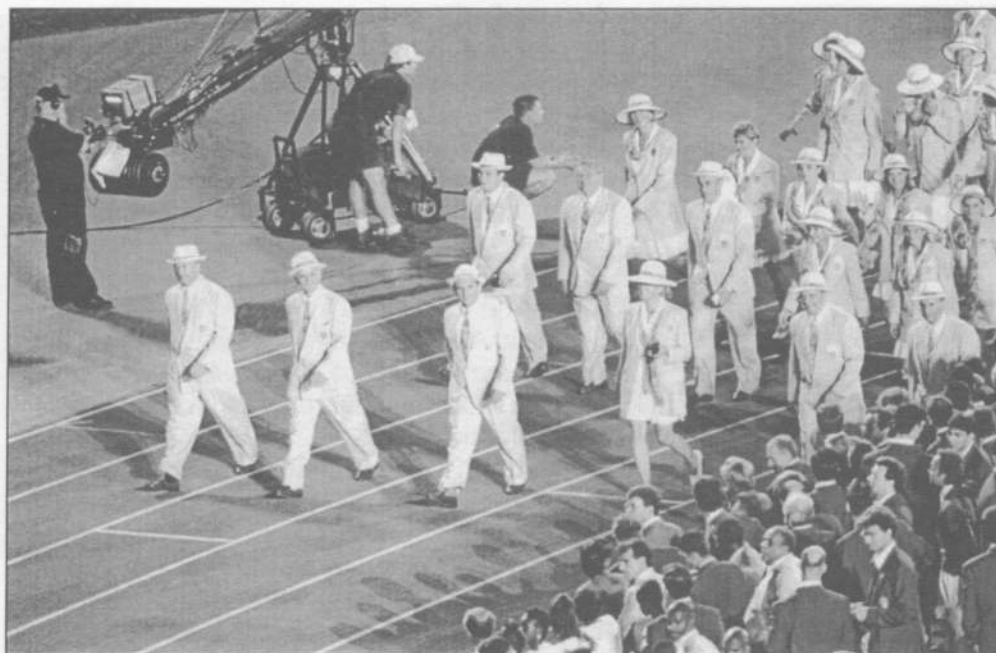
tives, and a TV audience of over three billion viewers. The Games will also go down in history as the arena of the tough showdown of the best athletes who produced a number of unique achievements.

At the same time, the Atlanta Games will serve as a serious warning to those leaders of the international Olympic movement, specialists and amateurs of sports, who, after the high organizational and sport level of the Summer Olympic Games in Seoul and Barcelona and the Winter Olympic Games in Albertville and Lillehammer, were lulled into a false belief that the crisis is over and the Olympic movement has become so strong organizationally and morally that it was guaranteed a stable and unhampered growth for years to come. The Games of the XXVI Olympiad proved all of them utterly wrong. In fact, since the moment Atlanta was selected to be the host city and until the Closing ceremony, the world witnessed numerous cases of direct implementation of political ambitions and commercial interests of people who were alien to the Olympic ideals, humanitarian and ethical values of sport, or respect of the rights of competitors and sport amateurs in different countries of the globe.

### **Organizational, social and political issues**

Most of participants of the 96th IOC Session in Tokyo (1990), which was to select the host city for the XXVI Olympic Games, had no doubt that the Centennial Games would be celebrated in Athens, the capital city of Greece, which had been the venue of the First Olympic Games of Modern Age one hundred years previously. The Athens municipal authorities were so sure of a successful bid that, long before the Session, they launched a comprehensive program of preparation for the Olympic festivities. They had built several modern sport facilities that met the strictest of requirements, such as the Olympic Stadium and the swimming pool, started reconstruction of roads and freeways, etc. The world community was also convinced of the best chances of Athens, if only to do justice to a city that had been the place of birth of modern Olympic Games. However, the IOC, guided by the prospect of attracting big money to Olympic sport and confident that the money would help to celebrate the Games on a par with the level attained in Seoul and Barcelona, unexpectedly decided to select Atlanta instead, a provincial American city with a very hot and humid climate, having no suitable venues or experience of staging events of such a caliber. The IOC must have based its decision on such considerations that the funds it would get for





**Opening Ceremony of the XXVI Olympic Games: Ukrainian athletes, debutants of the Games, entering the stadium (Atlanta, 1996)**

the sale of TV rights and from the TOP program, as well as the enormous economic potential of the USA would attract wealthy sponsors and could ensure a complete guarantee of a successful preparation of Atlanta for the Games.

There were sufficient grounds for this optimism taking into account the results of the Olympic Games in Seoul and Barcelona, which had provided a valid seal of approval to the position of IOC President Samaranch who was driven by the purpose of a comprehensive commercialism of Olympic sport while preserving its humanitarian and moral-ethical values. The OCOGs in Seoul and Barcelona had done everything possible for the process of commercialization of Olympic sport, the admission of professionals to compete at the Olympic Games and the dramatically rising revenues, to be used for the benefit of sport — to improve the infrastructure of the host cities, to build modern sport facilities, to develop better-quality information systems, to improve the quality of refereeing, etc. It seemed that the problem of commercializing the Olympic Games had been almost resolved, since the OCOGs and numerous influential sponsors were willing to achieve a natural mix of commercial issues and the basic Olympic principles, interests of Olympic Games participants, particularly athletes, and expectations of many enthusiasts of Olympic sport from different countries.

With this need in mind, the IOC turned its attention to the future Games to be held in the period of 2000—2008, particularly as regards such problems that had remained unattended in the past: the place of athletes in Olympic sport and promulga-

tion of their rights; the relations of modern Olympic sport and protection of environment; assistance to developing countries in cultivating sport; the problem of Olympic education; maximum use of the Olympic Museum potential; restoration of the lost links of Olympic sport with art and culture; the uses peace-keeping potentials of the international Olympic movement, etc.

Overwhelmed with new ideas and fascinating possibilities of further enhancement of the authority and social significance of Olympic sport, the IOC and its President had slackened their control over the activity of the Atlanta OCOG in the hope that the organizers would make use of the best achievements of their counterparts in Seoul and Barcelona. The International Sport Federations (IFS), probably for the same reason, failed to exercise due control over the work of the OCOG and were not sufficiently tough in the oversight of progress in the preparation of sport facilities, the Olympic Village and the system of transportation.

First of all, as a result of this, the lack of professionalism of the OCOG members, compounded by their self-conceit, irresponsibility and obsession with maximum returns, has produced a graphic example of the negative impact of unbridled commercialism on Olympic sport. The Atlanta Games OCOG thus sprang a nasty surprise on the IOC President Samaranch who celebrated his 76th birthday those days and was probably sorry that in considering the bids to host the Centennial Games, the IOC selected the absolutely unprepared, but rich Atlanta in preference of Athens, the city that was meticulously preparing for the Olympics. This decision has ultimately left the IOC face to face

with problems, most of which seemed to have been successfully tackled in the second half of the 1980's.

The inadequate activities of the Atlanta OCOG played into the hands of the opponents of commercialism in Olympic sport, who had recently lost much of their clout. Not only did the unprecedented and cynical profiteering of the private OCOG, accompanied by the trampling upon the Olympic principles and ideals, infringements on the rights of athletes, coaches, the mass media and other participants of the Olympic Games, deserve a barrage of criticism; it also brought severe criticism upon the IOC and the IFs officials who did not exercise the required level of control and oversight of the OCOG activity and, in a number of instances, in pursuit of a share of proceeds, had aided and abetted the unscrupulous organizers. Regrettably, there are more than enough grounds for this negative assessment. The inadequate accommodation of the athletes, low-quality cheap food, lack of facilities for recuperation and rest at the Olympic Village and at most of the sport venues, incompatibility of many sport facilities with modern quality standards and requirements, poor transportation, inadequate information service, poor performance of services responsible for security, and a number of other negative factors had caused lots of problems to competitors, specialists, reporters and the mass media, spectators, and tarnished the image of Olympic sport as a stable and monolithic modern movement, free of internal contradictions and able to withstand the impact of external factors.

It has become a tradition that the Games of the Olympiad and Winter Olympic Games, apart from being the central major competitions in the world, are also the venue to demonstrate the progress of science and technology in various spheres of the Games support — in architecture, urban development, construction, information and transportation, management and logistics. This had been the case in Tokyo (1964), Moscow (1980), Seoul (1988) and Barcelona (1992). Unfortunately, none of these were there to be seen at the 1996 Games. Not only Atlanta failed to reach the level reached in Barcelona, Seoul and Moscow, it did not provide even the minimum level of a successful competition and elementary conditions for athletes and the mass media. And that happened at the Games held in a country which is by far richer than Spain, Korea or even the former USSR.

Quite natural therefore is the extremely negative assessment of the material and organizational aspects of the Games in Atlanta by outstanding athletes, leaders of the international Olympic movement and mass media representatives, including those from the USA.

The management style of the Atlanta Games, just like that of the 1984 Olympics in Los Angeles, stressed the faults of OCOG being independent financially and politically of the government of the host country. Life has proved that the wholesome ambitions of governments and nations striving to use the Olympic Games for the purpose of publicity of their political system, of the economic potential, achievements of science and technology, and cultural values of their states are favorable grounds for a successful celebration of the Olympic Games.

The showpiece examples of a successful approach of this type were the Olympic Games in Tokyo (1964), Seoul (1988) and Barcelona (1992). Besides, successful were all other OCOGs whenever they ensured cooperation with of the central governments of the host countries, which guaranteed proper level of organization, as well as material and technical level of their operation. Conversely, one has little ground for optimism in cases when all responsibility for preparation and celebration of the Games is vested with independent OCOGs run by businessmen who are only after obtaining maximum revenues from the Games, rather than honoring the general traditions and principles. Consequently, the IOC should probably bear this in mind while considering the candidate cities and, equally, planning ways to counter bids from US cities. Regrettably, ideas of the exclusive rights of the USA to impose its views and traditions on the world community have taken root in the mentality of American officials of late. Even a cursory glance at the activities of the USA in various spheres, such as politics, economics and culture, can easily reveal this trend. It will be a tragedy of Olympic sport if the IOC fails to maintain its independence through financial considerations or under political pressure. The position and policy of the IOC regarding this issue will be easy to see in the near future, given the negative lessons learned in Atlanta and taking into account the fact that the list of candidate cities to host future Olympic Games includes Athens and Beijing, the cities that, even today, can stage the Games much better than Atlanta did.

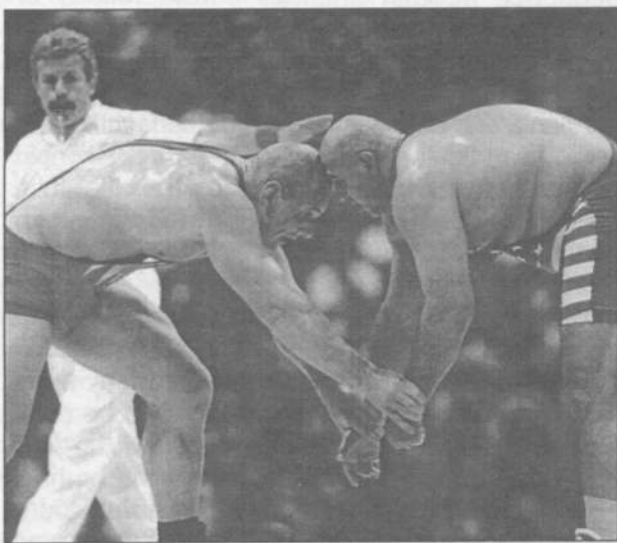
Note should be made also of the fact that through the TOP program and its cooperation with television the IOC has managed to assure a powerful financial base for the Games for many years to come, irrespective of where they will be celebrated. Differently from the past, when the IOC depended on the financial assistance of the host cities and the government of the organizing country, today just the funds that the OCOGs receive as their share of proceeds from implementing the economic program of the IOC are sufficient to celebrate the Olympics properly. It is important to

make sure that the huge funds are put to good use, as was originally intended.

It is probably worth restoring the old practice when the IOC solicited from the government of a candidate state guarantees of a successful celebration of the Games. Unfortunately, it is unrealistic to count on the best efforts and sincerity of private OCOGs, particularly if the Games should be held in the USA.

Secondly, in addition to this problem, discussions are once again going on regarding the eligibility of professional athletes to compete in the Olympic Games. On the one hand, one understands the wish of the IOC to ensure that all top performers compete for the Olympic awards, whether professionals or amateurs. On the other hand, one can not but agree that in some sports, like in men's basketball, no team can be a serious adversary of the NBA professionals, and the situation is unlikely to change at any time in the future.

On the whole, though, we believe that the problem of eligibility of professionals is not to be reopened because only the best athletes should compete at the Olympic Games. However, the ungrounded expansion of the Olympic competition program is open for criticism. The IOC believes that the Games of the Olympiad have reached gigantic proportions and no further expansion is tenable, if only for technical reasons. At the same time, over the recent years the program of the Olympic Games has been expanded to include some sport events that are not universally popular and are practiced just in several regions. The skills of athletes in these events are markedly inferior than those of best performers in traditional sports



**Outstanding Russian athlete Aleksandr Karelin won the third gold medal in super heavyweight (Greco-Roman wrestling) (Atlanta, 1996)**



**US basketball players were the best**

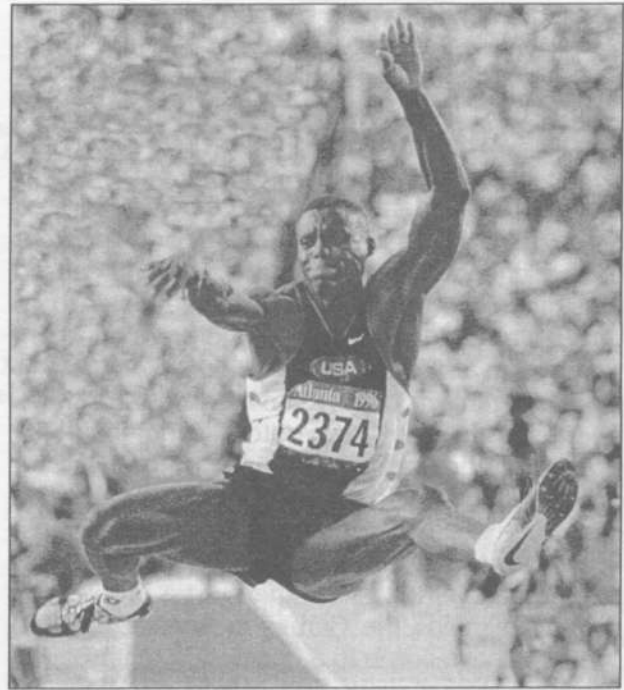
that are hugely popular and are practiced by lots of people. Therefore, each time winners in softball or beach volleyball get their medals, just like those in track and fields or swimming, this can not but devalue the Olympic medals and the title of an Olympic champion. The same may be said about awards in women's sports. Naturally, there is nothing wrong with adding new sport events to the Olympic program for women. But the sight of women athletes competing in events where their skills are nowhere near the level of Olympians can only put off spectators. To date it is quite clear that by level of performance achieved in women soccer or women beach volleyball, they, at best, can be classified as mass sports, and never as Olympic sports. What can possibly feel Olympic champions in swimming, gymnastics or track and fields if their performance is assessed on a par with that in women soccer?

This is why prior to considering the expansion of the program of the Games, IFs should first help the respective sport to achieve the Olympic level of competence and only after that proceed with their proposals. It is a pity, but at present the situation is just the reverse: under pressure from IFs and other bodies, the IOC often adds new events to the Olympic Games program only to conclude later that, by doing so, it has harmed the authority of Olympic sport. Indeed, can one treat seriously introduction to the Olympic program of sports like women's soccer, softball, beach volleyball, or mountainbiking? Contentious has been the introduction of baseball and triathlon. Every decade brings with it new kinds of movement activities that gradually become sport events. It is only natural that those who practice such sports would like to take part in the Olympic Games, the most



important sport competition in the world. It is a logical process which is to be expected. What causes resentment is the ease with which new sport events gain a place among Olympic disciplines without sufficient grounds. It is obvious that this is normally the result of pressure by those who are after commercial and purely national interests. Suffice it to say that among obvious leaders in the new sports invariably happen to be athletes from the USA. This trend is clearly seen from technical results of the Games in synchronized swimming, softball, baseball, beach volleyball, and women's soccer. At the same time, still barred from the program of the Olympic Games are such events as acrobatics, trampolining, and sambo wrestling, although they are widely popular in Europe and have been internationally recognized by now.

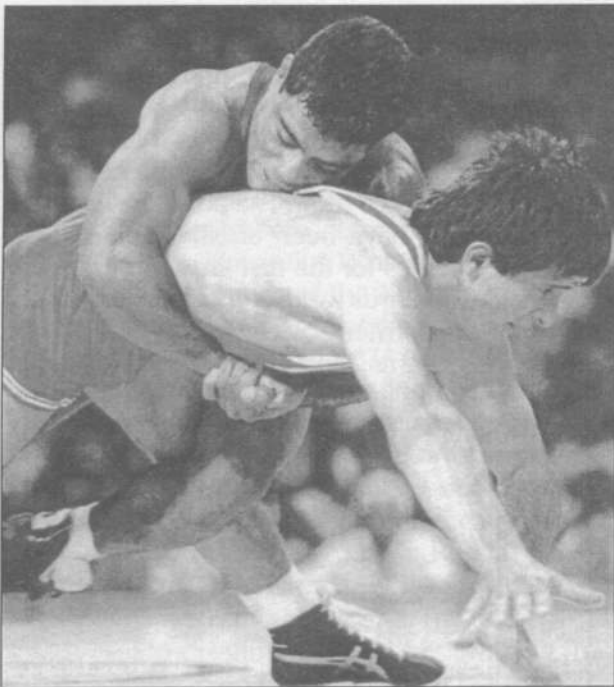
Thirdly, the need has emerged of bringing order to the relations of the IOC with the mass media, particularly with television. It is the obligation of the IOC to see to it that the American TV companies, having acquired the rights of the Summer and Winter Olympic Games television coverage for many years ahead, were not allowed to turn TV reports into a biased and one-sided advertising campaign for US athletes only, for domestic consumption. The way television and newspapers covered the competitions in Atlanta baffled even the most seasoned officials of international sport and brought the relations of Olympic sport and the



**Marvellous Carl Lewis (USA) winning fourth gold medal in long jump (Atlanta, 1996)**

mass media to the boiling point. The IOC should probably take active steps to ensure more balanced mode of Olympic competitions reporting, with commensurate attention given by the mass media to athletes from different nations and to different sport events. It is high time that cases of a biased, one-sided, and subjective style of the Olympic Games coverage by the mass media has to be stopped. It is no longer enough just to discuss this problem at various committees and conferences, as was the case before.

Fourth, the IOC should not keep clear of the problem of quality of the work done by judges and referees, which many IFs are unable to cope with. According to a special analysis of the results of the Atlanta Olympics undertaken by independent researchers, at least 5 % of the Olympic medals were awarded not to the really best athletes but to their weaker opponents as a result of erroneous, and sometimes plain dishonest decisions of the jury. What is more, such cases happened not only in wrestling, boxing, or gymnastics, but also in track and field events, where this was seemingly out of the question. Thus, in the long jump J. Carsey stepped on the bar in her bronze-medal winning attempt. The mistake was distinctly visible on TV screens, both to ordinary viewers and to judges, but the attempt was considered valid. In another episode, a US athlete lost in the hammer throw qualification round, but, in violation of all the rules, was allowed to go through to the finals.



**In the bout of free-style wrestlers (up to 68 kg) between Vadim Bogiev (Russia) and Sanders Townsend (USA), the former turned to be more successful, (Atlanta, 1996)**

Consequently, he won a medal that, in all justice, should have been awarded to another, more deserving but unlucky, athlete.

It is hard to understand why the hosts of the Atlanta Olympic Games should have created a whole system of biased refereeing to favor the US athletes. The US team was by far the best there, so some 10 to 15 ill-gained medals only chipped at their confident all-round team victory and caused tens of really outstanding American athletes to go through a ruthless criticism of the press and contempt from athletes of other nations.

The organizers of the Atlanta Games must have been surprised by the outcry such incidents caused on the part of the world community, and not only in the world of sport. But it was only to be expected, since such blatant miscarriages of justice were seen by the public as damage to the general human values, rather than just a problem of sports. Following the Games in Atlanta, the IOC seems to have come to a conclusion that isolated cases of sloppy work and biased decisions by judges that had happened in the past (like those in Seoul in 1988) have deteriorated into a dangerous ill of the Olympic sport, which is to be countered just like the doping problem. It is time to eradicate this ill and mete out resolute punishment to organizers and referees who violate the fundamental principles of Olympism, such as justice and equality of all competitors of the Olympic Games. Penalties in such cases should be as tough as those applied to athletes who were caught taking illegal substances.

The results of the Games of the XXVI Olympiad in Atlanta yet again point out that the Olympic Games are the heritage of all the world, that their image and authority in the world are the result of hard work and all-out efforts of many generations in different countries, representatives of different social groups and professions, particularly athletes and coaches. Unfortunately, this simple truth has been overlooked by the Organizers of the Games in Atlanta who thought that they own the Olympics and that they are free to dispose of the Games as they see fit. The IOC should prove them wrong.

Otherwise, Olympic sport may be disrupted and may fall into disrepute. Once again, as in the 1980's, the IOC and its President face the challenge, they should tap their experience, authority and qualifications in order to maintain the progress of Olympic sport and to nip in the bud the negative trends that became evident in Atlanta. Although dangers that threaten the further progress of Olympic sport are of a different nature compared with those of the 1970's and the early 1980's, it will take concerted effort to defuse them, and not only on the part of the sport world, but also of representatives of other social groups if they want to develop Olympic sport and preserve its values and ideals.

By now, the Olympic Games in Atlanta already belong to history of Olympic sport. It was one of its worst pages organizationally and one of the best in excitement. The sport results not only saved the day, but also pushed to the background the material and organizational failures of the Games. But credit for this achievement is due not to the Atlanta OCOG, but to the athletes and their outstanding performance, the NOCs of 197 nations that sent their delegations to Atlanta, and most of the IFs that managed to stage the competition properly.

### Participants of the Games of Olympiad

More than 11,000 athletes from 197 countries competed for the Olympic awards of the XXVI Olympic Games in Atlanta. This was a record number of competitors in the Olympic history, as was the number of sport events comprising the competition program.

The increase in the number of participating nations is accounted for not only by the increased popularity of Olympic sport. The political reshaping of Europe must have been another contributing factor. Thus, it was for the first time that Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Belarus and a number of other nations of the former Soviet Union fielded their own Olympic teams. Most countries competing in the Games came from Africa, the least represented Oceania (see Table 5). Half participants of the

##	Continent	Number of countries	% of total	Number of participants			% of total
				Men	Women	Total	
1	Europe	47	23.85	3,677	1,935	5,612	50.0
2	Asia	44	22.33	1,104	697	1,801	16.04
3	America	42	21.31	1,532	832	2,364	21.06
4	Africa	52	26.40	624	179	803	7.15
5	Oceania	12	6.10	413	231	644	5.75
	T o t a l	197	100	7,350	3,874	11,224	100

**Table 5**  
The number of countries and athletes accredited at the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta

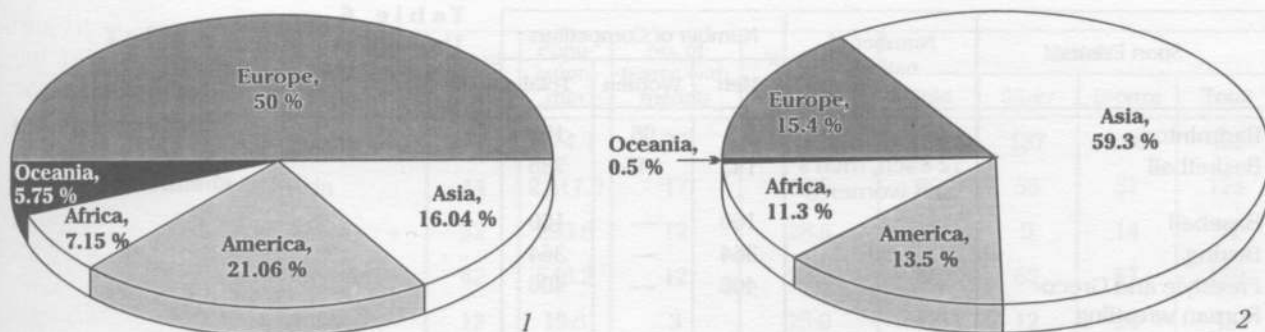


Fig. 1. Competitors (2) at the Games of XXVI Olympiad as against the Population of Respective Continents (1)

Games were from European countries, the highest number as compared with the total population of respective continents (Fig. 1).

The biggest teams were those of the USA, with 746 members (including 322 women), Germany — 528 (219), Australia — 476 (188), and Russia 439 (173). Over 300 athletes represented Italy — 365 (117), Japan — 329 (123), Republic of Korea — 324 (119), Great Britain — 317 (123), and France — 311 (108); teams of 200 plus were sent by the Netherlands — 265 (115), Hungary — 245 (75), Ukraine — 234 (88), Brazil — 225 (65). The total number of athletes in these 13 teams was practically equal to that of all the remaining 184 teams taken together<sup>1</sup>.

The Olympic Games in Atlanta reconfirmed the obvious and stable trend of a speedy development of female sports. This could be seen both in adding new events to the Olympic program to reach a total of 97, and in the growth of the number of women participating in the Olympic Games. In Atlanta the percentage of events for women, men and for both men and women as against the total number of events were, respectively, 35.8 %, 60.1 % and 4.1 %. It is interesting to note that the women's events at the Games of the XV Olympiad in 1952 accounted for just 17.1 % of the total.

The table shows that 3,874 women athletes, or 34.5 % of the total number of competitors, arrived in Atlanta to take part in the Olympic starts in various sport events and disciplines. Women made up a sizable part of the more successful teams at the Atlanta Games. Thus, their number came to 43.2 % in the team of the USA, 39.4 % in Russia, 41.5 % in Germany, 34.7 % in France, 32.1 % in Italy, 39.5 % in Australia, and 37.6 % in Ukraine. The team of China stirred a sensation in Atlanta, bringing more women than men (64.0 %) in their team.

By contrast, let us recall that there were only 10.5 % of women among competitors at the 1952 Olympic Games, 13.3 % at the 1964 Games, 20.7 % in 1976, 25.8 % in 1988, and 28.9 % in 1992.

The greatest number of athletes competed in track and field, swimming, and rowing, while the least competitors were entered in modern pentathlon, beach volleyball, and rhythmic all-around exercises (Table 6), with competitions in different sports lasting from one to sixteen days.

#### Results Achieved by Athletes of Different Continents at the Games of the XXVI Olympiad in Atlanta

In terms of results achieved by teams of different continents at the Atlanta Games (Table 7), Europe comes off as an unqualified leader. Athletes of three quarters of the teams representing European nations were awarded the Olympic medals. European athletes constituted 50 % of the total number of competitors, but managed to win 53.8 % of the total number of awards and 55.4 % of gold medals. Conversely, only 12 of the 52 teams from the American continent got Olympic medals. However, the successful performance of the US team (they won 101 medals, 44 of them gold) saw to it that American teams came a clear runner-up in the total count (21.3 % of awards, 22.9 % of the total number of gold medals). The teams of Asia did pretty well through the successful results of China (15.2 % of total awards and 13.3 % of total gold). Lackluster performance of Oceania can be attributed to the small territory of the continent, while mediocre results of Africa were probably due to the insufficient development of Olympic sport there, as well as for social, political and economic factors peculiar to that continent.

On the eve of the Games, the talk of the day both and in the mass media and among sport specialists was a possible outcome in the teams' total count. The results produced at the World

<sup>1</sup> The statistical data used were supplied by the ACOG Information Center as of September 1, 1996.



Sport Events	Number of nations	Number of Competitors		
		Men	Women	Total
Badminton	37	96	96	192
Basketball	12 each, men's and women's	143	143	286
Baseball	8	160	—	160
Boxing	99	364	—	364
Freestyle and Greco-Roman wrestling	75	406	—	406
Cycling	67	379	112	491
Water polo	12	156	—	156
Volleyball	12 each, men's and women's	141	141	282
Handball	12 in men's and 8 in women's	191	128	319
Gymnastics	36	118	114	232
Rowing	45	392	205	597
Canoeing	45	240	100	340
Kayaking slalom	30	104	29	133
Judo	92	241	151	392
Equestrian	31	156	68	224
Track and field	193	1407	852	2259
Table tennis	51	87	83	170
Yachting	78	359	100	459
Swimming	119	436	349	785
Beach volleyball	19 in men's, 13 in women's	48	36	84
Diving	39	66	56	122
Synchronized swimming	8	—	70	70
Modern pentathlon	23	34	—	34
Softball	8	—	119	119
Archery	41	77	75	152
Shooting, Trap and Skeet	100	295	128	423
Tennis	56	96	89	185
Weightlifting	79	253	—	253
Fencing	46	140	93	233
Soccer	16 in men's and 8 in women's	285	127	412
Field hockey	12 in men's and 8 in women's	190	128	318
Rhythmic All-round	23	—	92	92
T o t a l	—	7060	3684	10744

**Table 6**  
The Number of Competitors  
at the Atlanta Games (by sports)

Championships and at other major competitions in 1994—1996 left no doubt as to the future victory of the US athletes. The hosts of the Games in Atlanta fielded the most numerous team over the whole history of Olympic sport (746 participants), with many great performers, particularly in track and field events and in swimming. The convincing victory of the US team in the unofficial all-around teams' count with 678.75 points and 101 medals (44 gold, 32 silver and 25 bronze medals) was predetermined not only by the outstanding skills of athletes, but also by a number of other factors: much better accommodation and transportation

than those provided to the rest of the athletes; the complete and one-sided system of information and propaganda support; packed stadiums with the enthusiastic public supporting their home team; lots of pro-American errors of judges and referees, which on many occasions distorted the real results of competitions; the monopoly position of Americans in the doping control system; the decisions of the IOC to add to the competition program of the Games, to please the US, such less than popular, regional sport events as softball, beach volleyball, etc. All of these could not but cause the negative reaction of sport organizations from different

**Table 7**  
Performance  
of athletes from  
different continents  
at the Olympic  
Games in Atlanta

Continent	No. of nations	Population, mln	No. of teams with medals	% of total No of teams	Medals			
					Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
Europe	47	774.4	35	74.5	150	137	166	453
Asia	44	2,417.0	17	38.6	36	55	37	128
Africa	52	293.6	12	28.6	11	9	14	34
America	42	546.2	12	23.1	62	60	57	179
Australia & Oceania	12	19.3	3	25.0	12	12	24	48
Total	197	4,050.5	79	40.1	271	273	298	842

countries of the world, from athletes who had to contend with unequal conditions as compared with their American opponents, and from the mass media. Consequently, the victory of the US team, which was clearly the strongest team of the Games, able to win without any outside assistance, was greatly devalued in the eyes of the world community. The US team had no need whatever in this kind of help from the organizers of the Games, from judges and the mass media. The moral losses it had incurred were not worth several doubtfully or outright ill-gained medals.

Generally speaking, the top place of the US athletes was only to be expected. But in counting the points and medals, one was faced with many surprise results. Whoever could foretell a setback of German athletes? Quite unexpectedly, the Germans not only conceded the second spot to Russia in the total count, but failed in many events (noticeably in swimming, cycling and track and field) where, in the past, West and East Germany had traditionally done well.

The activities of political and sporting leaders of the unified Germany, who failed to ensure that the interests of sport surpasses the ambitions and vested interests of sport and research circles of local authorities, resulted in a speedy disruption of the whole vertical structure of the sports industry of the former East Germany — from school teams to national teams and the system of scientific support. This led to a steep decline in the achievements of the unified team of Germany and was an end to the hopes of a leadership in Olympic sport which seemed a firm reality when the two Germanys became one in 1991. Table 8 shows with all

clarity the deterioration of the achievements of Olympic sport in Germany in recent years. Thus, as compared to the Olympic Games in Montreal (1976) and Seoul (1988), their results dropped by almost 50 percent already in 1992, after East Germany was unable to complete its preparation for the 1992 Games in Barcelona. German athletes did even worse in Atlanta, winning only 7.7 % of the total number of awards, whereas eight years before their medal haul was 19.6 %.

On the other hand, the hopes of the sport leaders of China came true, with a vengeance. The seventh team by the number of competitors, China came a string fourth in the teams' total count, with 50 medals (16 gold, 22 silver and 12 bronze) and 355.25 points. It should be mentioned that Chinese athletes are hot favorites in many events by now. They are traditionally strong in table tennis, badminton or diving, but their good performance in weightlifting, swimming, shooting, archery, gymnastics, soccer, softball and particularly in track and field events is a strong indicator of the enormous scope of work done in Olympic preparation. It is a good pointer that the fourth place of the Chinese team in Atlanta is not the limit, as they can do better and challenge for the top spot in the total teams' count already in Sydney in four years' time.

Good and stable were the results achieved by Italy in Atlanta. The Italians won 35 medals (13, 10, 12), got 248 points and came seven in the total count. They were particularly strong in cycling (track and mountainbiking), fencing, canoeing, rowing, and stand shooting.

The Republic of Korea that used to be sixth in Seoul in 1988 (33 medals) and seventh in

**Table 8**  
Results of German  
athletes at the  
Olympic Games

Indicator	1976			1988			1992	1996
	East	West	Total	East	West	Total	Germany	
Medals won	90	39	129	102	40	142	82	65
Gold medals won	40	10	50	37	11	48	33	20
% of total medals	14.9	6.4	21.3	14.1	5.5	19.6	10.5	7.7

**Table 9**  
**Medals Won by the Former USSR Republics**

Country	Medals			
	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
Russia	26	21	16	63
Ukraine	9	2	12	23
Kazakhstan	3	4	4	11
Belarus	1	6	8	15
Armenia	1	1	0	2
Moldova	0	1	1	2
Uzbekistan	0	1	0	2
Azerbaijan	0	1	0	1
Latvia	0	1	0	1
Georgia	0	0	1	1
Lithuania	0	0	1	1
Total	40	38	44	122

Barcelona in 1992 (29) medals, did pretty well in Atlanta (27 medals and the eighth place) and are still among the top nations in Olympic sport.

Spanish athletes reconfirmed the old tradition that the host nation of the previous Games fare less well at the next Olympics. Thus, they were 10th in Barcelona, with 22 medals (13, 7, 2 respectively). In Atlanta they only managed 17 medals (5, 6, 6) and were placed 15th.

The team of Australia, the hosts of the Olympic Games in 2000, laid a good groundwork for competitions in Sydney. They sent the third biggest team to Atlanta and competed in almost all events of the program. The 41 medals (9, 9, 23) and the sixth slot in the teams' count was certainly a success.

The teams of Great Britain and France had long been equal in strength. The former was slightly ahead at the 1988 Games, while the latter overtook them in 1992 in Barcelona. The total haul of medals of both teams at the two previous Olympics in Seoul and Barcelona was 44 for Great Britain (10, 13, 21) and 45 for France (14, 9, 22). They sent teams of roughly the same size to Atlanta — 317 (123 women) and 311 (108), respectively, and planned to participate in most events of the Olympic program. Surprisingly, France put in a brilliant performance, coming fifth with 37 medals (15, 7, 15) and 279.25 points; while for Great Britain it was an unquestionable flop: 116 points, 15 medals (1, 8, 6) and only the 16th place in the total teams' count. The contrast was particularly stark in the number of gold medals won (15:1).

