

PRESIDENTS OF THE INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE AND THEIR ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF OLYMPIC SPORT

•

The development of modern Olympic sport had largely been determined by the attitudes and practical activities of the IOC Presidents. There are many reasons to affirm that a planned development of the Olympic movement, its stability and authority was to be accounted for, to a large extent, by the weight and influence of the IOC leaders, their outstanding public and professional integrity and responsibility relating the destiny of Olympic sport.

Therefore, the international Olympic movement has always been and still is greatly dependent on their attitudes and activities.

Demetrius Vikelas

(1894 — 1896)

In 1894 D. Vikelas took part in the First International Sport Congress in Paris, which decided to organize modern Olympic Games. During the discussions as to how to go about this idea, he put forward and substantiated his proposal to stage the Olympic Games in 1896 in Athens.

According to the Olympic Charter approved by that Congress, the IOC President was to be a representative of the country which was chosen to host the upcoming Olympic Games. That Congress elected Mr. Vikelas, 59, the first President of the IOC.

D. Vikelas contributed a lot to the organization and conduct of the 1st Olympic Games in 1896 in Athens. In the course of the preparation for the Games, President Vikelas had successfully overcome many economic and political differences.

After the closure of the Olympic Games he passed over presidency to Pierre de Coubertin and concentrated on belles lettres. D. Vikelas died in 1908.

Pierre de Coubertin

(1896 — 1925)

Baron Pierre de Coubertin was an outstanding public figure, famous for his works in literature, history, pedagogy and sociology. But above anything else, he went down in history as the driving force behind the efforts to restart modern Olympic Games and as President of the IOC. A brief description of his life is to be found on page 39.

At the First International Sport Congress initiated by Coubertin in 1894 in Paris, twelve countries agreed with his proposal to hold regular Olympic Games starting in 1896, to create the IOC, and approved his Olympic Charter, a set of fundamental rules and regulations of the Olympic movement. The Congress also elected Coubertin as the first ever Secretary General of the IOC.

Following the success of the First Olympic Games in Greece, there appeared appeals in the Greek newspapers for a law on the Olympic Games to be always held in Greece. But this idea was flatly rejected by the IOC, which said that Olympic Games should be truly democratic and international. Consequently, the Second Olympic Games were held in Paris and P. Coubertin of France was elected President of the IOC. The Third Games were to be staged in the USA, so it was planned to elect an American, Professor W. M. Sloane, the new President of the IOC. But he refused and suggested instead that Coubertin, as the founding father of the modern Olympic movement, remain in that capacity. As a result, Pierre de Coubertin was re-elected, and the clause was scrapped requiring a new President being elected every four years.

P. Coubertin, apart from playing a major role in the launch of the modern Olympic movement, was directly involved in the preparation and conduct of the Olympic Games in 1896 — 1924.



Dimetrius Vikelas, the first IOC President



Pierre de Coubertin



Pierre de Coubertin in his study (Paris, 1911)



Pierre de Coubertin (Barcelona, 1926)



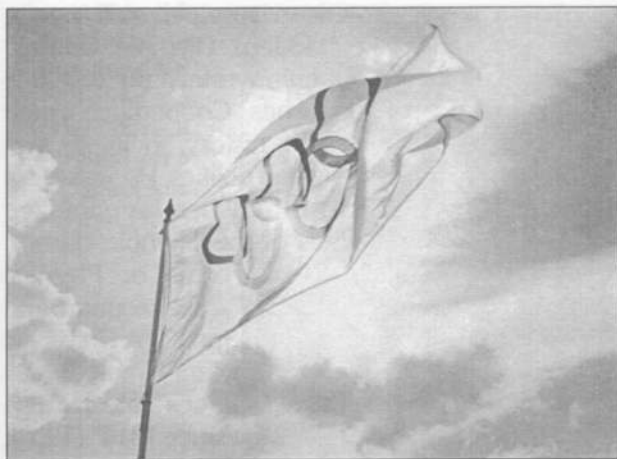
Pierre de Coubertin author of the book "Treatment by Rowing" at the age of 72

Here is what IOC A. Brundage said about P. Coubertin: "Baron de Coubertin was a pedagogue and educator, an idealist who was fanatically devoted to his idea. We owe him credit and respect for founding the modern Olympic movement". However, this statement is a gross underestimation of Coubertin's achievements. In fact, there had been numerous attempts over the whole period of the 19th century to organize movements in various

areas, including sport, according to the humanitarian principles. But very few of those proved as successful as the Olympic Games. Many of those movements failed to cope with such problems and controversies as had been overcome by modern Olympic sport. Therefore, giving due credit to the attractive ideas of Olympism and the popularity of various sports and athletic competitions, one should be fully aware of the fact that Pierre de



Pierre de Coubertin riding a new tricycle



The Olympic flag was introduced at the suggestion of Pierre de Coubertin

Coubertin, President of the IOC until 1925, had led modern Olympic sport through the intractably difficult initial period of development, when, more than once, the Olympic movement hanged in the balance.

The romanticism and idealism of Coubertin did nothing to impede his progress in founding the modern Olympic movement with amazing purposefulness and perseverance, flexibility and patience, having led it successfully through the trials and crises for more than 30 years of modern history.

Coubertin's attitudes to Olympic sport, its ideals and functions found a most comprehensive expression in his "Ode to Sport". It is interesting to note the history of this work, which had been part of the cultural program of the VIth Olympic Games in 1912 and represented as being written by H. Hohrod and M. Eschbach. "The Ode to Sport" was awarded a gold medal for the train of thoughts of the author, his vocabulary and the mission he ascribed to the Olympic literature: bringing people closer together through the cult of beauty. Eventually, it was discovered that the real author of "The Ode" was P. Coubertin, who concealed his identity by using a pen name.

It was at the Paris Congress of the IOC in 1914 that Coubertin presented his design of the Olympic flag in the form of five interlaced rings (blue, yellow, green, red and black), symbolizing the five parts of the world, with the white background to imply that every country was entitled to compete under its own national flag. Coubertin had discovered that emblem in the ancient Greek city of Delphi. The IOC flag was first hoisted June 1914 in Paris, at the Olympic Congress devoted to the 20th anniversary of the IOC. Today this flag is exhibited at the Olympic Museum in Lausanne.

The expression "What matters is participation rather than victory" is often ascribed to Coubertin. In fact, this had been the utterance used by a priest during a service at St. Paul's Cathedral in London, in June 1908, on the occasion of the Opening of the IVth Olympic Games. Later on, Coubertin developed on this idea.

The principal idea of the Ancient Greeks concerning Olympism was that man should possess physical power and beauty, intellect and spirit. The versatile development of man was possible only through a harmonious combination of these basic ingredients. That idea was an integral part of Coubertin's philosophy of Olympism. Instead of limiting the Games to the beauty and power of human efforts, he worked for the Games, like in Ancient Greece, to be accompanied by the beauty of arts.

In his activities Coubertin never overlooked the association of sport in Ancient Greece with religion, as he believed that it was that association which had ensured the incredible vitality of the Olympic Games for many centuries. The Olympism of Coubertin was linked to the loftiest ideals of Christianity and other religions.

Pierre de Coubertin often acted in the spirit of age-old romanticism, with his love of harmony and beauty reflected in his quest for perfecting humankind and improving the laws of public life. He believed that Olympism was a unique vehicle to achieve those goals, and propounded this idea in his numerous speeches and printed works. To prove this point, one could refer to one of his statements made in a meeting with specialists of physical culture and sport: 'Of all types of international-



Monument to Pierre de Coubertin in Olympia

ism to be encountered on this planet, I would declare, without any hesitations, Olympism to be the most efficient one. It seeks to secure peace and makes the old and intrinsic feeling of aggressiveness more noble and tolerant."

Beyond any doubt, Coubertin was the first pedagogue to speak out publicly about the educational role of Olympism. One can say, without any overestimation, that the "pedagogical instinct" of Coubertin was definitely stronger than his attachment to sport. As a pedagogue, he believed the upbringing of highly moral individuals to be the cornerstone of peace.

In fact, some people who knew Coubertin well, recognized powerful traits in his character and believed him to possess an "internal fighting spirit". But it would be wrong to assume that his activities had received an all-round approval and recognition. Suffice it to quote Alex Nathan, one of Coubertin's most outspoken critics who argued that his activities were full of contradictions, that actually Coubertin was an "imperialist", a "reactionary and an old regime aristocrat", a "convinced militarist" with "totalitarian mentality" brought up on the ideals of Nietzsche, a man who sought to ensure peace violently, "from the fight of physical force". This view, in principle, was shared by Karl Diem, Physical Culture Professor and member of the German IOC since 1903. However, those characteristics have never been substantiated, either in the works of Coubertin, or, moreover, in the results of his efforts. To prove this, it is enough to quote some of Coubertin's statements, which quite accurately determine his activities in the capacity of the IOC President: "Why did I revitalize the Olympic Games? To make sport stronger and more dignified, to ensure its independence and development, thereby assisting in its educational role, vested in sport by the contemporary world. In order to glorify an individual athlete, whose muscle power is needed by society, and whose courage is necessary to maintain the general spirit of competitions"; "Olympism is a state of the spirit, rather than a system. It may have a host of expressive means, therefore no separate race or epoch can claim a monopoly over it"; "The International Olympic Committee has never coerced anybody into recognizing it, it has always used means of persuasion; it rejected spontaneously the idea of an involvement in technical issues and was glad to lead an athlete to one and the same moral goal, irrespective of what sport he was practicing"; "Let us pool our forces together against those whose actions, intentionally or unintentionally, directly or indirectly, threaten to tarnish sport. We want it to remain a real school of poise, kind force and perfect honesty".

According to American researcher J. Lucas, author of the book "Modern Olympic Games" (1980), everything Coubertin wrote, if put together, would make up 25 volumes. Coubertin covered various subjects, from sport history, sociology, and philosophy to archeology and politics. He was at his most prolific in 1900 — 1914, when he published his works on the analysis of the Olympic Games, "Sport Psychology", "New Forms of Physical Education", "French Education", "Shakespeare and Victor Hugo", "Nakedness and Sport", "A University Model", "Commentaries on Ancient Greek Sport", "Why I Restored the Olympic Games", etc. He also wrote several manuals: "France since 1814" (1900), "Youth Education in the 20th century" (1905), "Essays on Sport Psychology" (1913), "Sport Pedagogy" (1919), "World History" (in four volumes, 1926). In 1931 he published "Olympic Memoirs", his second autobiographic book, the first having been published in 1909. He was editor of a monthly magazine "Revue Olympique".

Coubertin moved to Switzerland in 1918, where he officially confirmed his decision to resign on May 28, 1925.

Pierre de Coubertin had lived for 37 years in the 19th century and another 37 years in the 20th century. Upon his death in 1937, he was buried in Lausanne, and his heart, according to his will, in Olympia.

Henri de Baillet-Latour

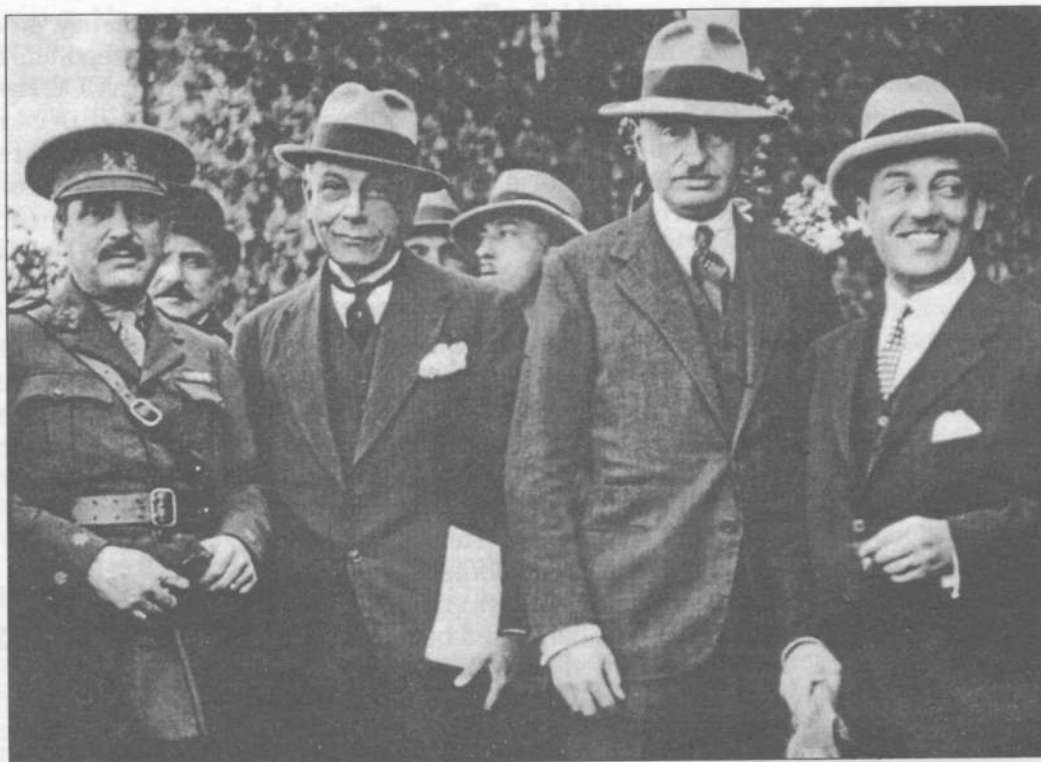
(1925 — 1942)

Count Henri de Baillet-Latour (born in 1876) graduated from Leaven University and used to be an active athlete. At the beginning of the 20th century he worked as a diplomatic representative of Belgium in the Netherlands. In 1903 he was elected the IOC member, then organized the Olympic Congress in Brussels in 1905, set up the NOC of Belgium in 1906. After the end of the Great War he proposed to celebrate the 1920 Olympic Games in Antwerp and was very active in their preparation and conduct.

Following Coubertin's resignation, Baillet-Latour was elected President of the IOC and remained in that office until his death in 1942. He owed his election, to a great extent, to Coubertin's support, who had said about him: "His unfailing activity guaranteed an excellent organization and significant success of the Olympic Congress in Brussels. He was outstanding and made an immense contribution to the Olympic movement".

Baillet-Latour had led the IOC for 17 years. According to Western specialists, he did a lot of good for further development of the Olympic

Count Henri de Baillet-Latour, the third IOC President, at the 29th IOC Session in Barcelona (1936)



President of the IOC Avery Brundage with Juan Antonio Samaranch (1967)



Avery Brundage at the rostrum (1980)

movement. However, some historians blame him for allowing the Olympic Games of 1936 in Berlin. It appears difficult, even today, to decide on a definite assessment of the IOC role in those Games. One should emphasize, though, that on the eve of the Games the IOC President had not allowed Hitler to come to the dais to congratulate Olympic champions from Germany.

The last pre-war Session of the IOC was held in 1939 in London, where Bailler-Latour said in his last speech as IOC President: "In order to fight against chaotic ideas and to bring together separate good intentions, we need to elaborate a single doctrine and, respecting everybody's freedom, adopt laws, which would be mandatory for all who would like to take part in the Olympic Games". Such a doctrine could be Coubertin's cause and the firm laws he had prepared, which contributed much to higher morals of athletes. The Olympic laws are bad only for those who feel hampered by those laws. And if the IOC is blamed for lack of toughness, this comes from those who, as a rule, bear no responsibility".

Another feature of the portrait of Henri de Bailler-Latour is that he hated Bolshevism. "Bolsheviks have outlawed themselves. As long as I am President of the IOC, the Soviet flag will not be seen at the Olympic stadium", he said.

Juhamnes Sigfrid Edstrom

(1942 — 1952)

J. Sigfrid Edstrom, a prominent figure in Swedish international sport and Olympic movement, was born in 1870. He was a qualified electric power engineer who had been educated in the USA, Switzerland and Sweden. When a student, he had been record holder of Sweden in the 100-meter dash. He became a leader of the sport movement in Sweden in the early 20th century and was actively engaged in the preparation and conduct of the 1912 Olympic Games in Stockholm.

He initiated the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF) in 1912, and had been its President in 1912 — 1946. Edstrom was member of the IOC since 1920, member of the IOC Executive Board since 1921, and IOC Vice-President since 1931. After Henri de Bailler-Latour died in 1942, Edstrom was Acting President of the IOC, and was then elected IOC President by the September 1946 IOC Session.

The whole period of Edstrom's Presidency was characterized by his effort to strengthen the Olympic movement, and to use it as a means of developing mutual understanding and cooperation between nations.

There is no unanimity among leaders of the Olympic movement, reporters and scientists when they assess Edstrom as IOC President. There exists a memorandum dated December 8, 1950, by K. Andrianov of the USSR, which says: "Swedish capitalist S. Edstrom, Chairman of the IOC Executive Board for many years, is a reactionary and adherent of the nazi regime in Germany, who rejects all proposals concerning democratization of the international Olympic movement". This, of course, was a purely subjective and biased evaluation, which was made by Soviet sport leaders who had no objective information about the IOC activities.

In 1952 Avery Brundage took over IOC Presidency from S. Edstrom, who died in 1964, at the age of 94.

Avery Brundage

(1952 — 1972)

Avery Brundage was born in 1887 in Detroit, USA. A civil construction engineer, he owned a big construction company.

When a student at Illinois University (1905 — 1909), he was a keen athlete. Brundage competed in the Olympic Games of 1912 in Stockholm and finished fifth in pentathlon. He was also the US pentathlon champion in 1914, 1916 and 1918.

A. Brundage was President of the US Amateur Athletic Union in 1928 — 1934, IAAF Vice-President in 1930 — 1952, and USOC President in 1928 — 1952.

S. Edstrom met with A. Brundage in 1929, when he visited the USA. In 1934 IOC President suggested to A. Brundage, who had been IOC member by then, that he should join the IOC Executive Board. Brundage agreed and was elected in 1936.

A. Brundage was elected IOC Vice-President in 1946. S. Edstrom did not make a secret of his wish to see Brundage as the next IOC President. However, he was apprehensive of the opposition on the part of IOC members from European countries.

Another official, who ran for the IOC Presidency in 1952, was Marquis Exeter, 1928 Olympic champion in the 400-meter hurdles. He was actively supported by K. Andrianov, representing the NOC of the USSR, who criticized A. Brundage for his anti-communism and support of the idea of "pure amateurism". In the final round of the run-off election, there had been two contenders, Brundage and Exeter. The winner was A. Brundage who got 30 votes in his favor, 17 against, and two abstentions.