Efficient and stable, despite the current economic problems, were the results of the countries that have been practiced the East-European

methodology of Olympic preparation. This school found its way to Cuba and recently to China. In Atlanta, athletes of six nations (Russia, China, Cuba, Ukraine, Poland, and Hungary), which have implemented and developed the system of training used in the former Soviet Union and East Germany, won a total of 199 Olympic medals (including 74 gold medals) and finished in the top 12 of the best teams in the world.

The newly independent states from the former Soviet Union had an impressive Olympic debut. Naturally, the political upheavals, the economic crisis and reorganization of the sport system there took a toll of their performance, but most of the new states won Olympic awards. Along with Russia that got the 2nd place and won 63 (26 gold) medals, successful performance was turned in by Ukraine that came ninth with 23 (9) medals; Kazakhstan — 24, 11 (3), and Belarus — 31, 13 (1). Olympic medals were also awarded to the athletes of Moldova, Armenia, Uzbekistan, Azerbaijan, Latvia, Georgia, and Lithuania (see Table 9). Just four of the former Soviet republics — Estonia, Turkmenistan, Kirgizstan, and Tajikistan) failed to get medals in Atlanta.

This success has been the result of efficient and stable foundations of the organization and scientific methodology of the former Soviet sport, as well as the proof of high qualifications of local specialists who were able to introduce alterations in their work under an extremely difficult economic conditions.

It should be noted that high level of performance in sport was maintained by the Russian Federation, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus, the nations that used to be the major republics of the former USSR. Athletes of these nations won 112 of the total 123 medals (91.1 %) and 39 of the 40 gold medals awarded to the former USSR republics in Atlanta. Smaller countries were unable to maintain their former success and quickly fell out of contention, because, to do so in the past, they tapped the powerful material, technical and organizational base of the top performance sport of the Soviet Union. Without this source of support, both the countries with a very difficult social and political situation, such as Armenia and Georgia, and much more prosperous and stable Baltic states (Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia) managed to win in Atlanta only one silver and one bronze medals. Their past record, of course, was much better.

The additional data in Table 10 presents the complete results of the total teams' count and can be used as a yardstick in estimating chances of different nations in future. The teams' count, although still unofficial, is getting ever more significant as part of the system of Olympic sport. The final plac-



**Table 10**  
The Unofficial Total  
Teams' Count  
at the XXVI Olympic  
Games

##	Country	Placing						Points
		1	2	3	4	5	6	
1	USA	44	32	25	21	18	20	678.75
2	Russia	26	21	16	19	30	14	469.50
3	Germany	20	18	27	25	23	19	467.25
4	China	16	22	12	14	25	7	355.25
5	France	15	7	15	14	19	9	279.25
6	Australia	9	9	23	11	15	9	272
7	Italy	13	10	12	12	6	14	248
8	Korea	7	15	5	5	10	4	173.25
9	Ukraine	9	2	12	10	8	8	173
10	Cuba	9	8	8	3	10	8	167
11	Hungary	7	4	10	8	5	6	148.25
12	Canada	3	11	8	3	10	4	136
13	Poland	7	5	5	6	8	6	131.75
14	Netherlands	4	5	10	6	5	5	124
15	Spain	5	6	6	4	11	7	123.75
16	Great Britain	1	8	6	8	11	2	116
17	Japan	3	6	5	6	15	5	115.25
18	Bulgaria	3	7	5	7	5	4	110
19	Romania	4	7	9	1	5	3	109.75
20	Belarus	1	6	8	6	9	5	106
21	Brazil	3	3	9	3	4	1	87.25
22	Sweden	2	4	2	2	10	7	71.25
23	Czech Republic	4	3	4	1	3	2	68.75
24	Greece	4	4	0	4	2	4	68
25	Kazakhstan	3	4	4	2	1	2	64.75
26	Denmark	4	1	1	4	8	1	60.50
27	Turkey	4	1	1	5	2	1	56.50
28	Kenya	1	4	3	2	3	3	54
29	Switzerland	4	3	0	0	4	2	51.75
30	Norway	2	2	3	2	4	1	51
31	New Zealand	3	2	1	1	3	2	46
32	South Africa	3	1	1	1	5	0	40.50
33	Jamaica	1	3	2	2	1	2	40
34	Belgium	2	2	2	1	2	0	36.25
35	Nigeria	2	1	3	0	1	3	35.50
36	Ireland	3	0	1	1	3	0	31.50
37	Austria	0	1	2	5	1	1	31
38	North Korea	2	1	2	1	0	0	30
39	Yugoslavia	1	1	2	3	0	1	30
40	Finland	1	2	1	1	1	2	28

ing of teams is determined by the number of gold medals won, the gold medals, and the points awarded for finishing in the top six (7, 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 points, respectively).

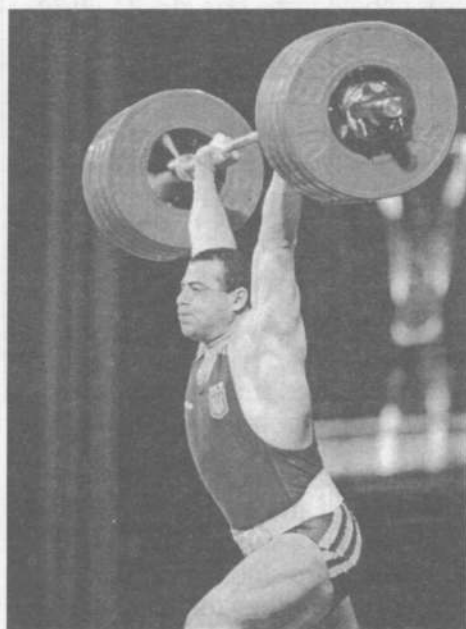
Every one of this method of counting has its strengths and weaknesses, and the choice is driven by the purpose of the count. For propaganda purposes, the number of gold medals is a clear favorite, as the mass media, politicians and busi-

ness circles focus their attention on the Olympic champions. However, if the task is an in-depth analysis of the situation in a specific sport event, of the sport reserves, of the distribution of forces on the Olympic arena, or a forecast for the future, the number of gold medals or even the total number of medals won is not enough. For the sake of more comprehensive and objective assessment, the unofficial count of the total points gained seems to

be a better option. In reality, though, this is often overlooked even by specialists, who are often likely to account for every separate success by the efficiency of the whole system of athletic preparation. One example would be sufficient to prove this approach wrong. According to the gold medal count in gymnastics, China, Romania, Greece, Italy and Switzerland were on the same level, since these teams got one gold medal each in Atlanta. In reality, however, Greece, Italy and Switzerland had not a single athlete more in the top six, whereas China, in addition to the gold, won five silver and five bronze medals, plus got ten slots in the places from 4th to 6th. The Romanians also got nine silver and bronze medals, and a fifth place. Thus, the two groups of teams are in completely different categories: by points, China and Romania are by far better than Greece, Italy and Switzerland (7 points each), whose gold medals, in this light, seem more of a one-time flash than a consequence of their sport system.

### Competition Results in Different Events

In a brief outline of competitions in different Olympic events, it should be noted up front that, despite very tough competition at the Games, athletes set a mere 25 world records: one record in rifle shooting, four in swimming, and two in track and fields, the remaining 18 world records being the result of an introduction of the new weight divisions, rather than the athletic better performance.



Nobody could compete with Ukrainian athlete Timur Taimazov in weight category up to 108 kg (Atlanta, 1996)

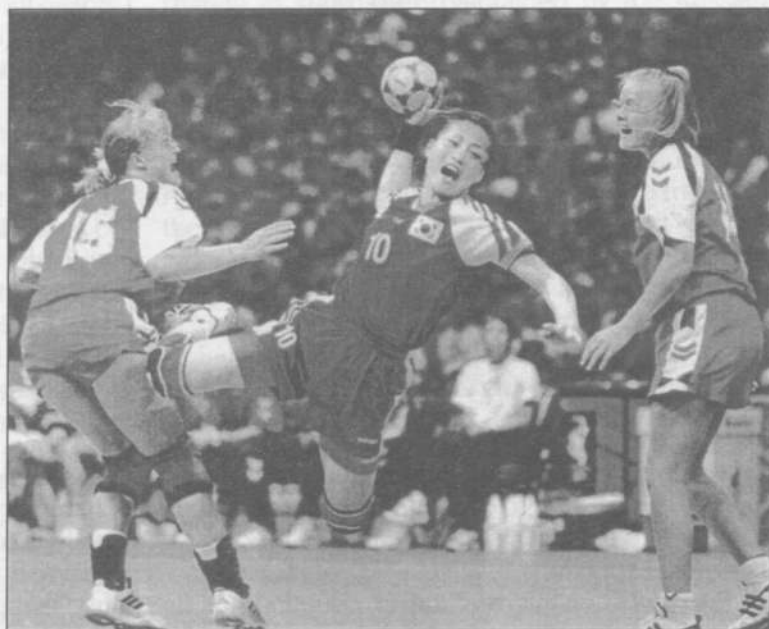
In fact, such results were in many cases inferior to the 1980's world records in comparable weight divisions.

The number of sets of awards to be won in different events varied from only one to 44. Naturally, the place in the total teams' count was mainly determined by how well the teams did in the medal-intensive sports, like track and fields and swimming.

The USA team excelled in the track and field events, where they won in 13 events (29.5 % of the total), got 5 silver and 5 bronze medals, and added 171 points to their team's total. Russia followed the Americans with 10 medals (3, 6, 1) and 77 points. Germany was third: 7 medals (3, 1, 3) and 65 points. Ukraine was impressive, coming ninth in the unofficial team's count, with 4 medals (1, 0, 3) and 31 points, in spite of the withdrawal through injury of Sergey Bubka, the hot candidate in the pole vault.

Among the highlights of the Atlanta Games were the victories of M. Johnson of the USA, who set a phenomenal world record in the 200 meters (19:32 seconds), beating the second medalist, F. Fredericks of Namibia, by 0:36 seconds. M. Johnson also won another gold in the 400 meters with an Olympic record. D. Bailey of Canada set a new world record in the sprint dash (9:84 seconds). The amazing C. Lewis, the winner of the long jump (8 m 50 cm), won his fourth Games in a row at the age of 35, a record in itself. Besides, it was his ninth gold Olympic medal.

The US team was also best in the 32-events



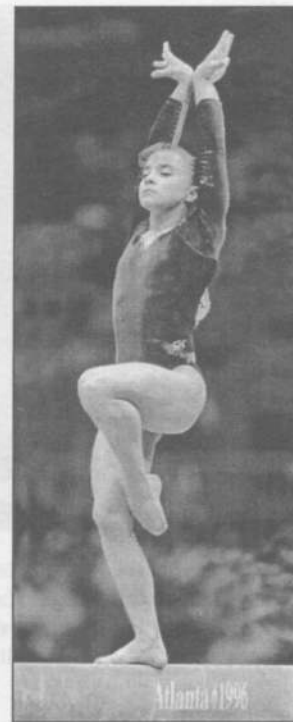
The final match between teams of Denmark and Republic of Korea. This time the former was more successful (Atlanta, 1996)



**Like at the Barcelona Games Ukrainian athlete dominated in rhythmic gymnastics. Here it was Ekaterina Serebryanskaya (Atlanta, 1996)**



**Michael Jackson had great advantage over his rivals in 200 m and 400 m running (Atlanta, 1996)**



**All-around world champion Lilia Podkopayeva became the champion (Atlanta, 1996)**

swimming program. The American athletes were awarded 13 gold, 11 silver, and 2 bronze medals, and were far ahead of their closest rivals — Russia, Australia and Germany. Quite successful was the performance of Russia, with 8 medals (4, 2, 2), and Australia, who won 10 medals (2, 4, 6). Surprisingly, Germany did not get a single gold medal, although their total count in swimming was 72 points.

The real sensation of the swimming competitions, however, were neither the victories of Americans, Russians or Australians, nor even the world records. Instead, it was successful performance by athletes from nations that have never before challenge the top positions in swimming. Representatives of Belgium, Costa-Rica, New Zealand, South Africa and Ireland took the rest of competitors by surprise and won the gold in nine swimming events.

Swimmers set four world records: D. Pankratov of Russia in the 100 meters butterfly (52:27); F. Debureraeve of Belgium in the 100 meters breaststroke (1:00:65); the USA men's team in the 400 x 100 m medley relay (3:34:84); and P. Heines of South Africa in the 100 meters breaststroke (1:07:02). One of the highlights of the Games was the success of Michelle Smith of Ireland. After a lackluster pre-Olympic season, she was unstop-

pable in Atlanta, winning three events (400 meters freestyle, 200 and 400 meters medley) and a bronze medal (200 meters butterfly) in great style.

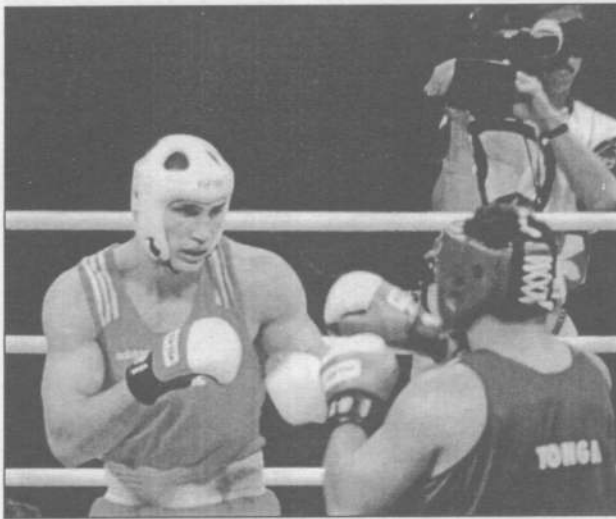
Khristina Egerszegi of Hungary, after winning the 200 meters backstroke and coming third in the 400 meters medley in Atlanta, saw to it that her total set of Olympic awards reached seven: five gold, one silver and one bronze medals.

Sprint events in men's freestyle swimming were traditionally the American monopoly. This tradition came to an end after Aleksander Popov pulled off the gold in both 100 and 200 meters, first in Barcelona in the CIS team, and then in Atlanta as member of the team of the Russian Federation.

Competition was very tough in rowing. Thus, Australia, the winner in the total count in this sport, had only two gold medals, just as did Switzerland and Romania that placed ninth and tenth. Germany retreated to the third place, with four medals (2, 1, 1). The teams of the former USSR had even a worse fall: Ukraine was only 16th in the unofficial teams' count in rowing, with one silver medal, and Russia 17th, winning one bronze medal. Only Belarus got one gold and one bronze medals, thus maintaining the high level of performance of USSR athletes in the past.

Stephen Radgrave of Great Britain, after yet another victory in Atlanta, has become the only





**20 year old Ukrainian athlete Vladimir Klichko obtained the title of champion in the most prestigious weight category (over 91 kg) (Atlanta, 1996)**

athlete in rowing to have been awarded gold medals at four Olympic Games: in Los Angeles in 1984 (the four-oared shell with coxswain), in Seoul in 1988, Barcelona in 1992, and Atlanta in 1996 (the two-oared shell without coxswain).

Canoeing was dominated by German athletes who won four gold and two silver medals (54 points in the unofficial count). Hungary was second, with six medals (2, 1, 3) and 35 points, and Italy came third: 5 medals (2, 2, 1) and 28 points. The Czech athletes sprang a surprise, winning two gold medals and getting a fourth place in the final teams' standing. Another surprise was Ukraine, with no medals, and Russia, with one bronze medal only.

Birgit Fischer of Germany was the first woman athlete to have equaled the record haul of Olympic medals in canoeing by the outstanding Gert Fredriksson of Sweden (8 medals). She won the first single sculls gold medal in Moscow (1980) as member of the East German team. Having missed the 1984 Los Angeles Games through the boycott, Brigitt got two gold medals (the double and quadruple sculls) and a silver medal (single sculls) in 1988 in Seoul. As member of the unified German team in 1992 in Barcelona, she won the gold in single sculls and a silver medal in quadruple sculls. In Atlanta she added the quadruple sculls gold and the double sculls silver medal.

In the kayaking slalom, just as in canoeing, European athletes are in the driving seat. Of the 12 awards, they lost only one (silver) medal to the USA. The best in Atlanta were the Czechs (one gold and two silver medals), France and Germany (one gold and two bronze medals each). One

more gold medal was awarded to Slovakia. In the unofficial count, France was first (24 points), while Czechs and Germans split the second and third places, with 18 points each.

There were many surprise results at the Atlantic coast in Savanna, Georgia, the venue of the yachting competitions. Of the 10 gold medals, only three went to the nations that had been winners in Barcelona (Spain got two gold medals and Denmark one). A real sensation was the team's victory of Brazil (two gold and one bronze medal, or 18 points), whose athletes had never in the past been so successful). No one expected gold medals to be won by Hong Kong, Greece, Ukraine, and Poland. The two gold medals and the third team's place of Spain seems a success by all counts, unless one compares it with the four gold and one bronze medals won by Spain in 1992 in Barcelona. Atlanta brought an upset for France (no medals and 24th place) and the USA (two bronze medals and the 7th place). These teams did much better at the 1992 Games: France won two gold, and the USA got one gold, six silver and two bronze medals.

Prior to Savanna, there were two athletes in the history of yachting to have won four and three gold Olympic medals: Paul Elvstrem of Denmark and Valentine Mankin of the USSR, respectively. At the XXVI Olympic Games Johanne Schumann of Germany also won his third gold. His first success was twenty years ago, when he came first in the Finn class in 1976 in Montreal. Twelve years later he won another gold in the Soling class at the XXIV Games in Seoul (1988). In 1996 he came first yet again in the Soling, and joined the Hall of Yachting Fame.

The best result of Y. Braslavets and I. Matviyenko of Dnipropetrovsk (Ukraine) in the 470 class before Atlanta was the 4th place at the 1995 World Championships. But at the Atlanta Games they were leading in all races, and ensured an unbeatable margin already before the final race.

French athletes dominated in the cycling competitions. They were top of the teams' total both in track (4 gold, 2 silver medals) and road races (1 gold, one silver medals), and third in mountainbiking (one bronze medal). Italy did well in track cycling (three gold medals). German cyclists failed to live up to everyone's expectations and were well below their results achieved at the 1988 and 1992 Olympic Games.

Following the decline in the results of the cyclists of Russia and Ukraine, the destruction of the sport system of East Germany, and the admission of professionals to the Olympic Games, the situation in cycling has been completely changed. Long gone are the days when East Germany and the USSR unquestionably dominated both track and road cycling. Since the early 1990's Western

nations, with a well developed professional cycling, came to the fore in this Olympic sport.

J. Longaux of France had won many major competitions, including world championships, but the only Olympic award she had was the silver medal for the team road race at the XXV Games in Barcelona. But she put in a perfect performance at the Atlanta Games in 1996. Although almost 38, she won the individual team road race and went on to get a silver medal in the time trial.

M. Indurain of Spain had his Olympic debut in 1984 in Los Angeles, at the age of 20, but failed to finish in the road race. Turning professional, he won the famous race Tour de France five times in a row (1991—1995), but did not forget his dream of the Olympic glory. His dream came true in Atlanta, where the 32-year-old athlete won the individual road race by covering the 52.2-kilometer distance in 1 hour 4 minutes 5 seconds and beating the second-placed A. Olano, also of Spain, by an amazing 12 seconds.

There was also a marked change in weightlifting, as compared to the 1970's and 80's, when this sport was dominated by the USSR and Bulgaria. In Atlanta, no team managed to win more than in two categories. Greece, China, Russia and Turkey got two gold medals each, and Ukraine and Cuba got one gold medal each. The best three teams in the unofficial teams' count were Greece (35 points), China (31) and Russia (24).

N. Suleymanoglu of Turkey in the Lightweight division won his third Olympic champion title in Atlanta (335 kg), having previously won in Seoul (1988) and Barcelona (1992).

T. Taimazov of Ukraine won in the heavyweight division (430 kg). He ensured his victory in the first jerk, and went on to set a new world record in the second (236 kg). Thus in 1996 he added a gold medal to the silver one that he had been awarded in 1992 in Barcelona.

Competition in wrestling was particularly tough. The best in freestyle wrestling, as expected, were the athletes of Russia (3 gold, 1 silver, no bronze medals, 37 points) and the USA (3, 1, 1 and 31 points), the rest of the medals being awarded to athletes of 15 teams. Poland came first in Greco-Roman wrestling (3, 1, 1 and 30 points) and sprang the biggest surprise, although they had never been favorites before.

Given the tough competition in both types of wrestling, one should recognize as a success not only the performance of Russia, but also the results of some other nations on the territory of the former USSR, such as Ukraine (1, 0, 3), Belarus (0, 3, 1), Armenia (1, 1, 0), and Kazakhstan (1, 0, 1).

A. Karelin of Russia won his third Olympic title in the super heavyweight division in Greco-Roman



**Outstanding spanish cyclist  
Miguel Indurain  
on the distance  
(Atlanta, 1996)**

wrestling. He did so in less than spectacular style, as he wrestled after a severe injury. But even so, he joined the historic club of three-time Olympic champions: I. Juhansson, C. Westergren (both of Sweden) and A. Medved of USSR.

Competition significantly intensified in judo, as in all other combat sports. Alongside the well-established judo leaders, such as Japan (3, 4, 1 and 47.5 points) and France (3, 0, 3 and 36 points), good performance was put in by the Republic of Korea (2, 4, 2 and 41 points) and Cuba (1, 1, 4 and 27.5 points). Gold medals were also awarded to China, North Korea, Germany, Belgium, and Poland.

Cuba, the leading boxing nation, had a comfortable victory (4, 3, 0 and 44.5 points) in Atlanta, beating the USA into the second place (1, 0, 5 and 15.15 points). Among the surprise results in boxing were good performances of Kazakhstan (1, 1, 2), Russia (1, 0, 3) and Ukraine (1, 0, 1). V. Klichko of Ukraine, who turned 20 just a few months before the Atlanta Games, had a surprise victory in the most sought-for super heavyweight division. On his way to the final, he first demolished L. Clay-Bay of the USA and then, in the semifinal, disposed of A. Lezin of Russia. In the final bout Klichko defeated P. Wolfgram of Tonga in the third round.

The introduction of protective helmets made boxing less dangerous and more dynamic. This was a timely decision of the IOC, which threatened to drop boxing from the Olympic program unless the International Federation of Amateur Boxing (AIBA) take up resolute action to cut the danger of injuries in this sport.



The main contenders for the fencing awards were Russia, France, Italy, Hungary, Romania, and Cuba. Russia carried the day, with four gold, two silver, and one bronze medals, which came to 43 points in the unofficial teams' count. Although Italy and France had bettered Russia by one point (they had 44 points each), they had been awarded less gold medals — three and two, respectively (3, 2, 2 and 2, 2, 3).

The East Europeans (Russia, Ukraine and Romania) proved yet again that they, by far, are the best teams in gymnastics. They got more Olympic medals among them in Atlanta than all the other contenders taken together. Russia was awarded eight medals (3, 2, 3), Romania nine (1, 4, 5) and Ukraine five (3, 1, 1). Their tally could be even more impressive, had it not been for obviously biased decisions of the judges who favored the US athletes. Independent experts agree that the women's team of the USA was declared the winner only through mistakes of the judges. According to L. Arkaev, a leading expert and the coach of the Russian team, Americans would not have made it into the top three at any other major sports event in the world.

The 18-year-old L. Podkopayeva of Ukraine was outstanding at the Atlanta Games. In addition to her titles of the 1995 All-Around world champion and the 1996 All-Around European champion, she was awarded two Olympic gold medals (the All-Around and the floor exercises) and a silver medal in the balance beam.

There were no noticeable changes in the rhythmic exercises at the Olympic Games, with leadership still in the hands of Ukraine, Russia, Spain, and Bulgaria. The gold medal of E. Serebryanskaya and the bronze medal of Y. Vitrichenko in Atlanta confirmed Ukraine's leading position, which had been established even before this sport was recognized as Olympic and strengthened by the performance of the Ukrainian athletes A. Timoshenko and O. Skaldina four years ago in Barcelona. The success of Serebryanska (a native of Simferopol, Ukraine) and Vitrichenko (Odessa, Ukraine) proves that the strength of this sport in Ukraine is not attributable exclusively to the Deriugins' school in Kiev.

China completely dominated in the diving competitions. They got five medals (3, 1, 1) and 35 points in the total count. Their female athlete Fu Mingxia won both in platform and springboard diving in Atlanta and became a three-time Olympic champion, following her first Olympic title at the 1992 Barcelona Games in platform diving.

Russia got two medals (one gold and one silver) and 16 points.

In the rifle shooting, Russia trailed China, but got three gold, two silver, one bronze medals and 43

points in the unofficial teams' count. Awards in the stand shooting were fought out in a close contest among the teams of Australia, Italy, and the USA. Australia came first (two gold, one bronze medals and 21 points), the USA second (1, 1, 1 and 19 points), and Italy third (1, 1, 1 and 16 points).

Athletes of the Republic of Korea were winners of the competition in archery. They were awarded four medals (2, 1, 1), while the second-placed team of the USA got two gold medals.

In modern pentathlon the individual medals were awarded to A. Parygin of Kazakhstan, E. Zenovka of Russia and J. Martinek of Hungary. Thus, East European nations once again reconfirmed their leadership in this Olympic sport.

Equestrian, as well as canoeing, was dominated by the German athletes. They won four of the six equestrian events and got 32 points in the unofficial count. Among the traditional leaders in this sport were New Zealand, France, Austria and the USA.

Competition was particularly tough in games, very few of the teams that had triumphed in Barcelona in 1992, managed to repeat their success four years later in Atlanta. The biggest sensation there was perhaps the victory of Nigeria in men's soccer. The US team won the women's soccer tournament.

There were no surprises in basketball, though. The Dream Team of the best NBA players gave no chances to their adversaries. The women's team of the USA followed their suit, although they had to overcome a much tougher opposition. Following this victory, T. Edwards of the USA became the first-ever woman to hold three Olympic titles in basketball.

As expected, Cuba won in baseball and the USA in softball.

The gold medal of Cuba in women's volleyball was a repeat of their success at the Barcelona Games, but the surprise victory of the Netherlands was a real sensation. They had never before won the Olympic title, and many observers believed their silver medals in Barcelona had been an accident.

Handball saw a complete reversal of roles. Gone are the days when the leaders of the world handball were the teams of Ukraine, Russia, or Germany. France and Korea failed to produce a worthy performance. Consequently, Croatia won in men's, and Denmark in women's handball competitions.

The Dutch athletes won in men's field hockey, where Great Britain, the 1988 champions, and Pakistan, the many-year world leader, were well below their standard. In women's hockey there were even more changes, if compared with the results of the 1992 Games in Barcelona. The gold



medals went to Australia, while Spain, the 1992 Olympic champions, finished only in the eighth place.

China swept away all of their competitors in table tennis. They won four gold, three silver and one bronze medals (50 points), whereas the second-placed team of the Republic of Korea got only two bronze medals and 13.24 points.

Even in the absence of many of its outstanding tennis professionals, the US team won three of the four gold medals and finished first in the unofficial teams' count in tennis with 25.5 points. Spain finished second, with two silver medals, one bronze medal and a total of 15.5 points.

The IOC decision to add beach volleyball to the Olympic program was hardly a useful step. Both men's and women's competition less than spectacular, and, more often than not, the games were played with the spectator stands almost empty. Anyway, the winners were the men's team of the USA and the women's team of Brazil.

The skills of game players in the teams of nations that used to be part of the former USSR had deteriorated dramatically. Only Lithuania managed a bronze medal in men's basketball, the other teams, at best, finishing in the fourth or fifth place. By contrast, at the XXIV Olympic Games in Seoul (1988) the USSR got the gold in soccer, men's handball, men's basketball, and women's volleyball; silver medals in men's volleyball; and bronze medals in women's handball, water polo, and women's basketball. The current crisis of these sports in Russia, Ukraine and other countries of the former USSR has been brought about by many factors. The main two factors, we believe, are mass exodus of the best players to foreign countries, and lack of tough competition in the national championships. It is well known that the best way to improve individual and team skills in games is through really demanding competition practice. And it is in such tough showdowns with worthy opponents that players and teams used to develop their technical, tactical skills and psychological qualities in a stretch of 60 to 80 matches of the USSR championships in the past. Today it is no longer the case, so it will be naive to expect players

**Table 11**  
Number of Nations Whose Athletes Won Olympic Medals and The Ratio to the Total Number of Participating Nations in 1988, 1992 and 1996

Olympic Games	Number of medal-winning nations		% of the total number of nations	
	Gold	All medals	Gold	All medals
1988	31	53	19.4	33.1
1992	37	64	21.5	37.2
1996	53	79	26.9	40.1

from easy championships, like for example in Ukraine's soccer league, to win against opposition that had honed their skills in the tough day-to-day marathon of competitive national leagues.

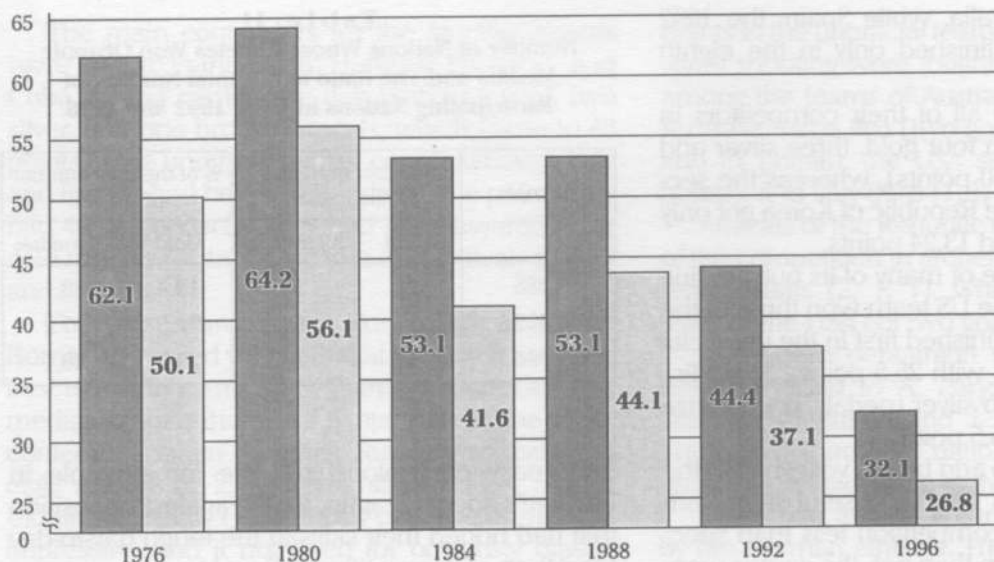
### Competition Level at the Olympic Game

Athletes of ever more nations reach a level of skills which is sufficient for them to have realistic chances to get an Olympic award. Thus, representatives of 53 nations were awarded gold medals in Atlanta. This is 16 nations more than in Barcelona (1992) and 22 more than in Seoul (1988). The percentage of medal-winning countries as against the total number of participating nations is also on the increase (Table 11). It is an encouraging trend, given the on-going process of a growing number of nations participating in the Olympic Games (160 nations in 1988, 172 in 1992, and 197 in 1996). Often the newcomers are countries with underdeveloped Olympic sport. In some sports, the number of nations competing for the Olympic awards has increased by 1.4 — 1.5 times over the previous 20 years (Table 12).

Surprising are such data in many sport events. For instance, in swimming medals were awarded to athletes of 19 nations, ten of them getting gold medals. Surprisingly, nine gold medals were awarded to nations that had never before excelled in this sport (Ireland got three gold medals, South Africa and New Zealand got two, and Belgium and

**Table 12**  
Medal-Winning Nations in Some Sports in 1976, 1988, 1992 and 1996

Year	Track and field		Swimming		Greco-Roman wrestling		Freestyle wrestling	
	Total medals	Gold medals	Total medals	Gold medals	Total medals	Gold medals	Total medals	Gold medals
1976	23	11	8	4	11	4	12	5
1988	22	12	22	10	13	7	11	5
1992	34	18	18	9	13	7	11	5
1996	45	24	19	10	17	8	17	6



**Fig. 2. The Ratio of the Gold Medals (Dark Columns) and All Medals (White Columns) Won by the Top Three Teams to the Total Number of Respective Awards at the Olympic Games of 1976–96, in %**

Costa Rica one gold medal each). This provides for more intense competition, although overall the USA dominated in swimming both in Barcelona and in Atlanta.

Track and field medals were awarded to athletes of 45 nations, and representatives of 24 nations mounted the gold rostrum of the award platform.

A similar situation was in boxing, where there were 22 medal-winning nations, 9 of them getting gold medals. This result could hardly be expected. In 1992, gold medals were awarded to athletes from only five nations, and half of the gold awards (6) went to Cuba.

In gymnastics, athletes of Greece, China, Italy, Switzerland, the Republic of Korea and of some other nations joined the fray for awards, along with traditional leaders, such as Russia, Ukraine, Romania, and the USA. As a result, the 14 Olympic gold medals were awarded to athletes of nine nations; and a total of 13 nations got medals in gymnastics in Atlanta.

This was in marked contrast to the past. Thus, the USSR (CIS in 1992) used to have a clear advantage and won in most of events: the Soviet athletes won 9 gold medals in Seoul and 8 gold medals in Barcelona. However, in Atlanta athletes of Russia and Ukraine managed to win only 6 gold medals (42.8 %) and a total of 17 medals (38.2 %). Still a significant success, but a less spectacular one than before.

There was a marked decline in the share of medals won by the leading sport nations as against the total number of awards (Figure 2). Thus, in 1996 the top three teams won 226 medals (26.8 %), 87 of them gold (32.1 %), whereas in 1976 their haul of awards was much more impressive: 307 medals (50.1 %) and 123 (62.1 %), respectively.

The dramatic improvement in the results achieved by athletes from various regions of the world in the period between the Olympic Games in Barcelona and Atlanta was made possible by many highly qualified coaches leaving the former USSR, East Germany and some other East European states for other parts of the world. Several tens of thousand of coaches of top qualification left from Ukraine alone. Hundreds of coaches from Russia and East Germany got jobs abroad. Many of them arrived in Atlanta as coaches of other national teams. The emergence of worthy competitors in many countries that have never had any noticeable success in such as gymnastics, wrestling and other combat sports, weightlifting, or swimming, was mainly stimulated by the training methodology which, in the past, has ensured the stable results of athletes in the USSR, East Germany and other countries of Eastern Europe.

However, athletes of many nations are not qualified enough to count on Olympic awards or points at the Games. The results of many athletes from developing countries were at the level of the 1956–72 Games, which today can be achieved even by pupils of sport schools in countries with developed sport system. And in several sports (like in swimming and track and field) there were cases when the results of some men were worse than the results of the best women athletes.

Athletes of 103 countries failed to make it to the top six in any one of the 271 events of the Olympic program in Atlanta. Countries like this take part in the Olympic Games for political aims rather than for sporting reasons. They want the world to see their national flag to be carried through the Olympic Stadium at the Opening and Closing ceremonies as a sign of their attitude to the most massive movement of modern age.