Brundage, who led the IOC for twenty years (1952 — 1972) and contributed a lot to the strengthening of the authority and development of Olympic sport, was also notorious for his idealistic

and conservative views. He supported fanatically the idea of preserving the "amateur" status in Olympic sport, in spite of contradictions in that area as compared with real life. He also followed dogmatically the IOC rules and regulations and Coubertin's ideals, although they had become obsolete and no longer corresponded to the new practices in Olympic sport.

A. Brundage was a staunch opponent of nationalism in Olympic sport. In particular, he actively supported a ban on hoisting national flags and playing national anthems during the Olympic award ceremony. He proposed instead to play the Olympic Anthem or simply sound a special trumpet call. He said national flags should be flown at half-mast when the Olympic flag was hoisted over the Olympic stadium. After several years of discussions his proposal was put to a vote at the 60th IOC Session in 1963 and rejected, failing to get the necessary 2/3 of the vote (there were 26 votes for and 26 votes against the idea).

Another thing Brundage felt strongly against was the official teams' count system at the Olympic Games. The 1952 special resolution of the IOC stated: "The IOC regrets the world practice of counting and publishing the points won by individual national teams at the Games. This practice is in complete contradiction to the rules and the spirit of the Olympic Games, which imply competitions of individuals athletes, rather than nations".

Specialists believe that A. Brundage will be remembered by many people for his search for violations of the amateur status and for his efforts to punish the culprits. He was especially concerned about athletes participating in advertising and over the practice of organizing camp sessions by sport organizations.

A. Brundage sought relentlessly independence of sport from politics and opposed as best he could all attempts to bring politics into sport, although he was fully aware that "... no national organization is able to stand in active opposition to its government if the latter resolves to take over control of sport or use sport as a political instrument".

Very often Brundage had to face difficult problems in the Olympic movement, which were a reflection of close relations of sport and politics. When a number of states decided to boycott the Melbourne Games in protest over the Soviet troops crushing the uprising in Hungary, he said: "Every civilized person is shocked by what had happened in Hungary, however, this incident can not be a reason to break up international cooperation... If withdraw from competitions whenever politicians violate the laws of humanity, we shall simply end up being deprived of international athletic competitions..."

The Cold War-era confrontation of the two political systems on the Olympic arena had created numerous problems for Brundage and his followers. "Politicians try to take the upper hand over Olympics, but the IOC will never allow that", declared Brundage in 1964.

Since the late 1950's, representatives of the USSR and other Socialist states repeatedly proposed to undertake a complete overhaul of the IOC, which they described was "an undemocratic and unrepresentative organization". In response, Brundage emphasized that "... the Soviet Union insists that Presidents of all NOCs and IFs be members of the IOC. But this would bring the number of IOC members to 200. This will plunge the whole Olympic movement into politics", "... they are seeking to turn the organ, which is above politics, into an international society of debates and rhetoric".

All those years the IOC President repeatedly stressed that the Committee, which elects its members from among the most prominent figures of the world of sport, had never pursued the aim of representing all nations and countries participating in the Olympic movement.

A. Brundage came down hard on political actions in the US sport. In 1962 he warned the USA that "they will be banned from international arena if they go on mixing up politics and sport". That statement came following the refusal of the US government to issue entry visas to the GDR athletes to take part in the hockey world championship.

Giving due credit to Brundage for his contribution to the development of Olympic sport, strengthening its authority in the world, its independence from politics, one cannot but emphasize that the idealistic views of the IOC President, unaltered irrespective of new developments in sport and the whole world, had, to a certain extent, impeded the development of Olympic sport and stood in the way of strengthening its ties with other aspects of life.

IOC President Avery Brundage, who passed his office to M. Killanin in 1972, died in 1985, at the age of 98.

Michael Morris Killanin

(1972 — 1980)

Lord Michael Morris Killanin, an Irish Catholic Liberal, went in for boxing and rowing, and was an experienced rider. Educated at Paris and Cambridge Universities, he used to be a reporter for "Daily Express" in 1935 — 1936, a military reporter in Asia in 1937 — 1938, a political analyst for "Daily Mail" and "Sunday Dispatch" in 1938 — 1939. In 1938 — 1945 he fought in the Second



**Lord Michael Killanin passes a symbolic key
to the newly elected IOC President
Juan Antonio Samaranch**

World War as an officer in the British Army. He was an administrator at several industrial companies in the late 1940's — early 1950's.

Lord Killanin was elected President of the NOC of Ireland in 1952, was IOC member since 1952, member of the IOC Executive Board since 1967, IOC Vice-President since 1968 and IOC President in 1972 — 1980. In 1983 he wrote a book "My Olympic Years", in which he described in detail his views on the problems of the Olympic movement.

M. Killanin worked very actively towards drawing bridges between the IOC, IFs and NOCs; organizing the 11th IOC Congress in Varna, Bulgaria in 1973, and holding the Olympic Games in Moscow in 1980.

He was extremely cautious about the problem of professionalism in the Olympic sport, which can be seen in his following pronouncement: "A rude intrusion of professionalism would pose a serious danger for the Olympic movement, leaving it wide open for various smooth operators. That this is indeed the case, you need not look further than at what is going on in tennis. "Open" Olympic Games is a similar risk".

However, M. Killanin was in favor of realistic policies of the IOC, which would make it possible to conform to the Olympic principles, while taking into account the changes occurring in the real world. This resulted, among other things, in a change of the IOC attitude to the problem of commercialism in sport and in the status of "amateur athlete".

M. Killanin was trying, unsuccessfully, to mediate in political differences and to defuse political tensions around the Olympic Games through the reorganization of the Olympic Games. He also sought to propagate the Olympic idea so that it could reach beyond the limits of the Olympic Games: "The Olympic movement is not a direct attachment of the Olympic Games. It exists all over the world, 24 hours a day, every day of each year."

Juan Antonio Samaranch

(since 1980)

Juan Antonio Samaranch, the seventh President of the IOC, was born in 1920. His career in the Olympic hierarchy began in the late 1940's — early 1950's, when he was appointed a Sports Advisor in the municipality of Barcelona, and was later President of the Spanish Roller-skate federation. He was member of the Organizing Committee of the 2nd Mediterranean Games of 1955 in Barcelona, and Chef de Mission of the team of Spain at the Winter Olympic Games in Cortina d'Ampezzo in 1956 and Summer Olympic Games in Rome (1960) and Tokyo (1964).

J. Samaranch became head of the Supreme Council for Sport of Spain at the age of 43, and was elected President of the Spanish NOC in 1967.

By the end of the Franco regime, J. A. Samaranch was President of the Parliament of the province of Catalonia. "Sports International" dubbed him "the King's man", quoting Samaranch as saying that "restoration of monarchy in Spain has been the only right solution of the country's problem".

As Samaranch himself put it, he became member of the IOC in 1966 through the support of A. Brundage who wanted him to take over as the next IOC president. Samaranch was the IOC Chief of Protocol and Chairman of the IOC Commission on Press Matters, Vice-President of the IOC in 1974 — 1978 and Spanish Ambassador to the USSR for three years (1977 — 1980). He has also been stamp collector for years.

J. A. Samaranch began active work at the IOC in 1976, when Lord Killanin announced his decision to resign after the Moscow Olympic Games in 1980. The 83rd Session of the IOC had a choice of several contenders for Presidency: J. A. Samaranch,

James Ufrel of Canada, Marc Hodler of Switzerland, and Willie Daume of Germany, with Samaranch taking the majority of votes in the first round.

At the beginning of his tenure Mr. Samaranch took a number of steps to strengthen the IOC positions, to improve stability and authority of the Olympic movement, providing for broader contacts of the Olympic movement with other international organizations developing sport.

The Swiss Confederation recognized the IOC as an international NGO. The Extraordinary Conference of the World Organization for Intellectual Property in Nairobi adopted the International Convention to protect the Olympic emblems. On February 10, 1982, Mr. Samaranch addressed the UN Secretary General for recognition of the IOC role and its independence, as well as for permission to hold the Olympic Games in any part of the world without any political obstacles.

Due to a growing number of conflicts between sport leaders and government officials, the IOC President proposed to set up, jointly with IFs and NOCs, the International Sport Court, similar to the Hague Court.

Mr. Samaranch elaborated his own concept of the IOC activities based on the following fundamental principles:

- joint work and close cooperation of all participants of the international Olympic movement, representatives of the IOC, IFs and NOCs;
- recognition of the independence and maturity, as well as guaranteed representation of each integral parts of the international Olympic movement (the IOC, NOCs, IFs) at the Olympic Games and other Olympic events;
- conciliation of the IOC regulations with the requirements of the contemporary world;
- expansion of the process of commercialism in the Olympic movement;
- taking into account the new status of an Olympic athlete; reconsideration of the attitude to professionalism in order to lift the level of competition at the Olympic Games and to alter the balance of performances between Western and Eastern countries;
- recognition and implementation of other forms of sporting practices, particularly in mass sport, sport for all and sport for the handicapped;
- bringing sport and Olympism together with other spheres of human activities;
- taking a firm stand concerning apartheid in sport;
- tougher doping controls;
- seeking cooperate with all government and non-government bodies which take an interest in the development of sport.

He also paid special attention to normalizing relations with mass media, which have been strained at all times. P. de Coubertin understands full well important implications of that problem. Thus, in his report "Responsibility and the reform of the press" in 1924 in Lausanne, Coubertin gave an in-depth analysis of the reporting profession, causes of unprofessional and subjective reporting of events, ways to reform the press, the mentality of reporters, safeguards against subjectivity, cheap sensations and lies (J. Marchand, 1994). President Samaranch had been well aware of those problems ever since he worked under M. Killanin on the IOC Press Commission (W. Lyberg, 1994). The IOC took a number of organizational measures relating to the mass media, which resulted in a significant change of the attitudes of the press, radio and TV to the international Olympic movement: they grew more objective, comprehensive, respectful and friendly.

In 1992 D. Miller published a biography of J. A. Samaranch. On the basis of documents, various opinions of state officials, leaders and participants of the international Olympic movement, and biographical data, the author described well the profile of the seventh President of the IOC and the activity of that body. Of special interest are his comments on some features of the President, the peculiarities of his work style, his attitudes to sport and its place in today's world:

"Having identified a set of truly revolutionary directions in the future development of Olympic sport, after a lot of preliminary investigation, numerous meetings, through fact finding missions, and the analysis of the current situation in sport, Samaranch demonstrated an amazing flexibility, resolution and industry in directing Olympic sport along those lines. At the beginning of Samaranch presidency many people were amazed at the way he was preparing his moves: everywhere and with everybody. He had a knack of encouraging people to talk without revealing his own position, probing for any opinion from the people he met. He possessed a fantastic mobility, creating his own information network. He had a historic insight and a vision of what would be particularly important in future. A consummate diplomat, he had the skills of transforming ideas into the voice of the majority. Those qualities have been augmented by his inclination to Spanish grandeur and desire to propagate the Olympic ideal all over the world."

In fact, it is these qualities that largely determined the success of Samaranch's efforts, both in solving strategic issues of the development of

Olympic sport and in positive resolution of numerous complicated problems and conflicts, which always emerge in Olympic sport and at the Olympic Games. One of such difficult issues in January 1992 was the problem of athletes from the newly independent states participating in the Barcelona Games after the break-up of the Soviet Union. Following consultations with Russian President B. Yeltsin concerning a unified CIS team going to Barcelona, J. Samaranch successfully negotiated the ratification of this idea by the 12 republics of the FSU. An ingenious approach was also in evidence on the part of the IOC President in effecting the return of the South African Republic to the Olympic arena in 1992, which had a positive impact on the political thought, public life and economy relating to apartheid.

It took outstanding diplomatic and professional skills for Samaranch to resolve the issues of immediate IOC concern, such as granting to the IOC Headquarters the status of an international, independent, tax-exempt organization by the Swiss authorities, the construction, through charity and donations, of the Olympic museums on the shores of the Geneva Lake in Lausanne; administrative restructuring of the IOC in Lausanne, which caused certain in-house frictions. Equally important and compacted were attempts to elect more athletes, IFs and NOCs Presidents to the IOC, as well as coordinating the activities of the three-component system of the Olympic governing bodies: the IOC, NOCs and IFs.

J. Samaranch spared no efforts to stop the boycott of the Olympic Games in Los Angeles by the USSR and other socialist countries. He was given safety guarantee for Soviet athletes by the US President R. Reagan. He also made attempts to meet with the then Soviet leader K. Chernenko to try and secure the participation of the Soviet team in the Games. But this time all his efforts came to nothing.

In subsequent years efficient policies of the IOC President and his organization made the Olympic movement much more stable, monolithic and respectable. The proof of that is successful celebration of the Olympic Games in Seoul in 1988, despite an extremely tense political situation on the eve of the Games. By the time of the Barcelona Olympics in 1992, the idea of boycotting the Olympics had become so unpopular that there was no way this possibility could even be seriously considered by those who would not be averse to using the Olympic arena for their political ends.

In a 1984 interview to the "Sports Illustrated" J. Samaranch stressed: "Every President has his

own ways of running the IOC. Lord Killanin is my close friend. We have worked many years together. He has his own work style. I have a different approach to problems. I believe I should be at the IOC Headquarters at all times, so that every person would perform specific job in our organization." There is no doubt that J. Samaranch is an industrious person who not only managed to get acquainted practically with all NOCs over the years of his Presidency, but also united them by the one common idea "The IOC strength is in its unity".

J. Samaranch is fully aware that the obvious success of the Olympic Games and the active development of Olympic sport these years imply further studious work to improve its basis in terms of ideas, organization, material support, and in purely sporting terms. Thus, addressing the participants of a symposium in Matsumoto, Japan "Human Society and the Olympic Movement in the 21st Century" (1991), he declared: "The Olympic movement is widely respected and plays a focal role in the world development of human society and education. Yet the scale and significance of this respect and its social role make Olympism and sport vulnerable... In the coming years we are to study ways of developing sport in combination with culture... Olympism is a philosophy which seeks, combining sport and culture, to create a life style which is based on joy obtained through an effort, on the educational value of a positive example and on respect of universal ethical principles".

An objective characteristic of one of the IOC President features, we believe, was suggested by the Swiss newspaper "Sport" when it called him the first professional manager of the Olympic movement: "Samaranch had realized the most important thing: that the Olympic movement should be managed by economic, rather than political mechanisms. Having more trust in the hard currency than in the rackets majority of certain political faction, he decided "to sell off" the Olympic Games, the Olympic movement, its symbols and attribute. The motto of Samaranch is to run things from the position of a financial strength, rather than float along the political flow".

Having stabilized Olympic sport, ensuring its authority and economic independence, Samaranch raised the IOC activity in drawing the organization closer to the most important international bodies, the UN above all. A historical breakthrough came when the 48th Session of the UN Assembly adopted Resolution on the Olympic Truce and 1994 being pronounced the International Year of Sport and the Olympic ideal.

The IOC has signed cooperation agreements with UNESCO, The World Health Organization (WHO), the UN Children Foundation, the UN Commission on Refugees (F. Kidane, 1994). More and more effort is put in by the IOC to strengthen the links of sport with culture and art, to protect the natural environment, to stop military conflicts. A vivid example of the results of such efforts was to be seen at the Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer. They stood apart from the previous Games in the wide scope of the cultural program and in the wide range of steps effected to protect the environment (the Lillehammer Games were declared to be ecology-friendly). One should mention also the visit of Samaranch to the former Yugoslavia during the Olympic Games celebration to try and contribute whatever was possible in the efforts to stop hostilities there.

Many historians, reporters, leaders of international and national sport organizations and NOCs differ in evaluating the activities of the seventh IOC President. Some point out his relentless focus on the Olympic movement democratization and consolidation, strengthening of the Olympism principles, more authority acquired by the IOC and Olympic sport in the world. Others criticize the President for his conservatism, disregard of the principles of Olympism, for commercialism and professionalism in Olympic sport. Only future will prove if the way chosen by J. Samaranch, is really the best. But even today one can say with certainty that Samaranch will go down in the history of Olympic sport as a great reformer, a wise and flexible politician who succeeded in both putting together a consistent system of attitudes to the contemporary Olympic sport and in implementing them.

AMATEURISM IN OLYMPIC SPORT

The problem of amateurism has emerged in sport long before the rebirth of the Olympic Games and has been one of the most difficult and controversial at all the periods of the modern Olympic sport development.

Notions of an Amateur Athlete

The concept of an "amateur" appeared in English sport in the first half of the 19th century. *Encyclopedia Britannica* has the following entry on this subject: "Originally the word signified a participant of any type of art, handicraft, game, sport or other activity purely for entertainment and recreation. Therefore, those athletes that had an advantage in strength or skills due to their profession were not eligible to compete with amateurs. Thus, it was thought to be unfair to allow among amateurs working class representatives who were considered professionals *a priori*. According to sport historians, the terms "amateur" and "professional" were first applied at the Intercollegiate Rowing Race at Oxford in 1823. On one of the teams was boat builder Stephen Davis, who, accordingly, was banned from the race.

It should be remembered that the idea of amateurism has nothing to do with the Olympic Games in Ancient Greece. The top athletes there had been supported by their native towns. They were provided with free food, were exempt from taxes, received expensive presents, substantial pecuniary prizes, which was enough for the athletes to live comfortably for many years (D. C. Young, 1984). Incidentally, the substantial gains of the ancient Olympic champions were never described as "profit", "remuneration" or "salary". Neutral terms were used instead, like for instance "prizes", "gifts", etc. For this reason probably ancient athletes were believed to give more significance to participation in competitions than to an opportunity to earn money (H. Pleket, 1992).

Pecuniary gifts and prizes had not been taken into account at those times in determining the

amateur status of athletes. In 1831, for example, the Leander and Oxford rowing clubs competed for a 200-pound-sterling bet at the Henley Regatta, and there was no question of any one of the teams being stripped of the amateur status.

The status of an amateur in England used to be determined by the athlete's social origin, rather than according to the pecuniary prize he had won. All amateurs called themselves "gentlemen". These were, as a rule, aristocrats who viewed such prizes as an award, and not a means of sustenance.

One cannot but agree with what R. Hickok wrote in *The New Encyclopedia of Sports* published in the USA in 1978: "Though the first half of the nineteenth century, the difference between an amateur and a professional in England was basically a class distinction".

By the middle of the 19th century, the concept of "an amateur" had gradually changed. Here is how the Charter of the Amateur Athletic Club of England defined this status in 1886:

"Any gentlemen who has never competed in an open competition, or for any prize money, or for admission money, or with professionals for a prize, public money, or admission money, and who has never in any period of his life taught or assisted in the pursuit of athletic exercises as a means of livelihood; nor as a mechanic, artisan or labourer" (E. Glaser, 1978).

Thus, amateurs were forbidden to earn money through sports in the last century. But the wording of the Charter is clearly elitist, class-orientated and discriminatory.

England of the second half of the 19th century was breaking new grounds in sports. This is why Coubertin, setting forth the idea of reviving the Olympic Games, could not but take into account the requirement of the English sport leaders concerning an amateur status to be recognized as one of the fundamental principles of the emerging Olympic movement. However, whereas for a Victorian gentleman the notion of an amateur was a means to distinguish himself from a laborer, viz.

professional, Coubertin saw a lot more in this idea, namely, a safeguard to keep unblemished the morality of sport.

Already at the First Olympic Congress of 1894 in Paris, which resolved to set up the IOC and to restore the Olympic Games, also discussed the issues of amateur and professional sport: the need for one interpretation of the notion of "an amateur" in various sports, a possibility being a professional in one and an amateur in others, obtaining funds for training and participation in competitions from sport organizations. Subjects of discussion at that Congress included even gambling, or placing bets on the outcome of competitions.

The text of amateur rules, published in the IOC News Letter #1 in 1894, included seven clauses, the most important of them being as follows: "An amateur in sport is any person, who has never competed in competitions open for all, or for a prize or money from any other source, or with professionals, and who has never in any period of his life has worked as a paid teacher or trainer in physical culture". It was also agreed that a participant of the Olympic Games must not be an amateur in one sport and a professional in another.

However, the wordings of the amateur status were so contradictory in different countries that even at the First Olympic Games in Athens in 1896 this caused misunderstanding and arguments not only among sport leaders, but also among spectators. Bill Henry, a famed American sport historian, mentions an unusual episode in his *History of the Olympic Games* (1981): "The Americans captured one race after another until some of the Greek public, sensing their superiority and realizing that it must result from more scientific training than had been available to the natives, raised the cry of 'Professionals!'".

The problem of amateurism has been a matter of heated discussions since 1896, although it had been in evidence over the whole period of the Olympic Games.

Pierre de Coubertin wrote after the Olympic Games in Athens: "It is impossible to conceive the Olympic Games with money prizes. But these rules, which seem simple enough, are a little complicated in their practical application by the fact that definitions of what constitutes an amateur differ from one country to another, sometimes even from one club to another. Several definitions are current in England, the Italians and the Dutch are for such a definition which is too strict in one area and too lax in others. How is it possible to bring together all of these different and contradictory ideas?"

William Sloane of the USA, one of the oldest IOC member, wrote in 1912: "The notorious issue

of amateurism and professionalism was one of the most complicated, evasive and bugging problems of sport at the First Olympic Games".

The first attempt to revise the rules of amateurism was undertaken by the IOC in 1901. Even at that time there was a great need to alter it, but the IOC members never came round to any agreement. There was a serious discussion of the problem at the 1909 IOC Session in Berlin. IOC member T. Cook of Great Britain suggested that each International Sport Federation should develop its own definition of an amateur athlete. As shown by the discussion, many people had taken up the concept of amateurism as a criterion for eligibility of athletes at the Olympic Games. Accordingly, in 1911 P. de Corsi Laffen of England T. Cook submitted a new definition of an amateur athlete to the IOC Session in Budapest:

"Any person may compete at the Olympic Games as an amateur, if he has never:

competed for a prize, money or any other wager;

been awarded money or given other financial support for competing (there was a provision that compensating employees for lost wages was not legal ground to strip athletes of their amateur status);

received any "broken-time" bonus;

sold or pawned his prize won in a competition".

The rules declared also professional coaches and instructors ineligible to compete in amateur competitions. This set of rules was adopted and enforced until the 1924 IOC Session in Antwerp.

For almost three decades the principle of eligibility for the Games — the amateurism principle — had lacked clarity in the IOC documents. The principle was continuously amended and mainly finalized in the minutes of the Paris Olympic Congress as late as in 1914. The Lausanne Congress in 1921 introduced some important amendments to those principles. It was then that IFs were allowed to define the status of amateur-athletes in their respective sports.

The Prague Congress of the IOC in 1925 discussed the question, if amateurs should be allowed to be compensated for the lost wages. A new term was introduced to describe this sort of compensation, "broken-time" payment. The time was limited to two weeks, the period allowed to compete abroad within a year. It was decided that a participant of the Olympic Games was to sign a statement reading "I, the undersigned, state upon my honor that I am an amateur, in conformity with the Olympic rules of amateurism".

This decision of the 1925 Congress got a mixed reaction. Thus, because of differences over the amateur status, tennis was expelled from the

Olympic program in 1925. In 1926, the International Federation of Football Associations (FIFA) resolved to allow the "broken-time" payments to contestants and, because that decision contradicted to the documents of the Prague congress, FIFA submitted its decision for approval by the IOC. The IOC Executive Board agreed that football players be paid compensation through their national federations for the wages lost during the Olympic tournament. In protest, the British Football Association, which adhered to the aristocratic rules of amateurism, then decided to withdraw from the Olympic football tournament of 1928. And in 1930, when the Olympic Congress of 1930 revoked its permission for a wage compensation, FIFA refused to comply. As a result, football was dropped from the program of the 1932 Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

Ever since that time, the "broken-time" compensation issue had been in the center of conflicting opinions, transforming in the early 1970 into a major issue in elaborating a new concept of amateurism.

The status of an amateur-athlete was actively supported by A. Brundage, President of the USOC and IOC Vice-President. A commission under his chairmanship presented to the IOC Session of 1947 in Stockholm a new definition of an amateur-athlete, which made a special emphasis on the fact that an amateur was a person whose association with sport is not and never has been connected with obtaining any material remuneration. The IOC Sessions of 1955 and 1958 in Paris and Tokyo supported this definition.

In the mid 1960's the arguments flared up again, in the wake of news about stipends paid to American athletes, and about official financial support given to athletes in Scandinavia and some socialist countries.

Two extreme points of view clashed, one raising the principle of amateurism to an absolute, and the other proceeding, in contrast, from the realities of Olympic sport. Some people asked in amazement if it was possible to leave one area of activity artificially out of the commodity-and -monetary relations which encompassed all the world.

The principle of an "absolute" amateurism was supported by President A. Brundage, leader of the international Olympic movement for twenty years (1952 — 1972) and a well-known staunch defender of the amateur code.

Viewing that code as a peculiar philosophy of life, he said: "The amateur code, which came to us from antiquity, facilitates the noblest strivings of the best people of every generation coming to the fore. The code expresses the loftiest laws of morality, which no other religion or philosophy is able to

encompass". Defining professional sport as entertainment, A. Brundage repeatedly pointed out that amateur Olympians were athletes who practice sport for pleasure, recreation and enjoyable pastime; their sporting activity is based on pure love for sport, without any remuneration or material motives in whatever forms. A. Brundage had a lot of supporters. He run the office so that there was not even talk at the IOC about professionalism in amateur sport, let alone making "pros" eligible to compete at the Olympic Games. Therefore, all discussions then, as before, centered around the amateur status and a search for major differences between amateurs and professionals. The situation was further complicated by different attitudes to those issues on the part of NOCs in different countries and IFs. The leading IOC officials also lacked unanimity.

It did not help either when professional sport was mistakenly thought to be devoid of spirituality, morality and ethics. The attempts to differentiate amateur and professional sport under those criteria were naive and could not stand an objective analysis. Eventually, Brundage had to concede that there was nothing more complicated than a definition of amateurism in sport.

However, for many years absence of material benefits from practicing sport has been the fundamental principle of amateurism. This interpretation was the cornerstone of the amateur status as defined by the 60(59)th IOC Session in Moscow: "An amateur is a person who competes and has always competed in sport as in a subsidiary activity with no material rewards whatsoever". This clause of the Olympic Charter was known as Rule 26.

The Olympic Committee of the USSR at the IOC Session in Tokyo in 1964 offered the following definition of an amateur athlete: "An amateur is a person who competes and has always competed in sport for his/her physical and spiritual development and perfection, thereby bringing social profit without personal gains. An amateur must comply with the rules of his respective IF. Sport competitions are not a source of profit for an amateur. An introduction of a remuneration or a salary to an athlete by a national federation over the period of his participation in international athletic competitions, is not a violation of the amateur status. The Session rejected this interpretation.

That definition proposed to continue the use of the old concept of an "amateur", but in fact to resolve that problem in a different way — to consider as "amateurs" all athletes who did not participate in programs related to professional sport. The IOC would return to considering this problem in ten years.

In 1965 the IOC discussed the proposal to substitute the terms "amateur" and "professional" for "athletes supported by voluntary donations", and "athletes-mercenaries" or "paid athletes", correspondingly. But the IOC did not take any further actions other than that discussion.

An Ad Hoc Commission set up in October 1960 with IOC member Alexandru Siperko of Rumania at the head, was to work out a new version of Rule 26. Its final document was dubbed "Siperko Plan". Realizing that the Commission's findings could be in contravention of his own views, President A. Brundage set up the IOC Eligibility Commission in 1969, which was chaired by his associate, H. Wire of Australia. After a few months time, H. Wire declared, that "the main object of concern for the Commission is the encroachment of commercialism to sport. Athletes are seduced to engage in fraud and to accept bribes. Major firms attempt to use the services of Olympic champions and other participants of the Olympic Games. Particularly in winter sports, where there is big business in place, with ever intensifying tough competition among manufacturers." Thus, the two problems were officially put on the map for the first time. Professionalism and money machinations were directly tied in with commercialism in sport.

Appeals were heard more and more often to reconsider the Olympic Charter. It was becoming clear that leaving the nature of amateurism as it existed before not only did nothing to check the growing professionalism in sport, but also diverted amateur sport towards various machinations.

In 1971, A. Brundage assigned three IOC Vice-Presidents, J. de Beaumont of France, H. van Karnebeck of Holland and M. Killanin of Ireland, to discuss certain problems of the Olympic movement with the leadership of several IFs. In his memoirs "My Olympic Years" M. Killanin wrote about this mission: "It was the first time we had met the Federation heads individually and they had been given the opportunity to put their individual problems to us rather than as a collective group in the way Brundage had ordained. It was quite incredible that here in the seventies we should be doing this for the first time and coming close to the roots of the amateur problem... We came to understand the complexities of the problems and all agreed there should be changes."

The three Vice-Presidents offered their own draft of the Olympic Games eligibility rules, discarding from the old version the limited number of days for being engaged in training camps and in competitions. After A. Brundage introduced his amendments in that document, the IOC approved the new version of Rule 26 in April 1971: "To be eligible for participation in the Olympic Games, a

competitor must observe the traditional Olympic Spirit and ethic and have always participated in sport as an avocation without having received any remuneration for his participation. His livelihood must not be derived from or be engaged in a basic occupation to provide for his present and future. He must not be, or has been, a professional, semi-professional or so-called "non-amateur" in any sport. He must not have coached, taught or trained sports competitors for personal gain. Physical education teachers who instruct beginners are eligible."

From then on, an athlete was allowed to be supported by the NOC or the National Sport Federation within a specified period (30 to 60 days a year) of being engaged in training camps and competitions, including the Olympic Games. This support covered accommodation, board, travel expenses, the cost of sport equipment, the services of a coach, medical treatment, and money to cover unforeseen circumstances, within the limits approved by the IF or NOC. This support included also insurance for sport-related injuries or illnesses, as well as sport stipends. Simultaneously, the IOC did not allow "broken-time" payments, except for such compensations which were to be individually approved by the IFs or NOCs, and could not exceed the amount of athletes' salary they earned at their jobs.

In the words of Western observers, that decision marked the eclipse of the Coubertin-Brundage era in the Olympic movement. It is certainly true about A. Brundage, but Coubertin had been quite clear on this issue: he had recognized and realized the futility of the dual interpretation of the amateur status.

Here is what J. Lucas wrote on this subject (1980): "The Coubertin ideal of self-support by the amateur athlete was a concept borrowed from eighteenth-century English aristocracy. The concept was a wise one and worked nicely as long as well-to-do English gentlemen played against one another; but the rude intrusion of all the lower classes into national and international competition without an accompanying modification in the amateur code only begged for widespread abuse. Coubertin knew all this, recognized the futility of such a dual standard, and said so in print."

Coubertin wrote especially vigorously on this subject in 1936, a year before his death: "Read properly the text of the Olympic Oath, of which I am a proud author. You will not find a single word there which demands from the athletes entering the Olympic stadium an absolute amateurism, and I was the first to point to the impossibility of that claim. The only obligation in the Oath is to compete honestly... I am concerned with the Sport

Spirit, and not with the ridiculous English concept, which makes it possible to go in for sport, without violating the dogma, only for millionaires".

The Problem of Amateurism in Modern Olympic Sport

The early seventies of the 20th century were marked with a barrage of criticism of the amateur athlete status. The need for changes was quite clear to M. Killanin, the new IOC President elected in 1972. "It has become a custom to turn a blind eye on such situations, — he wrote in the book "My Olympic Years"(1983). — "Nevertheless, it should be remembered well that it was this blind-eye stand which undermined trust in non-professional sport and the Olympic Games. The better the situation is reversed, the better".

Speaking at the 71th Session of the IOC in 1971, IOC member M. Herzog of France said: "There is much to be said about what an amateur and a professional are in sport. Facts show that the difference between those is much less obvious than it was assumed. Many professional are no less devoted to sport than real amateurs, — and there are amateurs who fall victims of their own greed for money and publicity. The former are serving sport honestly and loyally, the latter are using it for their own gain... At the same time, and in complete accordance with our ideal, we must provide material grounds for educating all the world youth through sport, irrespective of their class distinction or income".

International Wrestling Federation President M. Erzegan (Yugoslavia), in an interview for the IOC magazine *Revue Olympique*, proposed to set up a separate group of top amateur athletes. In his opinion, athletes are to be ascribed the status of creators of social values, so that as such they could be guaranteed the right of a complete self-expression. M. Erzegan pointed out that any benefits should be offered to top athletes only through their clubs, national and international federations.

It was also suggested to introduce a system of special stipends for top athletes to guarantee them a stable financial support for the duration of their engagement in high performance sport. Thus, a new concept of amateurism was taking root in international sport. This change was mainly motivated by the desire to bring incentives to athletes for them to achieve highest possible results, which would help discover the potentialities of the human organism in conformity with the Olympic Motto "Citius, Altius, Fortius".

At that time, even the most active supporters of "pure" amateurism started to come to realize that

Olympic sport had become an activity, which required from athletes an enormous physical and moral input, and many years of intensive efforts. And that obviously called for both moral and material incentives. This was particularly well understood in the USSR, GDR, Hungary and other former socialist countries, which made spectacular progress on the Olympic arena through a well-balanced many-year system of Olympic training, whose important component was a more lax approach to the amateur criterion. By and by, the basis of the definitions of amateurism became the category of "Olympism", rather than material principles. In other words, moral, ethical, humanitarian and educational indicators came to the fore in various definitions of amateurism in sport.

Of interest is the opinion of the then statesmen on this subject. An ardent supporter of changing the status of amateur athletes was U. Kekkonen, President of Finland: "I deeply respect the modern top athlete, probably not only for his throw which was a few centimeters further than his rival, but for his determination, perseverance and effort, which he demonstrates in practicing sport, training and preparing for competitions... Socially, the role of that athlete is extremely important in that by his example he can involve in practicing physical culture even more people".

President of France V. Jiscard d'Estaing also supported a change in the attitude of the government to top athletes: "I am for the adoption of the status of top category athletes. All the nation should help him in his training, in acquiring a profession and in social promotion".

Naturally, the 43rd IOC Congress, which was convened in 1973 Varna after a 43-year interval, had the concept of amateurism on its agenda. In his speech there IOC President M. Killanin said he did not object to a financial support for athletes by governments or private entrepreneurs, provided this support is given through National Olympic Committees or International Sport Federations, and never illegally. The Congress recommended that the IOC brings Rule 26 closer to life. Accordingly, alterations were introduced in that Rule by the Vienna Session of the IOC in 1974. The name of the Rule was changed from "Provisions on Amateurism" to "Eligibility Provisions". This, the IOC allowed athletes to be compensated for "broken time" during preparation for and participation in competitions, and to get reimbursed for their board, accommodation, travel expenses, the sport equipment and uniforms they use, insurance, medical treatment, physiotherapy and coaching. Special provision was introduced that all these payments should necessarily be endorsed by the national sport organizations. Amateur athletes

were also allowed to get sport and academic stipends.

The new concept of amateurism stipulated uniform conditions of training and competing for representatives of all classes and systems, it put paid to the sham and lies involved in athletes getting illegal financial support.

In fact, the 1974 IOC Session removed those complaints of Western mass media to Soviet and American athletes, some of whom had government backing, whereas others were paid sport stipends at colleges and Universities or salaries by private firms and corporations.

However, the removal of the word "amateur" from the Olympic Charter boosted the idea of the "Open" Olympic Games, where all athletes would be eligible to compete, including professionals. Sport specialists believed that the actual life determined by economy, advertising and mass media, had long ago proved the futility of the existing differentiation of "amateurs" and "professionals" under the outdated IOC rules.

Speaking about eligibility at the 11th Olympic Congress of 1981 in Baden-Baden, Chairman of the Eligibility Commission and IOC member W. Daume made the following statement: "Athletes who are in training for 1,600 hours a year, clearly are unable simultaneously to engage in their profession or to actively prepare for their future profession. Consequently, we must not allow them to suffer irreparable social damage. We are to proceed from this in the new interpretation of Rule 26."

Athletes were invited for the first time to take part in the proceedings of the Olympic Congress then. S. Coe, the 1980 Olympic champion in track and field from Great Britain, spoke in favor of further liberalization of Rule 26: "Olympian athletes have significant needs. You can not ignore the things they sacrifice for the sake of sport. Therefore, the IOC have a moral responsibility in ensuring the social status of athletes by means of Rule 26."