### WINTER OLYMPIC GAMES

#### Winter Sports in the Olympic Programs and First Winter Olympic Games

Although enjoying huge popularity in the world, Winter Olympic Games have a shorter history than Summer Olympics.

Figure skating was first included in the Olympic Program at the IVth Summer Olympic Games in London in 1908. The figure skating program was made up of two men's events (men's free style single and special figures), ladies' single and pair skating. The level of competition was inadequate, there being just three to nine participants.

One more time figure skating was included in the 1920 Summer Olympic Games, with three events (six to sixteen participants) and a seven-team ice hockey competition.

The IOC had many meetings discussing the idea of P. de Coubertin to hold Olympic Games in winter sports. This idea found active support of specialists and advocates of winter sports. But Scandinavian nations (Sweden, Norway) were opposed, arguing, with some reason, that the Northern Games, which had been held since 1901, attracted the best athletes in winter sports anyway, so they thought there was no need to hold in parallel the so-called "Winter Olympics". For instance, when asked at the 1911 Session of the IOC about staging Winter Olympic Games in 1912, IOC member V. Ballok of Sweden, propagandist of the Northern Games, replied: "Olympic competitions in winter sports is out of the question, because the Northern Games are to be held in 1913". There was no way to ignore the opinion of Scandinavia, for their athletes dominated winter sports, so no international competitions would make sense without Scandinavian participation. An important argument in their support was the fact that winter sports had no ancient history, and the word "Olympic" could hardly be compatible with such sports. Lack of material basis was also a counterweight against winter Olympics. Although skating was defined as one of the most favorable events for Olympic competitions as far

back as 1894, and speed skating was indeed included in the 1900 Olympic program, it had to be scrapped for lack of an artificial ice track.

Ultimately, Mr. Coubertin managed to tie in the activities of the IOC with major winter competitions. The Lausanne session of the IOC in 1921 ruled to stage a competition called "The International Sports Week on the occasion of the VIIIth Olympics".

The Week was held in Chamonix, France 25 January—4 February 1924, with all the attributes that had become an integral part of the Olympic Games: the Olympic Flame was set off and the participants took an Olympic oath.

The number of participating nations and athletes, and the competitive spirit in most of the events of the "Week" exceeded even the most optimistic expectations. Which allowed the IOC at the 1925 Olympic Congress in Prague to take a decision to hold regular Winter Olympics, and to consider the Chamonix competition of 1924 as the First Winter Olympic Games. Since that time, Winter Olympics had been part of the Olympic sports and had been held every four years along with Summer Olympics. The 91 Session of the IOC decided to hold Winter and Summer Olympics separately, within a two-year interval, starting 1994: the XVIIth Winter Olympic Games were to be staged in 1994, the XVIIIth Winter Olympics in 1998, etc.

In his comment, Mr. M. Hodler, President of FIS (Federation International du Ski), said: "The underlying idea of the decision to separate the Games was to assign more significance and authority to Winter Olympic Games, and for winter sports, instead of being just an addition to Summer Olympics, to become a self-sustained major sporting forum. At the beginning of the 20th century Winter Olympics had been a part of Summer Games, their addendum, as it were, with hockey, speed and figure skating being added to the Olympic summer event program. Later on, Winter Olympics gained an independent status, but remained second-best as regards Summer Olympics. We want to rectify the situation now".



## Winter Olympic Games in the System of Olympic Sports

Winter Olympic Games are characterized by the same achievements, problems and contradictions, which are relevant to Summer Olympics. Many of them, though, are less conspicuous, because of the difference in scope, number of participants and, above all, the number of participating nations. Winter Olympics are free of many of the lingering problems, which plague Summer Games, due to lack of interest in winter sports on the part of African nations, most of Asia and Latin America.

However, like Summer Games, Winter Olympics have not been spared the impact of politics, controversies relating to professional and amateur sports, complexities of commercialization in various sports, doping abuse, etc., as will be demonstrated below by examples from the history of Winter Olympic Games.

Just as the XIth Olympics in Berlin, the Winter Olympic Games, also held in 1936 in Germany, had marked political undertones. The 1950s atmosphere was very tense in relation to GDR, when this country's separate team was allowed to take part in the Grenoble Winter Olympics of 1968. This was viewed as a major victory in sports diplomacy, which later spilled over to other areas of life of the world community. However, the Grenoble Games were boycotted by People's Democratic Republic of Korea, whose team left the Games following the organizers' decision to name it as representatives of "Northern Korea".

Winter Olympics repeatedly had to deal with sports equipment advertising violating the principles of amateur sports. The disqualification of K. Strains springs to mind, who had used skis with manufacturer's logos in the slalom competition. In the same vain was the demand of Mr. A. Brundage at the Sapporo Session of the IOC in 1972 to exclude Alpine skiing from the Olympic program for amateur principle violations and commercial abuse. But in later years, in view of exceeding commercialization of Olympic sports, the IOC policies were changed in this area, and the problem lost its urgency.

In an overview of Winter Olympic sports, it is worth noting changes in the program over the 1924 — 1994 period: from 14 events in five sports it had been expanded to include 60 events in 12 sports. There are several stages in the development of Winter Games program. In 1924—1932 the program was fairly stable, being

made up of competitions in bobsled, Nordic skis (cross-country, ski jumping and Nordic combines), speed and figure skating, and hockey. However, already on the eve of Third Winter Olympics, a heated conflict arose between the IOC and the federations of the European Nordic countries, on the one hand, and Austria, Switzerland, France and Germany, on the other, over the issue of inclusion of Alpine skiing in the Olympic program. The Nordic countries, which had an advantage in Nordic ski events, naturally opposed including in the program Alpine skiing, actively practiced by other European nations. Ultimately, the IOC opted for a compromise decision, including in the program of the 1936 Games the Alpine skiing combination (downhill and slalom) for men and women, and the 4 x 10-kilometer relay. The Alpine skiing events were won by Germany, while Finland won the relay. The total number of events in the Olympic program rose to seventeen.

Subsequently, the Olympic program has been growing faster. In 1948 a whole five new events were added: four in Alpine skiing (two apiece for men and women) and one in skeleton, which made the program more varied and, accordingly, more interesting. Women athletes participation had also increased. Thus, in the Games of 1924—1932 the program had concentrated mostly on men, with women competing only in figure skating (singles and pairs), whereas in 1948 women took part in five Olympic events: three in Alpine skiing and two in figure skating.

The 10-kilometer cross-country ski race for women was first included in the program in 1952. The Eighth Winter Olympic Games saw a dramatic change when the program was expanded to include biathlon and four women events in speed skating, which previously had been men's competition only. Yet another important addition occurred in 1964, with the Olympic debut of luge (two men's and one women's events). Thereafter no major changes had been made in the program, although it was being gradually enlarged (compare 34 events in 1964 and 38 events in 1984).

The general tendency of active commercialization of Olympic sports in the 80's, particularly as concerns its relations with TV, resulted not only in an increase of the program, but also in an altered representation of certain events. Already at the 1988 Games, for example, eight new events sprang up, four of them in Alpine skiing. And the 1992 Olympics in Albertville saw the biggest changes of the sports program in the Winter Olympics history: 11 new events and 3 new sports (curling, short-track and freestyle).

**Table 13**  
**The total number of participating nations**  
**and the number of countries whose athletes**  
**won medals at Winter Olympic Games**

Year	Number of participating nations	Number of countries whose athletes won medals	Percent of medal-winning countries
1928	25	11	44.0
1932	17	10	58.8
1948	28	13	46.4
1952	30	13	43.3
1968	37	15	40.5
1972	35	17	48.6
1988	57	17	29.8
1992	65	20	30.8
1994	67	22	32.8

In 1994 curling was scrapped from the program, but the total number of events rose to 60. Looking ahead, one must remember that the program of Winter Olympic Games in 2002 will probably see a women's hockey tournament and a comeback of curling (men's and women's). These events could even appear in Nagano, Japan at the 1998 Games.

Two stages are evident in the deployment of forces at Winter Olympic Games. The first stage (1924—1952) was dominated by several nations of Northern Europe, particularly Norway and Sweden, and also Finland. Their changing opposition included at different times the USA, Canada, Germany (GDR, BRD), Switzerland and Austria. The second stage is linked with the Olympic debut of the USSR (starting 1966) and GDR (in 1968). In its first Olympic Games the USSR had a convincing team victory: 16 medals and 103 points, with Austria placing second (11 medals and 66.5 points). Thereafter, through to the Olympics of 1988, the USSR team was narrowly beaten only twice, by Norway (in 1968) and GDR (in 1980).

Beginning with the XIth Winter Olympic Games in Sapporo, Japan, through to their departure from the map after the Calgary Olympics in 1988, the USSR and GDR had dominated the winter sports. For instance, at the 1980 Winter Olympics the two teams won 19 gold medals (10 and 9, respectively), that is, as many as the total gold medals won by all the other nine nations together.

The unification of Germany and the break up of the USSR changed the situation at the Albertville Olympics. The team competition had intensified, with more nations winning medals (17 in 1988 and 20 in 1992).

One of the tendencies in winter Olympic sports was a marked increase in the number of participating nations. Thus, from 30—33 countries in 1952—1960 their number grew to 49 in 1984, 57 in 1988, 60 in 1992 and 81 in 1994. Among the contestants were the nations which had never practiced winter sports, such as Puerto-Rico, Guatemala, Bolivia, Chili, Lebanon, Jamaica, Morocco, etc.

Yet the increase in numbers supersedes the number of nations which can realistically compete for Olympic awards. By way of an example, one can compare the number of medal-winning nations with the general number of participating nations over the whole period of Winter Olympic Games (see Table 13).

The Olympic success of various nations is accounted for by the climate, national and sporting traditions, concepts of Olympic preparation, and the available resources. At the Olympics of 1924—1936, for example, the Nordic countries (Norway, Sweden and Finland) had an overwhelming superiority in cross-country ski events, winning them practically uncontested. But in other events the situation was quite different. The winners in figure skating, for example, were from the USA, Austria, Sweden, France, Switzerland, Great Britain, and Canada.

In speed skating only American athletes were able to stand their ground against Scandinavians, while in hockey Canada left no chances to the rest of contestants. The outcome of bobsled competitions had always been a close affair, gold medals going to Switzerland, Great Britain, the USA, and Germany.

With the introduction of Alpine skiing in 1936, the undoubted leaders in these events had invariably been Germany, France, Switzerland, Austria, the USA, with some surprising success from Canada, Italy, Norway, Sweden and some other nations. But, of course, such exceptions have not changed the general tendency.

In spite of more nations breaking the monopoly of several countries in certain events (due to talented athletes and sophisticated training camps, more funds allotted to Olympic winter sports, etc.), the general trend still holds. For example, the USSR and GDR have managed to win only one bronze and one silver Alpine ski medals through all the years of their participation in Winter Olympics, whereas in the previous twenty Olympic years they got more medals and points in figure skating than all the other nations taken together.

One of the main characteristics of the development of certain events and of Olympic success opportunities has been availability of mod-

Games	Year	City, country	Nations (since 1936 NOCs)	Number of events	Participants		
					Men	Women	Total
I	1924	Chamonix, France	16	14	281	13	294
II	1928	St. Moritz, Switzerland	25	13	468	27	495
III	1932	Lake Placid, USA	17	14	274	32	306
IV	1936	Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany	28	17	675	80	755
V	1948	St. Moritz, Switzerland	28	22	636	77	713
VI	1952	Oslo, Norway	30	22	623	109	732
VII	1956	Cortina d'Ampezzo, Italy	32	24	686	132	818
VIII	1960	Squaw Valley, USA	30	27	521	144	665
IX	1964	Innsbruck, Austria	336	34	986	200	1186
X	1968	Grenoble, France	37	35	1081	212	1297
XI	1972	Sapporo, Japan	35	35	1015	217	1232
XII	1976	Innsbruck, Austria	37	37	900	228	1128
XIII	1980	Lake Placid, USA	37	38(37)	833	234	1067
XIV	1984	Sarajevo, Yugoslavia	49	39	1002	276	1278
XV	1988	Calgary, Canada	57	46	1270	364	1634
XVI	1992	Albertville, France	64	57	1318	490	1808
XVII	1994	Lillehammer, Norway	67	61	1215	522	1737

**Table 14**  
**Winter Olympic Games**

ern sports facilities, equipment and tools. These factors had played a major role already in the 30's, when Alpine ski victories of the athletes of Germany, Switzerland, France and Austria could be put down to modern pistes and lifts in those countries. This dependence has greatly increased over the previous twenty years, when the success of athletes in most of winter sport events was mostly dependent on their access to the state-of-the-art equipment, facilities and sports research. More and more often the best results, sometimes quite unexpectedly, are achieved by those nations, which invest in research and implement the scientific findings in ski jumping, speed skating, other sports, and have in place the year-round tracks for cross-country, bobsled and luge, artificial jumping hills, sophisticated ski designs, snow makers to produce artificial and synthetic snow, computerized equipment for ski waxing, training units, uniforms made of special materials, etc. It is these factors that lie in the root of some unexpected results and progress in almost all of winter sports. This tendency can be demonstrated by the progress of GDR in bobsled and luge, Norway in Alpine skiing, and Italy in cross-country events.

More winter sports camps come to be constructed in the South, in countries with no real winter at all. They hire the services of the best coaches, which could give grounds to expect not only

more participants from Southern nations, but also their active participation in the contest for the Olympic awards.

The progress and development of Winter Games would have been impossible without outstanding athletes and their achievements, which make sports more attractive for the general public in different countries and in the world as a whole. For example, the success of the First Olympic Games was mostly due to the talents and skills of C. Tunberg in speed skating, T. Haug in skiing, G. Grafstroem in figure skating et al. Every subsequent Olympics produced new stars, who provided for further popularity of winter sports and more significance of Winter Olympic Games. Especially popular are many-times Olympic champions. To name just a few, these are athletes like six-time Olympic champion L. Skoblikova of the USSR in speed skating. American E. Heiden, the five-time champion in the same sport, four-time cross-country Olympic champions G. Kulakova and R. Smetanina, both of the USSR, ski stars M. Matikainen (Hamalainen) of Finland, S. Ernberg and G. Svan of Sweden.

Over a period of 70 years (1924—1994) Winter Olympic Games have been staged seventeen times. Within this time scale, the Olympic program has increased by 4.4 times, the number of participating nations has grown 4.2 times, and the number of athletes has risen by 6.6 times (see Table 14).



## Chronology of Winter Olympic Games (1924—1994)

### The I Olympic Games

(Chamonix, France,  
25 January—4 February 1924)



294 athletes (of them 13 women) from 16 countries took part in the competition, including the best athletes of the Nordic countries — Norway, Finland and Sweden. Medals were awarded in 14 events of five winter sports. The program was made up of bobsled, Nordic skiing (cross-country,

ski jumping, the Nordic combined), speed and figure skating, and hockey, women competing in figure skating only.

The first-ever Olympic gold medal was awarded to American speed skater C. Jewthraw, who won a close contest with O. Olsen of Norway in the 500-meter sprint, the rest of the speed skating medals (14 out of the 15 possible) being awarded to the athletes of Finland and Norway. Starring in the competition was K. Thunberg of Finland, who placed first in the 1,500 and 5,000-meter events and in the total, setting Olympic records in each.

Norway had a clean sweep in all ski events, winning 11 of the 12 medals. Only T. Niku of Finland managed to get a bronze medal in the 18-kilometer race. T. Haug of Norway, the best skier of those times, won three gold and one bronze medal.

The Swiss four won the gold in the bobsled. The Canadian hockey team stormed through to victory, thrashing their opponents one by one. Thus, they beat Czechs 30:0, and Switzerland 33:0.

The only sports where many teams had equal chances (Austria, Great Britain, the USA, Finland, France, Switzerland, Sweden) was figure skating. Austrians came off better than the rest of participants, H. Plank-Szabo, the two-times world cham-



Charles Jewthraw of USA,  
the first modern Olympic  
champion (Chamonix, 1924)



A. Clas Thunberg of Finland won  
five gold medals at the 1924 and  
1928 Olympic Games (Chamonix,  
1924; St. Moritz, 1928)



**Gillis Grafstrom of Sweden, winner of the first Winter Olympic Games in men's singles**  
(Chamonix, 1924)

pion bettering convincingly eight opponents in the women's singles, and H. Engelmann and A. Berger winning the pairs competition. H. Engelmann, with another partner, had won the world championship as long before as 1913. L. and W. Yacobsson had even a longer competition career, who had won



**Herma Planc-Szabo of Hungary won the gold in the first-ever Olympic figure skating ladies' single competition**  
(Chamonix, 1924)

their first world championship in 1911 and had been winners of the 1920 Olympics.

G. Grafstrom of Sweden placed first in the men's singles.

Norway won by an overwhelming majority in the unofficial team count, getting 122.5 points and 18 medals (4 gold, 7 silver and 7 bronze). Finland placed second, with 59.5 points and 9 medals (4, 3, 2, respectively), and the USA third — 26 points and 3 medals (1, 2, 0, respectively).

## **The II Olympic Games**

*(St. Moritz, Switzerland,  
11—19 February, 1928)*



495 athletes (27 of them women) from 25 countries arrived in St. Moritz to compete for awards in 13 events of six winter sports.

The results in ski and speed skating were almost the same as in 1924, although this time competition was more tough. In ski events Norway gave away only one gold medal of the four awarded. C. Thunberg of Finland won two gold medals in the 500 and 1,500-meter speed skating events. One gold medal was awarded to B. Evensen of Norway, who clocked the same time in the 500 meters as did C. Thunberg, and I. Ballangrud, also of Norway, who placed first in the 5,000 meters. The 10,000-meter speed skating race was canceled because of thaw, which, in fact, allowed Sweden to beat Norway in the 50-kilometer ski marathon, as Norwegians were unable to make use of their perfect skiing technique because of the heavy wet snow. With slight frost, Norway had an easy win in the 18-kilometer ski race, the gold medal going to J. Grottnumsbraten, who placed first in the combination, too. This outstanding athlete also won the Nordic combination at the Olympic Games in 1932.



**Johan Grottnumsbraten**  
of Norway came first in the  
18-kilometer cross country  
race and individual  
Nordic combined  
(St. Moritz, 1928)



**Sonja Henie** of Norway,  
the outstanding figure  
skating Olympic  
champion from Norway  
in action  
(St. Moritz, 1928)



**Andree Joli and Pierre Brunet**  
of France, winners  
of the Winter Olympic  
Games in pairs  
figure skating  
(St. Moritz, 1928)

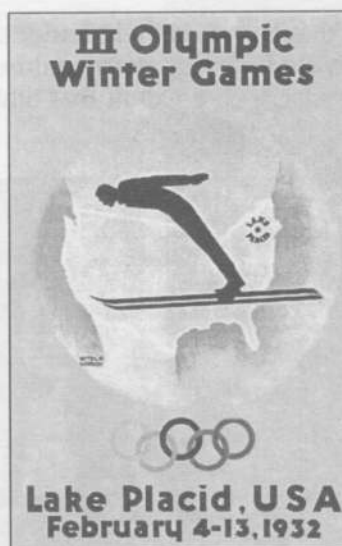
Although the team of Switzerland had studied well the skeleton track, they failed to win at least one Olympic medal. The skeleton competitions were won by the US athletes, who got the gold and silver in luge. The second team of the USA came first in the bobsled, too, their second team winning the silver. This was the only case in the Olympic history, when the bobsled team was made up of five athletes. The US carried on their Olympic bobsled domination, winning 14 medals (including five gold) from the late 1920s through to the 1940s. Canada repeated their success in the previous Game in the hockey competition, without conceding a single puck from their adversaries. This time around, they did not play against the US team, which had not competed in St. Moritz. However, back home the Olympic champions were challenged to play against a pretty strong team of Boston University. Unlike the previous encounters, which had all been won by Canadians, the champs were defeated 1:0. It was the first Canadian defeat in international matches.

The figure skating competition was as strong as in 1924, so that only G. Graftstrom managed to repeat his success, getting a third Olympic gold in 1928. The women's singles title went to S. Henie, the 1927 world champion. The outstanding Norwegian figure skater went on to win two more gold medals at the 1932 and 1936 Olympics, as well as a straight win of all world championships through up to 1936. A. Joly and P. Brunet of France placed first in the pairs, while Austria had to contend with two silver and one bronze medals.

As in the previous Games, the total team count winners in 1928 were Norwegians, who got 93 points and won 15 medals (5, 5, 5, respectively). The USA placed second, with 45 points and 6 medals (2, 2, 2), and Sweden third, with 35 points and 5 medals (2, 2, 1, respectively).

### **The III Winter Olympic Games**

*(Lake Placid, the USA, 4—15 February 1932)*



The Games organizers' concern was that many European nations could not afford to send their teams to the USA. But, despite financial problems, 306 athletes (of them 30 women) from 17 coun-





**The start in the 10 000-meter speed skating event**  
(Lake Placid, 1932)

tries made it to Lake Placid, almost half of them (150) from the USA and Canada. The European teams consisted of small groups of athletes and officials. Thus, Finland delegation included only 7 members, that of Sweden — 12 members, etc.

The awards were to be won in 14 events and 5 sports. Americans won all the gold in speed skating, although specialists attribute this overwhelming victory to a new set of rules, imposed by the organizers, whereby all contestants were to start together, which was the usual practice in the USA at the time. In fact, Scandinavians took a revenge a few days later, at the speed skating world championship, which was also held in Lake Placid, but in accordance with the international rules.

Americans also won the two-man and four-man bobsled events, while Canadians had another victory in the hockey competition, with only four entries.

Nordic ski events were held under bad weather conditions, when high temperature and rain ruined the track, to the extent that athletes were



**U.S. bobsled team, champion of**  
**Winter Olympic Games** (Lake Placid, 1932)

unable to make the best use of their techniques. Scandinavians, however, won all the 12 ski medals: Norway got 7 (2 gold, 2 silver and 3 bronze), Sweden 2 (one gold and one silver), and Finland 3 (1, 1, 1, respectively).

G. Grafstrom had a fair chance of winning his fourth Olympic gold in figure skating, being ahead of his only real contender K. Schafer of Austria after the free figures. However the badly swollen knee and a strong performance of his opponent were the two factors that stopped him short of another victory.

S. Henie of Norway, had another straight Olympic win, all seven judges placing her first. In the pairs, the 1928 champions A. Joly-Brunet and P. Brunet of France won another gold, too.

In the team total count the USA placed first, getting 85 points and 12 medals (6, 4, 2, respectively), with Norway coming second (68 points and 10 medals — 3, 4, 3) and Canada third (46 points and 7 medals — 1, 1, 5, respectively).

### **The IVth Winter Olympic Games**

*(Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany,  
6—16 February 1936)*



The political atmosphere of Hitler Germany could not but mar the situation around the Games. One example is probably enough to prove the case. With the passage of "Nuremberg Laws", which declared Jews to belong to a lower human race, anti-Semitism broke out afresh in that country, including the period of the Olympics. For instance, on the eve of the Opening ceremony notices were put up at the toilets in the villages of Garmisch and Partenkirchen, reading "No dogs and Jews". Meeting with Hitler, Mr. Baillet-Latour



**The ice hockey team of Great Britain gained the Olympic victory**  
(Garmish-Partenkirchen, 1936)

said: "Mr. Chancellor, such notices contradict to the Olympic traditions." Hitler replied: "Mr. President, when invited to visit somebody, you do not lecture the host on how to run the house, do you?". Mr. Baillet-Latour's response was, "Excuse me, Chancellor, but when the five-circle flag is flown in a stadium, it is already not Germany. It is Olympia, and it is we who are the hosts". Thereupon, the notices were taken away.

The games were marked with a conspicuous absence of outstanding athletes, like Lake Placid champions A. and P. Brunet of France, J. Shea of the USA, and many others. They chose not to attend the Games to be held in a country of fascist dictatorship. The secret instruction of Hitler to demonstrate that "The Third Empire is a peaceful oasis, the country of goodwill and noble intentions", had fell through.

However, in purely sports terms, the 1936 Olympic Games played a significant role in the development of winter sports. The Olympic program had been expanded to include Alpine ski events: both men and women for the first time competed in the combination (downhill and slalom). Another new entry of the program was the 4 x 10-kilometer ski relay.

755 athletes (including 80 women) from 28 countries took part in the 1936 Games, two and a half times more than in the 1932 Winter Olympics.

Norway proved easily the temporary nature of the USA success in Lake Placid, by winning seven gold medals: in ski jumping (a second Olympic gold for B. Ruud), Nordic combined (O. Hagen), the 1,500-meter speed skating (C. Mathisen) and figure skating (S. Henie won her third Olympic title). But the star of the Berlin Olympic Games was

I. Ballangrud, who won three gold medals in speed skating (500, 5,000 and 10,000-meter events) and one silver medal in the 1,500 meters.

The cross-country gold was shared by Sweden (18 and 50-kilometers) and Finland (the 4 x 10-kilometer relay). Germany won the gold and silver in men's and women's Alpine combination events.

Germany also placed first in the figure skating pairs competition (M. Herber and E. Baier), while K. Schafer won the men's singles by a huge advantage.

**Sonia Henie**  
in one of her  
dazzling performances  
(Garmish-Partenkirchen,  
1936)



The USA fell short of their Lake Placid success in the bobsled, winning the two-man gold and bronze, while Switzerland got the gold and silver in the four-man bobsled.

The biggest upset of the Games was a hockey defeat of Canada by Great Britain, although the surprise could be easily explained, for the British team was made up of the hockey players from their dominion — Canada.

Following another Olympic gold in Berlin, Sonja Henie turned professional and had an outstanding career as a star of the American Ballet on Ice. Tickets were difficult to buy for her performances at Madison Square Garden, with a sitting capacity of 17,000. These, and the 13 movies she starred in Hollywood, brought her subsequently a cool \$76 million, an amount unheard of at that time.

Norway had a convincing victory in the team total count, getting 100 points and 15 medals (7 gold, 5 silver and 3 bronze). Germany, in the second place, got 46 points and 6 medals (3, 3, 0), and Sweden placed third, with 42 points and 7 medals (2, 2, 3, respectively).

### The Vth Winter Olympic Games

(St. Moritz, Switzerland,  
30 January—8 February 1948)



Because of the Second World War, it proved impossible to organize Olympic Games in 1940 and 1944. The Fifth Winter Olympic Games were staged in Switzerland, the country which had been left unscathed by war. The number of participants was 713 athletes (among them 77 women) from 28 countries. They competed for awards in 22 events of five winter sports.

Sweden came first in all three cross-country events (18 kilometers, 50 kilometers and the 4 x 10-

kilometer relay). The best athlete in Alpine skiing was H. Oreiller of France, who got the downhill gold, bettering 112 opponents, came third in the slalom, and won the combination.

Norway had a clean sweep in ski jumping, and the silver was won by Birger Ruud, the Olympic champion of 1932 and 1936. By that time the courageous athlete had gone through serious injuries, which had nearly put an end to his sporting career, Nazi persecutions and the arrest in Germany for anti-fascist views and deeds.

In speed skating Norwegians reaffirmed their superiority by winning three events (500-meter, 1,500-meter and 5,000-meter). O. Seyffarth of Sweden placed first in the 10,000-meter event.

Figure skating proved unusual due to a new acrobatic style of R. Button of the USA in the men's singles, whose free style program was full of complex jumps. B. Scott of Canada, the world champion, won the ladies' singles. Europeans succeeded only in the pairs, where the winners were M. Lannoy and P. Bagniet of Belgium. The hockey competition produced another sensation, where the finalists were Canada and Czechoslovakia, level on points. The tough final ended in a draw (0:0), a rare occurrence in this game. Canadians were awarded the gold on a better goal difference. It is interesting to note that the total score of the previous encounters of Canada and Czechoslovakia at the Olympic Games of 1928—1936 was 52:0 to Canadian favor.



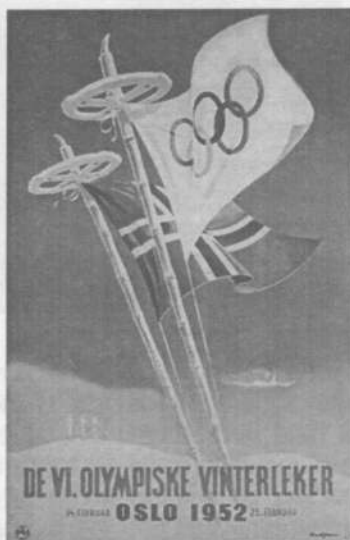
Henry Oreiller of France won both downhill and Alpine combined events at the Olympic Games (St. Moritz, 1948)



The team total was won by Sweden, whose athletes got 70 points and 10 medals (4, 3, 3, respectively). Switzerland placed second, with 68 points and 9 medals (3, 4, 2), and the USA third — 64.2 points and 9 medals (3, 4, 2, respectively).

### The VIth Winter Olympic Games

(Oslo, Norway, 14—25 February 1952)



These were the first Olympic Games to be held in a European capital, rather than in a small resort, which made them a more important event and attracted huge number of spectators. Prior to the Olympics, a new winter sports stadium

had been completed in Oslo, the ski jumping hill reconstructed, and a modern bobsled track put in place.

732 athletes (109 women) arrived from 30 countries to take part in an extended Olympic Games program. A new entry among the 22 events in five winter sports, was the 10-kilometer cross-country race for women. The Alpine ski program was to include three events: downhill, slalom and giant slalom.

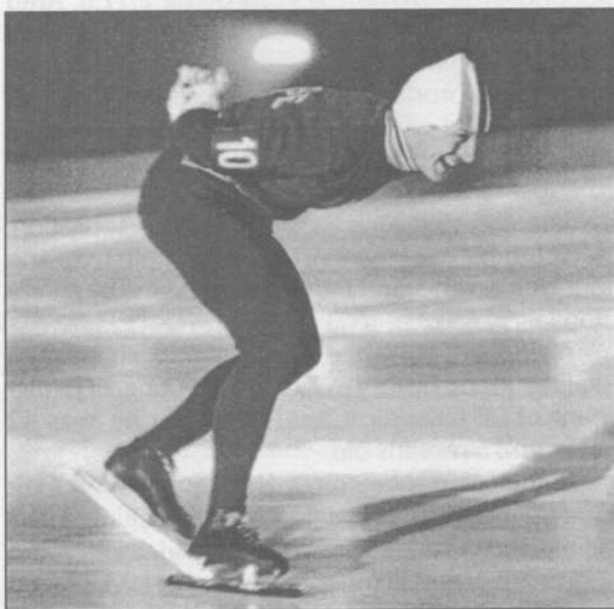
Swedes, the winners of the 1948 Olympics, expected to be a success in Oslo, too; but the advantage of Norwegians and Finns in the ski techniques was so big that the Swedish athletes managed only two bronze medals in the 4 x 10-kilometer relay and ski jumping. Norway and Finland won 16 out of 18 awards, three gold medals each (H. Brenden in the 18 kilometers race, A. Bergmann in ski jumping, S. Slattvik in Nordic combined for Norway; W. Hakulinen in the 50 kilometers, the team victory in the 4 x 10-kilometer relay, L. Wideman in the women's 10-kilometer race for Finland).

In Alpine skiing, Z. Colo of Italy was best in men's downhill, O. Schneider of Austria in slalom and S. Eriksen of Norway in giant slalom. Andrea Mead Lawrence of the USA got two gold medals (in slalom and giant slalom). She is the only athlete in the Olympic history to win an Alpine ski event after a fall on the piste. T. Jochum-Beiser of Austria got the gold in women's downhill race.

H. Andersen of Norway was the hero of the Olympic speed skating. Not only did he come



Zeno Colo of Italy, Olympic champion in the 1952 Olympic Games downhill event (Oslo, 1952)



Hjalmar Andersen of Norway, winner of three Olympic gold medals in speed skating (Oslo, 1952)



**Stein Eriksen of Norway won  
in the giant slalom  
(Oslo, 1952)**

first in his favorite events (5,000 and 10,000 meters), setting new Olympic record in each, but also was a surprise winner of the 1,500-meter event. He was to start in the first pair and clocked in a mediocre time of 2 minutes 20.4 seconds, the Olympic record being 2:17.6. After a few more starts his time stayed best, and then a heavy snowfall prevented the rest of the contestants to produce their best results. Even W. van der Voort of the Netherlands, the favorite in the distance, could not best Andersen's time and lost him 0.2 second.

The bobsled events produced a sensation, newcomers West Germany winning both two- and four-man events and beating Americans by a substantial margin.

Alain Jiletti of France, who placed 25th in figure skating, made history by being the youngest participant of all Olympic Games. In Oslo he was 12 years and 5 months old.

In the team total count, Norway restored their leading position in winter sports, getting 104.5 points and winning 16 medals (7 gold, 3 silver and 6 bronze). The Olympic team of the USA placed second, with 77.5 points and 11 medals (4, 6, 1, respectively), and Finland finished third, winning three gold, four silver and two bronze medals, which added up to 63 team points.

## **The VIIIth Winter Olympic Games**

*(Cortina d'Ampezzo, Italy,  
26 January—5 February 1956)*



Cortina d'Ampezzo has been a major winter sports center, where Nordic ski world championship was held in the late 1920s and Alpine ski world championship in the early 1930s. This resort had a bid in the past to stage the Games in 1940.

By the beginning of 1956, Cortina, although a top-class sports center, had finished the construction of new excellent facilities, a modern four-tier stadium and a new 80-meter jumping hill, one of the best in the world. The high-altitude speed skating track allowed the athletes to clock the times, which had been unattainable in the previous Winter Olympic Games.

More than ever athletes arrived in Cortina d'Ampezzo: 818 (132 women) from 32 countries. The USSR team (53 persons) had a Winter Olympics debut, fielding athletes in cross-country, speed skating and hockey. GDR was first represented in the unified team of Germany. Italian Julia Manuzzo was the first athlete to take an Olympic oath.

There were 24 events in five sports, with the competition program altered and amended: 15 and 30-kilometer races substituted the 18-kilometer event, and women competed in the 3 x 5-kilometer relay.

The Soviet participation changed the situation in several events and in the team count. The USSR had a clean sweep in the 10-kilometer cross-country race, the winner being L. Kozyreva, and came second in the women's relay, after Finland.

The four gold medals in men's cross-country were awarded to Norway (H. Brenden in the 15 km), Finland (V. Hakulinen, 30 km), Sweden (S. Jernberg, 50 km) and the USSR (the 4 x 10-kilometer relay). The ski jump gold, ahead of 50 contestants from 16 countries, was won by A. Hyvarinen



**Yevgeniy Grishin of USSR won two gold medals at the VII Winter Olympic Games (Cortina d'Ampezzo, 1956)**

of Finland, who developed a new jumping technique, and S. Stenersen of Norway placed first in the Nordic combination.

A. Sailer of Austria won convincingly all three Alpine ski events, practically uncontested. But the big sensation of the Seventh Winter Olympics came in speed skating, where Norwegians, the undisputed winners of the 1952 Games, had to contend with two silver medals in Italy. It was a field day for the Soviet newcomers. Y. Grishin won the 500-meter sprint with a world record (40.2 seconds), and another Soviet world record was set in the 1,500 meters by Grishin and Y. Mikhaylov (2:08.6), both of them being awarded gold medals. The winner of the 5,000-meter event with an Olympic record was another Soviet B. Shilkov. The only gold medal for the Nordic countries was awarded to S. Ericsson of Sweden who won the 10,000 meters.