However, the Congress reconfirmed the allegiance of Olympism to the amateur concept. At first glance, the 84th Session of the IOC, which convened in Baden-Baden after the Congress, had nothing to add to the eligibility rule. Its decisions indeed confirmed ineligibility of professionals for Olympic Games. But the most important news was the recognition of the right of IFs to decide on the eligibility of their athletes. It was after the Baden-Baden Congress that the first steps were undertaken to prepare ground for making professionals eligible to compete at the Olympic Games.

The IOC made clear that the new concept of amateurism is not dogma. J. A. Samaranch explained that eligibility rules can be treated more

generally in some sports. A major role was expected to be played in this sense by the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF). In September 1982 IAAF approved the provision concerning the establishment of the so-called athlete funds under national track and field federations. This made possible for track and field athletes to receive any remuneration, including payments for advertising and participation in competitions. However, the money were to be transferred into those funds. The arrangement was that athletes would be reimbursed for their expenses relating to training, competing and livelihood, the rest of the funds being used to develop track and field events.

There is no doubt that the IAAF reform laid the ground for the emergence of a highly paid athletic elite. This was another step on the way to professionalism not only in track and fields but also in other sports. Similar funds were soon set up in sport and rhythmic all-around, swimming and ski sports.

The decision should also be mentioned taken by the IOC and FIFA to make professionals eligible to compete in the Olympic soccer tournament.

The representative of the French soccer federation proposed at the 1978 FIFA Congress in Buenos-Aires to cut down the number of European and Latin American teams in the Olympic tournament of 1980, which was carried by the majority of votes.

The FIFA Charter has a clause in its section on the amateur status, which says, in part: "The players who are members of such federations as are FIFA members, may be both amateurs and professionals, but professionals shall under no circumstances have the right to compete in the Olympic Games or other competitions for amateurs only". The "FIFA News" bulletin #221 of November 1981 declared: "FIFA would like to persuade its members to agree with a change of names of players: it is recommended to define them simply as "players" instead of "professionals" and "amateurs".

Next, FIFA decided to classify players in international soccer by age and skills. "We group them into players who compete in the World Cup, Olympic Games, Junior and Youth World Championships", FIFA President J. Avelange pointed out. Thus, professional soccer players were made eligible to compete in the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

International Ice Hockey Federation took the same course, when a new provision was added to its rules defining professionals as only those players who had NHL contracts.

IOC President Samaranch was most actively supporting the idea of making professionals eligible to compete in the Olympic Games. He declared in November 1980: "We need to find

solutions which would diminish, to the largest extent possible, the current discrimination in this area. First of all, let me remind you that the word "amateur" is no longer to be found in the Olympic Charter, which means that now we are to formulate and specify the concept of a "professional". Some people voice concern over a risk of setting forth on the direct road to "Open" Games! But that view hardly reflects the present reality. Indeed, we want the Games to be open. But a line is to be drawn between participants of the Games and true professionals, that is, those who have signed contracts with commercial organizations".

Arguments over the dividing lines had been going on for almost five years. Many expected the IOC to work out a definition of the concept of a "professional" in order to clarify the problem of eligibility. However, it never did.

At its Berlin session in February 1985, the IOC Executive Board unexpectedly announced professional athletes under the age of 23 eligible to compete in soccer, tennis and hockey at the Olympic Games in 1988. Hardly had the world sport community taken in the decision of the IOC Executive Board (which was defined by J. Samaranch as "an experiment"), when the IOC included in the agenda of its joint session with IF and NOC representatives in Lisbon the so-called "Code of Athlete" to be an alternative to Rule 26.

"To be eligible for the Olympic movement activity and, in particular, for participation in the Olympic Games, an athlete is to observe and respect the Olympic Charter, as well as the IOC-approved rules of his International Sport Federation", was the fundamental clause of the "Code". Therefore, any athlete, who supported and observed the Charter and the Code, could be eligible for the Olympic Games. This effectively removed the distinction between amateur and professional athletes, lifting all restrictions for the latter to compete at the Olympic Games. All financial restrictions were also removed in supporting athletes' training and preparation, the fundamental eligibility requirements centering on the need to respect the spirit of fair play, renounce violence, observe the medical code of the IOC. The only requirements to participants left over from the original rule were prohibition of "... using their identity, name, image or sport result at the Olympic Games for advertising purposes", and that "...the participation of an athlete in the Olympic Games must not be stipulated by any financial considerations".

The arguments of the 'Code' adherents were as follows: absence of differences between amateur-athletes and professionals currently; the need to make the Olympic chances of athletes from the East and West more equal; the aim of bringing up

the Olympic level of competition and entertainment, which is to increase the commercial value of the Games; better material well-being of the sporting elite; freeing the Games of doping, violence and other negative features.

All of these arguments related to the IOC policy of commercializing sport. Spelling out this new policy at the IFs General Assembly in Monaco, W. Daume pointed out that the eligibility rules were outdated, and that following an in-depth analysis of facts his Commission concluded that eligibility both to the Olympic Games and world championships should be determined by the IFs.

Representatives of many international sport bodies, IFs, and NOCs of various countries came out against the Code and "Open" Olympic Games. The next session of the NOCs General Assembly called on April 15, 1986 in Seoul and attended by 152 of the 161 NOC representatives, summed up the ongoing discussions. Twenty two of the 24 NOC spokespersons definitely rejected the revision of the Olympic Charter suggested by the IOC.

Their arguments against the Code and making professionals eligible for the Olympic Games were as follows: the ideals and values of Olympism would be ruined; the Games would turn into a commercial show, which would transform amateur sport and the Olympic Games; an overwhelming majority of member countries could not afford to equal the conditions for preparation and training such as professionals had; physical strain on the athletes' organism would increase dramatically, with a detrimental effect on their health; athletes would be more dependent on managers and sponsors; many sports would be discriminated against, which are not supported by business circles (swimming, rowing, shooting, archery, weightlifting, all types of wrestling, field hockey, badminton, table tennis, fencing, speed skating, Luge and bobsled); a complete overhaul would be necessitated of the whole system of international sport.

Eligibility was not included as a separate item on the agenda of the 91st IOC Session, which was held in October 1986 in Lausanne. But in reporting the findings of his Commission, W. Daume said that 23 out of 28 Olympic sports had no eligibility problems. The Eligibility Commission made the following proposals concerning the remaining five sports, supported by the respective IFs:

Hockey. To make professionals eligible for the Olympic Games, as they had already been allowed by the International Ice Hockey Federation to compete in World Championships.

Equestrian. The athletes disqualified by FEI for professionalism, would be allowed to compete in the Games again.

Soccer. Except for the European and South American players who had taken part in the qualifying round and finals of the 1986 World Cup, all players would be eligible to compete in the qualification rounds and the final tournament of the Seoul Olympics of 1988. FIFA plans to make eligible for the 1992 Olympic Games all players under the age of 23.

Track and field. All athletes eligible for the world championship, are to be eligible for the Olympic Games. Besides, track and field athletes who had turned professionals in other sports should also be eligible.

Tennis. Top tennis professionals should be eligible, provided application for their Olympic entries be sent by their NOCs.

The IOC Session agreed to the Commission proposals on four of those sports, the decision on tennis being delayed until the Istanbul session of the IOC in May 1987, which made professionals eligible for the 1988 Games.

W. Daume pointed out that following the permission for professional to compete in the Games, only two provisions were still valid of the Olympic Games amateur concept: athletes shall not earn money during the Olympic Games, and there shall be no advertising on their uniforms and on sport facilities.

The Swiss newspaper "*Neue Zürcher Zeitung*" carried the following comment of this decision in the article entitled "Open Games" — the New Name of the Olympic Games": "Transformation of the Olympic Games into a rendezvous of the world sporting elite is to be completed shortly. The only inaccuracy is its name (Olympic Games)". "*Naroden Sport*" of Bulgaria gave the following warning in this respect: "The modernization of the Olympic rules must on no account contradict to the spirit and ideals conceived by Pierre de Coubertin. Otherwise, the name of the "Olympic Games" will lose its human meaning and become a museum rarity". It is difficult to disagree with such arguments.

Thus, the 91st and 92nd IOC Sessions discarded all doubts: the IOC embarked on the way of an open professionalization of the Olympic Games. Here is the commentary of the well-known American reporter W. Johnson: "Some IFs want to invite professionals to compete in the Olympic Games, others are opposed to this idea. Whatever the decision of the federations, the fate of the Olympic Games has been sealed. The Big Leap into reality has already begun, and the Olympic Games will never be the same".

Subsequent years showed that Olympic sport adapted very fast to professionals being made eligible for the Olympic Games. Debates over this issue had died down already by the beginning of the 1990's, and the efforts of the advocates of amateurism in support of the Olympic ideals were focused on fair play in sport, fight against doping, on Olympic education, etc.

It should be noted that many sport specialists in the world, especially those who deal with philosophical problems of Olympic sport, the "fair play" problem in particular, being inclined to idealize sport in Ancient Greece and very far from the real practices in Olympic sport (its organizational and material base, athlete selection and training problems) contributed much towards complicating this issue and causing delays in implementing that decision in true, rather than imaginary, interests of the Olympic movement. Even today, when this problem is quite clear and has already been implemented, we often witness murky expostulations relating to the problem of fair play as it applies to amateurism and professionalism in sport (A. Caille, 1994). Much more useful would be to focus joint efforts on making competitions more entertaining for spectators' sake, improving the rules and conditions of competitions — for athletes' sake, and ensuring objective refereeing — in the interest of both groups above. Of equal importance for social justice are the issues of social security of athletes in terms of education, health protection, employment, and old age pensions.

ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION AND PROGRAM OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES

•

In accordance with the Olympic Charter, the Games of the Olympiad are held during the first year of the four-year period (Olympiad) they celebrate. Winter Olympic Games used to be held the same year before the Summer Olympics. But beginning in 1994, the year of the XVIIth Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer (Norway), Winter Olympics are held during the second calendar year following that during an Olympiad begins.

The honor of hosting the Olympic Games is entrusted by the IOC to a city, which is designated as the host city of the Summer or Winter Olympic Games.

The duration of the competitions of the Games of the Olympiad and of the Olympic Winter Games should not exceed 16 days, including the day of the Opening Ceremony. The time of year at which the Olympic Games are to be held must be proposed by the candidate cities to the IOC Executive Board for approval prior to the election of the host city.

Election of the Host City

The election of any city is the prerogative of the IOC alone. Only a city the candidature of which is approved by the NOC of its country can apply for the organization of the Olympic Games. The application to organize the Olympic Games must be made to the IOC by the official authority of the city concerned with the approval of the NOC, which is responsible for all commitments of the city, whose application should be supported by the government. Besides, the bidding city must undertake in writing to respect the conditions prescribe for candidate cities issued by the IOC Executive Board, as well as the technical norms aid down by the IF of each sport included in the program of the Olympic Games. Financial guarantees must also be offered by any candidate city, regional, national or other public organizations or other parties.

At various times in the development of the Olympic movement, there were different situa-

tions with candidate cities. At the turn of the century, few cities were willing to host the Games. But with the growing popularity of Olympic sport more and more cities started to apply. For instance, prior to the 1936 Games a whole 11 cities were in contention, three of those German cities; and 10 cities applied to host the Games of 1940. Even more bidders (sixteen cities) were applying for hosting the Olympic Games in 1956 and 1960.

However, this trend was cut short following an increased number of Olympic sports and Games participants, as well as due to the need to construct sophisticated sport facilities, Olympic Villages, to resolve many other problems relative to the administration of the Olympic Games in accordance with the ever tougher organizational and material standards. In the eighties the IOC ran into serious problems electing host-cities, which would conform to all the requirements concerning preparation, administration and funding of the Olympic Games. Even prior to the 1984 Games of Olympiad the IOC happened to be in a tight spot following the withdrawal of Teheran, which left only Los Angeles, whose authorities would not guarantee the organization and administration of the Olympic Games.

Yet, active commercialism and politicization of Olympic sport Games-related proceeds for host cities and state governments had raised competition dramatically for hosting the Olympic Games. Prior to the elections for the Olympic Games of 1996, there were six realistic candidates: Atlanta, Athens, Toronto, Melbourne, Manchester and Belgrade. In the final round tough battle among Atlanta, Athens and Toronto was decided in favor of Atlanta, Georgia in view, among other things, of more potential proceeds from the Games to be held on the US soil. The IOC made this choice, in spite of the fact that justice demanded that the Games be held in Athens, the venue of the First Modern Games of the Olympiad, to celebrate the Centenary of the Olympic Games. It would have been all the more just, as by that time the authori-

ties of Athens and Greece, being certain of the favorable decision of the IOC, had already constructed most of the Olympic sport facilities in anticipation of the official election results.

There developed a no less complicated situation prior to the election of the city to host the Games of the year 2000, with six cities in contention. At the beginning, the best chances seemed to belong to Berlin, Beijing, and Sydney, with Beijing leading the field in all preliminary rounds of election. Istanbul dropped out after the first round, Berlin after the second, and Manchester after the third. In the final round Sydney got 45 votes, and Beijing 43. Thus, the Australian city will host the Olympic Games for the second time, 44 years after the Melbourne Games.

Many cities would like to run for the right to host Winter Olympic Games. As proved by the experience, even bidding for the Games is an excellent advertising campaign for the bidding city as a center of international tourism and winter sports. Lillehammer, Norway won the election for the XVIIth Winter Olympic Games in 1994 in preference over three other cities. Candidate cities for the 1998 Olympic Games were Nagano of Japan (the successful winner), Haka of Spain, Ostertuna of Spain, Aosta of Italy and Salt-Lake-City of the USA. Election campaign for the right to host the Olympic Games in 2004 will be fought out among 12 candidate cities, including Saint-Petersburg of Russia.

It is easy to see that commercial considerations in the IOC electing host cities are coming to the fore ever more with every passing year. Firstly, as shown by previous experience, the IOC is after financial benefits of all of its decisions. Secondly, which is equally important, the organization of the Olympic Games now requires huge funds, a complex and many-sided preparation. Naturally, only those cities can meet such requirements, which possess the necessary material base, resources and practical experience. Indeed, the expenses of host-cities are constantly increasing due to the increasing number of participants and the ever toughening requirements and standards. Thus, it cost over five times more to organize the Winter Olympic Games in 1988 than in 1980 (roundabout \$100 million in Lake-Placid in 1980 and \$525 million in Calgary in 1988). Instead of the 1992 Albertville Games, we compare Lake-Placid and Calgary, as they are both on the American continent.

All candidate cities are to offer such financial guarantees as considered satisfactory by the IOC Executive Board. Such guarantees may be given by the city itself, local, regional or national public collectivities, the State or other third parties. At least six months before the start of the IOC Session at which such Olympic Games will be awarded, the

IOC must make known the nature, form and exact contents of the guarantees required.

As was already mentioned, only the IOC has the prerogative to select host cities. Accordingly, the IOC President appoints two evaluation commissions for candidate cities. The evaluation commission for the Summer Games consists of three members representing the IFs, three members representing the NOCs, four IOC members and one member of the Athletes' Commission. The evaluation commission for Winter Olympic Games is composed of two IFs representatives, two NOCs representatives, three IOC members and one member of the Athletes' Commission. The Chairman of each of the evaluation commissions is to be one of the IOC members.

The commissions are to study the candidatures of all candidate cities, inspect all sites and submit a written report on all the candidatures to the IOC not later than two months before the opening date of the Session which must elect the host city of the Olympic Games.

All sports must take place in the host city of the Olympic Games, unless it obtains from the IOC the right to organize certain events in other cities or in sites situated in the same country. For the Olympic Winter Games, when for geographic or topographical reasons it is impossible to organize certain events or disciplines of sport in the country or the host city, the IOC may, on an exceptional basis, authorize the holding of these in a bordering country.

To win in the elections, the candidate city is to get the majority of votes of the IOC members attending the IOC Session (half the votes plus one vote). If no candidate city achieves the majority of votes in the first or subsequent rounds of elections, the city which got the least votes is left out and a new round of voting is held. For instance, it took five rounds to elect Atlanta to be the host city of the 1996 Olympic Games. Lillehammer won the election to host the 1994 Winter Olympic Games in the third round of voting.

In order to avoid all kinds of violations and abuse which could undermine the authority of Olympic sport, the IOC had to work out the fundamental principles to govern the election procedure in selecting candidate cities to host the Games of the Olympiads and Winter Olympic Games.

Preparation and Administration of the Olympic Games

The organization of the Olympic Games is entrusted by the IOC to the NOC of the country of the host city as well as to the host city itself. The NOC forms for that purpose an Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games (OCOG) which,

from the time it is constituted, communicates directly with the IOC, from which it receives instructions. The OCOG must have the status of a legal entity.

The executive body of the OCOG must include, in addition to representatives of the public authorities and other leading figures, the IOC member or members in the country; the President and Secretary General of the NOC; and at least one member representing, and designated by, the host city.

This rule had been complied with by all the NOCs and OCOGs, save the Los Angeles Games Organizing Committee in 1984. The reason was that, to settle financial matters, a special committee was formed composed of private persons. The IOC flatly refused to sign an agreement with private Organizing Committee, which had not given any financial guarantees. This violated Rule 4 of the Olympic Charter, which states specifically that the candidate city should submit such guarantees. The USOC gave such guarantees only six months later, which was in violation of the Charter. But under the circumstances and to save the Games, the IOC had to contend with this outcome.

From the time of its constitution and to the end of its liquidation, the OCOG must conduct all its activities in accordance with the Olympic Charter, with the contract entered into between the IOC, the NOC and the host city and with the instructions of the IOC Executive Board.

In the event of a violation of the prescribed rules or breach of the commitments entered into, the IOC is entitled to withdraw — at any time and with immediate effect — the organization of the Olympic Games from the host city, the OCOG and the NOC without prejudice to compensation for the damage thereby caused to the IOC.

The Olympic Charter requires that with the objective of bringing together all competitors, team officials and other team personnel in one place, the OCOG must provide an Olympic Village available at least two weeks before the opening ceremony and until three days after the closing ceremony of the Olympic Games.

For the sake of objectivity, it should be noted that this requirement of the Olympic Charter had not been complied with by all OCOGs. Thus, at the 1984 Olympics in Los Angeles there was no Olympic Village, and athletes were put up at student hostels. At the Winter Olympic Games of Albertville in 1992, on the other hand, there were several Olympic Villages due to the scattering of competition venues.

The OCOG bears all expenses for board and lodging of competitors, team officials and other team personnel in the Olympic Village, as well as their local transportation expenses.

As a rule, many IFs hold their Congresses during the Olympic Games. In such instances, on their request the OCOG must provide the IFs with the proper premises and other technical equipment.

In accordance with Clause 44 of the Olympic Charter, the OCOG is to organize a program of cultural events, which must serve to promote harmonious relations, mutual friendship and understanding among the participants and others attending the Olympic Games. Besides, subject to approval by the IOC Executive Board, the OCOG may organize, under its own responsibility, an International Youth Camp for the duration of the Olympic Games.

OCOGs are known to have included in the Olympic program exhibition competitions in two sport events, but the IOC has decided to stop such additional competitions, beginning from the 1996 Olympic Games.

In accordance with a formula submitted to the IOC Executive Board for approval, the OCOG may organize pre-Olympic events for the purpose of testing the facilities to be used during the Olympic Games. In each sport, the pre-Olympic events must take place under the technical supervision of the relevant IF.

The Olympic Charter points out that the OCOG should ask for advice of the IFs on all technical matters of the competitions, including the schedule. As for the time-table and the day-to-day schedule of events, these are to be finally approved by the IOC Executive Board, taking into consideration the requests of IFs.

The OCOG is to administer its activity according to its own plan and within the approved budget. But the right to sell TV coverage rights of the Olympic Games belongs to the IOC. To be valid, all contracts of the OCOG containing any element of advertising, including the right or license to use the emblem or the mascot of the Olympic Games, must be in conformity with the Olympic Charter and the instructions given by the IOC Executive Board. The same shall apply to contracts relating to timing equipment, the scoreboards, and to the injection of any identification signal in television programs.

Any mascot created for the Olympic Games must be considered as an Olympic emblem, the design of which must be submitted by the OCOG to the IOC Executive Board for its approval. Such mascot may not be used for commercial purposes in the country of an NOC without the latter's prior written approval. Besides, the OCOG must ensure the protection of the property of the emblem and the mascot of the Olympic Games for the benefit of the IOC, both nationally and internationally.

The opening and closing ceremonies are to be designed by the OCOG and submitted to the IOC Executive Board for approval.

As we see, the OCOG has broad competence, but most of their authority is controlled by the IOC.

A successful administration of the Olympic Games mainly depends upon the efficient work of the IFs, and on mutual coordination of their efforts by the IOC, IFs and the OCOG.

Every IF assumes the responsibility for the technical control and direction of their sports at the Olympic Games. All competition and training sites, and all equipment must be in conformity with its rules. IFs are responsible for the procedure of competitions in their respective sports, they appoint referees, judges, timekeepers, inspectors and a jury of appeal. All of these specialists carry out their duties as prescribed by the IFs and coordinate their activity with the OCOG. They are accommodated outside the Olympic Village, are completely independent from their NOCs, and report only to the respective IFs.

Only IFs have the rights and obligations to establish technical rules for their respective sports, events and disciplines; to finalize results and placements in the Olympic competitions. IFs also delegate their representatives to supervise the construction of sport facilities in their areas for the purpose of compliance and enforcement of their rules, as well as to check the terms of accommodation, board and transportation for technical personnel, team officials and judges.

IFs, together with the OCOG, are to elaborate and submit for approval by the IOC Executive Board a day-to-day schedule of competitions in their respective sports; the sites of competitions outside the bounds of the Olympic facilities (yachting, marathon, road races, etc.); the need for training facilities during the Olympic competitions, technical facilities to determine sport results, uniforms for referees, judges, and other technical issues.

IFs submit for the approval by the IOC Executive Board their proposals relating to the program of the Olympic Games in their respective sports, the number of contestants, the system of qualifying competitions, the number and selection of athletes, doping control procedures and other matters, which define the administration of competitions in respective sports.

This chapter deals only with the principal issues, relating to the organization and administration of the Olympic Games. But in the administration of Olympic competitions the IOC, NOCs, IFs, and the OCOGs have to resolve many minor problems, such as the eligibility code, nationality of competitors, the observance of the medical code, entries, media coverage of the Olympic Games, etc. All of

these issues are resolved in conformity with the strict procedure developed by the IOC, which have been formulated in the Olympic Charter.

The Program of the Olympic Games

Programs of the Olympic Games, or a system of sports and events, are approved by the IOC for every Summer and Winter Olympic Games simultaneously with the election of the host city, that is six years prior to the beginning of the Games.

The work over the Olympic program, which began at the First Olympic Congress in Paris in 1894, led Coubertin and his associates to establish contacts with the then clubs and federations. The rules of those federations were used as the groundwork of the competition rules of the Olympic Games. From the very beginning, Coubertin conceded to the federations the decisive vote in creating the Olympic program.

At the beginning of the 20th century there had been no rigorous principles for making up the Olympic programs. Therefore, such programs often included sports which were not widely practiced in the world, with a limited number of contestants. This brought down the level of competition and made the Games less entertaining. For instance, at the Games of the Second Olympiad in 1900 there were only two teams (France and Great Britain) in cricket, and in croquet all participants contesting for three sets of awards represented France. Similar situation occurred at the 1904 Games in lacrosse (two teams), rocky (six contestants from one country, the USA); in 1908 the three teams in polo were from Great Britain, and two teams only (Australia and Great Britain) competed in rugby. There was no competition at all in all yachting events and rugby at the VIIth Summer Games in 1920.

Gradually, however, the IOC developed criteria to include sports and various events in the Olympic program. For a long time, a rule of the Olympic Charter was acting, according to which the program could include sports recognized by the IOC as Olympic disciplines and practiced by men in at least 40 countries and on three continents, and by women in at least 25 countries on two continents. For the Winter Olympic Games such sports are eligible as are practiced by men in at least 25 countries on two continents, and by women in at least 20 countries on two continents.

The criteria for inclusion of events in the Olympic program had to be made more tough due to a substantial growth of the number of NOCs recognized by the IOC and participating in the Olympic Games, and the need to set a limit on the

expansion of the program. According to the latest version of the Olympic Charter (1991), to be included in the program of the Olympic Games, an Olympic sport must conform to the following criteria: only sports widely practiced by men in at least seventy-five countries on four continents, and by women in at least forty countries on three continents, may be included in the program of the Games of the Olympiad; only sports widely practiced in at least twenty-five countries and on three continents may be included in the program of the Olympic Winter Games.

Another obligatory requirement for inclusion in the program of the Olympic Games, is that a discipline, being a branch of an Olympic sport comprising one or several events, must have a recognized international standing. Apart from being widely practiced in the world, Olympic sports must present high requirements on the organism of athlete, which demands large volumes of physical training. Sports, disciplines or events in which performance depends essentially on mechanical propulsion are not acceptable. Sports are not recognized as Olympic if the construction of sports gears and equipment have not been standardized and fail to ensure equal conditions for the contestants. To be included in the Olympic program, sports, disciplines or events also must have a recognized international standing numerically, with preference given to those which allow individual and team ranking with a minimum amount of mistakes of a subjective nature.

An important condition for recognition in the capacity of an Olympic sport is the existence of a respective IF, which directs this sport and has been recognized by the IOC.

In the recent decades the program of the Olympic Games stays relatively stable. However, some IFs lately managed to have their disciplines in the Games programs. Thus, baseball and tennis found their way back, and the program now includes also badminton and table tennis.

In the hope of including their events in the Olympic program, various IFs insist on their recognition as Olympic sports. Many of them had succeeded in their efforts, so that the IOC recognized as Olympic such sports and events as acrobatics, roller-skating, sport orienteering, softball, taekwondo, etc. The same standards as those for the admission of Olympic sports, apply for the admission of disciplines, being a branch of an Olympic sport comprising one or several events. Admission criteria for events, which are part of a sport or a discipline, are less tough. Events practiced by men in at least fifty countries on three continents, and by women in at least thirty-five countries on three continents, may be included in the program of the Olympic Games.

Events are to be admitted at least four years before specific Olympic Games, in respect of which no change shall thereafter be permitted.

However, in certain exceptional cases, and subject to the agreement of the IF concerned and the OCOG, the IOC may depart from the time limits, in order to include a discipline or event in the program of the Games of one specific Olympiad.

The Charter does not set the maximum number of sports, and there are no obligatory sports, either. It only specifies that the Olympic program must include at least fifteen Olympic sports. After each Olympic Games, the IOC reviews the program, the admission or expulsion of sports being in the competence of the IOC Session, and the same for disciplines or events being in the competence of the IOC Executive Board.

Since 1980, the IOC Commission on the Olympic program is chaired by V. Smirnov, who expresses his point of view on the problem as follows: "I have never supported ungrounded inclusion of new sports in the Olympic program. But I am not the only one sitting on the Commission, and, naturally, I have to respect the opinion of the majority of Commission members. Only four new sports have been admitted since 1972: tennis, table tennis, badminton and baseball. The "expansion" of the Olympic program was mainly the result of inclusion more events in sports, which are already part of the Games program. In the period of 1972 — 1988 there were 46 new disciplines admitted to the Olympic program, and another 20 in 1988 — 1992. I am far from affirming that the Olympic program as it is now need not be amended and made more perfect. But today, in my opinion, it reflects realistically enough the state and trends of the development of international sporting and Olympic movement.

I agree with some of my opponents that a few of the Olympic sports are no longer as popular as they use to be in the past and are preserved in the program out of tradition. But we need to be careful and not jump to conclusions. The popularity of this or that sport is largely dependent on its mass media coverage, particularly by television. Unfortunately, some sports, as it were, are not "telegenic" enough, and, accordingly, do not get enough attention on the part of television.

Sport, and especially high performance sport, is a social phenomenon, which reflects the tendencies in the development of contemporary society. It would be erroneous and short-sighted to ignore these processes. Olympiads, above all, are demonstrations of the greatness of the human spirit and of the unlimited physical potential of athletes. This is how things were, have been, and, I believe, will be in future. Therefore, the Olympic program is not

something frozen and unchangeable. This is also quite obvious. I think that sooner or later the Olympic Games will have a system of qualifying selection, which truly best athletes on Earth will have to pass."

The perspectives of a further development of the program of the Olympic Games, such as making it more dynamic, entertaining, inviting more active participation of female athletes, are seen by many specialists in introducing a numeric quota for contestants in many sports. Thus, less contestants than in Seoul were admitted already in Barcelona, in weightlifting (230 instead of 260), wrestling (360 instead of 440) and in some other events.

W. Daume of Germany, an influential leader of the international Olympic movement, recognizes the excessive expansion of the Olympic program as a serious problem. In his opinion, the classical Olympic sports should be permanent items of the program, whereas others should alternate with each passing Olympics. This, indeed, is an urgent issue, since by comparison to the average figures of the 1896 — 1904 Games, the number of competition events has increased five times, and the number of participants rose by fifteen times. In three previous decades only, the number of events has increased by more than a third, and the number of participants by almost two times.

Of special interest is the admission of women's sports, disciplines and events. Pierre Coubertin is known to have opposed their inclusion in the Olympic program, and for this reason women did not compete in the Games of the First Olympiad in 1896. But the situation has changed since then. The Olympic program for women is currently comprehensive, although women athletes demand that it should be expanded.

According to Rule 56 of the Olympic Charter "Participation in the Olympic Games", the number of entries in the individual events must not exceed that provided for in the world championships and must, in no event, exceed three per country. It is also mentioned that the IOC Executive Board may grant exceptions for certain winter sports. For team sports, the number of teams should not exceed twelve teams for each gender and not be less than eight teams.

It is interesting to note the attitude of President Samaranch to the development of the Olympic program. He said: "I remember how synchronized swimming was admitted in Moscow. M. Killanin was discussing at the Session with the IOC members the question of inclusion in the program of rhythmic all-around, when somebody suggested to include also synchronized swimming, and the proposal was supported without any discussion. We need to check membership of countries in International Sport

Federations in order to verify the competence of IFs concerning the number of member countries, as is required by the Olympic Charter, as well as the legitimacy of national federations. For instance, the International Federations of Luge and Bobsled includes a number of member-countries, which have never participated in a single competition. There are countries which insist on being members of the IOC, being members of the necessary five IFs, but are not taking part in competitions. Although invited, Gibraltar did not participate in the indoor track and field world championship of 1991 in Seville, and I don't think its team had competed in the world championship in Tokyo. However, they led an active campaign to be elected to the IOC during the Birmingham Session. I know that soon we are to take a positive action. I shall study the program of the 1994 Congress after the Games in Barcelona. We need to call a meeting of 15020 persons to consider attentively the issues related to the program. But I am not certain I shall have enough power to exclude those sports which have no wide base among the youth, and have been admitted into the program merely as a vestige of tradition. Modern pentathlon is part of the program only because it corresponded to the vision by Coubertin of the ideal athlete of his time, including shooting, fencing, riding, swimming and running. Today it is a minority sport and very expensive, since the OCOG has to buy 60 — 80 horses for it. I am sure that triathlon (swimming, cycling road race and running) will be included in the program of the Games in the year 2000.

In some sports nothing is done to make them more modern and entertaining for spectators. In fencing, for example, they still use the net mask, which conceals the face of athletes. Why not make it transparent? Why not introduce uniforms of various colors for fencers from different countries or improve the scoring registration technique? We are to answer many questions. Should the Olympic Games, a symbol of the struggle for peace, include shooting? (The question arises because of biathlon in winter and shooting in summer). Isn't there too much combat in the program: wrestling, boxing, judo, taekwondo? Some of the wrestling events can be considered obsolete, however, this sport carries twenty gold medals. I am not convinced that archery is practiced widely enough to remain in the program. We need also to think about the number of medals awarded in some sports, such as swimming and gymnastics, for example. It is too late to introduce any, except for minimal, changes in the program of the Centenary Games, although we have excluded the demonstration sports. We must work out a new plan by the year 2000. The Olympic movement is to reflect the current world trends" (D. Miller, 1992).

Section Four

Social, Political, Administrative, Legal and Economic Foundations of Olympic Sport



SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND LEGAL ASPECTS OF MODERN OLYMPIC SPORT

Athletic, as well as educational aspects of modern Olympic sport are closely interlaced with social, philosophical, economic and political aspects. This feature has made Olympic sport a unique phenomenon and a vivid example of efficient cooperation in the name of a harmonious development of man, for the sake of strengthening peace in the world and mutual understanding between states and nations.

It is also to be mentioned that modern Olympic sport has long spilled over and beyond the sphere of attention of a certain group of population and organizations whose interests are focused on the development of sport. Among participants of the Olympic movement are all types of people — state officials and politicians, businessmen, representatives of sport federations, national and regional associations in Olympic sports, etc. Their efforts resulted in considerable changes in the system of Olympic sport, its social, economic, administrative, legal and political aspects.

Complexity of modern Olympic sport, to a great extent, can be accounted for by an increased interest to sport from business and political circles, and, naturally, with more impact they can have on its development.

This chapter deals with principal areas of activity of the International Olympic Committee at the present stage of sport development, problems of commercialism, professionalism and politization of Olympic sport, and the links of Olympic sport with professional and mass sport. It also looks into legal aspects of the activity of the IOC, NOCs and IFs, and considers briefly the development of Olympic sports in Russia, Ukraine and other countries of the former Soviet Union.

Principal Guidelines of IOC Activity

The important developments in the international Olympic movement over the previous 10 — 15 years have undoubtedly had a considerable impact on the

direction of its development and on the nature of the Olympic Games. These include, in particular, the boycott by NOCs of several countries the Olympic Games of 1976, 1980 and 1984; more active commercialism and professionalization of sport; eligibility of professionals to the Olympic Games in several sports; worsening of the doping problem; continued process of early specialization in certain sports; bringing apart the Games of Olympiad and Winter Olympic Games; expansion of their competition program and an increase in the number of Olympic awards; supremacy of current pragmatic issues over the traditional principles and ideals of Olympism; and corresponding modification of the Olympic Games. These are the problems underlying the principal guidelines of the IOC activity at present.

Unity of the Olympic Movement as the Main Concern of the IOC

In a development setting the 1980's and 90's apart from the previous periods, the IOC has worked out a new, more active policy of the IOC. In the past, this organization tried to ensure independence and authority of the international sport movement, mostly by isolating sport from outside world and through efforts to maintain the Olympic traditions (more often than not, in spite of modern world tendencies); under Presidency of J. A. Samaranch, though, the IOC activity has been targeted at tying Olympic sport organically with the on-going complicated processes in the fields of politics, economy, and other phenomena unfurling in the contemporary world.

This led to more active and rational collaboration of the International Olympic Committee not only with various international and regional sport associations, but also with state officials and politicians from many countries, to a better interface of National Olympic Committees with governments of their states, which helped to increase considerably sports significance and authority in society, and to improve the material base of sport.

One should also mention active efforts of the IOC to keep the Olympic movement alive, to ensure its authority and independence from state. The efforts of the IOC has not always met with success, but on the whole the IOC has managed to muster respect from various states, including those which are prone to resolve political issues by force.

Credit is due to the IOC for its purposeful and consistent steps under pressure from difficult political problems of the 80's over preparation for the Olympic Games in Moscow (1980), Los Angeles (1984) and Seoul (1988). Not only did it avoid the crisis in the Olympic movement, but also improved considerably sport's authority on the international political arena. Thus, the selection of Seoul, capital of the Republic of Korea, by the IOC as the venue of the XXIV Olympic Games in 1988 baffled the world community as paradoxical. But the results of the six-year preparation for the Games proved better than the most optimistic expectations. The Seoul Olympic Games proved not only a major and brilliant event in the history of the sport movement, but also an equally significant political action and a convincing example of possible and efficient international cooperation, mutual understanding and peace.

Why was this decision possible? Above all, because the IOC at its 1981 Session renounced the uniform criterion of eligibility of athletes in all sports for the Olympic Games participation. Besides, the IOC took an obvious pragmatic turn in handling most of unresolved issues.

The 91st Session came down in the history of the IOC not only as the Session which allowed professional athletes to compete in the Olympic Games. It also decided to separate Winter and Summer Olympic Games following 1992.

This latter decision of the IOC has its advantages. For one thing, the NOCs will breathe a sigh of relief, as they will be spared the strain of preparing and sending national teams to compete in the Olympic Games twice in one year. On the other hand, Winter Olympics will no longer be overshadowed by the Games of the Olympiad and, accordingly, will get more prominence.

However, there is another side to this change, which is often overlooked. The point is that it will most probably entail attempts to "upgrade" the program of Winter Games.