Italians got the gold and silver in the two-man bobsled, one of the winners, Giacomo Conti, at 47, was the oldest Olympic champion. In the four-man bobsled Italians came second, and the winners were the Swiss four.

The USA won individual events in figure skating, both men's and women's, and Austria got the gold in the pairs.

The USSR hockey team won all its matches, beat Canada (2:0) and the USA (4:0), and became undisputed champion. The formerly invincible Canadians lost to the USA (4:1), too, and dropped to the third place. The anchorman of the Soviet team was V. Bobrov, a unique player, equally good in hockey and soccer. He was skipper of the USSR national soccer team at the Summer Olympics in 1952, and of the winning hockey team in 1956.



**Anton Sailer of Austria won gold medals in all the three events of men's Alpine skiing (Cortina d'Ampezzo, 1956)**

With 7 gold, 3 silver and 6 bronze medals (103 points), the USSR placed first in the unofficial team count. Austria finished second, with 66.5 points and 11 medals (4, 3, 4, respectively), and Finland third — 57 points and 7 medals (3, 3, 1).

### **The VIIIth Winter Olympic Games**

*(Squaw Valley, the USA,  
18—28 February 1960)*



These were the highest-ever Winter Games, Squaw Valley altitude being 1,889 meters above the sea level. The Games organizers had everything perfectly ready by the opening of the Olympics: the sheltered winter stadium with the seating capacity of 11,000 and the 400-meter artificial ice track for speed skating close by were waiting for the competitors. The advent of electronic

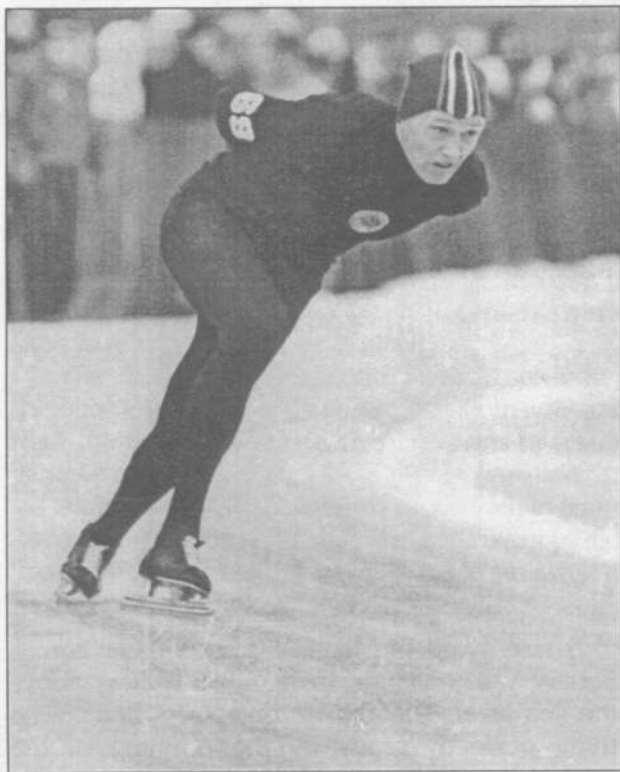




The match USSR vs. Czechoslovakia turned to be extremely tense (Squaw Valley, 1960)



Carol Heiss (USA) proved the best in the figure skating (Squaw Valley, 1960)



Convincing victory in 5000-meter speed skating was obtained by Soviet athlete Viktor Kosichkin (Squaw Valley, 1960)



The outstanding Soviet athlete Lidiya Skoblikova (Squaw Valley, 1960)

information boards had greatly facilitated the organization of the competitions.

The 665 athletes (144 women) from 30 countries were accommodated at the Olympic village. The Opening Ceremony of the Games, staged by Walt Disney, the Hollywood producer, was watched by 15,000 spectators at the Ice Stadium on February 18, 1960.

The program included 30 events and 5 sports, with women's speed skating as a new entry. Bobsled was scrapped for lack of an adequate track.

The first gold of the Games was awarded to L. Lestander of Sweden in biathlon, where four slots in the top six (from the third to the sixth) were occupied by Soviets.

Cross-country medal winners were from Germany (3), Finland, Sweden and Switzerland (two medals each), Norway, France, Austria, Canada and the USSR (one each). The situation was quite opposite in speed skating, where Soviet athletes won six of the eight events, as well as getting three silver and three bronze medals. Norway had two gold medalists: R. Aas, who shared the honors with Y. Grishin in the 1,500 meters, and K. Johannesen, world-record winner in the 10,000 meters. Two gold medals each were awarded to Y. Grishin (500 and 1,500 meters) and L. Skoblikova, who set a world record in the 1,500 meters (2:25.2 min.) and an Olympic record in the 3,000 meters (5:14.3 min.). Record-breaking attempt runs were held in speed skating on the last day of the Games, and the four-time Olympic champion Y. Grishin set a new world record (36.6 sec.), becoming the first athlete to run 500 meters in under 40 seconds.

Just as four years previously, the USA won both individual events in figure skating, and Canada won the pairs.

In hockey the winners were the Americans, and Canada and the USSR placed second and third.

In the unofficial team total count the USSR finished first with 146.5 points and 21 medals (7, 5, 9, respectively), bettering by 84.5 points the USA and Sweden, which drew level on 62 points and won three gold medals each.

## The IXth Winter Olympic Games

*(Innsbruck, Austria,  
29 January—9 February 1964)*

Innsbruck had been well prepared for the Games, with new facilities built and the existing ones reconstructed, when the thaw caused significant complications. The organizers' special teams had to move 15,000 cubic meters of snow from val-



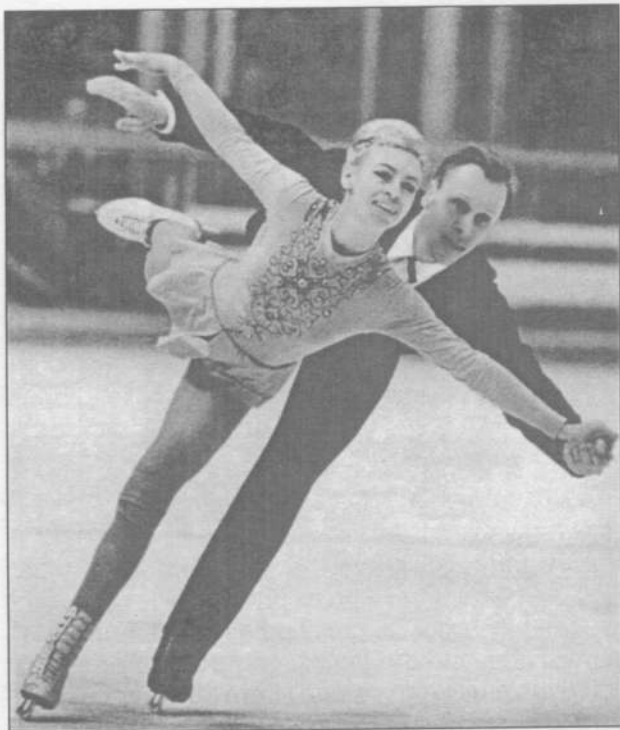
leys to the luge, bobsled and Alpine ski venues, and the Games went on as planned.

The Innsbruck Games had a record number of participants and the largest competition program. 1,186 athletes (200 women) from 36 countries and 36 teams (GDR and West Germany joining forces) competed for awards in 34 events of seven winter sports.

Many countries managed to win medals in heated contests, the Nordic nations being traditional favorites in the men's cross-country events, and Austria and France dominating Alpine skiing. The Goitschel sisters of France got the gold (Christa) and silver (Marielle) in slalom, and then changed places in giant slalom. In men's speed skating each of the four events was won by a different nation.

In women's cross-country races all the three gold medals went to the USSR athletes. In speed skating the Soviet women's team did even better. They won nine of the 12 medals, and L. Skoblikova got all the gold (four medals) in speed skating, setting three Olympic records in Innsbruck. The world press had their eyes on Skoblikova. "Built", the Austrian newspaper, noted: "She combines strength, technique and a unique harmony of movement, which in itself is enough to produce outstanding results". The US "Sports Illustrated" described Skoblikova as "the best speed skater the world has ever known".

The pairs figure skating event produced an upset. No one had any doubts about the best chances of Germans M. Kilius and H. J. Baumler, who had demolished their opponents in major international tournaments. Even on the eve of the Olympics, postcards were on sale depicting the German pair with the caption "The Olympic Champions of Innsbruck". However, in a very close contest, the winners were L. Belousova and O. Protopopov, the first

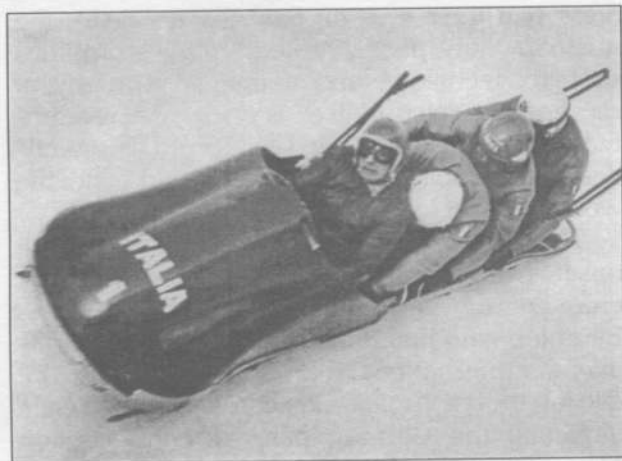


**L. Belousova and O. Protopopov of USSR  
are the first Olympic champion in the pairs**  
(Innsbruck, 1964; Grenoble, 1968)

Soviets to become Olympic champions in figure skating.

Luge was finally included in the program, despite fears of the risk of injuries. The GDR athletes, members of the unified German team, took the gold and silver and began the German winning streak in this sport.

Soviet hockey players beat all of their opponents, scored 93 goals and conceded only 11 in eight matches.



**Winners of the Innsbruck Olympic Games,  
the four-man bobsled of Italy (Innsbruck, 1964)**

Here are the results of the team count in Innsbruck. The USSR placed first with 162 points and 25 medals (11 gold, 8 silver, 6 bronze), Norway finished second with 89.5 points and 15 medals (3, 6, 6, respectively), and Austria third with 79 points and 12 medals (4, 5, 3).

## **The Xth Winter Olympic Games**

*(Grenoble, France, 6—18 February 1968)*



France did its best for the Jubilee Winter Olympics to be a success, both sportwise and organizationally. 1,297 athletes (212 women) from 37 countries contested the 35 sets of awards in seven sports.

The USSR came a cropper in Grenoble, particularly in comparison to their cross-country and speed skating feats of Innsbruck. Four years previously they had eight gold awards in the two sports, whereas in France they managed only two. V. Belousov, however, was a surprise winner in the K90 ski jump over the favorite J. Raska of Czechoslovakia, the gold medalist in the K70.

Norway lived up to everybody's expectations in Nordic skiing, where 30-years old T. Gustafsson, never a favorite, won both the 5 and 10-kilometer races. Norwegians had another four gold awards in men's 15 and 50 kilometers, and in both relays. The sensational winner of the 30-kilometer event was Franco Nones of Italy, who beat second-placed O. Martinsen of Norway by almost one minute. F. Nones was the first athlete from a southern state to win an Olympic cross-country event.

The Soviet debacle in speed skating provided for equal chances of all participants. Therefore, in a tough contest three gold medals went to the Netherlands, while the USA, Norway, Germany, Sweden and the USSR got one gold each.

The four-man bobsled was very close affair between the teams of Germany and Italy, who





**Jean-Claude Killy of France on the piste**  
(Grenoble, 1968)

were level after four runs. The better result in the fifth (and last) run was achieved by the Italians led by an outstanding pilot, Eugenio Monti. He had already had two silver (1956) and two bronze (1964) Olympic medals, before finally meeting with success in Grenoble. In 1964 E. Monti was awarded the Coubertin medal for exceptional sportsmanship.

L. Belousova and O. Protopopov had another gold medal in figure skating pairs competition, their principal opponents this time being their compatriots T. Zhuk and A. Gorelik. The USSR biathlon team also was among the winners: they won the gold in the 4 x 7.5-kilometer relay and the individual silver (A. Tikhonov) in the 20-kilometer race. Despite a defeat by the Czechs (4:5), Soviets had another gold in the hockey tournament by beating comfortably all the rest of the opposing teams.

E. Lechner of Italy placed first in the luge single competition, following the disqualification of three German athletes for illegal heating the toboggan runners.

The French athletes and their numerous fans could hardly be contented with the fifth place of their national team in the team total count. But they were adequately compensated by the outstanding performance of J.-C. Killy, who won all three of the Alpine ski events, repeating the only other feat of this kind by A. Sailer in the past.

Killy was the sure bet to win the Olympics, having come first 23 times (5 of those in downhill) in his 30 World Cup starts in 1966—1967. After the Games he left sports and went in for a successful business career (advertising, hotels, restaurants, TV, movies). Killy did well, too, as President of the

Organizing Committee of the XVIth Winter Games in Albertville.

In the unofficial team count of the Grenoble Olympic Games Norway placed first, getting 103 points and 14 medals (6 gold, 6 silver and 2 bronze). The USSR finished second with 92 points and 13 medals (5, 5, 3) and Austria third — 79 points and 11 medals (3, 4, 4, respectively).

## **The XIth Winter Olympic Games**

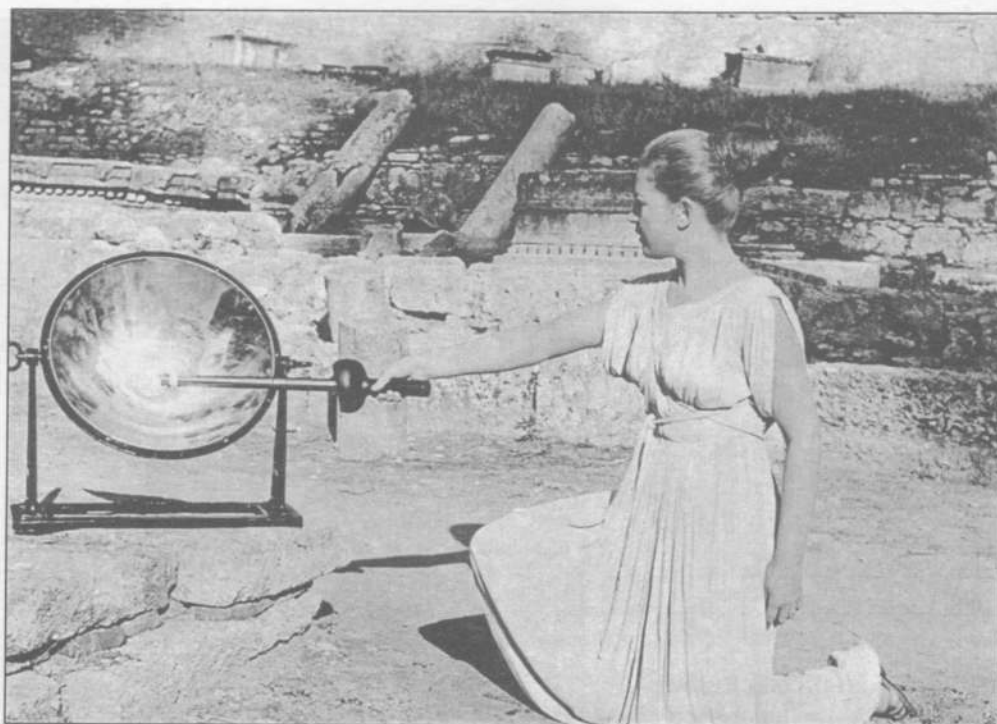
*(Sapporo, Japan,  
3—13 February 1972)*



These were the first Winter Olympic Games to be held in Asia. The organizers had not pinned particular hopes on the success of the Japanese athletes, whose Olympic record included only one silver medal. Instead, their main goal was to demonstrate social and economic improvements of Japan in the post-war decades. With this goal in mind, some 4,000 reporters were accredited in Sapporo.

35 sets of awards were there to win in ten winter sports for 1,232 athletes (217 women) from 35 countries.

The Games turned out to be another success story for the USSR, who placed first, mainly due to their domination of cross-country, biathlon, hockey, and figure skating. The hero of the Games was V. Vedenin, who won two gold and one bronze medals. But it was the gold award in the relay, rather than the 30-kilometer victory, that made Vedenin particularly famous. By the time he started on the final stage of the 4 x 10-kilometer relay, the Soviet team was trailing Norway, whose athletes had opened an almost 60-second gap. Against such formidable opposition, it was thought out of the question for anybody to close this gap. Therefore the coaches had only one task for



**Maria Mozholiou sets ablaze the torch for the Winter Olympic Games (Sapporo, 1972)**

Vedenin who was to hold on to the second place. But, miraculously, he finished first, beating Norway by 9 seconds.

G. Kulakova of the USSR won two golds in 5 and 10-kilometer individual events, and added a third in the relay.

Men's speed skating was dominated by A. Schenk of the Netherlands, who was awarded three gold medals in 1,500, 5,000 and 10,000 meters.

One of the Games sensations was a clean sweep of Japan (Y. Kasaya, A. Konno and S. Aocti) in the K70 ski jump event.

Another sensation was the success of GDR, who participated in Sapporo as a separate team, for the second time in the country's history. They had won 5 medals and placed tenth with 35 points at the Xth Games in Grenoble. But in Sapporo the GDR team won 14 medals (4, 3, 7, respectively),



**The two-time Olympic champion Vyacheslav Vedenin of USSR (Sapporo, 1972)**



**Outstanding Dutch speed skater Ard Schenk won three gold medals in 500 m, 5 000 m and 10 000 m (Sapporo, 1972)**

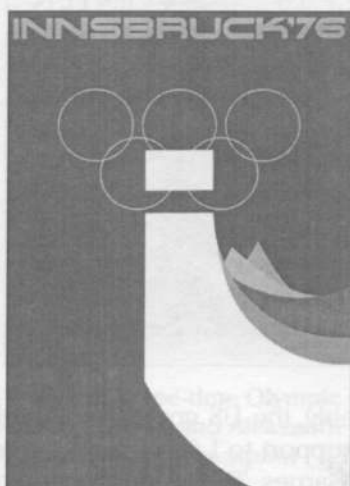


**Yukio Kasaya (Japan), winner in the 70-meter ski jump (Sapporo, 1972)**

with three gold medals in luge and U. Weling winning the Nordic combination. In the team count, GDR placed second (83 points), the USSR first, with 120 points and 16 medals (8, 5, 3), and Norway third — 79 points and 12 medals (2, 5, 5, respectively).

## The XIIth Winter Olympic Games

*(Innsbruck, Austria,  
4—15 February 1976)*



It was not the first time that Innsbruck staged the Winter Olympics, yet in 1976 the city was awarded this right, as it were, by chance. The 69th Session of the IOC decided that the XIIth Winter Olympiade was to be held in Denver, USA. But that city, in the wake of a 1972 Colorado referendum, refused to host the Olympic Games. Thereafter, substitute bids were submitted by Innsbruck, Chamonix, Lake Placid and Tampere, Finland. The IOC chose Innsbruck, guided by the excellent organization of the 1964 Games, which were held in the city.

Participating in the 1976 Olympic Games were 1,128 athletes (including 228 women) from 37 countries.

Men competed in eight events (biathlon, bobsled, cross-country skiing, speed and figure skating, Alpine skiing, tobogganing, and hockey); women competed in five events (Alpine and cross-country skiing, tobogganing, speed and figure skating).

The largest teams were sent by the USA (94 athletes), the USSR (79), and Austria (74). Hungary, San-Marino and South Korea sent only two athletes each.

The most participants competed in cross-country events (51 women and 106 men) and in Alpine skiing (42 women and 100 men).

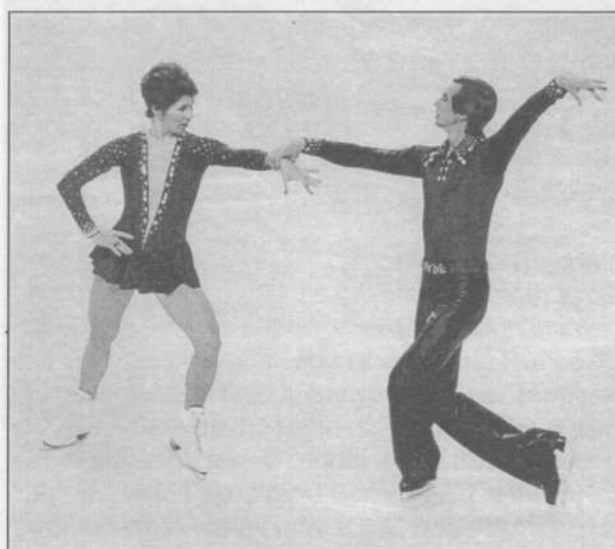
The biggest number of countries competed in Alpine skiing (31), with only 14 countries fielding their teams in the Nordic Combination. Twelve teams participated in the hockey competition.

Thirty seven sets of medals were there to win, including twelve sets of awards in speed skating, seven in cross-country races, six in Alpine skiing, two in biathlon, two in ski jumping, one in Nordic combined, two in bobsled, three in tobogganing, four in figure skating, and one in hockey.

Some events were dominated by athletes of a single nation, while in some others the medals were won by athletes from different countries. The GDR athletes, rising fast in the Olympic ranks, collected all the gold in bobsled and tobogganing, while athletes from the Soviet Union did likewise in biathlon.

The Soviet athletes did best in cross-country races, winning four gold medals (two apiece in men's and women's events). Two golds were won by Finnish skiers, and a single gold by a Norwegian. Aschenbach of GDR bested his adversaries by a comfortable margin in the 70K ski jumping event, and Schnabl of Austria — in the 90K. Wehling (GDR) added another gold medal in the Nordic combined to the one he had won in the previous Olympics.

Top performers in Alpine skiing were the teams from West Germany and Austria, who won two gold medals apiece. Italian and Canadian athletes also struck gold in this event. Franz Klammer of Austria was outstanding, clocking an average speed of 102.8 km/h in the downhill event. During his sports career (he came first in 23 World Cup events over five seasons), Klammer had surpassed



**Nobody could compete with Soviet pair, Lyudmila Pakhomova and Aleksandr Gorshkov in the ice dance event (Innsbruck, 1976)**



all speed records and made a name for himself as an exceptionally courageous Alpine skier.

In speed skating the Soviet athletes won four out of the nine medals awarded (one in men's events and three in women's events). The USA and Norway got two gold medals and one gold was won by the Netherlands. American Sheila Young took three Olympic medals: a gold in the 500-meter sprint, a silver in the 1,500 m, and a bronze 1,000 m. That same year she also won a gold medal at the World Cycling Championships sprint.

Ice dancing was included in the Olympic program for the first time in Innsbruck, where the undisputed winners were L. Pakhomova and A. Gorshkov. The USSR winning streak continued in pairs, with I. Rodnina and A. Zaytsev being the fourth Olympic champions from the Soviet Union in a row. In men's singles the winner was John Curry of Great Britain, and in ladies' singles the Olympic gold was awarded to American D. Hammill.

The hockey tournament was won by an outstanding USSR team, with stars such as V. Tret'yak, V. Vasilyev, B. Mikhaylov, V. Petrov, V. Kharlamov, A. Yakushev.

The USSR broke a Winter Olympics record in the number of points collected (192) and the awards won (27), including 13 gold, 6 silver, and 8 bronze. The GDR team was second, with 135

points and 19 medals (7 golds, 5 silvers, and 7 bronzes). The USA came third with 73 points and 10 medals (3, 3, and 4, respectively).

## The XIIIth Winter Olympic Games

*(Lake Placid, the USA,  
13—24 February 1980)*



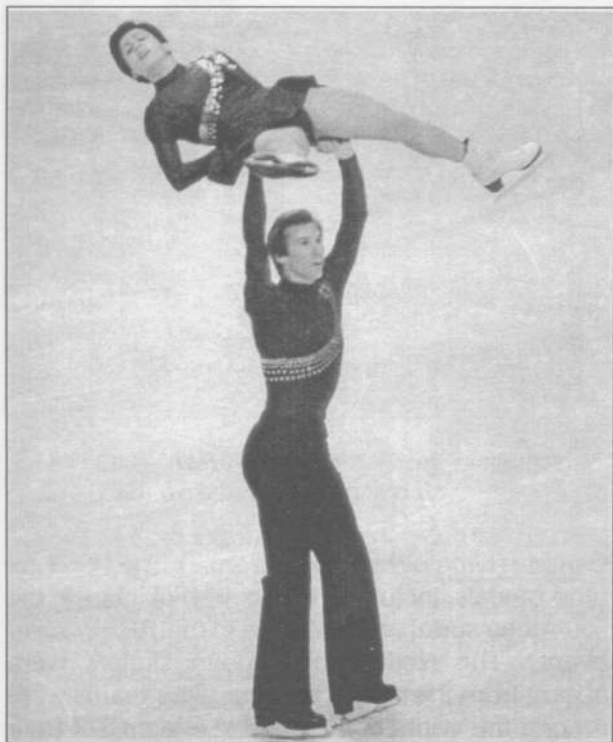
Regrettably, the US government had not given adequate support to Lake Placid in preparing for the winter Games. The reconstruction of the existing sports facilities had not been completed in time, and the newly built prison was used instead of the Olympic Village. Problems developed with transportation and telecommunications. But the Carter Administration had adequate resources to fund the campaign to boycott the Moscow Summer Olympics. The US State Secretary S. Vance, supported by the U.S.O.C., urged the 82nd IOC Session to reverse its decision to stage the Games in Moscow.

Fortunately, these inconveniences did not prevent the Winter Games from staging a successful competition, with 1,067 athletes from 37 countries putting in their best effort in the struggle.

The Olympic program included 38 events: biathlon (10- and 20-kilometer races and the 4 x 7.5-kilometer relay); two-man and two-man bobsled events; Nordic skiing (men: 15-, 30- and 50-kilometer cross-country races, the 4 x 10-kilometer relay, K70 and K90 ski jumping, the Nordic combined; women: 5- and 10-kilometer cross-country races, the 4 x 5-kilometer relay); Alpine skiing (downhill, slalom and giant slalom, men and women); luge (men and women in the luge singles and men in the two-man luge events); speed skating (500, 1,000, 1,500, 5,000, 10,000 meters for men and 500, 1,000, 1,500 and 3,000 meters for women); figure skating (men's and women's singles, pairs and ice dance); and hockey.



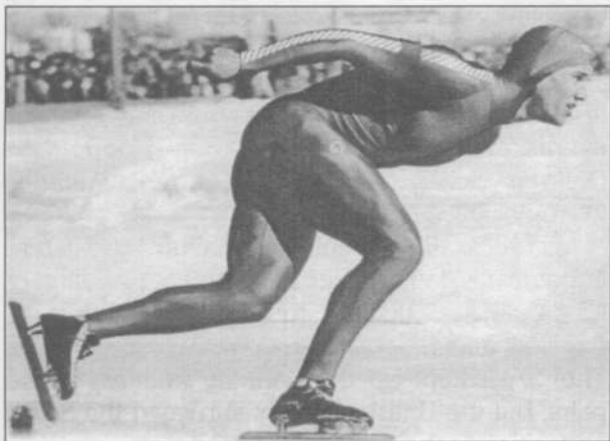
**Franz Klammer of Austria beat 73 athletes  
from 27 countries (Innsbruck, 1976)**



**Irina Rodnina, three-time Olympic champion (1972, 1976, 1980), and Aleksandr Zaytsev, two-time Olympic champion (1976, 1980)**

N. Zimyatov of the USSR became a real sensation of the Games. The previous World Cup events had indicated the Games cross-country favorites to be Swedish and Norwegian athletes. But the first Lake Placid gold went to N. Zimyatov in the 30-kilometer race, followed by another success in the 50-kilometer marathon. He had a third gold medal in the relay. In a dramatic finish of the 15-kilometer men's sprint T. Wassberg of Sweden bested J. Mieto of Finland by a mere .01 second.

The well-prepared USA hockey team, which



**Eric Heiden of USA, winner of five Olympic gold medals in speed skating (Lake Placid, 1980)**



**Champions of the XIII Winter Olympic Games, the four-man bobsled team of East Germany (Lake Placid, 1980)**

was made up of the best University and college players, won the gold medals unexpectedly, but on merit. Another sensation was the success of Liechtenstein, getting two gold and two silver Alpine ski medals. H. Wenzel came first in slalom and giant slalom.

A. Tikhonov of the USSR won his fourth biathlon gold in his fourth Games, and I. Rodnina had her third in the pairs figure skating event.

The outstanding success of E. Heiden of the USA, who had a record five-gold-medal haul in speed skating, placed the US team third in the unofficial team count. What was particularly unique about Heiden's success, apart from the record number of gold in one Olympic Games, was his versatility in all distances, from sprint to marathon. E. Heiden met with success in cycling as well: he was 1985 USA professional cycling champion and took part in the Tour de France race in 1986. Rejecting lucrative business proposals, Heiden took up the profession of a doctor.

GDR athletes, in addition to their traditional sports, won Lake Placid Games gold in the 10-kilometer cross-country race (B. Petzold), women's figure skating single competition (A. Petzch), and in the speed skating 500-meter sprint (K. Enke).

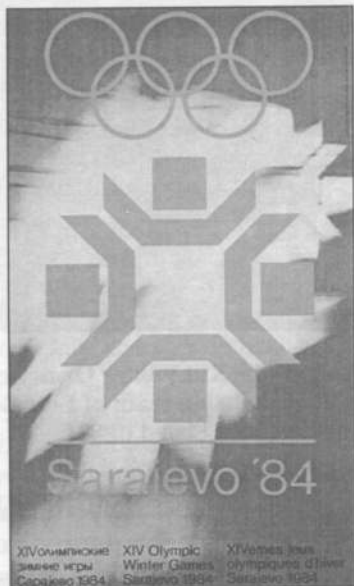
The 53-year-old Karl-Erik Erikson of Sweden finished only 19th in the two-man bobsled and 21st in

the four-man bobsled, but was the first athlete to compete in six Olympics.

In the team count, GDR placed first, getting 154.5 points and 24 medals (10 gold, 7 silver and 7 bronze), with the USSR second — 147.5 points and 22 medals (10, 6, 6), and the USA third — 99 points and 12 medals (6, 4, 2, respectively).

## The XIVth Winter Olympic Games

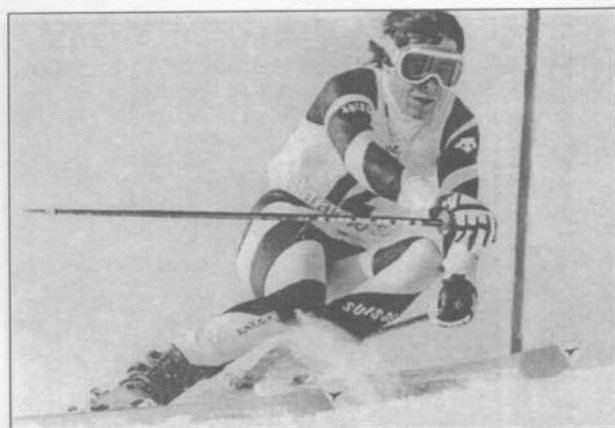
*(Sarajevo, Yugoslavia,  
8—23 February 1984)*



1,581 athletes (276 women) from 49 nations contested 39 sets of awards in Sarajevo.

Scandinavians traditionally dominated cross-country events, Finland getting 8 medals (3 gold, 1 silver and 4 bronze), and Sweden 5 (3, 1, 1, respectively). The USSR also got five medals in cross-country (one gold and four silver medals). M.-L. Hamalainen of Finland was recognized as the star of the Sarajevo Olympic Games, winning all the three individual cross-country events and getting a bronze in the relay. Gunde Svan of Sweden won the 15-kilometer race and the relay, as well as two more Olympic medals in the 30 and 50-kilometer events. Four nations struck gold in this sport in Yugoslavia: Finland (three), Sweden (three), Norway and the USSR (one each).

Speed skating was also a close affair, six nations winning Olympic medals. GDR dominated the speed skating events with 11 medals, particularly the women's team, which won all the four events, including the clean sweep in the 3,000-meter marathon. The best results were achieved by K. Enke of GDR (two gold and two silver speed skating awards) and G. Bouchet of



**Max Julen of Switzerland came first in giant slalom after stiff competition (Sarajevo, 1984)**

Canada (two gold and one bronze). The USSR got nine medals, including two gold (Fokichev in the 500-meter sprint and I. Malkov in the 10,000-meter event). The Netherlands speed skaters were absent from the medal rostrum. Four teams were among the winners in speed skating: GDR (four gold), the USSR and Canada (two gold each), and Sweden (one gold).

J. Weisflog of GDR and M. Nukanen of Finland got a gold and a silver medals in the K70 and K90 ski jumps.

Americans fought off successfully the competition of the Alpine nations and got most of Alpine skiing awards — five (3 gold and two silver medals). U. Johnson won the men's downhill, Ph. Manre — slalom, and D. Armstrong and C. Cooper took the top two awards in giant slalom. Olympic gold in Alpine skiing was shared by three nations — the USA (3), Switzerland (2), and Italy (2).

Norway and West Germany dominated the biathlon events, winning three medals each of every denomination. E. Kvalfoss of Norway came first in the 10-kilometer event, P. Angerer of West Germany won the 20-kilometer event, and the USSR team beat their opponents in the relay.

GDR dominated bobsled, where they placed first and second in both the two-man and four-man events. Their athletes Wolfgang Hoppe and Deitmar Schauerhammer became two-times Olympic champions.

Figure skating events were won by different countries: K. Witt of Germany and S. Hamilton of Canada in the singles, J. Torwill and C. Dean in ice dancing, and Y. Valova and O. Vasilyev in the pairs. The USSR kept up the winning tradition in the pairs, but the British dancers shrugged the Soviet opposition to the second and third slots.