The 91st IOC Session also selected the host cities of the 1992 Olympic Games. According to the press, the candidate cities had spent among themselves \$ 120 — 140 million for advertising only, or, roughly, the same amount as it cost to stage the Lake Placid Winter Olympic Games in 1980.

It remained a mystery for many specialists how Albertville, France had managed to beat off the bids of Sofia, Bulgaria and Falun, Sweden. On the

whole, the selection of procedure from among bidders for hosting major international competitions, as has been mentioned earlier, has grown into a major problem of the Olympic sport, with commercial considerations gradually becoming the overriding criterion. Geographically, selection of bids covers a narrow area, which does not provide for the promotion of sports and their popularity in the world. International Sport Federations prefer to hold world championships in such cities as promise big profits. It was probably for the same reason that the IOC in 1986 chose Atlanta, USA to stage the jubilee Olympic Games of 1996, rather than Athens, which had staged the First modern Games of the Olympiad in 1896.

The 92nd Istanbul IOC Session in May 1987 finalized the discussion of the proposal made by the Eligibility Commission to admit professional athletes to the 1988 Games. Despite substantial differences, the IOC Session approved, without putting in to a vote, the decision to make professional tennis players eligible for the Olympic Games, too.

At the same Session, the International Olympic Committee approved a special circular on tougher sanctions for the use of doping. Differently from the past, the IOC leadership decided that those sport leaders, coaches and doctors who push athletes to doping abuse should be disciplined, too, rather than only athletes involved.

The 93rd Session of the International Olympic Committee held in Calgary, Canada on the eve of the 1988 Winter Olympic Games, can be dubbed an Anti-doping Session. Opening this Session, President Samaranch called on all ISFs and NOCs to take a tougher stand against doping, which threatens the existence of sport. The leaders of the IOC took a decision to not only sanction the culprits, but in addition to launch a broadly-based consciousness raising and education campaign for athletes. The IOC welcomed the proposal of the Canadian government to hold a World Anti-doping Congress in June 1989. This IOC Session also voted unanimously to approve the proposal of the IOC Executive Board to guarantee complete equality of women and men in the Olympic movement.

In June 1988, the leadership of the IOC met in Lausanne with representatives of ISFs and African Sport Federations to discuss apartheid in sport, which could cause another boycott of the 1988 Games in Seoul, due to the continuing contacts of several states with the racist regime of South African Republic and admission of South African athletes to international competitions in some sports.

Shortly before the opening of the 1988 Olympic Games in Seoul, the 94th Session of the IOC chose

Lillehammer, Norway to host the 1994 Winter Olympic Games.

The 95th IOC Session in San Juan was addressed by J. A. Samaranch whose tenure as the IOC President had expired. Reporting the IOC achievements; he focused on more solid unity of the international Olympic movement and the IOC stronger ties with governmental agencies; the newly established Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS); acceptance of 39 new IOC members; getting handicapped athletes involved in the Olympic movement, tougher stand against doping; and an increased inflow of funds in to the IOC coffers. The IOC Session extended the term of office of President Samaranch for another four-year period. In addition, it was decided to admit professional basketball players to the Olympic Games, provided they abide by the FIBA rules.

Participants of the 96th IOC Session in 1990 approved unanimously the text of the new Olympic Charter which took almost eight years to complete. Regrettably, sport bodies of the republics of the former Soviet Union and their athletes had not been invited to take part in discussing the Draft Charter.

The IOC Session also reviewed the activity of the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS) over the previous five years and introduced alterations into the CAS Charter. The Session recognized CAS efficiency which resulted, among other things, in the fact that a number of International and National Sport Federations had amended their Charters with a clause recognizing CAS as the highest legal entity to mediate in possible conflicts. Thus, instead of the Federations going in such cases to civil court, they could apply instead to the Court of Arbitration for Sport, whose decisions were to be final and binding on the conflicting parties.

Among the primary challenges facing CAS today are keeping the international sport community informed about CAS activity and decisions; and the need for CAS to assume the role of an efficient instrument of legal regulation in the area of international sport.

One of the most important questions on the agenda of the 97th IOC Session in Birmingham in July 1991, was the problem of recognition of the NOC of the South African Republic. The report on re-admitting this state in the Olympic family was made by IOC Vice-President Keba M'Baye of Senegal, head of Commission on Apartheid. He briefed the IOC members on his fact finding missions in the SAR and gave a positive assessment of the first steps of the Interim National Olympic Committee of that country. "Pursuant to Article 22, paragraph 5 of the Olympic Charter, — pointed out Mr. M'Baye, — members of the International

Olympic Committee authorize the IOC President and its Executive Board to invite athletes of the South African Republic to take part in the Olympic Games of 1992, provided the political leaders of the SAR have fulfilled all their promises given to the world community and are carrying on their efforts to dismantle the system of apartheid dominating in the country".

In his reply, President of the Interim National Olympic Committee Sam Ramsami confirmed his willingness to collaborate with the IOC and other international sport bodies. The IOC Session in Birmingham approved the work done by the Commission "Apartheid and Olympism" and authorized the Executive Boards and the President of the IOC to pass a final decision on reinstatement of the NOC of the South African Republic.

The bidding for hosting the XVIII Winter Olympic Games of 1998 was won by Nagano, Japan.

Participants of the IOC Session decided to include in the program of the 1996 Olympic Games women's softball (eight teams); to bring from 8 to 12 the number of women's teams in the Olympic volleyball and basketball competitions; to substitute team's synchronized swimming for individual and pair events, and to omit kayak slalom from the Olympic program.

The IOC Executive Board at its Berlin session in September 1991 recognized the NOCs of the three Baltic states (Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia), which regained sovereignty from the USSR.

At that session the Executive Board considered measures to toughen the anti-doping campaign and, to that end, set up an ad hoc commission made up of the IOC members, representatives of ISFs, NOCs and several governments. It was also decided to intensify cooperation with various international organizations in the area of marketing and advertising.

The 98th Session of the IOC in Albertville reconfirmed the intention of the International Olympic Committee to perform blood test on athletes at the time of doping control. Simultaneously, the Session rejected proposals to check athletes for AIDS. The IOC Executive Board informed the Session participants that Croatia and Slovenia had been given the status of temporary members of the IOC, and determined the procedure of the unified team of the former USSR participating in the Olympic Games.

Analysis of the issues the IOC was concerned with in 1993 — 96 reveals that that period has not been marked with new major problems or contentious questions emerging in the Olympic sport. The IOC has continued its on-going efforts to resolve problems and defuse conflicts along tradi-

tional, well-known lines. Among the principal lines of the IOC activity were the following:

- furtherance of the authority of the Olympic sport;
- development of administration, organization and material base of celebrating the Olympic Games;
- alterations and amendments to the program of the Olympic Games;
- dealing with attempts to use sport and the Olympic Games for political ends;
- nationalistic trends at major international competitions, particularly at the Olympic Games;
- racial discrimination in sport;
- the use by part of athletes of illegal drugs and stimulants to enhance performance;
- composition of the Games program;
- mixing business and sport; advertising, commercial and entertainment functions of sport and the Olympic Games;
- admission of professional athletes to the Olympic Games; professional sport attributes in the Olympic movement; professionalization of sport and the Olympic Games;
- democratization of the IOC and the international Olympic movement;
- biased refereeing at the Olympic Games and other major international competitions, etc.

The list clearly shows that the guidelines of the IOC activity are practically the same, but the nature of problems and proposed ways of dealing with such problems have markedly changed. Analysis of the IOC concerns shows that ever since the Los Angeles Games of 1984, commercialism and professionalism has come to the fore in the international sport. And that was not a coincidence. In fact, sports in the leading countries of the West have undergone significant alterations, which could not but spill over into the world sport.

At the same time, the active processes of commercialism and professionalism in sport do not necessarily mean that other problems, including the use of Olympic sport for political ends, denationalization of sports and the Olympic Games, apartheid, the use of doping, biased refereeing, democratization of the IOC, etc. disappeared from the limelight.

These problems are still there, and some of them still threaten the existence of the international Olympic movement.

Struggle Against Apartheid in Sport

For many years, the government of South African Republic (formerly South African Union) had pursued the policy of apartheid, or "separate development" of races and nationalities inhabiting

the country. The policy translated into a system of organized subjugation and discrimination of most population (black Africans and immigrants from Asia).

Apartheid in sport had a long history in South Africa. As early as the first third of this century, the whole system of sport in Pretoria had come under control of the white minority. Its 'white-only' sport federations had been recognized by most respective International Sport federations.

With many African nations gaining state independence, the policy of apartheid aroused violent protests, not only from the African nations, but all over the world. The ban imposed on the South African Table Tennis by the International Table Tennis Federation in 1956 had been the first practical step in the struggle against apartheid. FIFA followed suit in 1964, expelling the South African Football Association from its membership.

Due to the fact that racial discrimination permeated all spheres of social activity in Pretoria, which deprived black populace of any chance to compete in the Olympic Games, the IOC had not admitted South Africa to the Olympic Games of 1964 and 1968, and then in 1970 expelled the National Olympic Committee of South African Republic from the international Olympic movement altogether.

Several resolutions of the UN General Assembly (in 1971, 1975 and 1976) emphasized the need to comply completely with the Olympic Charter principle, which declared incompatible with the Olympic movement any form of discrimination in sport on grounds of race, religion or politics, and expressed support for the international anti-apartheid campaign in sport.

In 1975 the UN Ad Hoc Committee on the Struggle against Apartheid and Racism called on the UN General Assembly to consider eligibility of South Africa participating in international sport events. Following discussion, the UN General Association approved Resolution # 3324, which appealed to all UN member-states to cut sport links with Pretoria.

The situation in sport in South Africa in the 1970's compelled the UN General Assembly to approve on 14 December 1977 the International Declaration against Apartheid in Sport.

Compliance with UN resolutions by international sport bodies and the countries that used to maintain close sport ties with South Africa (among them Great Britain, Canada, New Zealand, West Germany, the USA, Israel, Japan) gradually resulted in isolation of Pretoria on the arena of international sport and in the Olympic movement. This result was boosted by consistent efforts of the Organization of African Unity (OAU), the Supreme

Council of Sport in Africa, the South African Non-Racial Olympic Committee.

Of critical importance for the anti-apartheid campaign was the UN-initiated political and economic blockade of Pretoria by many countries of the world.

Pretoria attempts to beat the isolation in sport did not go unnoticed by the world community and caused an uproar. Many instances of sport contacts with South Africa and admission of its athletes to international events by some International Sport Federations, which ignored the IOC decisions and the UN resolutions on the matter, would be considered by the international sport authorities and penalties slapped on the guilty parties (athletes, coaches and sport bodies found to contact Pretoria), including disqualification of athletes, who had competed with South Africans, and even the boycott of the 1976 Olympic Games and other major international competitions by athletes of many countries.

In the wake of such actions by the Pretoria regime, some International Federations, certain athletes and coaches that maintained contacts with South Africa, the UN General Assembly approved on December 10, 1985 and offered for signing and ratification the International Convention Against Apartheid in Sport, which stated the following:

- apartheid is a crime, an infringement on the principles of International Law, in particular violation of goals and principles of the UN Charter;
- apartheid continues to reign, in South African society as a whole and in sport in particular, and the so-called reforms have failed to bring about any substantive changes in the situation;
- complete support should be given to the Olympic principle as incompatible with any form of discrimination on grounds of race, religion, or politics, so that the only criterion shall be sport results;
- coordination should be ensured of international efforts for the purpose of isolating the racist regime in Pretoria on the international sport arena.

Wide-spread information offered to the general public in the world about the contents of the Convention, its signing and ratification by more than 70 states, and creation of the UN Committee Against Apartheid in Sport (1988) gave a powerful impetus to the world sport community in their struggle against human rights violations in sport by South African authorities. The Committee was composed of representatives of 15 countries.

The work done by the UN Committee Against Apartheid in Sport in 1988 — 1991 was aimed at severing sport contacts with Pretoria; imposing

sanctions against sport bodies, athletes and coaches who continue such contacts; expelling South Africa from international and regional competitions and from International Sport Federations; blocking attempts to reinstate Pretoria in any federation from which it had been expelled; consciousness-raising programs in dealing with representatives of international sport organizations; maintaining and publishing "The Register of Sport Contacts with South African Republic", etc.

Democratic processes which had taken root in the late 1980's and developed further in the early 90's, allowed President of the IOC J. A. Samaranch to come up with a statement about possible return of the South African team to the XXV Olympic Games in Barcelona. A special IOC commission had been set up to investigate the matter further and to come into negotiations with political and sport leaders of Pretoria.

The IOC announced a number of requirements which that country was to meet in order to join the Olympic family. Among them were scrapping of racist laws which violated the rights of black South Africans; admission of South Africa into the African Olympic movement; establishment a single Olympic Committee of South African Republic and of united sport federations.

Both the African National Congress (ANC), headed by Nelson Mandela, which led the struggle against the apartheid regime in the country, and leaders of US organizations fighting for the rights of the Negro population voiced their concern about premature lifting of sanctions against Pretoria.

However, the on-going and concerted efforts of the UN, the IOC, IFs and most NOCs against apartheid, with full support from the world community, could not but cause a dramatic change for the better in the situation within South Africa. This change accounted for the proposal on the eve of the XXV Olympic Games to reinstate the rights of the NOC of South Africa in the IOC and to invite its athletes to participate in the Olympic competitions.

As was mentioned above, the 97th IOC Session held in summer 1991 in Birmingham, after hearing the report of the "Apartheid and Olympism" Committee, authorized the IOC Executive Board and the IOC President to decide on the possibility of reinstatement of the NOC of South Africa. Accordingly, the IOC President and Executive Board decided to admit South African athletes to the XXV Olympic Games of 1992 in Barcelona.

The ANC leadership approved the IOC decision and expressed hope that this initiative would provide another impetus to democratic reforms in South African Republic.

Anti-doping Campaign in Sport

The ever-wider use of doping has grown lately in a major issue in top performance sports, setting aside many other complicated issues and problems of modern sport.

"To use doping means to be dying. To die physiologically due to irreversible anomalous processes in human organism. To die physically, as evidenced by the recent tragedies. And to die spiritually, intellectually, by agreeing to be engaged in cheating, acknowledging one's impotence or lack of will to honestly rely on one's own potential qualities or to make an effort to surpass them. Finally, to die morally by effectively leaving the bounds of the rules of conduct which are a must in human society", said IOC President J. A. Samaranch speaking at the 94th IOC Session, which was held on the eve of the XXIV Olympic Games in Seoul.

The never-ending and ever-increasing political and economic significance of victories in sport, steadily improving sport records, stiff competition in major competitions, the exceptional strain on athletes in training and competition of modern sport led to the intensification recently of the search for ways of improving technical skills of athletes and their performance. Experts dealing with this problem often complement better selection and training schedules of talented athletes, their techniques and tactics, better material support and organization, with all kinds of illegal ways to gain an advantage in contest. The use of stimulants proved to be the most effective of those ways.

One need not think that doping is something that came about as a spin off from the modern stage of development of sport. Originally, the word 'doping' used to denote a drink consumed by South African tribes in religious ceremonies.

Doping took root in sport after the word had been first used to refer to athletic stimulants in 1865, at a swimming competition in Amsterdam. The first doping-related death occurred in 1866, at a cycling competition.

Doping was nothing uncommon as early as the Olympic Games of the beginning of the century. Many specialists are certain most of the Olympic champions of that time would not have been able to pass doping-control.

After the Second World War, incidents with doping-taking at the Olympic Games were registered in speed skating (1952) and cycling (1956). The tragic death of cyclist K. Jensen of Denmark after taking amphetamine at the 1960 Olympic Games in Rome the IOC established its Medical Committee to start anti-doping procedures. The first tests for stimulants had been taken in 1964 at the Tokyo Games, and starting with Winter and

Summer Olympic Games of 1968 the IOC Medical Committee launched a large-scale doping control, with 753 athletes tested.

Anabolic steroids started to be used in sport in the 1950's and 1960's. Initially, they were used by athletes in body building and weightlifting to grow muscles. Later steroids found their way to the Olympic throwing events. The use of anabolic steroids peaked in the 1970's and 1980's, when it was proved that they were an efficient means of restoring strength, which coincided with the tremendous increase of intensity in training schedules of most sports. Methods of identification of steroids taking were developed in the middle of the 1970's in Great Britain. The first tests administered at the 1976 Olympic Games proved positive in eleven athletes.

At the beginning of the 1980's the IOC Medical Committee found that athletes were using beta-blockers and diuretic medications to lose weight and to clear away traces of doping from the organism. Medicines belonging to this group were included in the list of illegal drugs after the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

A particularly tough challenge was testing for blood doping, which became widely used in sports that required stamina.

It was proved experimentally that blood doping increased the content of hemoglobin and provided for an increase in the maximum consumption of oxygen and significantly better staying power under long strain. Blood doping is particularly effective in cross country skiing and long-distance running. There are reasons to suppose that transfusion of donor blood administered to the US cyclists, largely accounted for their victory at the 1984 Olympic Games, because it stimulated better stamina.

Presently the IOC Medical Committee lists 100 medicines as doping substances, broken into 5 groups:

- 1) stimulants (amphetamine, caffeine, cocaine, ephedrine, methyl-ephedrine, phendermine, etc.);
- 2) narcotics (codeine, heroine, morphine, etc.);
- 3) anabolic steroids (testosterone, rhetabolil (nandrolol), metenolon, etc.);
- 4) beta-blockers (proplanolol, atenolol, metoprolol, etc.);
- 5) diuretic substances (dichlotiazide, hydrochlorothiazide, phurocemide, etc.).

Besides the indicated classes of substances, the list includes as doping certain methods, like blood transfusion, or the so-called blood doping, as well as all pharmaceutical, chemical and physical manipulations, whose nature, dosage or administration is able to improve athlete's performance artificially.

Much attention has been paid recently by special laboratories in many countries of the world to finding new methods of tracing the use of doping in sport. According to the following findings of 18 specialized laboratories, made public by the IOC Medical Committee in 1986, top of the list of illegal substances identified to be used in sport are stimulants and anabolic steroids:

stimulants	177 (26.3 %)
narcotic substances	31 (4.6 %)
anabolic steroids	439 (65.35 %)
beta-blockers	23 (3.4 %)
diuretics	2 (0.3 %)

Findings published by the IOC in later years indicate a certain increase in the total number of positive reactions, but the ratio of illegal substances of different classes remains fairly stable. For instance, in 1988 the IOC-certified laboratories have done 47,069 tests of which 1,353 proved positive (2.45 %), with more than half of those (791) being related to the use of anabolic steroids.

The ratio of such substances of various classes used in the Olympic sport did not change much in later years, either. Thus, in 1992 the 23 IOC-accredited laboratories identified 1,251 cases of use of controlled substances, including: stimulants — 277 (21.1 %); narcotics — 102 (8.2 %); anabolic steroids — 717 (57.3 %); beta-blockers — 12 (0.1 %); diuretics — 70 (5.6 %), other substances — 79 (6.3 %).

Most widely used stimulants lately include ephedrine, pseudo-ephedrine, amphetamine, and cocaine, whereas among anabolic steroids group is dominated by testosterone and nandrolone. Codeine, dextropropoxyphene and morphine lead the way in the narcotics class.

Doping is nothing uncommon in youth sports, too. This was proved, among others, by the findings of the Canadian Sport Without Doping Center. The June 1, 1993 press release of the Center shows that anabolic steroids have been used by 83,000 Canadians in the age groups 11 through 18 years. 53.9 % of those use steroids to stimulate sport performance, the rest doing so for the sake of better appearances. Other medications used for these

purposes are caffeine, stimulants, pain killers and diuretics. Fig. 5 shows the ratio of such substances. It indicates that women resort to doping almost as often as men.

Young Canadians are certain that sport performances can be greatly enhanced through the use of such substances (Fig. 4).

One should also mention the emergence of principally new compounds, which make training and competition activity more effective. That the system of applying stimulants can beat by half the system of tracing such applications had been demonstrated by the many-year experience of East German athletes. For more than a decade (late '70's — 1980's) few people doubted that sport in GDR is based on the use of stimulants. But the system of tracing and detecting such abuse had been unable to pinpoint the violations, so East German athletes had won a load of medals at world championships and the Olympic Games, and set unbelievable records. The secret was out only after the unification of Germany, when documents, which used to be inaccessible, were declassified. East Germany developed a detailed system of athletic preparation, in which training loads went hand in hand with means of reinvigoration and stimulation, many of such medicines being illegal. This system, which used to be classified information in the German Democratic Republic (GDR), was made public by Professor Manfred Donike of Germany (Cologne) at the EU Second Session of Specialists in Physical Education, Sport and Sport Science in October 1993.

Effective struggle against doping is not possible unless a powerful on-going system of doping control is put in place. The Olympic Games of this decade and other major international competitions have proven that modern science is able to ascertain whether an athlete has indeed taken controlled substances. Today the problem centers around applying highly effective sanctions against guilty persons and setting up anti-doping control over athletes. Sport specialists, quite sincere about their hopes for anti-doping control, call for the toughest sanctions against athletes, their coaches and doctors, who have violated the fair competition principle, including life disqualification already for a single instance of taking dope. Efficient doping control is to be and can be imposed both at the time of competition and in training. Refusal of an athlete to be tested must result in suspension from competing and in disqualification. The recent experience proves that this way, undoubtedly, is efficient in that not only does it make modern sport healthier, but will become a powerful means of protecting the health of outstanding athletes.

The need to fight doping is well understood today by many athletes and sport federations, that

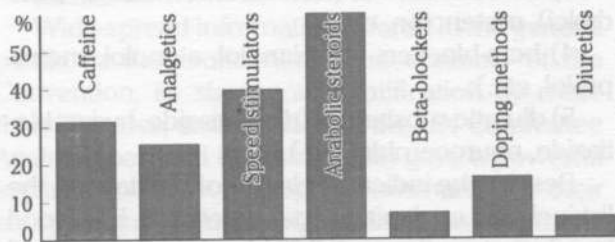
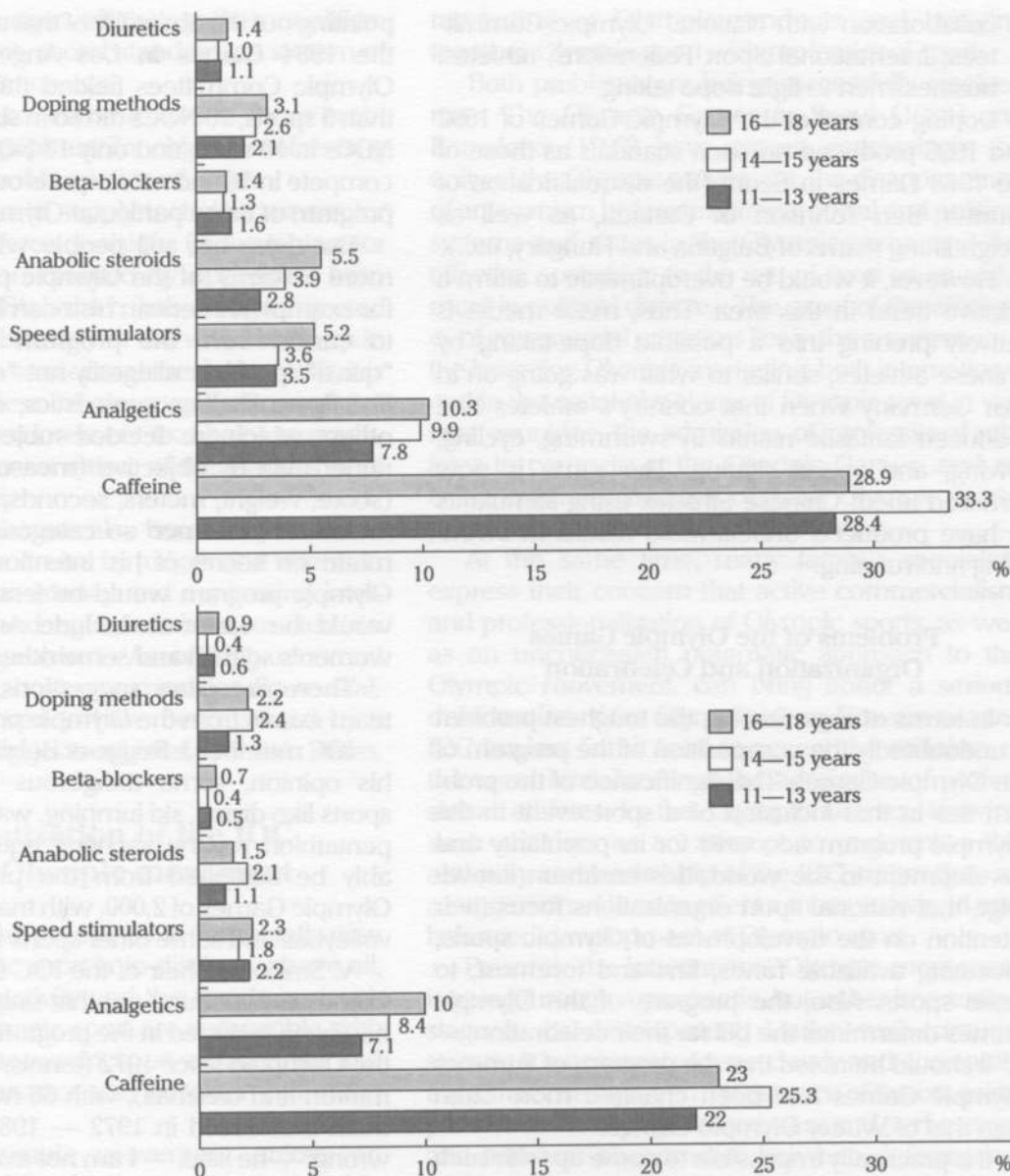


Fig. 4. The Opinion of 16,169 Young Canadians About the Effect of Controlled Substances on Sport Performance (according to the Canadian Sport Without Doping Center, 1993)

Fig. 5.
The Use of
Controlled
Substances
by Young
Canadian Men
and Women
(16,169 per-
sons) of
Various Age
Groups to
Enhance
Performance
in Sport
(according to
the Canadian
Sport Without
Doping Center,
1993)



are very active in this area, even at the cost of success of their own teams. For example, swimmer Mayer of USA had won three gold medals at the US Trials before the Olympic Games in Seoul. Tests revealed traces of steroids in her organism, the athlete was disqualified, and the incident was reported to the mass media. This was a proof of the federation's concern over the unblemished reputation of its athletes. More examples of this sort could be drawn from the record of the weightlifting federations of Canada and Sweden.

An important stage in the anti-doping campaign was a joint protocol signed by the IOC and summer sports federations, which was a follow-up of the detailed discussion at the meeting of the IOC Executive Board and the Association of International Federations of Summer Sports. The Protocol has introduced a comprehensive anti-

doping program on the basis of a list of illegal substances valid for all sports, which is compiled and annually updated by the IOC; approval of uniform rules and procedures of doping control, including spot checks during competitions and training; bringing together sanctions for dope taking and their nation-wide implementation; further cooperation of the IOC, NOCs and IFs with governmental agencies dealing with drug trafficking.

The IOC envisages the following guidelines for anti-doping activity:

- research and development of more efficient methods of doping control;
- education campaign for athletes, coaches, doctors and other specialists;
- further improvement of doping control methods and organization;
- tougher sanctions for dope taking;

- collaboration with National Olympic Committees, International Sport Federations, athletes, businessmen to fight dope taking.

Doping control at the Olympic Games of 1992 and 1996 produced no such scandals as those of the 1988 Games in Seoul (the disqualification of sprinter Ben Johnson of Canada, as well as weightlifting teams of Bulgaria and Hungary, etc.).

However, it would be overoptimistic to affirm a positive trend in this area. Thus, mass media is actively probing into a possible dope-taking by Chinese athletes, similar to what was going on in East Germany when that country's athletes had produced fantastic results in swimming, cycling, rowing, and speed skating. The same is now rumored about Chinese athletes using stimulants to have produced unbelievable results in swimming and running.

Problems of the Olympic Games Organization and Celebration

In terms of organization, the toughest problem is undoubtedly the composition of the program of the Olympic Games. The significance of the problem lies in that inclusion of a sport event in the Olympic program accounts for its popularity and development in the world. It is common knowledge that national sport organizations focus their attention on the development of Olympic sports, allocating available funds, first and foremost, to those sports. Also, the program of the Olympic Games determines the bill for their celebration.

It should be noted that the program of Summer Olympic Games had been changed more often than that of Winter Olympic Games.

It is practically impossible to come up with such a balanced Olympic program that would satisfy everyone: there will always be complaints. However, it is feasible to work out a program which would reflect current standing of each and every sport. To achieve this, one needs objective criteria and rigorous control by the IOC and International Sport Federations.

The program of the XV Olympic Games of 1952 in Helsinki included 19 sports and 149 events; that of the XXIV Games in Seoul (1988) included 23 sports and 237 events, and the XXV Games in Barcelona (1992) brought that number to 25 sports and 257 events.

The increase was particularly impressive in women's Olympic program. The 1976 Olympic Games program was made up of 7 women's sports and 42 events, whereas that of the 1988 Games rose to 15 and 68, respectively.

Although the talks of the Olympic Games 'gigantism' have subsided, it is probably worth

pointing out the absurdity of that attitude. In fact, at the 1984 Games in Los Angeles 90 National Olympic Committees fielded their teams in less than 5 sports, 20 NOCs did so in six to ten sports, 13 NOCs in 10 to 15, and only 17 NOCs sent teams to compete in 16 and more sports out of the 21 on the program of those particular Olympic Games.

But there are still people who are intent on more 'reforms' of the Olympic program. In 1986, for example, American historian P. Clerk proposed to cancel from the program what he called "quasi"-sports, or allegedly not "authentic" sports, like figure skating, gymnastics, diving and some others, which are decided subjectively by judges, rather than by objective (measurable) indicators (score, weight, meters, seconds, etc.). Why is the American 'reformer' so categorical? He actually made no secret of his intentions: that way the Olympic program would be less cumbersome, it would be easier to include American football, women's softball and some other sports instead.

There are other suggestions, say to exclude team events from the Olympic program.

IOC member J. Rogge of Belgium hopes that, in his opinion, some dangerous and unattractive sports like diving, ski jumping, water polo, modern pentathlon, rowing, yachting, equestrian will probably be scrapped from the program after the Olympic Games of 2,000, with triathlon, golf, beach volleyball and some other sports taking their place.

V. Smirnov, Chair of the IOC Olympic Program Committee, pointed out that only four new sports had been included in the program of the Games of the Olympiad since 1972 (tennis, table tennis, badminton and baseball), with 66 new events having been introduced in 1972 — 1988. "Don't get me wrong, — he said. — I am not at all suggesting that the Olympic program as it exists today does not require amendments and improvement. But today, in my opinion, it reflects sufficiently well the current state and trends in the development of the international sport and Olympic movement".

As we see, there are many different opinions of the problem.

Careful attention should be paid also to attempts of certain IOC circles to introduce quotas for the number of Olympic Games participants in certain sports, which could seriously hamper the progress of sport in developing countries.

Among problems afflicting the Olympic Games one should not overlook the problems of refereeing. Objectivity of judges and referees depend on several issues, both general in their nature and related to specific sports. These are the improvement of competition regulations; objective criteria for determining winners; composition of juries; introduction of technical equipment in the practice

of referees and judges officiating; their qualifications, physical form, moral standards; a system of refereeing surveillance, etc.

Of immediate concern are two of those problems: technical equipment for objective refereeing and the principles of formation of juries.

The suggestions to supply technical means for more objective referee decisions (video taping, for example) are often blocked by opposition from some IFs (like FIFA, which has always rejected repeated proposals to rely of the video back-up in case of disputes in soccer matches). However, it is through the process of democratization of the international sport movement that helps to gradually circumvent conservatism of the leadership of certain federations.

Various problems are also caused by inconsistent interpretation of rules by judges and referees.

This lack of consistency and contrasting interpretations of rules and regulations have resulted in a number of serious problems. Accordingly, recurrent incidents in diving, boxing, gymnastics, figure skating are often claimed to have been caused by a biased attitude of judges to athletes of certain states.

Democratization of the IOC and the Olympic movement

An analysis of the processes of democratization in modern Olympic sport is to disclose, above all, whether the IOC activity and the trends in developing modern Olympic sport are compatible with the interests of the world sport community and provide for maintenance and development of the Olympic ideals.

Today the Olympic movement enjoys an unprecedented stability, high respect in the outside world, which allows it to have an impact on social developments in various countries and regions, as well as on the whole of the world community. Credit is due for this to the IOC and President J. A. Samaranch, who have every reason to be proud of their achievements over the previous years.

Naturally, the analysis of the present development of the Olympic sport and the policies of the IOC and IOC-related agencies should take stock future prospects, as well as the current situation. To the extent possible, one can expect certain problems and complications in this area which one needs to take into account if we don't want the future of the Olympic sport more optimistic than expected by many leaders of the international Olympic movement.

The IOC has identified two problem areas in its activity over the recent years. These are i) maintaining the unity of the international Olympic movement and ii) raising fresh capital through

marketing of Olympic products and bringing together Olympic sport with professional sport.

Both problems are being successfully resolved now. The Olympic Games in Seoul (1988) and Barcelona (1992) have proven convincingly the unity of the Olympic movement, the disappearance of antagonism between different social and political systems and states in the Olympic arena, and the effective opposition to the use of sport as an argument in political disputes. The proof of the efficiency of commercial programs lies in the emergence of the booming Olympic marketing, both international and in the national systems of Olympic sport in various countries; the admission of professional athletes to compete at the Olympic Games; and an active commercialization of many Olympic sports, particularly that of track and field events.

At the same time, many famous specialists express their concern that active commercialism and professionalization of Olympic sports, as well as an unconcealed pragmatic approach to the Olympic movement, can bring about a serious deformation of the Olympic ideas. However, many IOC leaders find it hard to accept the criticism of the commercialism and the admission of professional athletes to the Olympic Games, viewing such criticism as an attempt to undermine the authority and leadership of the IOC, rather than as a suggestion of how to effect a more entwined and balanced development of Olympic sport.

Presently the international Olympic movement is going through a pragmatic, but rather impressive stage in its development. Under such circumstances it is necessary to see clearly and accurately the difference between the essence of the on-going process in the Olympic movement and perfunctory and transient phenomena; between deformation of Olympism and the need for changes to accommodate the present-day realities. Consequently, the great importance of research done by scientists into the problems of Olympic sport.

Coordination of the activity of the IOC, NOCs and IFs is not easy. Many IOC members see the contacts of this body with other agencies of the international Olympic movement as a one-way street, with instruction coming down from the IOC and no feedback from those agencies. Accordingly, NOCs and IFs should have more say in governance of Olympic sport.

There are also problems with determination of the extent of the jurisdiction of IOC members, as many International Federations and NOCs have no representation in the IOC.

It has become clear today that distribution of responsibilities of the IOC, NOCs and IFs, as well as broader powers of NOCs and democratization of the international Olympic movement as a whole,

are hardly possible unless the powers are accurately determined of the IOC Executive Board and the IOC Sessions, and Olympic Congresses are granted legislative functions.

As mentioned above, there are numerous problems and complications in modern Olympic movement. It is common knowledge, for example, that athletes training, preparation and participation in competitions, procurement of the necessary tools and equipment cost a lot, and most NOCs and IFs can not afford such spending. Besides, doping, despite vigorous campaign to banish it from sport, is still a serious problem which continues to threaten Olympic sports.

Commercialism and professionalization of Olympic sport run counter to its nature and the Olympic ideals, which calls for careful consideration and balanced decisions.

There is still a long way to go to put an end to such issues as the use of sport for political ends, and its contamination with racism, nationalism and apartheid.

Still unresolved is the fate of the Olympic program, adding new sport events and removing old ones, changing the number of events in certain Olympic sports, qualifying rounds of preliminary competitions, etc.

Another contentious issue is that of a broader participation of women in the Olympic Games, given the fact that so far women are deprived of the opportunity to compete in several popular sports at the Olympic arena.

To the fore is coming out the development of a rational athletes preparation system, their social protection and health care, as the level of performance in Olympic sport, participation in numerous competitions, particularly commercial ones, with an enormous strain on the body systems of athletes, require a revision of many time-honored considerations.

Naturally, all these problems can not be successfully resolved without a substantial democratization of the IOC and the whole of system of administration in sport. Real link should be ensured of science and practice in sport, which is very weak in Olympic sport today, or even nonexistent in a number of major areas. There should be considerably more powers given to NOCs, the IFs and regional agencies in handling most important issues of the development of Olympic sport.