GDR won the lion's share of luge awards (one gold, one silver and two bronze medals), with the

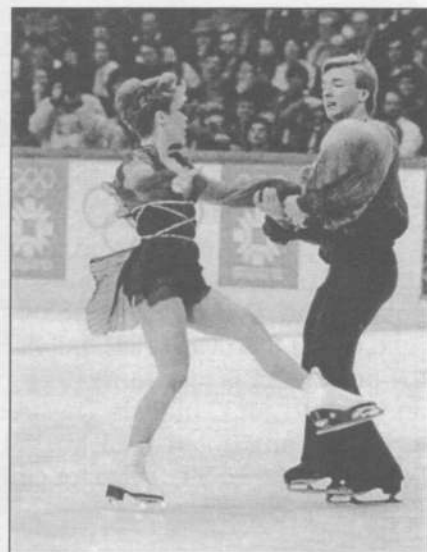




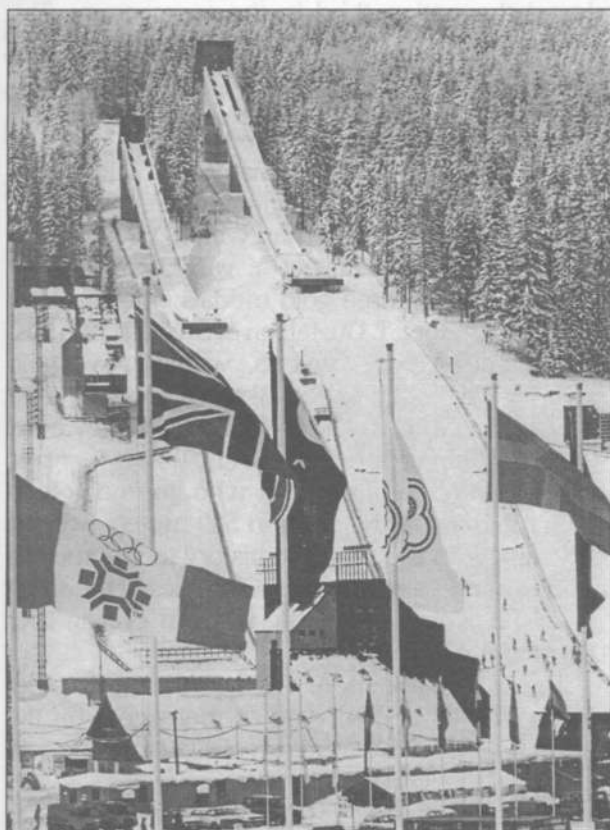
**Marja-Liisa Hamalainen**  
of Finland, winner  
of three Olympic  
gold medals  
(Sarajevo, 1984)



**Vladislav Tretyak,**  
the outstanding goalie  
of the USSR  
ice hockey team  
(Sarajevo, 1984)



**Jayne Torwill and Christopher  
Dean** of Great Britain withstood the  
pressure of Soviet contenders and  
won the ice dance in figure skating  
(Sarajevo, 1984)



**The jumping hills**  
of the XIV Winter  
Olympic Games  
(Sarajevo, 1984)



**Karin Enke** of GDR won two gold (1,000 and 1,500  
meters) and two silver medals (500 and 3,000  
meters) at the XIV Winter Olympic Games  
(Sarajevo, 1984)

USSR getting three (two silver and one bronze), and Italy and West Germany got one gold medal each.

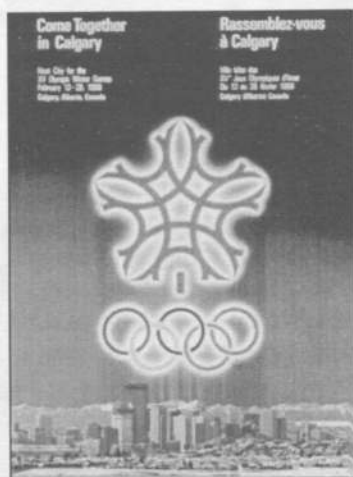
Scandinavians got all the three medals in the Nordic combination, with Tomas Wassberg of Sweden in the top spot.

In the hockey final the USSR had a tough win (2:0) over Czechoslovakia.

The top three teams in the team count were the USSR (167 points), GDR as a close second (165 points) and Finland. The USSR had one more medal (25) than GDR (24), but GDR beat them in the number of gold awards (9 as compared to 6), and Finland got 13 medals. The medals won by the top three amounted to 6 gold, 10 silver and 9 bronze for the USSR, 9, 9, 4 for GDR and 4, 3, 6 for Finland.

## The XVth Winter Olympic Games

*(Calgary, Canada,  
13—28 February 1988)*



Calgary won the bid to stage the Winter Olympic Games in 1981, at the seventh try. The Organizing Committee and Calgary residents spared no efforts for successful preparation of the Games. Following reconstruction, the Olympic stadium's sitting capacity was increased to 60,000, and a new facility was constructed for bobsled and luge, with 14 turns and two separate troughs for each. The cooling equipment underneath was capable of producing ice even in temperatures of 20 degrees Centigrade. New sports palaces were built to sit 19,000 spectators for hockey and figure skating. Calgary also had built modern tracks for cross-country and Alpine ski events, as well as the International TV and Radio Center, for the 1988 Games.

1,634 athletes (364 of them women) arrived in Calgary from 57 countries. The competition program included four new Alpine ski events (Super-

G and the Alpine combination both for men and women), a ski jumping and Nordic combined team events, and 5,000 meters speed skating event for women.

46 sets of awards were put, with women competing in 16 and men in 28 events in ten winter sports, two of the figure skating events being mixed.

The USSR gained success in cross-country events, where they had 15 medals, five of them gold: V. Venciene (10 kilometers), T. Tikhonova (20 kilometers), the women's relay, M. Devyatyarov (15 kilometers) and A. Prokurorov (30 kilometers). The women's team had a marked advantage, winning three of the four gold medals, having a clean sweep in the 20 kilometers and beating Norway in the relay by 1.5 minutes. Tamara Tikhonova of the USSR and Gunde Svan of Sweden got two Olympic gold medals each. The cross-country gold medals were won by the USSR (5), Sweden (2) and Finland (1).

Finland got all the gold in ski jumping, Matti Nukanen winning three gold medals in the K70, K90 and the team events.

Switzerland was outstanding in Alpine skiing (11 medals, including three gold awards), which placed the nation third in the team count. The seven-time world cup holder A. Tomba of Italy got two gold medals in Calgary, the Alpine gold being won by Switzerland (3), Austria (3), Italy (2), West Germany and France (one gold each).

Speed skating was dominated by GDR, whose athletes won 13 medals, including three gold.

U.-J. Mey and A. Hoffman winning the 500 and 1,500 meters, respectively. Y. van Gennip of the Netherlands got three gold medals in 1,500, 3,000 and 5,000 meters. T. Gustafson of Sweden was best among men speed skaters, winning two gold awards. The gold speed skating medals were awarded to GDR (3), the Netherlands (3), Sweden (2), the USSR (1) and the USA (1).

C. Rothenburger of GDR, who got the gold in 1,000 meters and the silver in 500 meters was the only athlete in the Olympic history to win medals in both Winter and Summer Olympics of the same year (she won an Olympic silver in cycling later that year in Seoul).

The USSR got more medals than any other nation in biathlon (4), one of them gold (in the men's relay), but F.-P. Roetsch of GDR took the gold in both of the individual events.

In bobsled three medals were awarded to GDR (3), but the gold escaped them, the USSR winning the two-man and Switzerland the four-man events. Soviets J. Kipurs and V. Kozlov were the unexpected bobsled winners, while in luge all the gold went to the athletes of GDR.

Natalya  
Bestemyanova  
and Andrey Bukin  
of USSR, champi-  
ons of the XV  
Olympic Games  
in figure skating  
pairs competition  
(Calgary, 1988)

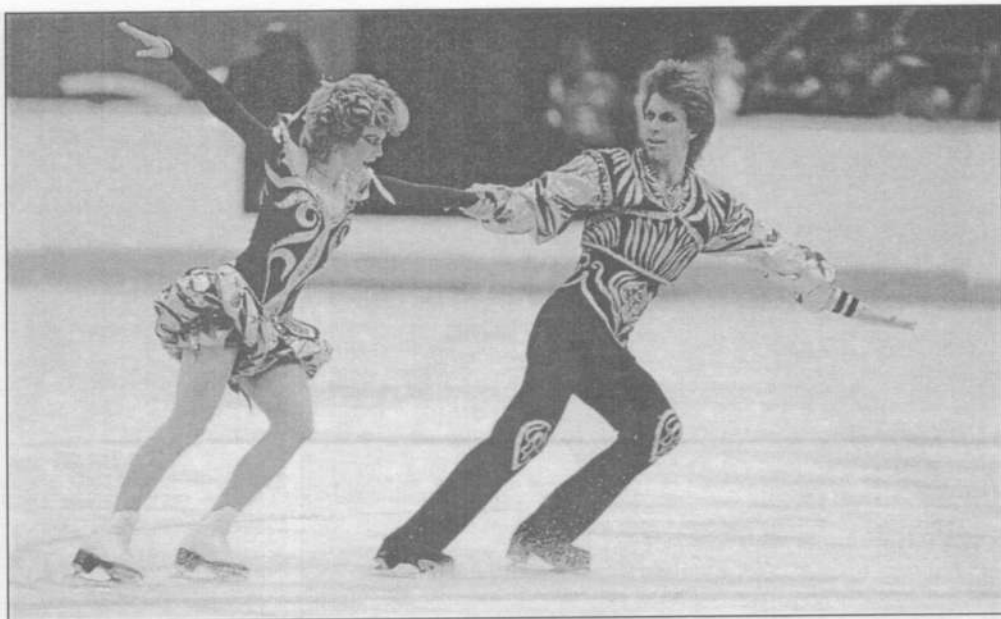


Figure skating was another success story for the USSR, who won two top awards in both the pairs (Y. Gordeyeva-S. Grinkov and Y. Valova-O. Vasilyev) and ice dancing (N. Bestemyanova-A. Bukin and M. Klimova-S. Ponomarenko). K. Wit of Germany placed first again, as in Sarajevo, in the women's single event and B. Boitano (the USA) won men's singles. All in all, the USSR won two figure skating gold medals, and the USA and GDR one gold each.

The USSR hockey team got the gold by defeating Finland in the final match.

In the team count the USSR got most of the

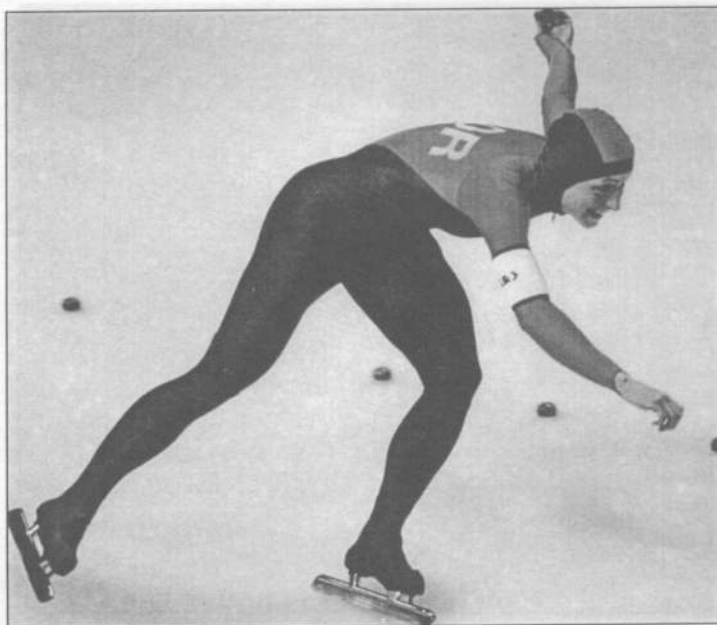
medals (29: 11 gold, 9 silver and 9 bronze) and most of the points (204.5), leaving GDR in the second place (25 medals: 9, 10, 6, respectively; and 173 points) and Switzerland in the third — 15 medals (5 of each) and 97.5 points.

It is interesting to note that the level of success was little tied in to the number of participants in the Games. The largest delegations of the USA (119 athletes) and Canada (113 athletes) finished ninth (54 points) and twelfth, respectively, whereas GDR (54 athletes) was outstanding and achieved an excellent result.

The team of USSR,  
champions  
of the XV Winter  
Olympic Games,  
in defense  
(Calgary, 1988)







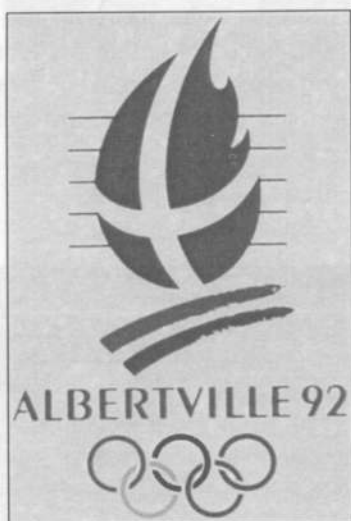
**Christa Rotenburger-Luding, champion in speed skating and silver medalist in cycling of the 1988 Winter and Summer Games**



**Pirmin Zurbriggen of Switzerland clocked in the best time in the downhill (Calgary, 1988)**

## **The XVIth Winter Olympic Games**

*(Albertville, France,  
8—23 February 1992)*



Albertville hosted 1,808 athletes (including 490 women), who represented 64 National Olympic Committees and, accordingly, 64 nations, an all time record of Winter Olympics attendance. The competition program was also an all time high, with awards to be won in 57 events and 12 sports.

There were 15 new entries in the program: in women's biathlon (7.5-kilometer race, 15-kilometer race and 4 x 7.5-kilometer relay), the women's 30-kilometer cross-country race (instead of the 20 kilometers), freestyle (mogul), short track (1,000

and 5,000 meters), the K120 ski jump (instead of K70), and curling. Freestyle aerials and ballet, as well as speed skiing were the new exhibition events.

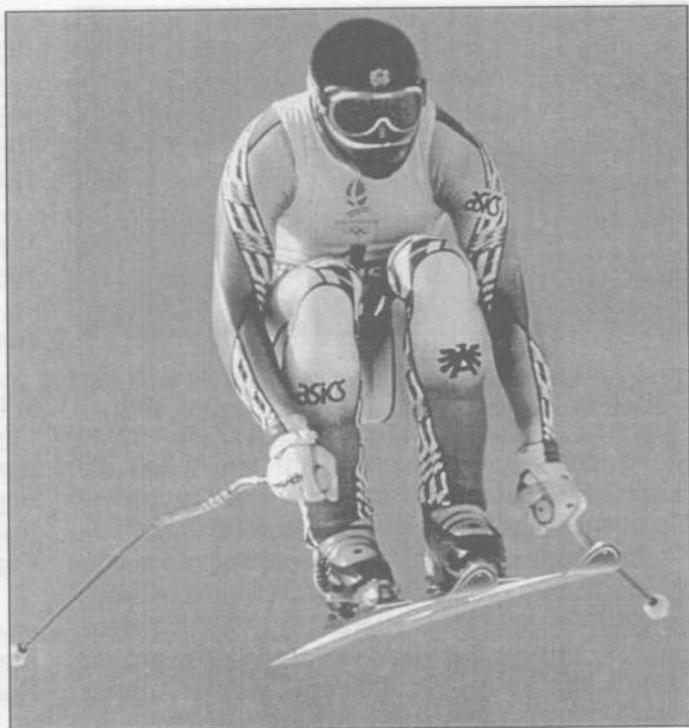
The Games in Albertville proved a rising popularity of winter sports. As compared to Calgary Games, there were 12 more participating nations and 123 more athletes in France. The number of mass media representatives (7,000), a 1.5-times increase on the Calgary figure, was four times the number of athletes. Besides the new sports (short track and freestyle), eleven events were added to the program.

The changes on the political map of the world could not go amiss in the world of sport. Given the fact that GDR and West Germany had received 33 medals (11, 14 and 8, respectively) and 235 points between the two of them in Calgary, experts expected the unified team of Germany to win in the total team count in Albertville.

The XVIth Games came two months after the break up of the USSR. There immediately emerged questions about the Olympic team's status, funding, selection procedures and participation in the Olympics. After protracted negotiations and lengthy discussions it was decided that the Soviet team would compete as the team of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) under the IOC flag. The CIS team did not happen to have adequate funds to make a guarantee payment to the NOC of France for competing in the Games, but ultimately these unforeseen complica-



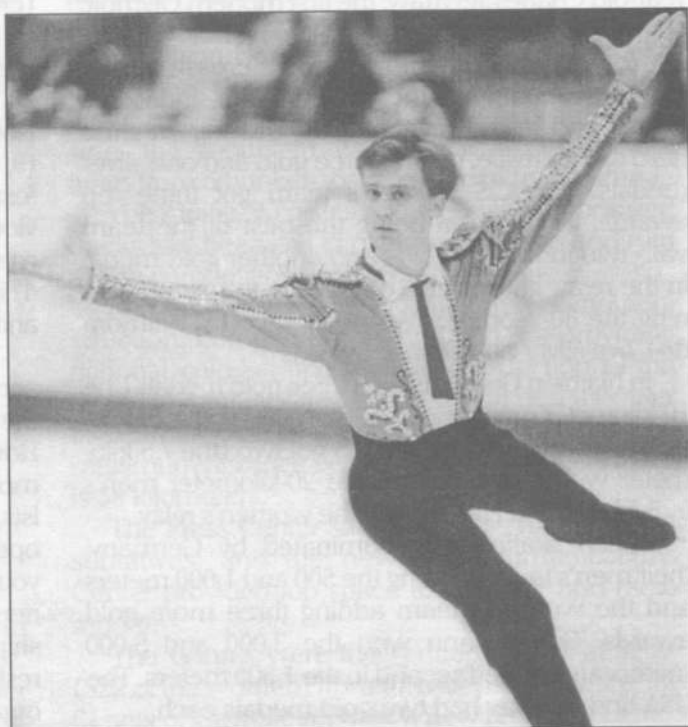
**Vegard Ulvang of Norway won three gold medals at the XVI Winter Olympic Games (Albertville, 1992)**



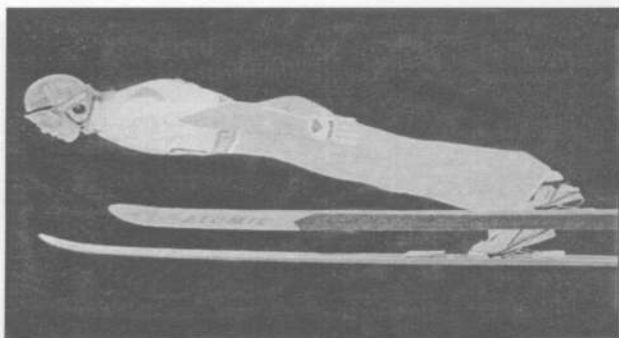
**Patric Ortlieb of Austria, champion of the XVI Olympic Games in the downhill (Albertville, 1992)**



**The young CIS hockey team won the Olympic Games tournament after their best players had left to play for NHL teams (Albertville, 1992)**



**Viktor Petrenko of CIS pulled a surprise victory in men's figure skating singles (Albertville, 1992)**



**Tony Nieminen of Finland won the K120 ski jumping event by a considerable margin (Albertville, 1992)**

tions were successfully resolved, and the former USSR was eligible to take part in the Olympics.

The Games results proved a levelling of force in international competitive sports, 14 nations winning the Olympic gold, whereas in 1988 there were only 11. Athletes from 20 countries won awards in Albertville, as against 17 in Calgary. Among Olympic champions and medalists were athletes from southern nations, which had rarely produced top results in winter sports (the Republic of Korea, Spain, Italy, New Zealand).

Albertville guests of honor were many famous veterans, like the two-time speed skating champion of the 1932 Games J. Shea, 84 years of age. The 95-year-old Charles Jewtraw, the first modern Olympic champion, was unable to come to France.

Norway dominated men's cross-country events, winning all the gold in four individual events and in the relay. Vegard Ulvang was the hero of Albertville, pulling three gold and one silver medals. The CIS women's team got three top awards, L. Yegorova being the best of the team with two individual golds and another gold medal in the relay. Italians also did well in this sport, winning the 30-kilometer women's race (S. Belmondo), five silver and bronze awards.

In biathlon Germans won three gold medals (the 10-kilometer men's race, the men's relay, the 15-kilometer women's race), the CIS got two (the 7.5-kilometer women's race and the 20-kilometer men's individual), and France won the women's relay.

Speed skating was dominated by Germany, their men's team winning the 500 and 1,000 meters and the women's team adding three more gold awards. G. Niemann won the 3,000 and 5,000 meters and placed second in the 1,500 meters. The USA and Norway had two gold medals each.

Ten Alpine ski events were won by Austria (3 gold medals), Italy (3), Norway (2), Sweden (1) and Canada (1), the competition being a face off of the Alpine nations and Norwegians, Swedes and Canadians.

The Republic of Korea got both top awards in the men's short track events.

The CIS won three gold medals in figure skating. In addition to the already traditional success in the pairs and ice dance, V. Petrenko of Ukraine placed first in men's singles.

The two gold awards in men's luge went to Germany, and D. Neuner of Austria got the gold in the women's event.

Switzerland and Austria came first in the two-man and four-man bobs events, respectively.

The hockey competition was an open affair, with the USA, Sweden, Canada and the CIS going through to the semifinals. However, the young and practically unknown CIS players, following the departure of their stars to the NHL, had a comfortable win, beating the USA (5:2) in the semi and Canada (3:1) in the final match.

The Albertville Games produced more surprises and upset results in many events than any of the previous Olympics. In addition to the success of Nordic countries in Alpine skiing and the wins of an Alpine nation (Italy) in cross-country, a big surprise was Austrian four medals out of six awards in ski jumping and the luge gold and silver of sisters Doris and Angela Neuner, also of Austria.

Surprise results were also achieved by France (the women's biathlon relay gold), China (Olympic awards in speed skating), New Zealand and Spain (cross-country).

Germany finished first in the team total with 26 medals (10, 10, 6) and 181 points, the CIS second with 23 medals (9, 6, 8) and 163 points, as expected. Yet Norway's third place, with 139 points and 20 medals (9, 6, 5), was a surprise, since this country had lost its former fame of the winter sports power and had previously had modest results, to wit: 42 points and 5 medals (0, 3, 2) in 1988; 71 points and 9 medals (3, 2, 4) in 1984; 72 points and 10 medals (1, 4, 5) in 1980; and 50.5 points and 7 medals (3, 3, 1) in 1976.

The progress of Norway in previous years can be accounted for primarily by two factors. First, it was the rich winter sports traditions in that country. However, even an excellent material base, the enormous popularity of winter sports, and good specialists, although important, is not sufficient for a developed and logical system of training and preparing young talents. This was clearly shown by their experience in the 1970s and 1980s, when sports leadership of Norway had realized that they would not restore their previous leading positions unless their organizational and methodological approach to Olympic preparation had been overhauled. Arne Murvald, the Norwegian NOC President said they had decided to undertake a major revision of their top athlete preparation methods following the inadequate performance at the 1984 Games.



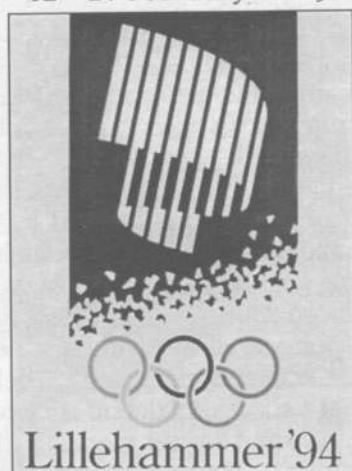
In their search for new ideas Norway turned to the organization and methods employed by East European nations, particularly those of GDR. To start with, they selected a group of the most promising young athletes and, thereafter, concentrated on their full-scale preparation. In the past it had been unacceptable to give a privileged treatment to some athletes to the exclusion of all the other groups. The other deciding factor was that the whole system was designed with one end result in mind — a planned, stage-by-stage preparation for the Olympic Games, whereas in the past training efforts were focused on a success in world championships and World Cup competitions. Another factor was a choice of modern training variants. For instance, prior to the Albertville Games, the Norway cross-country team had been in medium-altitude training at an Alpine camp, 2,000 meters above the sea level.

All the aforementioned factors had accounted for the success of Norway in Albertville and indicated a possible further progress at other major upcoming competitions.

The 1992 Games were the last Winter Olympic Games to be held in the same year as Summer Olympics. The IOC took a decision to separate Winter and Summer Olympic Games, with a two-year interval between them.

## The XVIIth Winter Olympic Games

*(Lillehammer, Norway,  
12—27 February 1994)*



Lillehammer was a second town of Norway to host Winter Olympic Games, following Oslo in 1952.

It was not a particularly challenging task for Norway to organize the Games, given the Norwegian traditions and expertise in hosting international sport events. The famous Holmenkollen cross-country Games, for example, had been held every year on the hills close to Oslo for over 160 years, since 1833. Norway had also hosted World

and European championships, and other winter sports competitions. The 1952 Winter Olympics was also a success.

For Lillehammer, a nice quiet town 170 kilometers north of Oslo, with a population of only 22,000, the win of the Olympic bid in 1988 came much as a surprise. Yet, all the Olympic facilities had been ready eleven months before the Games, and tested by athletes and coaches in a number of internationals. Moreover, all the facilities were so efficient and environment friendly that the IOC had a special praise for it (W.O. Johnson, 1994).

The main Olympic complex in Lillehammer built for the 1994 Games, is made up of two ski jumping hills, tied in with the 50-thousand-seat Stadium for the Opening and Closing ceremonies and the Olympic Park, the freestyle, biathlon and cross-country venues, the Hockey Palace (for 10.5 thousand spectators), and a stadium for award ceremonies.

The Olympic Village was built to accommodate 2,500 nearby the Olympic Stadium.

Ice stadiums for speed skating (10,000 seats) and figure skating and short track competitions (6,000 seats) were built in Hamar, another small town 50 kilometers from Lillehammer. A smaller Olympic Village was built there for participants of events in those sports.

A unique ice arena was built inside a mountain ("Mountain Hall") for hockey games in Gjøvik, not far from Lillehammer. The Hall also contained stands for spectators and a swimming pool. It cost 134.7 million Norske Krona (\$20 million) to build this arena (10,200 square meters) and 141,000 cubic meters of rock to excavate. From the outside, the mountain was practically unscathed, apart from a bunker-shape entrance to the arena.

The Alpine ski pistes and the luge and bobsled tracks had been laid in picturesque areas and met all the competition requirements.

Remarkably, the Norwegian architect and construction companies, in addition to providing national coloring and technical perfection to the Olympic sport facilities, ensured their best use after the Games, both by athletes and by amateurs. The maximum distance between the Olympic facilities is 58 kilometers.

The Press Center sat 5,000 mass media representatives, and the new Telecommunications Center provided job space to 4,000 TV and radio reporters.

The Games were the venue of 1,737 athletes (522 of the women) from 67 nations competing for 61 sets of Olympic medals, a new record of participation. The increase was mainly a result of political changes in Europe. Ukraine, Byelorussia, Kazakhstan, the Czech Republic, Slovakia and a number of other countries sent their national teams for the first time as independent nations.

The Olympic program contained 61 events in 12 sports: Alpine skiing (10), Nordic combined (2), cross-country (10), ski jumping (3), freestyle, with aerials and mogul (4), biathlon (6), figure skating (4), speed skating (10), short track (6), luge (3), bobsled (2), hockey (1).

The largest were the delegations of the USA (147 members, including 52 women), Russia — 113 (38), Germany — 112 (33), Italy — 103 (26), Canada — 95 (29). Brazil, Cyprus, Israel and Luxembourg sent one athlete each. The biggest field was in hockey (257 athletes) and Alpine skiing (250), the least — in Nordic combined (53) (Table 15).

The Games were hugely popular with international mass media, as well as with major politicians and statesmen from many countries, who not only supported their national teams, but also visited Lillehammer. The sports arenas were filled up an average 88% of their capacity, with 1.4 million tickets sold and some 500,000 spectators watching cross-country events along the track.

Prior to the Lillehammer Games the world press was full of prognostications as to both winners in various events and in the team total count.

Only two years elapsed since the Albertville Olympics, so many experts thought the 1992 champions had the best chances in Lillehammer as well. However, the 1993 world championships proved that there might be quite a few surprises at the 1994 Games. In terms of the team count chances, the 1992–93 record indicated that Norway was a clear favorite, having made a remarkable comeback to the leading position in the world of winter sports, which they used to enjoy until 1956, when they were demoted first by the USSR coming on to the

international sports arena, and by GDR later on. It was difficult to predict the chances of the former USSR republics, Russia above all. Given the collapse of the state sports system that had underpaid the USSR Olympic victories in the past, many specialists were skeptical about the chances of Russia, to say nothing of Ukraine, Byelarus, Kazakhstan and other countries (P. Hersch, 1994). There were also mixed opinions as to the chances of Germany, Italy, the USA, the Peoples' Democratic Republic of Korea, South Korea, Finland, Sweden, and the Netherlands, depending on the analysis of the current situation in winter sports in those countries.

In reality, however, the Games in Lillehammer sprang more surprises than might have been expected, both individually and in the team count. Thus, Russia performance surpassed the most optimistic bets. Russian athletes won 23 medals (11 gold, 8 silver and 4 bronze), whereas experts thought they could not get more than 15–18 awards and more than 5–7 gold medals. Norway got less gold (10), but beat Russia in the silver (11) and bronze (5), outpacing Russia by four points in the team total (176 and 172 points, respectively). Germany placed third with 24 medals (9, 7 and 8, respectively) and 161 points.

Italy got an unexpectedly great haul of awards — 20 medals (7 gold, 5 silver and 8 bronze) and 133 points, considerably more than in 1992. The Republic of Korea also made a huge progress, winning four gold, one silver and one bronze medals. Conversely, France and Finland produced an upset, missing the Olympic gold, whereas in Albertville they got three gold medals each.

Analyzing the results of the Lillehammer Games, many reporters asked what could have been the team standings, had the former USSR athletes competed as one team. Unbelievably, such a team would have received 31 medals (14, 12 and 5, respectively) and 247 points.

NOCs of 67 nations participated in the XVIIth Winter Olympic Games, 22 of them winning awards and 14 getting gold medals. Romania got only one point and placed 28th, the other 39 countries failed to score any points at all. In this contest the results of Kazakhstan, Ukraine, Byelarus and Uzbekistan can be considered a successful debut. Their record was 24 points (1 gold and 2 silver medals), 18 points (1 gold and 1 bronze), 21 points (2 silver medals) and 7 points (1 gold medal), respectively.

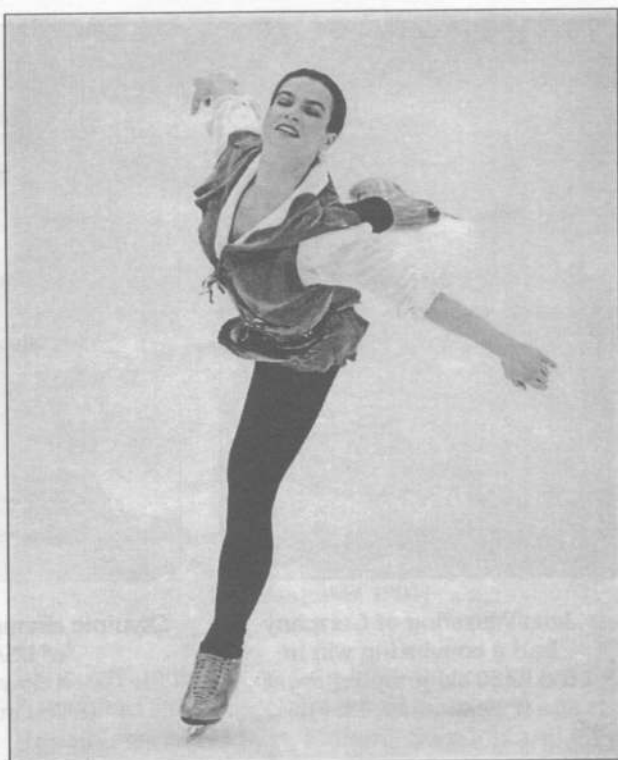
Sixty one set of awards were there to win in Lillehammer, five more than at the Albertville Games. Of the 57 events, which were held at the Olympic Games of 1992 and 1994, only six athletes had a repeat of their Albertville success in nine events (15.8% of the total). Even the best bets, three-time Olympic champions A. Tomba of Italy (Alpine skiing) and V. Ulvang of Norway (cross-

**Table 15**  
**Participants of the XVII Winter Olympic**  
**Games in Lillehammer (1994)**

Sport event	Participants		Total participants
	Men	Woman	
Biathlon	99	94	193
Bobsled	154	—	154
Alpine skiing	140	110	250
Speed skating	89	61	150
Nordic skiing	117	80	197
Nordic combined	53	—	53
Ski jumping	68	—	68
Luge	67	25	92
Figure skating	63	66	129
Freestyle	52	45	97
Ice hockey	267	—	267
Short track	46	41	87
<b>Total</b>	<b>1215</b>	<b>522</b>	<b>1737</b>



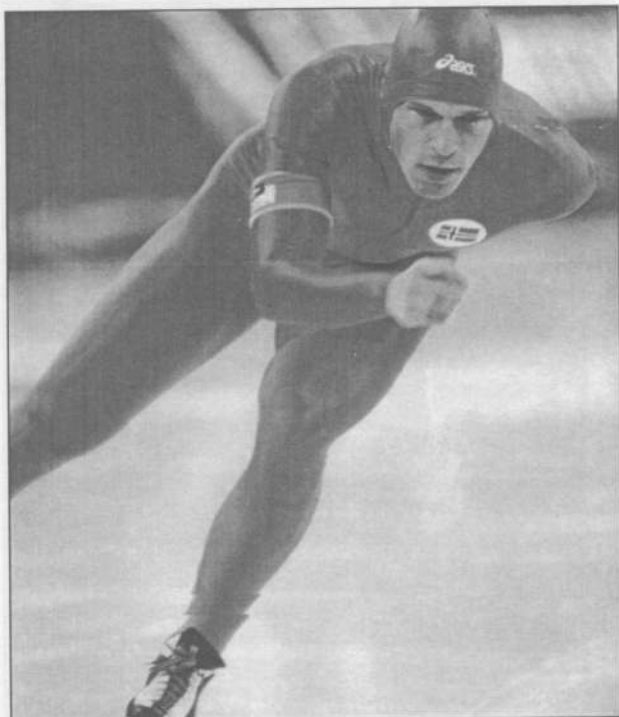
**Oksana Baiul of Ukraine won Women's singles in figure skating, after a tough competition with Nancy Carrigan (Lillehammer, 1994)**



**Katarina Wit of Germany, winner of the 1988 and 1992 Olympic Games, had to contend with the seventh spot in Lillehammer (Albertville, 1992; Lillehammer, 1994)**



**Dan Jansen of USA came fourth in the 500 meters in Albertville, but won the 1,000-meter gold medal (Lillehammer, 1994)**

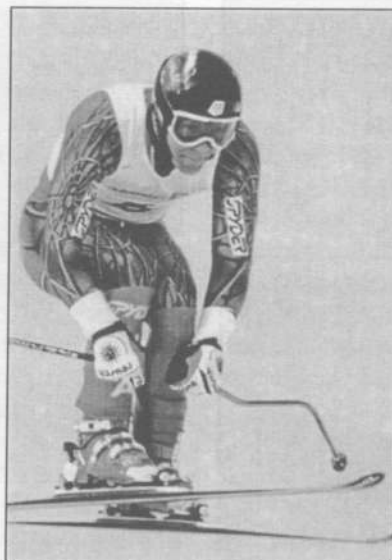


**Juhann-Olav Koss of Norway added three gold medals in Lillehammer (1,500; 5,000 and 10,000 meters) to the 1,500-meter Olympic gold medal he had won in Albertville (Albertville, 1992; Lillehammer, 1994)**





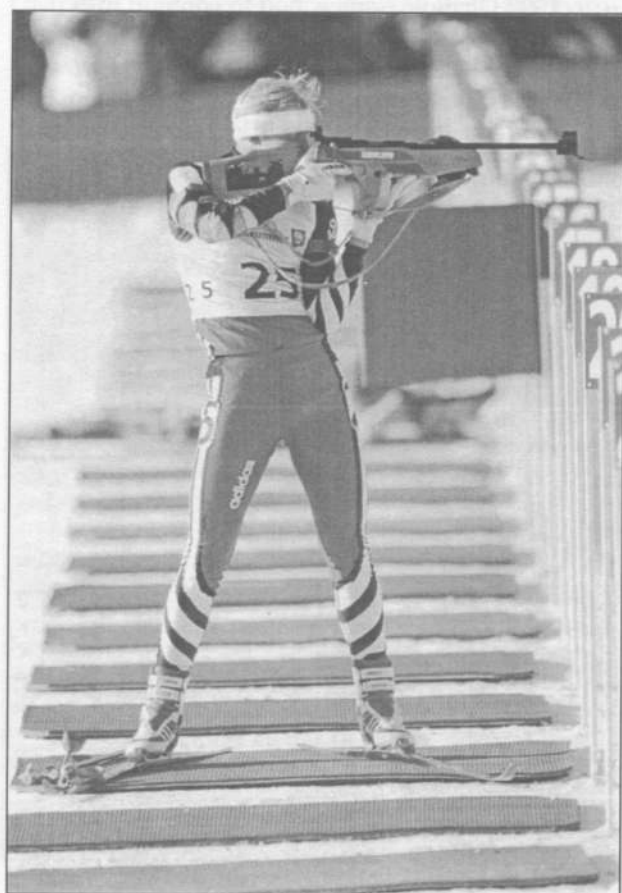
**Jens Weissflog of Germany**  
had a convincing win in  
the K120 ski jumping event  
(Lillehammer, 1994)



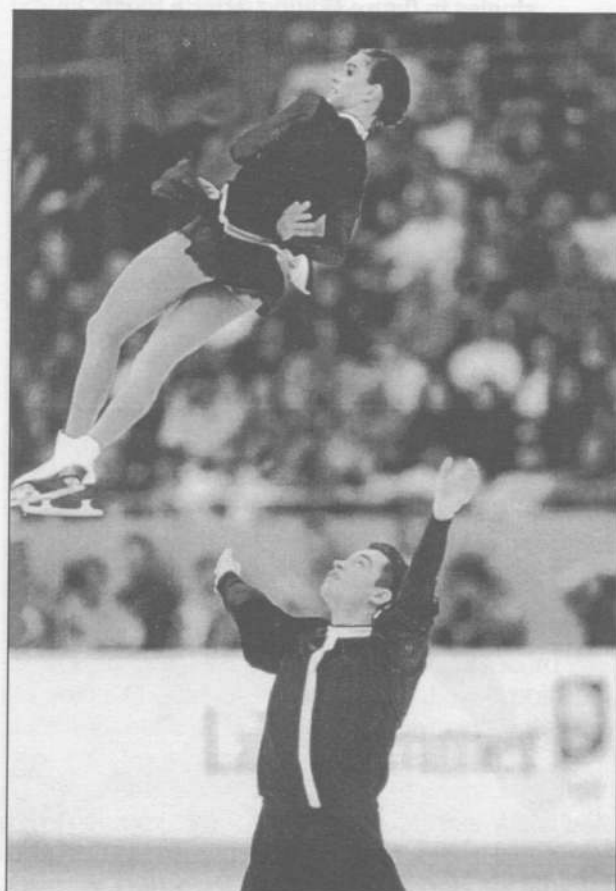
**Olympic champion Tommy Moe**  
of USA during  
a downhill run  
(Lillehammer, 1994)



**The outstanding**  
**Liubov Yegorova**  
of Russia  
(Lillehammer, 1994)



**Sergey Tchepikov of Russia, winner**  
of the 10-kilometer biathlon race  
(Lillehammer, 1994)



**Ekaterina Gordeyeva and Sergey Grinkov**  
of Russia, champions of the XVII Winter Olympic  
Games in the pairs (Lillehammer, 1994)

country), failed to get another Olympic gold in Lillehammer. This is perhaps the best proof of the tough competition in modern Olympic sport.

The highlight of speed skating was the three triumphs of J.-O. Koss of Norway (1,500, 5,000 and 10,000 meters), winner of the 5,000-meter event in Albertville.

The women's team of Germany contended with one speed skating gold only, whereas in Albertville their haul was three top awards. In Lillehammer gold medals were won by the USA (2), Austria and Russia (one each).

The cross-country gold was shared in a stiff competition by Russia, Norway, Italy and Kazakhstan. Italian men' team had an unexpected but deserved win in the 4 x 10-kilometer relay, beating Norwegians, the favorites, by a mere 0.4 second. Finland came third, losing more than a minute to Norway, and fourth-placed Germany lost over three minutes. The everlasting L. Yegorova of Russia got three gold medals in the 5 and 10-kilometer individual events and in the 4 x 5-kilometer relay.

V. Smirnov of Kazakhstan had a convincing victory in the 50-kilometer marathon, who outpaced the opposition long before the finishing line, the second finisher coming almost 1.5 minutes later. The 30-year-old champion got two silver medals (10 and 15 kilometers) before the marathon, and,



**Italy beat Norway by a mere 0.4 seconds to win the dramatic final of the 4x10-kilometer relay (Lillehammer, 1994)**



**Markus Wessmayer of Germany, winner of two gold medals in Alpine skiing (Lillehammer, 1994)**

although getting ready as best he could for the event, had little expectations in the struggle against the athletes of Norway, Finland, Sweden and Italy. Explaining his apprehensions, V. Smirnov said, "I have run the marathon fifteen times, and at best finished seventh. After the 42nd kilometer my legs would give in, and I had practically been incapacitated thereafter".

M. Bedard of Canada put an end to the monopoly of Germany and Russia in biathlon and won the 15-kilometer race. But Germany and Russia, with superb skiing and shooting results, pulled the rest of gold in biathlon events, the largest winning margin being that of the Russian women's relay team who beat Germany by almost four minutes.

Norway made a big progress in ski jumping, winning the two top awards in the K90 event, a marked increase on their Albertville results, where they had been nowhere near the medal platform. Germany placed first in the K120, both in the individual and team jumps, whereas Finland and Austria, hot favorites in Albertville, fared much worse in Lillehammer.

In Alpine skiing Germany and the USA, who had not gotten gold in Albertville, joined the fray in Lillehammer and won two gold medals each. The rest of the Alpine awards went to the nations which had traditionally been strong in this sport.

Norway, winner of three gold, three silver and a bronze medals at the 1993 Alpine Ski World Championships, could have done better in Lillehammer, and Austria had a setback after the departure from sport of the famous Petra Kronberger, 23-year-old twice champion of the 1992 Games, and the tragic incidents of two of their outstanding Alpine athletes.

Freestyle, the new Olympic event, practiced in many countries, was a very close affair in Lilleham-

mer, particularly due to strong pressure from the republics of the former USSR with their old traditions in acrobatics and trampoline jumping. L. Tcheryazova of Uzbekistan won the gold in aerials, and S. Schoupletsov and E. Kojevnikova of Russia got the silver and bronze in mogul. It should be noted that Kojevnikova clocked the best time and made no mistakes, so the majority of specialists thought she would be declared champion, but the judges disagreed. The top mogul awards went to J. Brassard of Canada and S. Hattestad of Norway.

A. Schoenbaechler of Switzerland got the gold in men's aerials.

In bobsled the main contenders were Germany and Switzerland, the Swiss winning both top medals in the two-man and a silver in the four-man events, while Germans got the gold and bronze in the four-man bobsled. It was the struggle of the equals, the difference between gold and silver medalists in the two-man event being just 0.05 second, and 0.06 second in the four-man event. Switzerland four was hot favorite, but their pilot, the two-times Olympic champion in the two-man event G. Weder, made a few mistakes in the first run and the Swiss placed fourth, unable to make up for the time lost, although in every one of the rest three runs they came first.

Italy was a huge success in luge, winning two gold (women's single and men's two-seater events) and one silver medals. G. Weissensteiner, fourth-placed in women's single luge Albertville, came first in Lillehammer; K. Brugger and W. Hyber, winners in the two-seater event, had placed fifth at the 1992 Games. G. Hackle of Germany, Albertville champion in the men's single, had another success at the XVIth Winter Games in Lillehammer. Commenting on his win, he said: "Markus Prokk, my main opponent from Austria, deserved the gold more, because he had been Number One this season".

The competition in figure skating singles was expected to be very stiff, since many champions, who had turned professionals (B. Boitano of the USA, K. Wit of Germany, V. Petrenko of Ukraine) also arrived to compete in Lillehammer. But they failed this time in the standoff with their younger adversaries: B. Boitano placed sixth, V. Petrenko fourth, and K. Witt did even worse. This was another proof that the level of skills in Olympic figure skating was definitely higher than that of professional sports. Women's single event was the highlight of the figure skating competition, tough struggle between N. Carrigan of the USA and O. Baiul of Ukraine being compounded by injuries, mass media agitation, commercial and political factors. The sixteen-year-old O. Baiul came on top, the first of the former USSR athletes to win this event and the youngest Olympic champion after S. Henie, who had won at the 1928 Games.

The team of the NOC of Ukraine included 37 athletes in ten of the twelve Olympic Winter sports, who competed in 32 events of the 61-event program.

In addition to the gold medal of O. Baiul, Ukraine had another award, a bronze medal won by V. Tserbe in the women's 7.5-kilometer biathlon race. The team total of Ukraine rose due to several Ukrainian athletes making the top six in some Olympic events. Thus, V. Petrenko placed fourth in figure skating; N. Sherstnyeva came fifth in freestyle aerials; the women's biathlon team also finished fifth in the 4 x 7.5-kilometer relay (Y. Petrova, M. Skolota, Y. Ogurtsova, and V. Tserbe).

The strategy of the Republic of Korea proved right, when they decided to concentrate on short track, a young Olympic sport, practiced as yet by few nations. Koreans won four gold medals in short track events and joined the leading Olympic nations in the team total count. Korean Chae Ji Hoon even won 500 meters, the only short track event, where the favorite was a non-Korean, M. Vullermin of Italy, who had set the world record and had dominated this event in major international competitions over the previous two years.

For lack of qualified players, over 100 of their stars having moved to the NHL in the two years after Albertville, Russia was no match for the best teams in the Olympic hockey competition. Sweden beat Canada in a fiercely competitive final match on bullet shots, failing to decide the outcome in extra time.

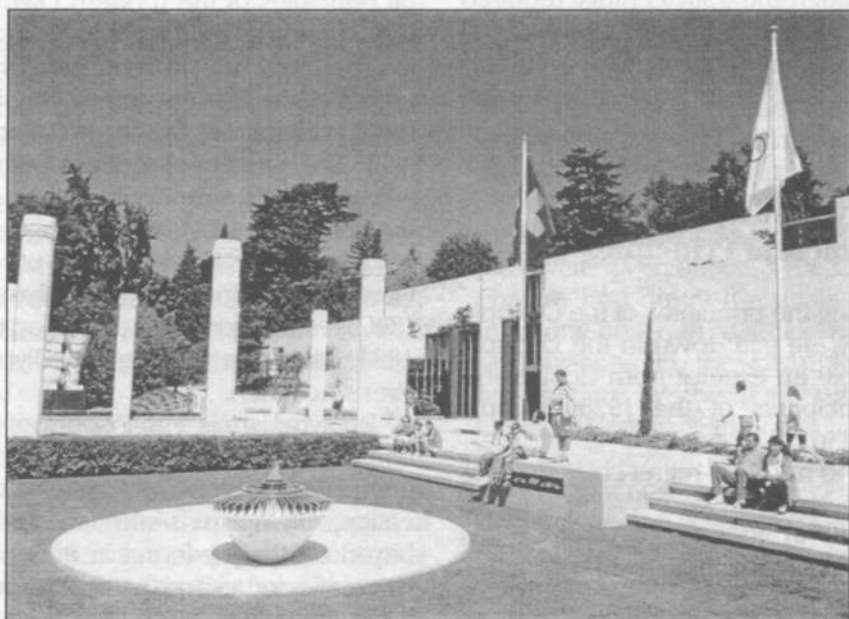
The XVIIth Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer made a significant contribution in the struggle for peace. Speaking in Lillehammer on behalf of the International Olympic Committee, the IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch called to stop hostilities all around the world for the duration of the Olympic Games. This appeal and the moral and material support of residents of the war-torn Bosnian capital Sarajevo (the venue of the 1984 Winter Olympic Games) was favorably received by the world community. Several Olympic champions (including J.-O. Koss of Norway) had sent their cash prizes to the Sarajevo Help Fund to alleviate the tribulations of the population of the besieged city.

The XVIIth Winter Olympics were a success, both in terms of organization and sport achievements. More than ever before, the Games had an atmosphere of mutual understanding, cooperation, good will and objectivity, with a close interface of the Olympic sport interests, culture, peaceful coexistence and environment protection. All of these factors allowed the IOC President J. Samaranch in his speech at the Closing Ceremony to declare the Lillehammer Olympics to be the best Games in the 70 years of Winter Olympic history.



## Section Three

# The International Sport System



## OLYMPIC SPORTS GUIDELINES, STRUCTURES AND PRINCIPLES

Olympic sports principles, structure and guidelines developed by Pierre de Coubertin and his associates at the end of the last century, are mostly valid until now, which bears testimony of their being reasonable and age-proof. Naturally, world developments through the 19th century required continuous improvements in the international Olympic system to make it compatible with current realities of life and of the top achievement sports proper.

### Olympic Sports Fundamental Principles

Before discussing the principles of the Olympic movement as they are laid down in the Olympic Charter, let us quote an excerpt from Coubertin's letter to the participants of the 1928 Olympic Games in Amsterdam:

"Due to illness, to my great regret I have to miss the pleasure of being with you. When the Xth Olympics are held in four years time in Los Angeles, I will probably be unable to attend, either. So it is my good-bye letter to you.

I appeal to you to keep the flame of the reborn Olympism and to defend its principles and institutions:

- ☐ above all, the equality of the principle sports;
- ☐ artistic contests, which add to the perfect physical activities mind creations, saturated with sports;
- ☐ the athletes' oath, which being founded on the feeling of honesty, contains the beginnings of the only plausible way to effectively resolve the amateurism problem;
- ☐ the Olympic flag, which reflects the colors of all nations and symbolizes the five parts of the world, united by sports;
- ☐ the Games opening and closing ceremony and rituals with the final acts of worshipping Hellenism, which gave rise to the Olympic Games;
- ☐ and, finally, the authority of the IOC.

Let me thank once again those who followed my lead and consistently assisted me in the cause, which I have served for over forty years now, overcoming obstacles and opposition".

As we see, the letter lays down the fundamental principles of the modern Olympic movement, which were so dear to its founding father.

The new version of the Olympic Charter, approved in 1990, specifies the following seven basic principles of the Olympic movement:

1. The concept of modern Olympism was conceived by Pierre de Coubertin, on whose initiative the International Athletic Congress of Paris was held in June 1894 with a view of reviving Olympic Games. The International Olympic Committee (IOC), which constituted itself on the 23rd of June 1894, has been running the Olympic movement ever since then.

2. Olympism is a philosophy of life, which combines body, will and mind together to form one balanced whole. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy found in effort, the educational value of good examples and respect for universal ethical principles.

3. The goal of Olympism is an omnipresent use of sports to facilitate a harmonious development of man in order to assist the establishment of a world community concerned with the preservation of human dignity.

4. The Olympic movement, led by the IOC, stems from in modern Olympism. Under the supreme authority of the IOC, the Olympic movement encompasses organizations, athletes and other persons who agree to be guided by the Olympic Charter.

The criterion for belonging to the Olympic movement is recognition by the International Olympic Committee.

5. The Olympic movement goal is to contribute to building a peaceful and better world by educating youth through sport practiced without discrim-

ination of any kind and in the Olympic spirit, which requires mutual understanding with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play.

6. The Olympic movement activity is permanent and universal. It reaches its peak with the bringing together of the athletes of the world at the greatest sport festival, the Olympic Games.

7. The Olympic Charter is the codification of the Fundamental Principles, Rules and Bye-laws adopted by the IOC. It governs the organization and operation of the Olympic movement and stipulates the conditions for the celebration of the Olympic Games.

The fundamental principles of the Olympic movement give rise to a close association of Olympism with upbringing, education and harmonious development of man. It is to this aspect that Coubertin pointed when he said that "Olympism is not a system, but rather a mindset, which can permeate various forms of upbringing, so that no single race or epoch can claim monopolizing it totally", and the Olympic Games, held every four years, are a happy occasion to demonstrate to the world the educational basis of the Olympic idea. Coubertin believed that social progress was a movement towards humanism, brought on by the impact of a multi-faceted education on human consciousness. This process was greatly dependent on sports, which, along with ethical, international, patriotic education, more initiative and better health, facilitated the development of man within the framework of his spiritual, physical and social activities.

One can emphasize the following principal ideas in the modern concept of Olympism:

1. *The political idea*: common and peaceful coexistence of all nations of the world, support of the international anti war movement. The aspiration of Coubertin to put the Olympic idea of a peaceful communication of people above all conflicts and controversies among states comes true more and more often. This can be proved by the conduct and the results of the previous two Olympics in Seoul and Barcelona.

2. *The humanitarian idea*: equality among people. To convince people, by means of the Olympic movement, of the need to overcome contradictions caused by the differences of caste, nationality, race or ownership. This unites Olympism with progressive forces of the world.

3. *The philosophical and educational idea*: on the basis of advantages of sports-and-games method of upbringing and education, to ensure a free and comprehensive development of intellectual, moral and physical features of an individual, to tie in sports with activities in other areas of social life. This idea is grounded on the striving of man for

perfection of one's individual traits, to the best possible development of one's abilities and to the record achievements.

## **The Olympic Charter as the Basic Legal Document of the Olympic Sports**

The Olympic Charter of the IOC is the codification of rules and bye-laws which defines the fundamental principles of the Olympic movement and describes the whole system of management of the Olympic sport.

The Olympic Charter was conceived by Coubertin and approved by the First Olympic Congress of 1894. The Charter is continuously amended, upgraded, with new bye-laws added to it.

The latest version of the Olympic Charter was adopted by the 96th Session of the IOC in Tokyo in 1990. It is made up of the "Fundamental Principles" and of five chapters: I — "The Olympic Movement", II — "The International Olympic Committee", III — "The International Federations", IV — "The National Olympic Committees", and V — "The Olympic Games".

The characteristics of the fundamental principles were given above. "The Olympic Movement" chapter lays down the goals, describes the IOC functions and role, defines membership of sport organizations in the Olympic movement, their recognition by the IOC, the structure of the Olympic Congress, the objectives of the "Olympic Solidarity" program, specifies the definition of the terms "Olympic Games" and "Olympiad", the rights over the Olympic Games, explains the notions of "Olympic symbol", "Olympic flag", "Olympic motto", "Olympic emblem", "Olympic anthem", "Olympic flame", "Olympic torch" and the rights over those.

"The International Olympic Committee" chapter treats of its legal status, members including recruitment to the IOC, the obligations of its members, its organizational structure — the IOC bodies (sessions, the Executive Board, the President), measures and sanctions which may be taken by the Session or the Executive Board, the IOC resources and procedures.

"The International Federations" chapter describes the role of IFs in the Olympic movement, and the conditions of their recognition by the IOC.

The data on the mission and role of the NOCs, their composition, names, and attributes are given in Chapter IV, "The National Olympic Committees".

"The Olympic Games" chapter contains four sections: "Organization and Administration of the



Olympic Games". "Participation in the Olympic Games", "Program of the Olympic Games", and "Protocol".

The section "Organization and Administration of the Olympic Games" explains the principles of the Games organization and staging, and the election of host cities. Much attention is paid to the structure of the Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games (OCOG), the liaison between the NOC and the OCOG, conditions of accommodating athletes and officials of every NOC delegation at the Olympic Village. Special emphasis is on the conditions provided for the IFs governing sports included in the Olympic Games program, as well as on the requirements to the cultural program covering the entire period when the Olympic Village is open.

The section "Participation in the Olympic Games" concentrates on the Eligibility Code, nationality of participants and their age. The procedure is described for the NOC to submit entry applications for participation in the Games. The Medical Code is also provided, which envisages prohibition of doping, provides the list of prohibited medicaments and procedures, defines sanctions to be applied in the event of a violation of the Medical Code.

The section "Program of the Olympic Games" is quite large. Its main components are the admission of sports disciplines and events in the program, and its changes. The rules are specified for IFs to organize qualifying events in various sports, as well as for the OCOG to hold pre-Games events, the issues related to the Games schedule, technical control of competition venues, accommodation of IF representatives. The IF rights and obligations during the Games are spelled out in more detail. There is a list of issues for the IFs and NOCs which require the approval of the IOC Executive Board (such as daily timetables, itineraries of events outside the Olympic venues, training facilities, technical equipment at the venues, etc. Besides, the section contains materials concerning the media coverage of the Games, the IOC publications dealing with the propaganda and advertising of the Olympic Games, commercial advertising and licensing by the OCOG before the Olympic Games.

The protocol issues (invitations, Olympic identity cards, accreditation cards and their types, access privileges for the officials of the IOC, IFs, NOCs and guests of honor, the use of the Olympic flame, the award ceremony, opening and closing ceremonies) are dealt with in Section Four of the "Protocol".

The Olympic Charter proclaims that compliance with its principles is obligatory for any person

or organization, associated with the Olympic Movement.

## **The General Structure of the International Olympic System**

The international Olympic system includes the IOC, the IFs, the NOCs, the OCOGs and regional Olympic committees, national associations, clubs and persons associated with them, particularly athletes. Besides, other organizations, which assist the Olympic movement and are recognized by the IOC, are also part of the Olympic system.

According to the Charter, the IOC can recognize not only NOCs or organizations acting in such capacity and IFs, but also other organizations created to assist the Olympic movement and operating in conformity with the Olympic Charter. These can be various associations of NOCs and IFs, as well as different NGOs, which are connected with sports and operate internationally.

Over the whole period of development of the modern Olympic movement, the international Olympic system has acquired a complex multi-tiered structure, which includes many different organizations performing specific functions in the system of Olympic sports. Two lines of activities stand out in the structure, with their own particular functions. The first one deals with the activities of Olympic committees or other organizations acting in this capacity on all tiers of Olympic sport organization. The other line is associated with the activities of sport federations of all levels.

Thus, it is merely a most general scheme characterizing the international Olympic system. In practice, the situation in Olympic sport is much more complex. Firstly, the Olympic system with its structure and functions is part of the international organized system. The Olympic system is connected with it through common interests, its scope of activity overlapping the activity of various international organizations, the UN, UNESCO, multinational corporations, intergovernmental organizations. Interaction with those bodies, the international Olympic system appropriately reacts to the developed (or developing) political situation, to strengthen the international Olympic system organizationally, materially, technically and financially. Secondly, the continuously developing system of modern sports facilitates the expansion of the area where they are practiced, the emergence of new sports, disciplines and new sport organizations.

Of special significance are peculiarities of sports development in various regions of the world, particularly as concerns the specific features of especially popular sport events.



**The building of the International Olympic Committee in Lausanne, Switzerland**

## **THE INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE (IOC) AND FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF ITS OPERATION**

The International Olympic Committee is the supreme authority of the Olympic movement, which possesses all the rights over the Olympic Games. Established at the Olympic Congress in Paris on the 23rd June 1894, the IOC is a permanently operating international non-governmental not-for-profit organization in the form of an association, with the status of a legal entity and of unlimited duration.

### **The IOC Headquarters**

The IOC Headquarters has been set up in Place du Palais, Lausanne since 1915. Why did Pierre de Coubertin choose this particular city?

In 1894, the year the IOC was established, a rule was introduced according to which the IOC head office must be in the capital of the upcoming Olympic Games for a period of four years. The Games of 1916 were to be hosted by Germany, but Baron Godfroix de Blonet, the long-time associate of Coubertin, IOC member since 1908 and the proponent of establishing the Swiss Olympic Committee, resided in the neutral Switzerland. This prominent scientist-Egyptologist, who owned a vast estate near Lausanne, offered his assistance to Coubertin in safe keeping the IOC archives for the duration of the Great War. Later on, when the IOC President, a real patriot, went to do battle as a soldier, de Blonet, on Coubertin's recommendation, took over his office. That is how the IOC HQ came to be situated in Lausanne. Coubertin set up the Olympic Institute and the International Sport Pedagogy Bureau in 1916 there. And in 1918 he

moved to Lausanne, where he lived and worked at the Mon-Repot villa, rented to the IOC by the local municipality.

In April 1968 the municipality of Lausanne made it possible for the IOC to move to Chatot-de-Vidit castle. But no IOC President after Coubertin chose to stay permanently in Lausanne. Following his election in 1980, President H. A. Samaranch moved to Lausanne and greatly expanded the scope of the IOC activities. The city administration had granted the IOC the right to construct a new building, which was completed in 1986.

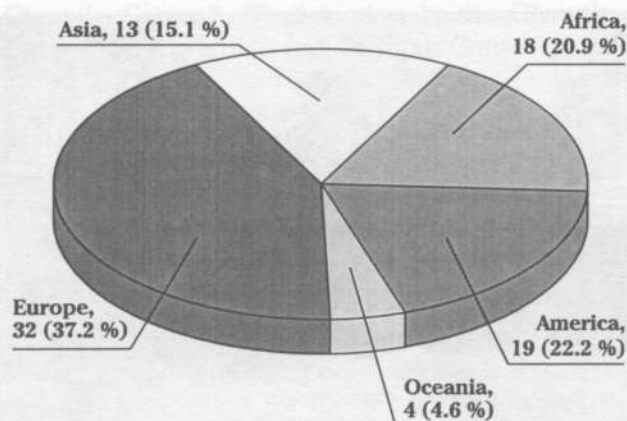
In the 1980's the relations of the Lausanne municipality and the IOC took on a new status. The Federal Council of Switzerland recognized the IOC as a legal entity on the territory of that country, and later on granted the IOC the status of an international organization. The agreement, stipulating their interaction, was signed in February 1983.

The IOC started to pay more attention to computer equipment and automating its operations. Thus, in 1991, the most sophisticated information processing equipment was mounted in the IOC headquarters, with over 50 job places of its staff being hooked in to the master computer, which greatly simplifies processing of letters, telegrams, information and documents. The system includes a database containing over 13,000 addresses and 200,000 files. The electronic memory keeps reports of information agencies, NOCs, IFs, other organizations, and the texts of adopted resolutions and enactments.

### **The IOC Goals and Objectives**

In accordance with the Olympic Charter, the IOC is called upon:

- to encourage the coordination, organization and development of sport and sports competition;



**Fig. 3. IOC membership of countries from different continents**

- to collaborate with the competent public or private organizations and authorities in the endeavor to place sport at the service of humanity;
- to ensure the regular celebration of the Olympic Games;
- to fight against any form of discrimination affecting the Olympic Movement;
- to support and encourage the promotion of sports ethics;
- to dedicate its efforts to ensuring that in sports the spirit of fair play prevails and violence is banned;
- to lead the fight against doping in sports;
- to take measures the goal of which is to prevent endangering the health of athletes;
- to oppose any political or commercial abuse of sport or athletes;
- to see to it that the Olympic Games are held in conditions which demonstrate a responsible concern for environmental issues;
- to support the International Olympic Academy (IOA);
- to support other institutions which devote themselves to Olympic education.

### **IOC Membership and Recruitment**

The IOC chooses and elects its members from among such persons as it considers qualified. They must be nationals of a country in which they have their domicile on their main center of interests and in which there is an NOC recognized by the IOC. Furthermore, such persons must speak at least one of the languages used at IOC Sessions (French, English).

There cannot be more than one member elected in a country. The IOC may, however, elect a second member in countries in which either the

Games of the Olympiad or the Olympic Winter Games have been held. In accordance with the Charter, the IOC may elect new members "from among the most deserving lovers of sports". The principle of self-containment is to ensure a complete independence of the IOC. A similar structure was used at the International Red Cross Committee, drawing on the examples of the structure of Catholic Church, the Maltese Knights Order and Académie Française.

Members of the IOC are its representatives in their respective countries and not delegates of their countries within the IOC. They may not accept from governments, organizations, or other legal entities or natural persons, any mandate liable to bind them or interfere with the freedom of their action and vote. Coubertin maintained that in this way the Olympic idea would be protected against pressures from the state apparatus, and national interests would comply with the general principles.

Of special interest in the developments of the 1980's, no doubt, was election of seven women members of the IOC: Pirjo Haggman of Finland, Flor Isava-Fonseca of Venezuela, Mary Ellison Glen-Hang of the UK, Princess Nora von Liechtenstein of Liechtenstein, Anita Defrantz of the USA, Carol Anne Letheren of Canada, Princess Ann of England, and Vera Caslavskaja of the Czech Republic. Except for Nora von Liechtenstein, they had all participated in the Olympic Games.

The IOC election procedure has been a point of controversy for over 30 years now. As was mentioned above, it was the IOC itself that chooses and elects its members from among such persons as it considers qualified to do the job. As of January 1, 1994 the IOC had recognized 195 NOCs and 31 IFs governing Olympic sports. Among the IOC members, though, there were representatives of only 79 countries (40%) and of 7 IFs (23%).

As of the 1st of January 1997, the IOC will have elected 414 persons as IOC members since its establishment. To date IOC members include 111 persons who represent 86 countries.

It should be mentioned that the number of IOC members has significantly increased of late. For instance, in the 1950's and 60's there had been 64 — 67 IOC members, then this number rose to 90 in the late 1980's and reached 111 in 1997.

Currently the modern Olympic movement has a marked tendency of a declining representation of European nations in the IOC. At the beginning of this century (1900 — 1910), they constituted over 80% of the IOC members. Their number reached 88% in 1920, and then started to shrink: 62.5% in 1930, 60.9% in 1940, 60.0% in 1950, 42.6% in 1980 and 37.2 % in 1997 (Fig. 3).



The IOC election system is coming under severe criticism from many NOCs, IFs and other organizations which are not represented in the IOC. At various times in the past there had been tough statements made on this issue by state leaders like President of Finland Ukho Kekkonen, Fidel Castro of Cuba and some others.

There was a heated discussion in the late 1970's of the proposals by M. Herzog of France to change over from co-opting IOC members to electing them and also to make women eligible to be elected. The latter proposal was accepted, whereas the former one was not.

Many leaders of the Olympic movement account for the success of the IOC over 100 years by the elitist structure of the IOC and its co-optation system. And, although this cast a shadow on the ideals acceptable for different socio-economic and political systems, nations, classes, races and religions, this IOC peculiarity seems convincing enough, as it has helped achieve good results.

### **Obligations of the IOC Members**

Apart from participating in IOC Sessions, each IOC member has the following obligations:

- to ensure the representation of the IOC in his country;
- to participate in the work of the IOC Commissions to which he has been appointed;
- to help in the development of the Olympic Movement in his country;
- to follow, at local level, the implementation of the IOC's programs, including those of Olympic Solidarity;
- to inform the IOC President, at least once a year, of the development of the Olympic Movement and its needs in his country;
- to inform the IOC President, without delay, of all events liable to hinder the application in his country of the Olympic Charter or otherwise affect the Olympic Movement, whether occurring within the NOC or outside it;
- to perform other tasks assigned to him by the President, including, when needed, the representation of the IOC in any other country or territory.

The Olympic Charter also states that "Any member having served the IOC at least ten years and who retires due to age, health or any other reason accepted by the IOC Board, shall become an honorary member". Such members may continue his activities on behalf of the IOC. Their status remains unchanged, except that they shall no longer have the right to vote; they are invited to attend the Olympic Games, Olympic Congresses and IOC Sessions.

### **The IOC Organization and Bodies**

The main bodies of the IOC are the Session, the Executive Board and the President.

A general meeting of the members of the IOC, called a Session, is held at least once a year. An extraordinary Session is convened upon the initiative of the President or upon the written request of at least one third of the members. It is the supreme organ of the IOC, and its decisions are final. Upon proposal of the Executive Board, it elects the members of the IOC. Besides, IOC Sessions adopt, modify and interpret the Olympic Charter, amend the Olympic program, elect countries to host Summer and Winter Olympic Games, take decisions on the budget, reports of IOC Committees and Commissions, recognition of new NOCs, etc.

The Executive Board consists of the President, four Vice-Presidents and six additional members. All the members of the Executive Board are elected by the Session, upon secret ballot, by a majority of votes cast.

The Executive Board manages the affairs of the IOC. In particular, it performs the following duties: it attends the observance of the Olympic Charter; assumes the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the IOC; is responsible for the management of the IOC finances; submits to the IOC Session the names of the persons whom it recommends for election to the IOC; appoints Directors, keeps the records of the IOC, etc.

The President is elected by the IOC upon secret ballot from among its members, for a period of eight years. The President may be re-elected for successive four-year terms. The duration of the mandates of the Vice-Presidents and of the six other members of the Executive Board is four years.

The IOC organizes an Olympic Congress, in principle, every eight years, convened upon decision of the IOC, by its President. The Olympic Congress is composed of the members and honorary members of the IOC, of the delegates representing the IFs, the NOCs, and the organizations recognized by the IOC. In addition, the Congress comprises athletes and personalities invited in their individual capacity or on behalf of the organizations which they represent. The IOC Executive Board determines the agenda of the Olympic Congress after consultations with the IFs and the NOCs.

For the purpose of studying specific issues and to work out recommendations for the Executive Board, the President sets up ad hoc commissions and working groups whenever it appears necessary. Currently there are 18 IOC commissions, including the commissions on

eligibility, culture, new finance resources, medicine, Olympic Solidarity, Olympic Games program, the joint radio and television commission, commissions on the press, mass media, sports for all, philately, finance, law, Olympic Games preparation analysis and appraisal, on the International Olympic Academy, the International Olympic Movement, an athletes' commission, as well as a commission on the Olympic Order award. Recently, there have been set up doping control commission and a commission to evaluate the conditions of accommodating the Olympic Games participants.

One of the main commissions is the Olympic Solidarity Commission, which manages Olympic Solidarity Foundation set up to organize aid to NOCs. Its activity includes the propagation of the basic principles of the Olympic movement, the organization and conduct of training courses and seminars on technical assistance. The commission works in close collaboration with other IOC commissions and IFs.

The Olympic Solidarity Foundation extends a financial support to the NOCs, which participate in the Olympic Games. This way, Olympic Solidarity supports the needy NOCs and encourages them to participate in the Olympic Games.

Olympic Solidarity revenues have recently increased significantly, so that a more substantial support is offered to those NOCs which need it. For example, NOCs received \$3.7 million from the IOC budget for participation in the Winter Olympic Games in Calgary (1988), whereas for their participation in the Seoul Summer Olympic Games in the same year, this amount rose to \$9.5 million. The total budget for the IOC training courses in 1988 — 1992 was \$24.4 million.

Very active has been the athletes' commission which was established in 1981 after the 11th Olympic Congress in Baden-Baden. Among its first members were the Olympic champions I. Formo, S. Tsvetova, T. Bach, K. Keino, V. Tretiak, S. Coe, E. Moses et al. The main task of the commission is to ensure cooperation between athletes and the IOC. Now this commission has its representatives in all the IOC commissions which have to do with athletes. The commission is invited to hold joint sessions with the IOC Executive Board to discuss the most pressing problems, including, in the last few years, organized fight against doping.

The main lines of activities of other commissions are dealt with in the ensuing chapters of this book.

The current operations of the IOC is conducted by its Secretariat (80 persons), 60 of those working

at the IOC Headquarters and 20 in the Olympic Museum. The Secretariat is run by an Administrator-Delegate jointly with the Secretary General. His staff includes 10 Directors, Advisors to the Presidents, and other personnel.

### **The Olympic Congresses**

The Olympic Charter stipulates that an Olympic Congress, in principle, be organized every eight years, convened upon decision of the IOC, by its President. The agenda is to include most pressing problems of the Olympic movement, which may determine its future development. The Olympic Congresses have a consultative character.

Over the whole 100-year history of the Olympic movement there have been twelve Olympic Congresses. As was mentioned above, the First Founding Congress was held in Paris in 1894. Following that, Olympic Congresses were held in Havre, France (1897); Brussels (1905); Paris (1906); Lausanne (1913); Paris (1914); Lausanne (1921); Prague (1925); Berlin (1930); Varna, Bulgaria (1973); Baden-Baden (1981); and Paris (1994).

It is easy to see that Olympic Congresses were not held regularly. During the first four decades there had been nine Congresses, whereas only three Olympic Congresses were held over the ensuing 64 years, with a 43-year interval between the 9th and the 10th Congress.

The Olympic Congresses varied both in the number of participants and in the significance of the issues considered. The First Congress of 1894 dealt with the organization of modern Olympic Games, the establishment of the IOC, the status of an amateur athlete. It was attended by 2,000 persons from 13 countries. The 2nd Olympic Congress (1897) considered the issues of hygiene, pedagogy, history of physical exercises, and other academic subjects of physical culture and sport. The focal point of the 3rd Congress (1905) was an analysis of the IOC relations with IFs. At the 4th Olympic Congress (1906) a possibility was discussed by 60 prominent leaders of sports and arts to include in the Olympic Games program various art competitions in architecture, painting, sculpture and music. The 5th Congress (1913) discussed the problems of sporting psychology and physiology. The 6th Congress (1914) introduced a single set of regulations concerning the organization and conduct of competitions in all the events at the Olympic Games. The 7th Olympic Congress (1921) considered issues of referring, the IOC Sessions, and determined an Olympic Congress to be the supreme organ of the IOC. The 8th Congress (1925) concentrated on the Games' rules and program, amateurism,



women participation in the Olympic Games, the rights of the IOC, and interrelationships of the IOC, NOCs and IFs. Those issues came up again for discussion at the 9th Congress of 1930 in Berlin. The 10th Olympic Congress, held in a completely different historic setting in 1973, analyzed the current status and a future development of the international Olympic movement. The 11th Congress in Baden-Baden (1981) had on its agenda items such as international cooperation in sport; the problems of amateurism and professionalism; the program of the Olympic Games; the interface between the IOC, NOCs and IFs, as well as other issues. Special attention was given by that Congress to setting up the Olympic Movement Commission (at least 31 members), which was to include representatives of three branches of the movement — the International Olympic Committee, National Olympic Committees and International Federations.

The 12th Olympic Congress was convened in 1994 in Paris to commemorate the 100th Anniversary of modern Olympic movement. It was attended by members and honorary members of the IOC, by NOC delegates, athletes, representatives of the Organizing Committees of the Summer and Winter Olympic Games, mass media, coaches, judges and referees, guests and members of the IOC commissions.

The agenda of the 12th Olympic Congress included four major subjects:

1. The contribution of the Olympic movement to modern society (Olympism and its ethics; the structure of the Olympic movement; sports and natural environment; the future of the Olympic Games; their program; the Olympic movement and mutual understanding among nations; etc.).

2. Modern Athlete (the formation of an athlete; his role and significance in society; organization of top-achievement sports; sporting science and modern training sessions; potential dangers to athletes; etc.).

3. Social aspects of sport (sports and politics; sports and economy; sports in developing countries; sports for all; etc.).

4. Sport and mass media (contribution of mass media to the development of the Olympic movement; the impact of sport on mass media; development of an interface between sport, television, other mass media; etc.).

The final document of the 12th Olympic Congress lays down the future policy of the Olympic sport and specifies the activities of the IOC, IFs, NOCs and of all other participants of the Olympic movement.

## INTERNATIONAL SPORTS FEDERATIONS (IFS) AND FUNDAMENTALS OF THEIR ACTIVITIES

According to the Olympic Charter, in order to promote the Olympic movement the IOC may recognize as IFs international non-governmental organizations administering one or several sports at world level and encompassing organizations administering such sports at national level. As far as the role of the IFs within the Olympic movement is concerned, their statutes, practice and activities must be in conformity with the Olympic Charter. Each IFs maintains its independence and autonomy in the administration of its sport. But initially, the relations between the IOC and IFs had been quite different.

It should be noted that several international federations administering Olympic sports had been established ahead of the IOC. At the end of the 19th century, with a revival of the massive interest in sport, there started to be organized international competitions in various sports between athletes of European states, as well as between the athletes of the USA and of some countries of Europe. Especially popular were competitions in cycling, track and field, gymnastics, speed skating, boxing, tennis. But even the first international meets convinced the organizers, athletes and coaches that the lack of uniform, single rules and norms regulating the competition was an obstacle on the way to develop international sporting ties. That led to the establishment of international sport associations. The first of those was the International Gymnastics Federation (F.I.G.), established in 1881. The year 1882 saw the establishment of the International Federation of Rowing Societies (F.I.S.A) and the International Skating Union (I.S.U.).

The formation of the International Olympic Committee and the regular staging of the Olympic Games gave a boost to the establishment of new IFs. During the period of 1900 through 1908, seven IFs had been formed: International Cycling Union (U.C.I.) in 1900, International Federation of Football Associations (F.I.F.A.) in 1904, International Motor Sport Federation in 1904, International Shooting Union (U.I.T) in 1907, International Yacht Racing Union (I.Y.R.U.) in 1907, International Ice Hockey Federation (I.I.H.F.) in 1908, and International Amateur Swimming Federation (F.I.N.A.) in 1908.

Already at the end of the 19th century several international sports unions conducted a lot of work to bring order to the system of international competitions and comparing results achieved. In the last quarter of the 19th century many unofficial



competitions were held, whose organizers tried to uplift their status to world championships, European championships, championships of South America, etc. These competitions were organized by different entities (newspaper and magazine publishers, sport unions, etc.) on a purely subjective basis. Some of those (for instance, the Wimbledon Lawn Tennis Tournament, first played in 1877) were internationally recognized, but most of them had been conducted disorderly, with many scandals and controversies, which was not to the advantage of sports good image. Particularly high level of competition was achieved in weightlifting, swimming and wrestling, with many competitions held every year, the organizers claiming them to be world championships without any regard to the qualification and skills of participants.

With time, World and European Championships in various sports came to be administered by the appropriate IFs, which controlled observance of single rules and regulations. Thus, in 1891 a successful European championship competition was held in Hamburg, and Vienna hosted the European speed skating championship in 1892, followed by the world championship in Amsterdam in 1893.

*East Hampton. Long Island. N. Y.  
Aug. 16. 1908. My dear sire: Your  
long and important letter from Harrow  
has just arrived. It gives me that the  
American athletes were subjected to such  
severe criticism, which, I am sure, was in  
part, justified in great part, deserved. Con-  
sidering the walk in life from which they  
come it is a matter of congratulation  
that things did not turn out worse. The  
sympathy for them here is not at all  
profound or extended. We all know Sullivan  
very well, his great faults are those of  
his birth and breeding, but he is unfor-  
tunately a representative man and holds  
the organized athletics of this club in the  
hollow of his hand. He has done much to  
elevate sport from the lowest to a little  
higher but still very low plane. I am  
however no lover of British sport. What*

An excerpt of the letter sent to P. Coubertin  
by W. Sloane on 16 August 1908

The first European championship in rowing was held in Italy in 1893. In 1896 Saint-Petersburg, Russia held the first World Figure Skating Championship, and the first Shooting World Championship was held in 1897 in Lyon, France. F.I.G. organized a major competition in 1903, which were later recognized as the world championship. Those successful competitions were characterized by a sufficiently good organization, a great number of participants and excellent results.

IFs did not take part in drawing up the competition program, rules and refereeing system at the first few modern Olympic Games. The responsibility for all of these aspects was with the Games host nation. But following differences between the USA and England representatives at the 1908 Games in London, many members of the IOC voiced an opinion that national sport organs should be stripped of the authority to draw up the Olympic Games program, to pool athletes, etc. Especially vociferous in his demands to put an end to that practice was W. Sloane, a prominent figure in the international sports movement. He put forward a justified demand to set up an international system which would ensure the formation of the Olympic Games program, selection of athletes and elaboration of competition rules. There is his letter to Coubertin in the IOC records, in which W. Sloane offered an in-depth analysis of the situation as it was then.

The IOC set up a meeting with representatives of the IFs in 1914 in Paris and transferred to them the control over their particular sports, which made up the program of the Olympic Games competitions. The IFs had standardized the rules, thereby laying the foundation for the development of sporting exchanges.

To date, there are about 80 international sports federations, 35 of those being Olympic IFs:

A. Summer Olympic Games

1. International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF)
2. Federation Internationale des Societes d'Aviron (FISA)
3. The International Badminton Federation (IBF)
4. International Baseball Association (IBA)
5. Federation Internationale de Basketball (FIBA)
6. Association Internationale de Boxe Amateur (AIBA.)
7. Federation Internationale de Canoe (FIC)
8. Union Cycliste Internationale (UCI)
9. Federation Equestre Internationale (FEI)
10. Federation Internationale d'Escrime (FIE)
11. International Federation of Football Associations (FIFA)
12. Federation Internationale de Gymnastique (FIG)

13. International Weightlifting Federation (IWF)
14. Federation Internationale de Handball (IHF)
15. Federation Internationale de Hockey (FIH)
16. International Judo Federation (IJF)
17. Federation Internationale des Luttes Associees (FILA)
18. Federation Internationale de Natation Amateur (FINA)
19. Union Internationale de Pentathlon Moderne et Biathlon (UIPMB)
20. International Tennis Federation (ITF)
21. The International Table Tennis Federation (ITTF)
22. Union International de Tir (UIT)
23. Federation Internationale de Tir a l'Arc (FITA)
24. Federation Internationale de Volleyball (FIVB)
25. International Sailing Federation (ISAF)
26. Federation Internationale de Softball (ISF)
27. The world Taekwondo Federation (provisional) (WTF)
28. International Triath (provisional) (ITU)
- B. Winter Olympic Games
29. Federation Internationale de Bobsleigh et de Tobogganing (FIBT)
30. International Ice Hockey Federation (IIHF)
31. Union Internationale de Pentathlon Moderne et Biathlon (UIPMB)
32. Federation Internationale de Luge de course (FIL)
33. International Skating Union (ISU)
34. Federation Internationale de Ski (FIS)
35. World Curling Federation (WCF)

The sports administered by these IFs are included in the program of Summer and Winter Olympic Games. But today there are many IFs which administer sports in conformity with the requirements defined by the IOC for Olympic sports. To stimulate the development of these sports, the IOC recognizes a number of new IFs: International Trampoline Federation (F.I.T.), Federacion Internacional de Pelota Vasca (F.I.P.V.), Federation Internationale de Quilleurs (F.I.Q.), the World Squash Federation (W.S.F.), Confederation Mondiale Sports Boules (C.M.S.B.), Union Internationale des Associations d'Alpinisme (U.I.A.A.), Federation Internationale de Roller-Skating (F.I.R.S.), Federation Aeronautique Internationale (F.A.I.), Confederation Mondiale des Activities Subaquatiques (C.M.A.S.), International Korfball Federation (I.K.F.), International Orienteering Federation (I.O.F.), the World Taekwondo Federation (W.T.F.), International Water Ski Federation (I.W.S.F.), International Racquetball Federation (I.R.F.), the International Federation of Netball Associations (I.F.N.A.), International Federation of Sports Acrobatics (I.F.S.A.), International Triathlon Union (I.T.U.), International Softball

Federation (I.S.F.), World Amateur Golf Council (W.A.G.C.), Federation Mondiale de Karate (F.M.K.).

These sports events are often included in the programs of continental and regional competitions, which are organized with the IOC support.

For instance, the World Taekwondo Federation, whose headquarters are in Seoul, today includes representatives of over 140 countries of the world. President of this federation Un Jong Kim, a prominent leader of the international Olympic movement, is putting in a lot of efforts to have this sport included in the official part of the program of the Olympic Games. World taekwondo championships have been held every two years since 1973. These are popular both among men and women. For instance, 106 athletes from 49 countries participated in the 10th Men's World Championship and the 3rd Women's World Championships in taekwondo. Recently, taekwondo was twice included in the Olympic program as an exhibition sport. It is included in the programs of the Asiatic, African and PanAmerican Games. These are sufficient conditions for taekwondo to find its way into the official part of the Olympic program.

The Olympic Charter defines the role of IFs in the Olympic movement as follows:

- to establish and enforce the rules concerning the practice of their respective sports and to ensure their application;
- to ensure the development of their sports throughout the world;
- to contribute to the achievement of the goals set out in the Olympic Charter;
- to establish their criteria of eligibility to the competitions of the Olympic Games in conformity with the Olympic Charter, and to submit these to the IOC for approval;
- to assume the responsibility for the technical control and direction of their sports at the Olympic Games and at the Games under the patronage of the IOC;
- to provide technical assistance in the practical implementation of the Olympic Solidarity program.

In addition, the IFs may formulate proposals addressed to the IOC concerning the Olympic Charter and the Olympic movement in general, including the organizing and holding of the Olympic Games, concerning the candidatures for organizing the Olympic Games and their capabilities. IFs collaborate also in the preparation of the Olympic Congresses and in the activities of the IOC commissions.

As an integral part of the international Olympic system, the IFs at the same time are independent sporting organizations in their own right. The



General Assembly of international sport federations, the Association which unites all IFs, was set up in 1967. It includes both Olympic and non-Olympic federations. In 1976 it was converted into a General Association of International Sport Federations (A.G.F.I.S.), with its office in Monaco.

A.G.F.I.S. is the biggest of the international sports organizations, uniting 75 international organizations to date. Along with A.G.F.I.S., there are three more associations of IFs. They are Association of Summer Olympics International Federations (A.S.O.I.F.), Association of the International Winter Sports Federations (A.I.W.F.), and Association of the IOC Recognized International Sports Federations (A.R.I.S.F.). Some people say that the IOC decided to set up those associations in order to undermine the influence of A.G.F.I.S.

Every year A.G.F.I.S. disseminates technical documentation and offers advice, collects information bulletins, charters and articles of the IFs which are its members, coordinates the dates of holding major competitions, whose calendar it publishes regularly.

Through this Association, international federations can act together, preserving their autonomy from various non-governmental organizations (like the IOC or ANOC) and governmental associations. In addition to that, AGFIS is an organ, through which IFs may develop cooperation with other international organizations.

### NATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEES (NOCs) AND FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF THEIR ACTIVITIES

Together with the IOC and IFs, National Olympic Committees, as a governing organ of the Olympic movement in their respective countries, are a factor of major importance in the international system of Olympic sport. Unless a country's NOC has not been recognized by the International Olympic Committee, athletes of that country cannot participate in the Olympic Games. Some NOCs had been recognized by the IOC as far back as in the end of the last century, on the eve of the 1st Olympic Games: Greece and France (1894), Australia, Hungary (Austro-Hungary), the USA (1895), Chile (1896). The Russian Olympic Committee was recognized by the IOC in 1911 and was disbanded in 1917, following the Revolution. The Olympic Committee of the USSR was recognized by the IOC in 1951. And after the break up of the USSR, NOCs of newly independent states were created on the territory of the former USSR. Thus, the NOC of Ukraine was formed in 1991 and recognized by the IOC in 1992.

According to the Olympic Charter, the mission of NOCs is to develop and protect the Olympic movement in their respective countries.

The NOCs propagate the fundamental principles of Olympism at national level within the framework of sports activity and otherwise contribute, among other things, to the diffusion of Olympism in the teaching programs of physical education and sport in schools and university establishments. They see to the creation of institutions which devote themselves to Olympic education. In particular, they concern themselves with the establishment and activities of National Olympic Académies, Olympic Museums and cultural programs related to the Olympic movement.

The NOCs also ensure the observance of the Olympic Charter in their countries; encourage the development of high performance sport and sport for all; help in the training of sports administrators by organizing courses and ensure that such courses contribute to the propagation of the fundamental principles of Olympism; commit themselves to taking action against any form of discrimination and violence in sport; fight against the use of substances and procedures prohibited by the IOC or the IFs.

The NOCs have the exclusive powers for the representation of their respective countries at the Olympic Games and at the regional, continental or world multi-sports competitions patronized by the IOC. They have the authority to designate the city which may apply to organize Olympic Games in their respective countries. The NOCs should preserve their autonomy and resist all pressures of any kind, including those of a political, religious or economic nature that may prevent them from complying with the Olympic Charter. In addition, NOCs have the right to formulate proposals addressed to the IOC concerning the Olympic Charter and the Olympic movement in general, including the organizing and the holding of the Olympic Games; give their opinions concerning the candidatures for the organization of the Olympic Games; collaborate in the preparation of the Olympic Congresses; participate in the activities of non-governmental and governmental bodies in promoting the development of the Olympic movement.

However, NOCs must never associate themselves with any activity which would be in contradiction with the Olympic Charter. In case of infringements, the IOC may take up measures and sanctions against such NOCs and even suspend it or withdraw its recognition. Such measures and sanctions may be resorted to if the activity of any NOC, or if the making or expression of the will of the national federations or other entities belonging to such NOC, is hampered by the effect of legal



provisions or regulations in force in the country concerned or by acts of other entities within such country, whether sporting or otherwise.

NOCs must include the members of the IOC in their country, if any; all national federations affiliated to the IFs governing sports included in the program of the Olympic Games or the representatives designated by them (with a minimum of five such national federations), active or retired athletes having taken part in the Olympic Games.

Governments or other public authorities shall not designate any members of a NOC. However, a NOC may decide, at its discretion, to elect as members representatives of such authorities.

The name of a NOC must reflect the territorial extent and tradition of that country and be approved by the IOC.

Irrespective of differences in economy, traditions or culture in their respective countries, all NOCs comply with the same fundamental principles of the Olympic movement, which provide them with a considerably degree of independence.

A NOC must not recognize more than one national federation for each sport, and it is such a national federation that is eligible to be member of an IOC-recognized IF governing the respective sport.

The NOCs perform the following major tasks:

organization and leadership of their respective delegations at the Olympic Games and at the regional, continental or world multi-sports competitions patronized by the IOC. They decide upon the entry of athletes proposed by their respective national federations, their sports performance, and the ability of athletes to serve as an example to the sporting youth of their country; they make decisions concerning all questions relating to the equipment, transportation and accommodation of the members of their delegations, and contract for the latter's benefit adequate insurance covering the risks of disability, illness, etc.

It is recommended by the IOC that NOCs regularly organize (if possible each year) an Olympic Day or Week intended to promote the Olympic movement; include in their activities the promotion of culture and arts in the fields of sport and Olympism; participate in the programs of Olympic Solidarity; seek sources of financing which will enable them to maintain their autonomy in all respects. The collection of funds must, however, be accomplished in accordance with the Olympic Charter and in such a manner that the dignity and independence of the NOC are not harmed.

Although the IOC sets forth unambiguous requirements concerning the obligations and rights of NOCs, the IOC allows them freedom of

**Table 16**  
**The Growing Number of NOCs by Continents**

Continent	Number of NOCs			
	1947	1979	1990	1996
Europe	25	33	33	48
Asia	6	29	39	43
America	14	35	35	42
Africa	3	39	44	52
Australia and Oceania	2	4	10	12
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>161</b>	<b>197</b>

alternatives as relates such issues as it does not consider to be a matter of principle. Thus, it is not demanded that the names of NOCs be uniform: there are British Olympic Association, the Olympic Committee of Russia, National Olympic Committee of Ukraine, etc. The IOC demands that NOCs be structurally autonomous from the state, but it accepts the fact that many NOCs are controlled by government and political entities.

As of January 1, 1996, the IOC has recognized 196 NOCs. Here is the dynamics of the number of NOCs of different parts of the world in the post-war period (Table 16).

What changes have occurred in the relations between the IOC and NOCs over this period?

The most marked change is in the number IOC members, Presidents of NOCs. Their number rose almost to one third of the total number of IOC members.

More equal has become the distribution of the IOC revenues. In the past, NOCs took only a symbolic part in that distribution, through the Olympic Solidarity program, but to date the situation is quite different. Thus, as a share of the proceeds and revenues from the 1992 Games in Barcelona, the IOC got \$53.1, IFs got \$51.5, whereas \$50.2 was disbursed to NOCs, which now are much more involved in developing and implementing the IOC's promotion programs.

NOCs also gave more influence on the selection procedure of candidature-cities to host the Olympic Games.

But of major dimensions are the changes effected by a number of countries in the relations of NOCs with their respective governments.

Within the framework of relations "government — sport", the status and authority of NOCs vary over a fairly wide range, from the NOCs that practically govern the national sports (like CONI in Italy or U.S.O.C. in the USA) to the NOCs whose influence on the elaboration of the national policy towards sport is limited mostly to the participation in the Olympic Games and the Olympic move-

ment (like the Olympic Committee of Germany, the BOA in Great Britain, NOC of Japan, etc.). But in the late 80's a number of countries (the Netherlands, Norway and some others) started the process of uniting their NOCs with sports confederations. The majority of NOCs is likely to take the same route in the 21st century.

To coordinate their activities for the sake of developing the Olympic sports, NOCs form various associations at the world or continental level.

The world-level body of this sort is the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC), founded in 1968, following a number of events to develop cooperation between NOCs in the interests of the Olympic sports.

The matter is that prior to the establishment of this body, the contacts between the IOC and NOCs had been a one-way street, from the IOC down to NOCs, and had been limited to occasional meetings of the leadership of the IOC and NOCs, sending out instructions, and had been, as a rule, of informative nature. The leaders of NOCs had repeatedly objected to the IOC downgrading the role of NOCs and taking no notice of their opinion concerning the development of Olympic sport.

With the emergence of the ANOC, the contacts between the IOC and NOCs have greatly increased, with National Olympic Committees having more impact on the Olympic movement development. The main lines of activities of the ANOC are as follows: to ensure close collaboration of the IOC with NOCs; dissemination of the successful work experience and information; elaboration and submission to the IOC of projects and proposals aimed at introducing improvements into the Olympic movement; strengthening of the role of NOCs in sporting movement of their countries; extending various forms of technical assistance to NOCs to support them in organizational matters, in training personnel, in constructing sport facilities, etc.

The IOC also recognizes continental and regional associations of NOCs, their main representative bodies being the Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa (ANOCA); the Olympic Council of Asia (OCA); the Pan-American Sports Organization (ODEPA); the Association of European National Olympic Committees (AENOC); the National Olympic Committees of Oceania (ONOC).

The principal task of these bodies, whose Charters conform to the Olympic Charter and are recognized by the IOC, is to facilitate the development of Olympic sports on different continents and in various regions of the world. The major sports competitions organized by these bodies are Regional Games, conceived by Coubertin as a con-

tinuation of the history of Olympism in Ancient Greece.

A great number of various international competitions are held in the world now. First of all, there are Continental Games (Pan-American, African, and Asian) for athletes of one of the continents. Then, there are Regional Games, like the Balkan, Boliwar, Mediterranean, Central African, Pan-Arabic, Pacific, Oceanic, of the Far East, of the Indian Ocean, of South-Eastern Asia, of South Asia, of South Pacific, of the South Cross, of Central America and Caribbean, of Persian Gulf Arab nations, the Games of the smaller countries of Europe, etc.

However, the above mentioned games do not include the whole list of all major continental and regional competitions which promote development of the Olympic sports. In the Western hemisphere, for instance, especially popular are the Boliwar Games, held since 1938 by a number of Latin American countries. Countries of the Balkan region (Greece, Turkey, Romania, Bulgaria) hold the Balkan Games. Since 1985, Games are held of smaller Countries of Europe, with a population of under 1 million, such as Monaco, Luxembourg, Andorra, Malta, Iceland, Liechtenstein, San-Marino, Cyprus.

The Olympic Council of Asia (OCA) organizes various sub-regional Games. Games of seven regions of Africa are staged by the Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa (ANOCA), etc.

Later on, with a view of extending international sporting links, there have emerged Intercontinental Games: Afro-Latin-American (since 1974), Tri-continental Games (since 1983) of several countries of Asia, Africa and the USA, the Afro-Asian Games (since 1985), etc.

Not only do these Games facilitate the Olympic sports and a means of spotting talented athletes and getting them prepared for the Olympic Games, but they are also a major factor of international cooperation, a means of defusing interstate conflicts, developing mutual understanding and friendship, and drawing people to take up sport and physical culture. Of special significance is the cultural message of these competitions, each of those bearing an imprint of cultural traditions of various countries and regions, and having its own rituals, traditions and symbols.

Continental and regional games differ greatly in terms of organization, material and technical support, and athlete performance. In addition to major competitions, which are second in scope and organization only to the Olympic Games (like Pan-American and Asiatic Games) there are smaller-scale competitions with a small number of partici-



pants and a relatively low sporting and technical-material profile. These are particularly characteristic of the African nations competitions, most of the nations being immersed in economic crises, having inadequate material support, lacking qualified specialists and a low standard of living.

The wish to interface with Olympic sport pertains not only to governments of various countries and to their NOCs due to their geographic situation. Also associated with Olympic sports are various irregular competitions being held in communities with different national, religious, professional and other peculiarities. These competitions facilitate the development of sports, international cooperation, and, as a rule, they have a political side, reflecting the interests of various social and demographic groups. To illustrate, there are games of ethnographic, religious and professional orientation, then again there are games of medical and rehabilitation purpose, children and adolescent games, feminist games, etc.

To the first type, *ethnographic games*, belong the Pan-Caribbean Games (held since 1953), where, despite Muslim customs, women are eligible to compete. There are also World Games of Lithuanians, Koreans, of Ukrainian immigrants (in Canada), etc.

*Religion-oriented Games* include the First Muslim Games (1989), the Maccabi Games for Jewish athletes of Judaic belief (the 13th Maccabi Games of 1989 had 4,400 athletes from 42 countries competing in 24 events), the Games of Catholic athletes, Protestant athletes, etc.

The International Women Sports Federation, established in 1922, had organized four World Games for Women in 1922 — 1934 in the most popular sports: track and field, swimming, basketball, etc. Those Games held no more, but under their impact the IOC had to change its attitude to the question of inclusion of events for women into the Olympic Games program.

*Among medical-rehabilitation games* one should mention, in addition to such major event as the Paralympics for handicapped athletes, other special Olympic competitions of this kind. The International Sports Committee of the Deaf has been organizing Summer and Winter Olympic Games for deaf athletes since 1924. Similar competitions are held for deaf-and-dumb athletes, for athletes with orthopaedic problems, etc.

*Professionally-oriented games* include the regular World Railwaymen Games, the International Sport Weeks of the Pacific Ocean sailors games.

The International Federation of University Sports, established in 1949, holds regularly Summer and Winter Universiads, one of the major competitions in modern sports. The winter games

of the 1993 Universiad, for instance, were attended by student delegations from 41 countries, with 688 athletes competing in 8 sport events. The Summer Universiad of 1993 in Buffalo, the USA, was attended by 5,103 athletes from 117 countries, who contested 132 sets of awards in 12 sport events. The Summer Universiad of 1995 in Fukuoka, Japan was even more comprehensive, with over 6,000 athletes from 163 countries competing.

Among *the Games for different age groups*, in addition to student games, are competitions held in different parts of the world for children, adolescents and youths. For example, European School Games, Pan-Arabic Youth Games, other competitions for minors, called "Little Olympics", "Mini-Games", etc.

These and similar competitions are extremely important for the development of Olympic sports, attracting more people to be involved in sports, selection of talented young athletes and improving their preparedness, developing the material basis of the Olympic sports, etc.

## NOCs IN THE SYSTEM OF GOVERNING OLYMPIC SPORTS IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

Most countries believe that assistance to the development of physical culture and sport is one of the most important tasks of a state. As shown by the analysis of legislation regulating sport in many countries, physical culture and sport there are an inalienable component of society, an essential factor of social stability, the source of vitality for individuals and the whole of society. Laws on sport encourage people to go in for active life through physical culture and sport. Political and governmental entities in many countries, particularly their governments, are critically important in ensuring an adequate preparation of athletes for Olympic Games. A characteristic feature of many countries is making use of sport, especially the Olympics, to improve the international image of the country.

Today, various countries of the world have developed their own systems of administering the Olympic sports, which are based on a clear-cut division of responsibilities between state bodies dealing with physical culture and sport, on the one hand, and NOCs and national sport federations (NSF), on the other. In several countries the activities of governmental bodies, NOCs and NSFs are closely intertwined, in which case sporting bodies are more dependent on the government. Not long ago, many leaders of the international sport community used to consider the participation of state institutions in the development of the national



Olympic movement and the operations of their NOCs as an attempt of the government to interfere in sports matters and a violation of the Olympic Charter. Today, though, the situation is quite the opposite: the IOC does not object to governments taking part in development and supervision of Olympic sport systems, and even encourages such a participation.

Let us take a look at the lines of activities of NOCs of different countries in the system of administering the Olympic sports.

### *Great Britain*

Great Britain is one of those states where the governing sporting bodies are greatly dependent on the government. The central entities of the system of governing sport in the UK are the Ministry of Sports and Recreation, and the Sports Council.

Recently, the Ministry of Sports and Recreation has taken active steps towards a gradual transition of the matter of financing Olympic sport in to the hands of the private sector of British economy (in the person of sponsors), while leaving the funding of sport for the masses the prerogative of the state.

The Sports Council was created in 1972, on the Royal order. Its task is to attract the populace to sports, provide them with sport facilities and equipment, and improve the athletic performance. There are also Sports councils for Wales, Scotland, and the Northern Ireland.

Allocation of state subsidies is an important responsibility of the Sports Council. The subsidies are allocated to develop specific sports, to pay wages to coaches and administration of the governing bodies (federations), to construct sport facilities, to upkeep the national training centers, etc. In 1984 the Sports Council set up a group of preparation of the leading British athletes to the Olympic Games, the group being funded, in part, by private capital.

In addition to the Ministry of Sports and Recreation and of the Sports Council, another important governing body in British sport is the British Olympic Association (BOA), which is also acting in the capacity of the NOC and represents the interests of Great Britain in the IOC, thus being a more comprehensive organization, whose full-fledged members are various sports bodies, including those administering non-Olympic sports.

The BOA raises funds to finance British teams at the Summer and Winter Olympic Games, conducts seminars on sports medicine, preparation and training methods, and propagation of Olympism.

The principal tasks of the BOA are as follows:

- promotion of interest to the Olympic Games and propagation of the objectives and ideals of the Olympic movement in Great Britain in conformity with the principles and Charter of the IOC, drawing the attention of general public to the problems of the international sporting and Olympic movement;
- organization and coordination of the English athletes' participation in the Olympic Games and other international competitions, seeing to undertaking appropriate steps in case the IOC grants any city in Great Britain the right to host the Olympic Games;
- support to the Olympic sports federations in their athletes preparations for the Olympic Games;
- allocate subsidies from the BOA budget to the Olympic sports federations to cover the cost of events which conform to the BOA objectives;
- give subsidies to the federations of non-Olympic sports and to other sports associations and entities to help them solve problems, which coincide with the BOA objectives and promote the development of amateur sports in Great Britain, as well as for charity.

### *Germany*

Problems of sports in Germany are handled by state bodies of various levels, from local municipalities to Bundestag. Responsibility for sport policies in Bundestag is vested in the Sports Council, and in the federal government the responsibility for sports matters belongs to the Federal Minister of Interior. He coordinates all measures by different bodies to develop sport. The government authority covers also international sporting contacts.

The state supports public sports organizations, the German Sport Union (DSB), which unites all national sports federations and clubs, and the NOC, whenever they undertake events of state importance, which cannot be financed at the expense of the lands budget.

In 1970, a new organ was established in Germany to administer sport, the German Sport Confederation (DSK), which was intended to operate as a link between the state and sport. The DSK coordinates such areas as school sport, sport for all, elite sport, sport science, sport organization and administration.

In the area of sport propaganda and the development of sport for all and elite sport an important role belongs to the German Olympic Society (GOG), founded in 1951.

It is the only sport organization of Germany which is not financed by public funds and receives

no deductions from the proceeds of the sport wagers and lotteries. The GOG is made up of a steering group which activates the sporting interests of the population, publishes magazines and books, produces movies, prepares reports and ensures the participation of German representatives in the work of the International Olympic Academy.

The supreme body of the national Olympic movement in Germany is the German NOC, which has the following principal tasks:

- development of the Olympic movement in Germany and propagation of the ideas of Olympism;
- organization of the participation of German athletes at the Olympic Games and other international competitions;
- organization and conduct of international competitions, including the Olympic Games, on the territory of Germany;
- subsidizing Olympic sports federations, material and other support for elite athletes;
- representation of the Olympic interests of Germany in the IOC, ANOC, AGFIS, participation in the work of the International Olympic Academy, other international forums and congresses, etc.;
- supervision over the observance of the articles of the Olympic Charter.

Alongside the DSB and NOC, a leading role in the development of sports and Olympic movement in the country belongs to the foundation "Support of German Sport", whose goal is to reimburse the athletes' expenses as relates to their sporting activities and performing on the international arena. This goal is achieved, firstly, through a support to achieve the best possible results; and, secondly, through an assistance in getting a qualification and upgrading skills in accordance with the wishes and abilities of each athlete.

### *Canada*

In Canada the central role in governing high performance sport also belongs to the state. The participation of the federal government in developing sport was greatly expanded in the 1970's, at the time when Canada was in preparation for the Olympic Games of 1976 in Montreal. It was at that period that two major changes occurred in the Canadian sport system: a distinct line was drawn between sport for all and elite sport, and the Directorate for Physical Training and Sport was established, which was upgraded to the status of Ministry since 1976.

The organization of sport in Canada has a pyramid structure, with clubs and teams as its basis.

Competitions between such clubs and teams are held in the local leagues. The work is conducted locally, as a rule, on a voluntary basis. The resources allocated for this are limited. These are funds assigned to pay wages to coaches and trainers, to pay the rent for sport facilities and transportation bills of the participants of such competitions.

Another area in the structure of Canadian sport includes sporting organizations in provinces and administrative territories, which are directly linked to the national sporting organizations. The governing functions on the state level are carried out by the government departments and directorates. In the federal government all issues of physical education and sport are supervised by the Minister-Delegate, who is accountable directly to the Prime-Minister of Canada.

Elite sports are administered on the federal level by the "Sport Canada" department, which allots a lion's share of funds to the national sport federations whose activities are closely monitored by the government of Canada.

The functions of the NOC are fulfilled by the Canadian Olympic Association (CAO), a non-commercial and not-profit organization. CAO supports the development of Olympic sports in Canada, coordinates the activities of Canadian sport federations and other public sport organizations, implements various programs in the area of physical culture and sport, launches campaigns to collect money into the Olympic Fund, invites and receives donations from companies, corporations, firms and other commercial structures to support the participation of Canadian athletes in the Olympic and Pan-American Games and to develop the infrastructure of sport for all and the sport industry.

CAO unites 37 sport federations, including those sports which are part of the Olympic and Pan-American Games program, as well as the federations of sport orienteering, water skiing, curling, karate, racquetball, and squash. The Canadian Olympic Association, which is made up of nine committees, also unites representatives of business circles (industrialists and businessmen) who are keen on sports, as well as members of various public and charity bodies; two IOC members for Canada, one honorary IOC member from that country, and outstanding Canadian athletes.

### *France*

In accordance with the Law on sport of June 16, 1984, the administrative governance of sport in France is vested with the State Secretariat on Youth and Sport Affairs under the Minister of Education, Youth and Sport.



The sport movement administered by federations united in the National Olympic and Sport Committee (CNOSF), is viewed as a public service. The State Secretariat on Youth and Sport Affairs, on behalf of the government, allocates funds to the sports movement to support it. CNOSF for the State Secretariat is its partner, consultant and staff member at the same time in elaborating the current and prospective sport policies. The State Secretariat has established direct contacts with sport federations in resolving all problems of separate sports. But whenever an issue is of the general interest, the Secretariat contacts CNOSF.

The cooperation between the State Secretariat and the sport movement is in effect at three levels (national, regional and departmental), with corresponding administrative bodies on each: the Ministry, regional board of directors, and directorates of departments, on the one hand, and federations, leagues and committees, on the other.

The Olympic Committee of France (COF) was established in 1894 by P. Coubertin on the eve of the First Modern Olympic Games. It united all sport federations, which were to take part in the Olympic Games of 1896 in Greece. Non-Olympic sports were then governed by another body, the National Sports Council (CNS).

In 1972 COF and CNS combined together and established the National Olympic and Sport Committee of France, which united all Olympic and non-Olympic sport federations and represented the whole of national sport movement of France.

The objectives of CNOSF are as follows:

- representation of French sport in the governmental agencies and in other official organizations;
- control over compliance with the rules established by the IOC;
- selection of French athletes to participate in the Olympic Games and international competitions;
- support and protection of Olympic ideals;
- social protection of athletes;
- comprehensive development of sports in France.

CNOSF has a decentralized structure and its administrative bodies ensure that CNOSF is represented in the local administrations. These administrative services are 30 regional Olympic and sport committees (CROS) and 100 Olympic and sport committees in departments (CDOS). CNOSF comprises 80 federations, which unite 165,000 clubs, 1 million sport functionaries (many of whom work for free), and 13 million members.

The supreme organ of CNOSF is its General Assembly.

## Japan

In the system of state organizations of Japan, national sport policies are dealt with by the Ministry of Education and by Education Councils.

Within the Ministry of Education there is Council on Health and Physical Culture, which is the Ministry's consultative body. On request of the Ministry, it does research and works out recommendations concerning physical education, organization of sport in local communities, on sanitary matters and school kids alimentation.

The Bureau of Physical Education, also within the Ministry, handles matters pertaining to health and fitness of the population, and for the development of physical education. The Bureau also oversees nation-wide organization of sport.

Other governmental agencies contributing to the development of physical culture and sport are the Council on Youth Affairs; the Ministry of Health and Welfare; the Ministry of Labor; Construction Ministry; Transport Ministry; the Ministry of Foreign Trade and Industry.

The entities, which make up a system of public organizations in the area of physical culture and sport, are as follows:

1. Japan Amateur Sports Association (JASA), whose tasks are set forth as "development of sport for all" and "improving the level of competitions in all sports". Most of the 42 sport federations of Japan, with a collective membership of round-about 7 million, are JASA members. The Association has branches in all prefectures and in many municipalities.

2. Japanese Olympic Committee (JOC) is a single entity alongside JASA. Its principal goal is development of the Olympic movement and propagation of Olympism. JOC has the following tasks:

- organization of international competitions (including the Olympic Games) in Japan;
- support of participation of Japanese athletes in various international competitions;
- delegating Japanese youth to take part in the work of the Olympic Youth Camp;
- ensuring participation of Japanese delegations in the work of the International Olympic Academy;
- support of the Olympic Academy of Japan (established in 1978);
- international cooperation in sport, support of sports in developing countries;
- sending representatives of Japan to participate in international forums (the IOC sessions, the OCA sessions, Congresses of the International Federation of Student Sports, etc.);
- control over matters pertaining to the amateur status of athletes.



3. Japan Junior Sports Club Association, established in 1962 as a branch of JASA, deals with the development of children and adolescent sport in the age group 6 — 15. This Association also organizes a lot of cultural events for youth.

4. Japanese National Association of Active Recreation takes care of organizing leisure of the population. Its goal is to improve people's health and cultural level.

5. National Sport Federations have their affiliates in every prefecture. Competitions in different sports are normally held under their auspices at the national level, in regions and prefectures.

In addition, there are also other bodies, such as Association of Young Men and Young Women, Association of Children Groups and Boy scouts, whose programs assign particular importance to sporting matters.

### *The United States of America*

The organization of sport in the USA has never been centralized. Many sport bodies, such as the Olympic Committee of the USA (USOC), National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), Amateur Athletic Union (AAU), National Sport Federations, National Association of Sport and Physical Education, Young Christian Association, Sport Committee of the US Ministry of Defense, sport organizations of handicaps and other bodies are independent organizations according to their Charter and Articles.

The US President Council on Physical Training and Sport is not practically involved in the development of Olympic sport.

Sports in the USA are subdivided into non-compulsory, or mass sport; organized sport which includes sport for school kids, students, and elite sport; and professional sport.

This book deals only with elite sport and USOC activities.

Changes were called for in the Olympic movement of the USA following the Montreal Olympic Games of 1976, when the US team was beaten in the team count by the USSR and GDR. President Ford then ordered an official investigation into the situation in American sport. The Presidential Commission on Olympic Sports, set up on the eve of the 1976 Olympics, filed its report in 1977, where it was proposed to undertake a number of measures to improve sport development in the country.

The US Congress adopted the Law on Amateur Sports in the USA in 1978, which comprised part of those recommendations for example, USOC was assigned the authority and functions of a coordinating body to develop amateur sport. Among its

objectives and tasks, apart from participation of US teams in the Pan-American and Olympic Games, such as development of sport for all, especially for women and the handicapped; building up material and technical base of amateur sport; research and information work in the area of sports and sport medicine; resolution of conflicts between different sport bodies, as well as between the latter and athletes, etc. The Law made it mandatory for all sport organizations of the country to allocate at least 20% of seats on their governing bodies to practicing or former athletes.

In 1989, after the USA suffered another defeat at the Olympic Games in Seoul in 1988, top priority among the USOC goals and objectives was given to the ensuring that US athletes promptly receive comprehensive financial support and that they have access to all sports facilities which they may need in their training schedules.

The supreme governing body of USOC is its Board of Delegates, which includes representatives of national sport federations, of twelve national multi-sport organizations, and of the Olympic organizations from all the 50 states of the country.

USOC set up an ad hoc commission in 1988 to assess its activities over the previous decade, starting 1978. Its report was presented in 1989, with many recommendations being implemented straight-away. Some recommendations dealt with simplification of the USOC organizational structure, with a view of cutting down administrative costs. The Commission also recommended that USOC strengthen its liaison with governmental agencies as relates to physical education and sport.

Another recommendation was to introduce tougher controls over national sport organizations, particularly Olympic sport federations.

The Commission focused much of its attention on the selection procedures to choose coaches and athletes for national teams, the central criterion being the potential of athletes to win top awards.

For the USA to have more say in international sport, it was recognized as expedient to put in more effort mending fences with the IOC and IFs. It was also recommended that US representatives and scientists should take a more active part in the work of international forums, as well as increase the number of sport judges from the USA working at international competitions.

The focal point in the recent USOC activity, however, was financial support of athletes. To raise funds for that purpose, a number of special measures were undertaken, including the introduction of the position of a financial director on USOC staff; tougher control of expenditures, setting up the Committee on Finance and Ethics; control over

travel expenses of all USOC members; the introduction of a system of insurance of athletes and of self-financing at all the training centers, etc.

Currently, USOC is implementing the following on-going programs: 1) athlete support; 2) Olympic team members employment; 3) health insurance of Olympic athletes; 4) information services; 5) marketing; 6) coach training, training centers funding, development of sport medicine, science and doping control systems.

A prominent position in the structure of the Olympic movement in the country is occupied by the Olympic Foundation (OF), set up in the wake of the Los Angeles Olympic Games. According to its Charter, OF was established exclusively for the purpose of supporting the operations of such bodies which assist in the participation of the American athletes in domestic and international amateur competitions.

Contrary to similar organizations, OF has no membership. All the voting rights belong to the Council of Trustees. OF does not issue shares, and therefore has no shareholders.

The OF principal capital remains intact, in case of any contingency for USOC. Its revenues from various organizations and private persons donations, including federations, are allocated among national sport organizations and athletes upon their request.

### *Italy*

The sports budget of the country is being managed by the National Olympic Committee of Italy (CONI). 80% of the budget is made up of revenues from the Totocalcio soccer wagers, which are allocated as follows: 37.2% to the CONI, 8% to cover management expenses, 4% to finance credits to the sports construction industry, 5.5% to the Soccer Federation, etc.

The 1989 CONI proceeds from Totocalcio and Enalotto, another sport lottery, exceeded LIT 931.5 billion (approximately \$745 million), LIT 152.2 billion of which went to the Italian Soccer Federation, and LIT 221 billion was allocated to all other sports federations of the country.

The CONI financial support accounts for as much as 90% of the budgets of most of Italy's national sports federations (except for the Soccer Federation). The principal criterion used to decide on the support distribution, is the size of federation memberships, as well as the performance of each of the federations, particularly in international competitions. Not surprisingly, the biggest budget is that of the Soccer Federation, which accounts for the largest share of the CONI revenues.

The "soccer business" deserves special notice, as it is one of the major sectors of the country's economy. Indeed, it is not a mistake to refer to soccer as a sector of economy. The Italian government has a history of considering it as an economic sector which brings in sizable revenues to the state budget without any special need of initial investments.

The Sport Courier, the German newspaper, aptly characterizes the financial situation of Italian soccer by pointing out that Italian professional soccer's annual revenues are three times those of German soccer.

It should be noted that, in contrast to the other Western states, where the development of physical culture and sports is financed by the state budget, it is the Italian government which collects part of its revenues from sports, mainly through the imposition of taxes on soccer tickets sales, which amount to 15 — 50%. The Italian government also collects a significant share (26.8%) of the Totocalcio proceeds.

An important source of the CONI budget are profits from advertising, TV and sponsorship programs (about LIT 150 billion a year) and the funds it receives from the Italian Sports Credit Institute (ISCI). Thus, in 1990 the Institute funds amounted to LIT 65 billion. Besides, the ISCI has signed contracts with the CONI, the Motor Sports and Basketball Federations, and with the Italian Culture and Sports Association to finance sports facilities construction programs all over Italy.

Regarding sponsorship, it is worth noting that Italian companies consider sports to be a lucrative investment of advertising capital. They spend \$740 million annually for sponsorship and promotion (whereas their German counterparts invest only \$555 million).

Italian advertising agencies and sponsors are particularly interested in motor sports, soccer, cycling, basketball and volleyball. Incidentally, even the Italian Soccer Federation gets less in sponsorship contracts than does the Motor Sports Federation. In 1991, companies invested in soccer and motor sports \$125 million and \$268 million, respectively, in advertisements and sponsorship funds. Sponsorships of companies in other sports range between \$10 million and \$50 million (basketball — \$51 million, volleyball — \$35 million, track and field events — \$28 million, etc.).

Compared to the National Olympic Committees of other West European countries, the CONI probably is the most stable of them all in terms of financial stability. This is due to the fact that the CONI has its own sources of finance, particularly the above-mentioned Totocalcio program.

## THE INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY AND THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

The IOC continuously monitors Olympic education, dissemination of information about Olympism, the history of the Ancient and Modern Olympic Games, the principles and values of modern sports, the role of Olympic sport in the system of training and education, its interface with other social life matters, the theory and practice of athletes training schedules and competitions, etc.

To date, the IOC includes two independent bodies which are to see to those tasks: the International Olympic Academy and the Olympic Museum.

### The International Olympic Academy

The idea of an education center in Ancient Olympia was first suggested by Professor Ioanis Christafis, an IOC representative in Greece, at the Olympic Congress in 1926, when delegates discussed a possibility of restoring an ancient gymnasium. A year later, there emerged the issue of setting up the Olympic Cultural Center in Olympia, during a visit of Pierre de Coubertin to Greece for unveiling of a memorial stele to commemorate the revival of the Olympic Games (N. Filaretos, 1991). The idea of a memorial to symbolize the rebirth of the Olympic Games, had been put forth originally by the NOC of Greece as long ago as in 1914. Coubertin suggested that the memorial stele and a plaque should be put up in Olympia, thereby emphasizing once again the inalienable link between Ancient Olympic Games and the modern Olympic movement.

The 1934 Athens Session of the IOC discussed in detail how best set up an education center. The Greek NOC offered to reconstruct the stadium and the hippodrome in Olympia at its own cost, to build an archeological museum at the expense of IOC member-countries, and to preserve the sacred Altis. Particularly active in this undertaking were John Ketseas, Secretary General of the NOC of Greece, and Professor Karl Diem of Germany, who put in a lot efforts to set up such a center in Olympia.

The opening of the International Olympic academy (IOA) took place in the summer of 1961, simultaneously with the opening of the reconstructed ancient stadium, which had been unearthed by the German Archeological society at its cost and given over to the government of Greece.

The IOA goals are set forth in Item 2 of its Charter: "The goal of the IOA is to set up an international cultural center to preserve and disseminate the Olympic spirit; to study and implement the public and educational principles of the Games; to effect scientific consolidation around the Olympic idea in conformity with the principles



A bird's view of the International Olympic Academy  
in Olympia

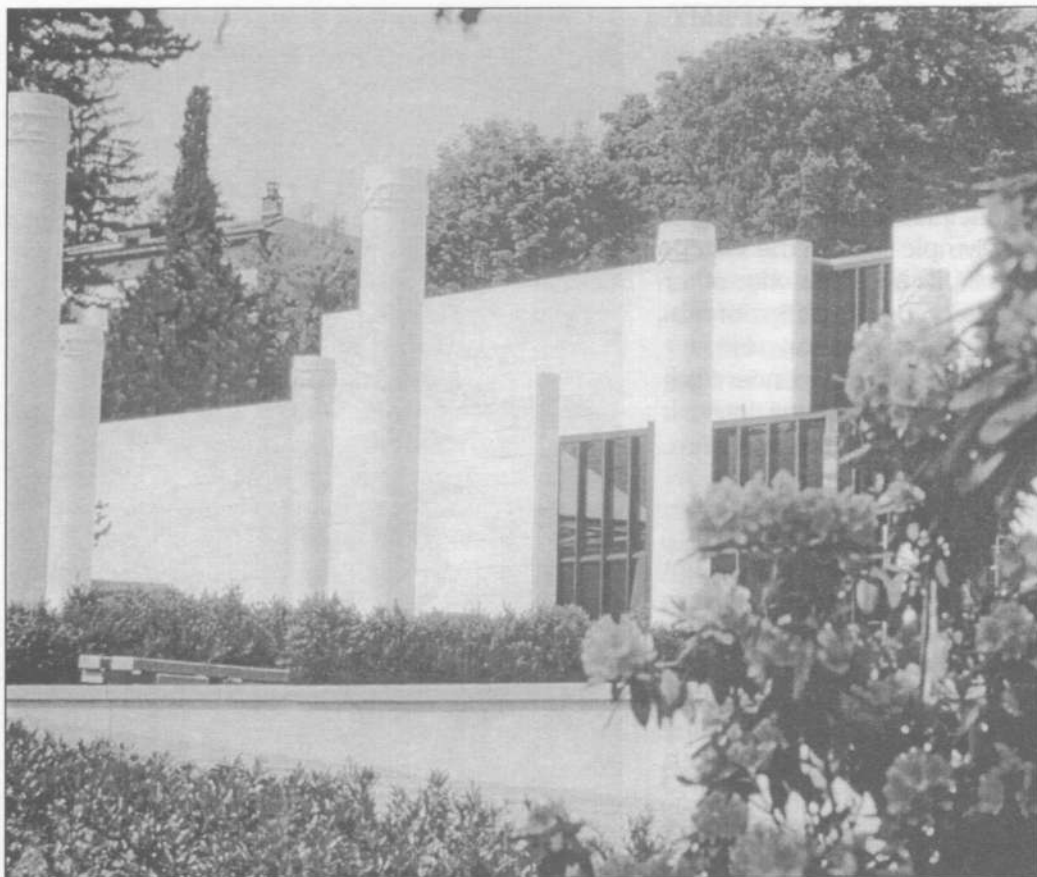
put forward by the Ancient Greeks, and with the revival of the modern Olympic movement initiated by Baron de Coubertin."

The IOA activities include holding International Sessions for young representatives of NOCs and special sessions for representatives of NOCs, NOAs, IFs, etc. The IOC also holds sessions for sport reporters, coaches, sport judges, leaders and faculty members of physical education establishments, etc. The IOA pays special attention to educating students who will be specialists in the area of physical education and sport.

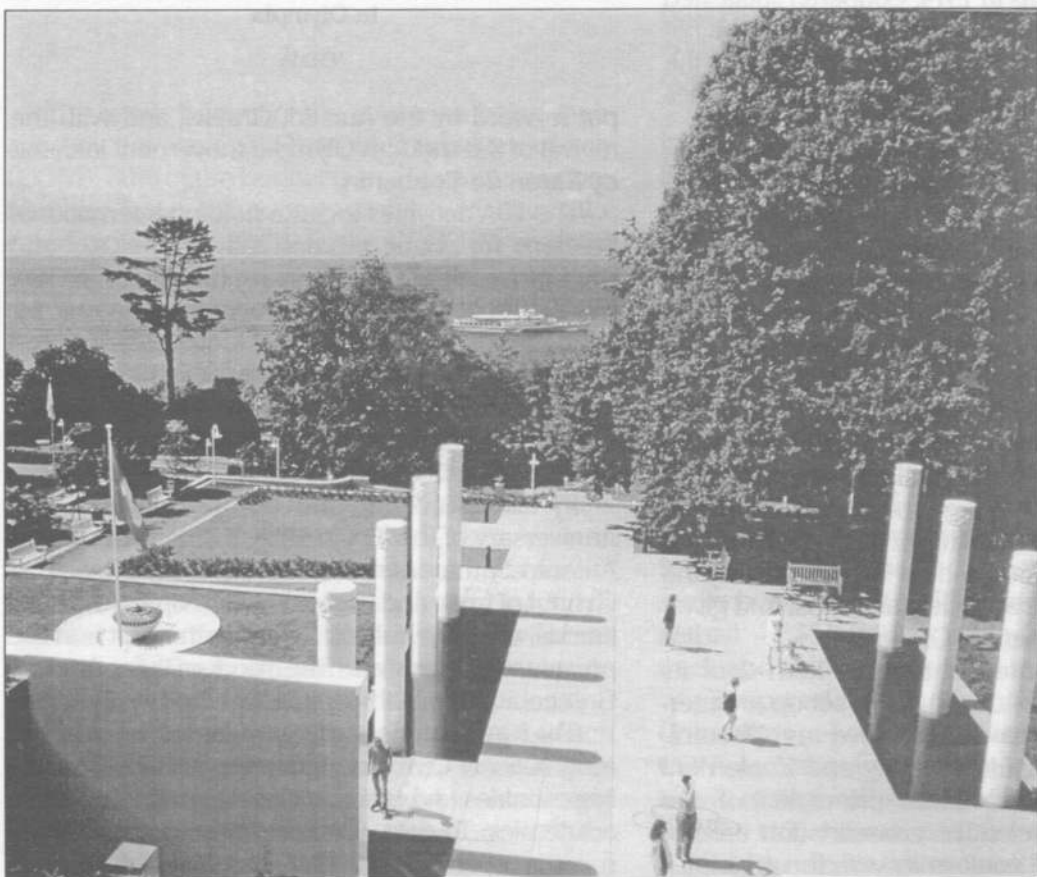
In his speech on the occasion of the 25th Anniversary of the IOA in 1986, IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch characterized the IOA as "a symbol of unity and friendship of peoples and continents, a wonderful link between the past and the present, traditions and the modern age, Ancient Greece and the 20th century".

The IOA is working actively towards the aim of creating national Olympic academies in the IOC member-countries and ensuring close relations with these academies. To date, there are over 60 such academies in operation. In 1991, the National Olympic





Entrance  
to the Olympic  
Museum



The Olympic  
Park (a view  
from the  
Olympic  
Museum)

**The Olympic  
Flame bowl  
in the Olympic  
Museum park**



Academy of Ukraine was established. Drawing on the huge scientific potential of the local education and scientific centers, the Academy actively expands its activities the aim of dissemination of information as relates Olympic sport and physical education.

For instance, in 1993 — 94 several delegations of sport specialists from Ukraine attended the IOA sessions devoted to various problems of Olympism.

Under the auspices of the National Olympic Academy, a major international scientific congress "Modern Olympic Sport" was held in Kiev in May 1994, attended by 185 specialists from more than 40 countries of the world.

The Congress proceedings covered three areas:

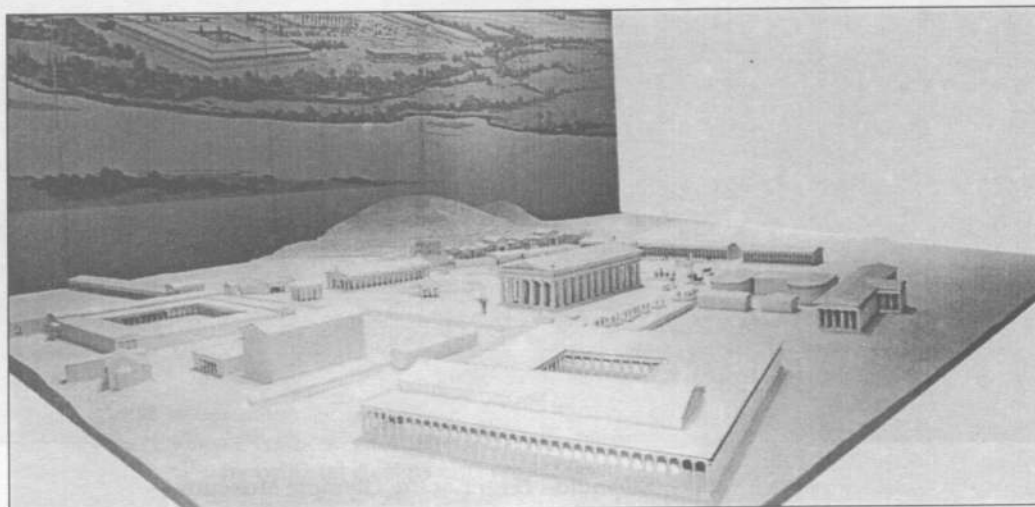
- 1) historic, humanitarian, political, organizational, social and economic foundations of Olympic sport;
- 2) training systems in Olympic sports;
- 3) medical and biological foundations of training in Olympic sports.

The 1994 Kharkiv session of the Ukrainian NOA, which was devoted to the Centenary of the Olympic movement, was attended by young researches, University students, postgraduate students, members of scientific societies, educational and research institutions staff members from 12 countries. They presented their papers and reports on the Olympic Games in Ancient Greece, on the rebirth and history of the modern Olympic movement, and on the current state and the future of Olympic sport.

### **The Olympic Museum**

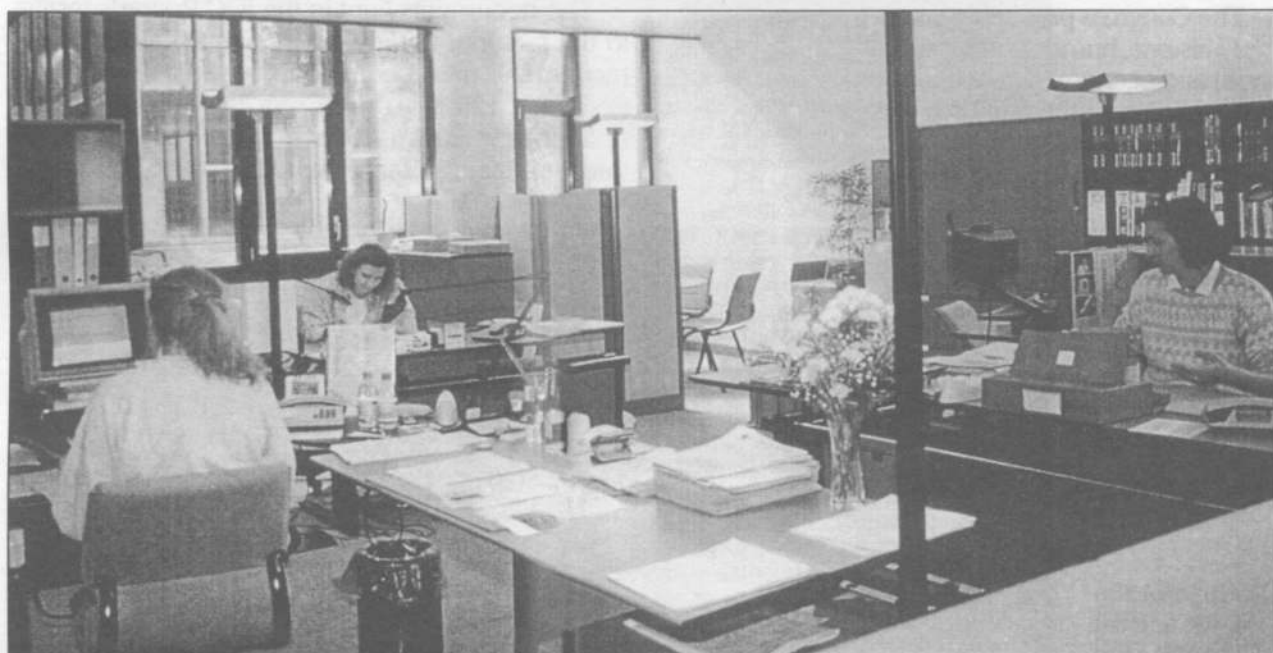
The documents kept in the IOC Records testify to the fact that the idea of setting up an Olympic movement had been conceived by Pierre de Coubertin. But only the current IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch has been able to put this idea into practice, which was mainly due to an

**Reconstruction  
of the ancient  
Olympia at the  
Olympic  
Museum**



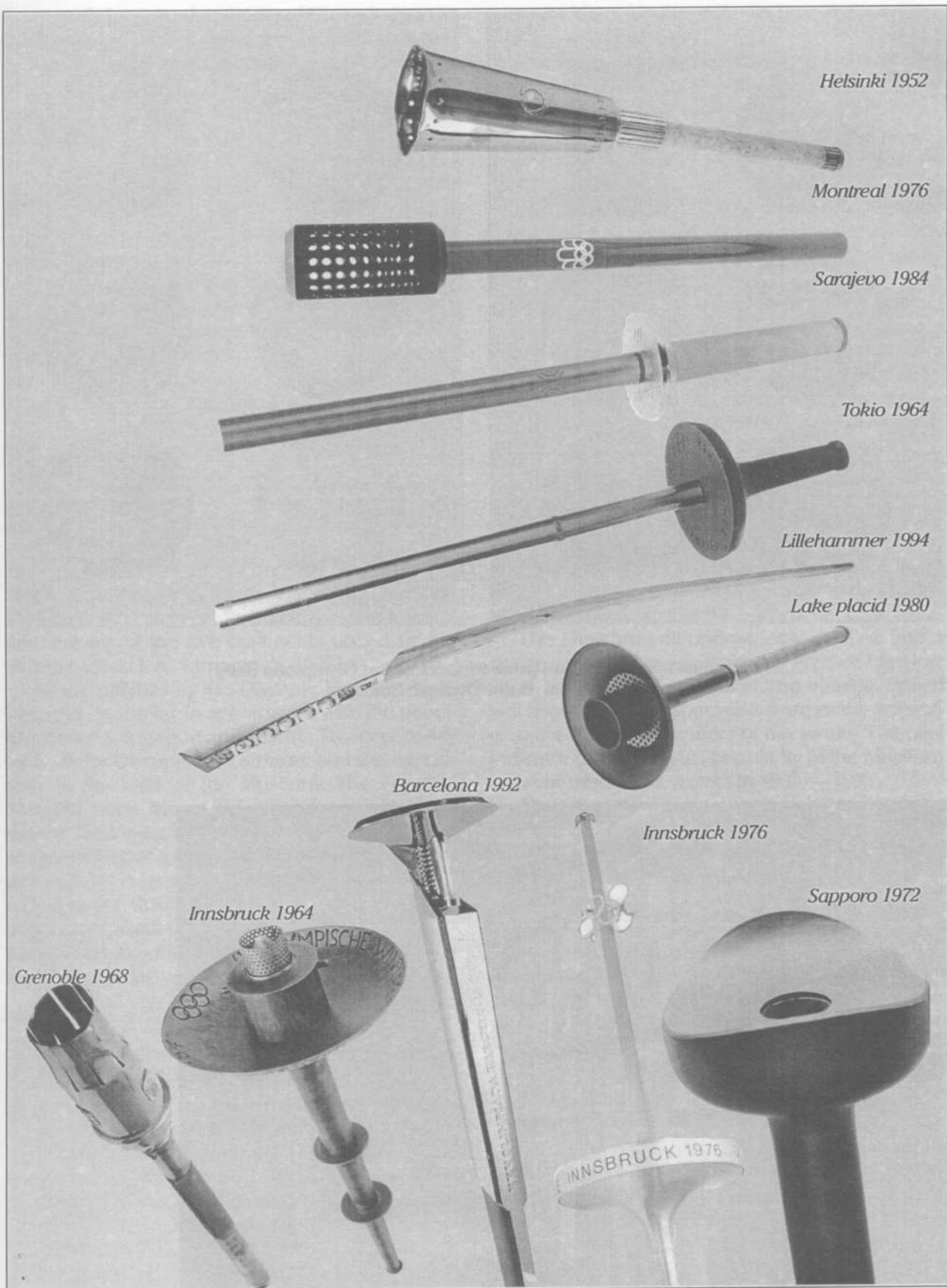


Several exhibits of the Olympic Museum

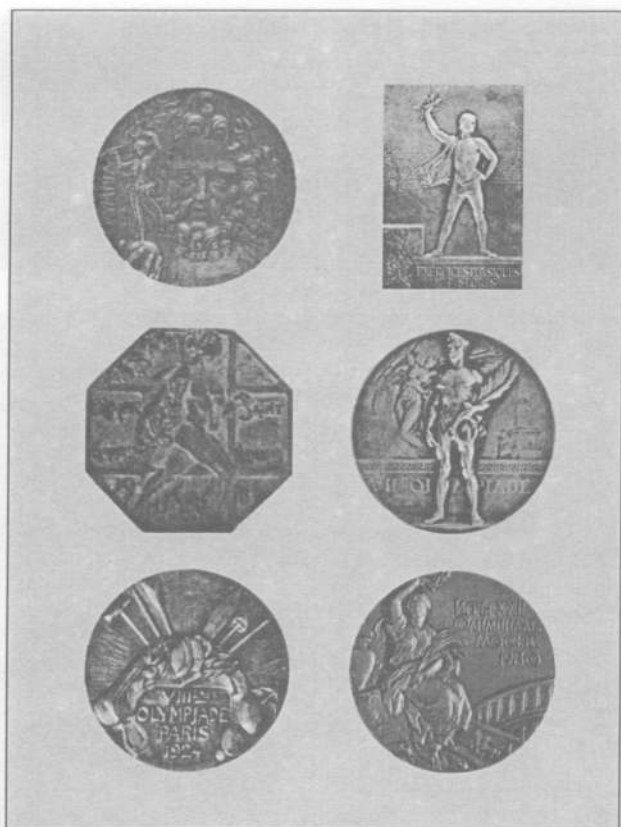


Education center at the Olympic Museum





Since 1936 the Olympic torch ceremony became an integral part of the Olympic Games. Utilized torches are distinguished by original design and versatility



Medals of winners and prize winners of the Olympiads (left)  
and the winter Olympic Games



Library  
of the Olympic  
Museum

immensely increased authority of Olympic sport in the world and its well developed economic base.

The IOC was given the title for a 23.22 sq. m. plot of land east of the Hotel Beau-Rivage Park on June 13, 1984 to build a museum there. To leave the natural beauty of the environment intact, it was decided to construct two of the five floors (total area 11,000 sq. meters) underground (K. Spaeti, 1993).

The Olympic Museum has been built of white marble to remind people of the Greek origin of the Olympic Games. The marble, which has been a gift from the government of Greece, symbolizes the unblemished simplicity of the Olympic ideals. The Museum was designed by IOC member Pedro Ramirez Vaskes of Mexico and Jean-Pierre Cahen of Switzerland. This ingenious design came about as a result of the partnership of the representatives of two different cultures. The Olympic part hosts sculptures by outstanding architects.

The ceremony of the unveiling of the Olympic Museum took place on the 23rd of June, 1993 to commemorate the Centenary of the modern Olympic movement, as a tribute to the memory of and a sign of respect for its founders (Pierre de Coubertin in particular), as well as sport leaders and athletes of the five continents united by the Olympic idea (J. A. Samaranch, 1993).

All the exhibits in the Olympic Museum have been put on display in accordance with the principle of combining sport and culture. This goes to say for both the Olympic part territory and the expositions in the halls of the Museum. The Olympic Museum hosts the world biggest expositions of objects belonging to the age of Ancient Greece. Many exhibits of great historical value have been donated by museums from different countries, including the Russian Hermitage. Along with the ongoing expositions, the Museum also displays periodic exhibitions (L. Montcal, 1993). The first of such expositions was devoted to the cities which

were bidding for the right to host the Olympic Games of the year 2,000.

The exposition on the Fifth Floor demonstrates a complete history of the Olympic movement, its current state and its future. It emphasizes the growing influence of the Olympic Games in the world in social, economic and historical terms (I. Agostoni, 1993).

The Museum came into being due to an enormous and enthusiastic support of various donors. Eighty percent of the construction cost was financed by 50 entities. They also supplied the necessary equipment and hardware: most sophisticated, state-of-the-art audio and video equipment was donated by Matsushita, photo equipment came from Kodak. All computers were supplied by IBM. These industrial companies agreed to continuously update all the equipment and services in the Museum (M. Payne, 1993).

Seiko will stage a special exhibition there, devoted to the development of time-measuring devices and equipment used in sport. The famous sport equipment manufacturers Adidas, Mizuno and Asics will organize exhibitions of sportswear and sport equipment, which have allowed athletes to win the Olympic Games gold medals.

The Museum will undoubtedly develop into a major center of research in the area of Olympic sport, the Olympic education and training, which will allow it to unite specialists from many scientific and educational centers of the world. The best indicator of the growing popularity of the Museum is the number of its visitors in 1993 — 1995.

The Olympic movement can also be a major factor in bringing about the idea of creating, under the auspices of the IOC, the International Olympic University similar to the Rockefeller University in New York or the UN University in Tokyo (H. Weinberg, 1994), which could serve the ideals of Olympism through finding scientific and practical solutions of many problems in Olympic sport.