Of particular significance is an exchange of achievements in the theory and practice of the Olympic sport system. Thus, East European countries and newly independent states on the territory of the former Soviet Union are currently in desperate need of the assistance from the developed countries of the West in Olympic marketing and

modern equipment and tools to be installed at their sport facilities. In return, they could significantly improve the efficiency of Western athletes preparation and training by sharing with them their vast experience in various sports, which mostly accounted for the former success of the teams of the USSR and East European countries on Olympic arenas. To prove this points, it will suffice to compare the results achieved at the XXV Olympic Games in Barcelona by the teams of Belgium and Hungary, the two countries with almost the same number of population. Belgium, with its efficient marketing system, which is the result of 20 years of development, and a powerful financial base of the Olympic sport, an example for other Western states, had to be contended in Barcelona with just one silver and two bronze medals. Hungary, on the other hand, lacking such sound financial base, managed to win 30 medals in Barcelona (11 gold, 12 silver and 7 bronze, respectively) as a result of their high quality selection system, organization of training and all elements of athletic preparation.

Today the IOC breaks new grounds in the history of modern Olympic sport. The on-going changes in the Olympic Games and the international Olympic movement are so substantial that it is extremely difficult to foresee the future consequences of this process. It will take a continuous creative effort from all participants of the international Olympic movement to ensure its further progress, to avoid insurmountable problems and to stay clear of the swamp of contradictions. One can feel quite optimistic about the future of Olympic sport, if the IOC succeeds in its activity of the organizer and coordinator of such efforts, without a relapse into its authoritative and heavy-handed ways when seeking solution of matters of principle.

Commercialism in Olympic Sport

Specialists, who follow closely changes in the Olympic movement and in the IOC activities, could clearly see as early as the first half of the 1980's a principally new trend, which linked further development of the Olympic movement with commercialism and professionalization of sport. Discussions and publications on the eve of the 1984 Olympic Games concentrated on such issues as politicization and denationalization of sport, whereas after the Los Angeles Games problems of commercialism and professionalization came to the fore, as is shown by the analysis of the IOC activities.

This can be accounted for by the essential changes in the sport system of the leading coun-

tries of the West in the 1980's, which could not but affect international sport, particularly Olympic sport.

Due to inadequate funding allocated by their governments to support top performance sport and competitions, sport bodies of some countries, in view of the popularity of sport with spectators and advertising companies and agencies, decided to launch active sales of sport as a commodity. Funds that had been raised through advertising, sponsorship, licensing and selling TV coverage rights became an essential source of financing certain sports in the USA, West Germany, Great Britain, Sweden and some other states.

How does the process of Olympic sport commercialism unfurl at this stage?

Until mid 1980's the IOC had not entered into direct commercial agreements with companies, concerns and agencies. This used to be done by NOCs, IFs and Organizing Committees of the cities that hosted Olympic Games. However, in 1981 the IOC came up with an unexpected idea of using pictograms of Olympic sports for commercial purposes. Sports, a Swiss newspaper, described this step as "an historic epoch in the development of sport, the dramatic departure from the past and an epoch-making step into the future".

"Money is now made all around, but doesn't the IOC hold anything sacred? Couldn't it have preserved intact at least the Olympic symbol in the form of the five interlaced circles? Was it really necessary to sell it, too?", inquired Spigel from W. Daume, IOC member and President of the National Olympic Committee of West Germany. His answer left no doubt of his support of the commercial policies pursued by the IOC and NOCs of Western countries: "Our NOCs have always sought to escape complete financial dependence on the government. So now that our own capital has increased, it has mainly been made possible through the advertising impact of the Olympic circles. Why not make use of the impact? Why should profit be generated only by the economy? And as regards the word 'sacred', I treat it with great restraint. Only God Our Lord is sacred".

Some sport leaders in the West found it difficult to agree with the IOC commercial policies. They thought the IOC had made a mistake when it conceded its exclusive rights to use the Olympic symbols to "International Sport, Culture and Leisure" joint stock company (ISL).

Neue Zürcher Zeitung of Switzerland had this to say in 1986: "Aided by the Lucerne-based ISL marketing agency, the IOC has covered the whole of the Western world with a web of commercial operations, which are an attractive bait for consumer-goods producing concerns". The newspaper fol-



IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch awards Horst Dassler, president of "Adidas" the Olympic Order

lowed this up with a conclusion: "The admission commercialism to the Olympic Games is a sure pointer of the trend towards open Games".

Eventually, the forecast came true, as will be shown below.

Speaking about commercialism in sport and the role of advertising in this process, one should not forget to mention several companies, that are seeking to monopolize the sport market. These are, more than any other companies, "International Management Group" (IMG), headed by M. McCormick, the sport goods trader; ISL 51 % of whose stock belongs to the owned of Adidas, and "Dentsu", the Japanese advertising agency.

IMG is better known for staging tennis tournament and selling stars of professional and amateur sport. More than 300 top athletes of the world have signed contracts with IMG. This company determines the dates and itinerary for their athletes-clients to take part in competitions, provides them with consultations on tax issues, enters into advertising contracts for them, and invests their money in different businesses. IMG charges 20 % — 30 % of the athletes profits for its services.

Aided by the IOC, the ISL joint holding company, a powerful competitor of IMG, had taken over organization of many major competitions in most widely practiced sports like soccer, track and field, volleyball, and also takes an active part in celebrating the Olympic Games. The best achievement of ISL was signing of a three-year commercial contract with the IOC in 1986, which gave that company a monopoly on the use of the Olympic symbols. Later the contract was extended.

Thus, starting from the middle of the 1980's, the process of commercialism in Olympic sport has

involved all bodies of the international Olympic movement, as well as athletes.

There exist different attitudes to the assessment of commercializing sport.

One attitude involves viewing the problem from current perspective against the background of changes occurring in the world and in sports of specific countries. This attitude is underpinned by pragmatism. Adherents of this standpoint view commercialism as a "necessary evil" which helps sport, but stress that the process should be controlled by sport bodies.

This point of view is shared by many leaders from the IOC and sport organizations in many countries. President of the IOC J. A. Samaranch emphasized time and again that "Commercialism gives significant support to sport, it is indispensable for sport. But it should be under control of sport".

Opponents of this view keep reminding what had happened to the Ancient Olympic Games and maintain that the assessment of commercialism in sport should include not only its financial aspects, but also an analysis of its impact on the nature of sport and its values. This attitude is shared by many notable experts from different countries, such as J. Coackley, W. Leonard, J. Sage (USA), J. Riordan, D. Antony (Great Britain), N. Andonov (Bulgaria), N. Ponomarev (Russia) et al.

What are the arguments against commercialism in Olympic sport?

Above all, this process distorts the values of sport activities, which come to be focused on how much money sport can bring, rather than on the ability to go in for sport and compete in the Olympic Games. The significance of sport is thus devalued. Commercialism puts paid to the educational functions of sport and the Olympic Games. Devoid of such functions, sport and the Olympic Games will no longer enjoy the status of the major and significant social phenomena, which they do so far.

Another result of commercialism is transformations of certain sports, changes in the regulation of competitions to suit the needs of the numerous "invitation" competitions. And this does not work out well for sport. Sport and Organizing Committees of Olympic Games become dependent on external sources of finance (above all on commercial television), which have nothing to do with sport and the Olympic Games. Olympic competition rules and Games schedules are often developed under pressure resulting from financial interests of certain groups. Thus, the duration of Winter Olympic Games has been extended from 12 to 16 days on demand of TV channels. At the 1988 Olympic Games in Seoul 23 finals were staged in the morning and only a few finals after 5

p.m., whereas at the Moscow Games in 1980 not a single final had been scheduled for the first half of the day.

With active commercialism in sport, it became difficult to prove the need of sport being supported from state budget. Given financial success of certain sport competitions, governments of many countries stopped allocating money to help stage those competitions.

There emerges a situation where certain sports are being discriminated against for lack of attention from television, advertising agencies and sponsors, who prefer more spectacular sports. Many sports, such as Greco-Roman wrestling, water polo, diving, modern pentathlon and some others, can not be commercialized as fail to capture the attention of both spectators and industrialists. Commercialism is much more active and successful in tennis, basketball, ice hockey, track and field, Alpine skiing, and some other sports. Therefore, even at this point the Olympic program is broken down into "rich" and "poor" sports.

This creates all kinds of problems for the whole of sports. Among others, one can not but notice dwindling interest of kids and youths towards those sports which are not sufficiently attractive for the mass media. Accordingly, even the best athletes in such sports fail to earn enough to keep them going.

It is easy to see that representatives of different sports and different IFs will be at loggerheads over the issue of commercializing top performance sport. Those from the 'rich' sports will probably support the extremist view of G. Kasparov, the world chess champion, who called as early as 1989 to put an end to diverting proceeds from some sports to develop others, and to cut down programs of preparation in sports which fail to attract spectators and be commercially viable. Representatives of 'poor' countries, on the other hand, will seek to maintain the existing situation, oppose professionalization and commercialism in sport, and call for state funding and reallocation of funds depending on 'medal-intensity' of sports in the Olympic Games program.

Another problem lies in that commercialism of sport provides for the emergence of a relatively small sport elite, enjoying the attention of the press and getting substantial, sometimes huge, gains. At the same time, this process alienates this group from the majority of athletes who have not reached yet the top performance level. Naturally, these athletes, their coaches and support staff get nothing from commercialism moreover, they stand to lose part of their material and financial resources. This trend is quite evident now that funding is significantly decreased of non-top per-

formance sports, which is actively opposed by those who would like to keep the status-quo.

Commercialism broadens the scope of influence of sponsors on sport; sport bodies employ marketing experts; businessmen take part in handling sport issues, from instructing what uniforms and equipment should be used by athletes to the composition of competition schedules and team selection.

A commercialism-related characteristic feature of modern sport is seeking to reach an ever increasing performance. This feature is getting more and more noticeable due to rising stakes, particularly financial incentives, going hand in hand with victories in major competitions, which brings big money to athletes and teams from sponsors who are looking for new efficient forms of advertising their products. Accordingly, athletes, coaches and administrators are driven to beat opponents at any cost, including means which are incompatible with sport and morality. Thus, commercialism in sport is closely related to the doping problem. And this threatens the classic ideals and values of sport, which run the risk of being superseded by purely economic interests.

Medical experts add that commercialism in sport and an increase in the number of commercial competitions bring unbearable strain, physical and psychological, on athletes. "Today top performance sport exceeds the bounds of biological abilities of man. Sport doctors of Germany are concerned with the future of top performance sport because of excessive strain on athletes as a result of commercial competitions supported by the IOC. Professionalization will give an additional boost to this process. We are observing a dramatic process, which, from the medical point of view, is indefensible", emphasized Professor W. Holmann, Director of the Institute of Sport Medicine in Cologne, Germany.

Sport by now has been commercialized to such an extent that it can easily be destroyed and turned into a show in the hands of dealers. However, paradoxically, the many-fold increase in sport commercialism and its use for political ends go hand in hand with self-perfection of sport and bringing up its authority in modern world as a major social factor of modern age. Yet the paradox is not difficult to account for. There is a vested interest in maintaining sport's independence and keeping up its fundamental principles and image on the part of both sport leaders and representatives of business circles, even the ones who feel neither affection nor respect for sport, and use it simply for furthering their political ends or for profit. The reason was explained quite convincingly, if somewhat cynically, by Mark McCormick, one of the better-known

sport managers, who declared that "... to seek short-term profit at the expense of sport would be equal to plucking out the feathers of the hen that lays golden eggs".

Accordingly, it is not by accident that sponsor firms include a special item in the contract with athletes, which specifies that bonuses shall not be paid if the athletes take doping.

However, the experience of mixing sport and business in recent years proves that, provided good management, sport bodies succeed in turning substantial profits through advertising, maintaining its image and without falling into dependence on economy in a difficult situation when there is a blend of interests of athletes, coaches, sponsors, sport equipment suppliers, mass media, etc. To ensure the consistence of sport bodies and its ideals under current circumstances, now that sport is intertwined with business, sport experts not only have to be on top of sport problems, but also to be able to see the role of sport among other social phenomena, to keep track of the factors, particularly economic, underlying sport, and to react in a timely and efficient way, on all changes in society. It is critically important for many specialists to part from dogmas and stereotypes which are no longer compatible with real life.

Here is a quote on the matter from a dictum of R. Pound, the IOC member who is running commercial activities of that body. Says he: "Paradoxically, except for the Olympic Games and the Olympic movement, commercial support of almost all competitions is accepted with no qualifications. Two questions arise: is commercialism generally bad or good, and why is it so controversial when it comes to the Olympic movement? Obviously, sport can not rely only on the public sector (that is, governments) to take care of financial matters. Therefore, it turns to the private sector, trying to present itself as an institution worthy of charity — of the kind given to churches and hospitals.

Business has its special requirements. If corporations offer financial support to sport, they are to make a profit. And it is this peculiarity that can potentially result in a conflict of interests of sport and business. If sport wants to get 'value' from business, it should give more 'value' to business. What is it that sport can offer? Promotion of goods, sponsors and services. Practice shows that that approach really helps make the goods, products or corporation as a whole more popular. To manage well relationships between sport and business, both sides need to understand the needs of each other.

Is commercialism of the Olympic movement unavoidable? Probably it is. Is it dangerous? Possibly. But sport must develop the necessary

safeguards and be able to show to businessmen that both sport and business stand to lose should there be violations of sport ethics. Must the Olympic movement avoid financial and other support which business can offer it? Of course not. It ought to actively seek, encourage it, and work together for mutual benefit. The whole is to get bigger than the sum total of its parts" (R. Pound, 1994).

Financial interests of sport under increasing commercialism can be ensured only with high professionalism of Olympic movement experts in finance, marketing, and law.

This is a particularly acute problem for the newly independent states that emerged after the break up of the USSR. Given a highly developed system of top performance sport in the former USSR, foreign professional sport clubs and businesses had shown keen interest in many outstanding athletes, very famous and popular in the world, particularly those in commercially viable sports like track and field, basketball, soccer, ice hockey, and in prominent coaches and sport scientists, highly professional and well known in the world. However, the newly independent states are surprisingly inefficient in taking full advantage of the unique legacy of the USSR top performance sport, which could have been used as a perfect start of successful and profitable commercial programs. The reason for this is lack of a clear-cut system of commercializing sport, absence of science-based regulation, specialized agencies and experts in the area of sport business.

Today it would be unreasonable to refuse to acknowledge the process of commercializing sport. Instead, the process is to be regulated and rigorously controlled by the IOC, IFs and NOCs. Robert Helmick, the ex-President of the US NOC was perfectly right to emphasize that "We need an organized system of sponsors, but we should keep a broadly-based management and control over top performance sport. Profit must not be the only incentive for its development. Decisions must not be made by people whose only concern is business".

The international conference of sport ministers held in Moscow in November 1988, focused on the need for the IOC, IFs and NOCs to control and manage commercialism in sport. It recommended to amend the charters of all international sport associations, including the Olympic Charter, with clauses which would regulate the process of commercialism.

However, despite all talk over the previous five years of the need for commercialism to be controlled by the IOC, IFs and NOCs, such clauses have yet to appear both in the updated version of the Olympic Charter and in the charters of most of IFs and NOCs.

When asked by a reporter from the "Olympian" magazine (USA) if the scope of commercialism is not dangerous for the Olympic Games, J. A. Samaranch replied: "There is no such thing as too much money. What matters is that money made through sport is used for the good of sport. We believe that the Olympic movement should get a bigger share of proceeds from the sale of the rights for TV coverage. Today we get 34 %, and the Organizing Committee 66 %. In 1996, 60 % will go to the Organizing Committee and 40 % to the Olympic movement, and in 1998 it will be half and half".

This quote shows that the process of commercialism of the Olympic Games is sure to continue.

Professionalization of Olympic Sport

Professionalization is currently one of the factors which determine the development of top performance sport in the world. Sport is currently going through the processes which have already occurred or are almost over in science, religion, law and art.

In the previous 20 to 30 years sport came to require so much physical and psychological effort and time from athletes that this input is hardly possible, unless a proper system of incentives, compensations and services is in place.

Naturally, many highly specialized professions emerged in sport, like coaches, sport doctors, researchers, masseurs, and some others.

Professionalization gradually expanded to include more and more functionaries as payments were made for training top performers and for their participation in competitions (stipends, salaries, compensations, fees for advertising and competing, bonuses, etc.). This process is still going on strong.

Today most of Olympic sports actively follow in the tracks of professional sport. Professions are only just being formed in Olympic sports, whereas in professional sport (particularly in car racing, baseball, golf, soccer, cycling, football, basketball, hockey, tennis, boxing and some others) this process is long over, and the system of professional sport goes on from strength to strength.

Although the overwhelming majority of the current leaders of the IOC welcome commercialism and professionalization of sport, see no danger in this process and maintain that those factors provide for further strengthening of the image of Olympic sport through improving its financial basis, the process of its professionalization is still a highly contentious issue.

It is indeed a complicated and controversial process, particularly in view of attempts to protect the fundamental principles of classical Olympism. The idea of professionalization in sport gets a mixed reaction from the leadership of the international sport movement, representatives of national sport bodies, researchers and even athletes.

The problem of admission of professional athletes to the Olympic Games has long been a stumbling block on the way to sport professionalization. Eventually, however, in 1986 the IOC, on request of respective International Sport Federations, declared professional players in soccer and ice hockey eligible to compete in the Olympic Games. Soon tennis and basketball professionals were also admitted to the Olympic family. This was the decision of the majority of the IOC members. Their opinion was exemplified by the IOC Vice President R. Pound (Canada), who said: "We want top athletes of the world to compete at the Olympic Games. We don't like it when athletes of better ranking compete at world championships than at the Olympic Games. We need to engage the best performers, whether professionals or amateurs".

To achieve a breakthrough, the IOC granted IFs the right to decide on the eligibility of athlete for the Olympic Games. According to W. Daume, Chairman of the IOC Eligibility Committee, "The admission rights have outlived their time. The word 'amateur' was scrapped from the Olympic Charter in 1981. Following an in-depth analysis of facts, the IOC Eligibility Committee came to a conclusion that the power of admitting athletes both to the Olympic Games and world championships should belong to the International Sport Federations".

In 1983 the IOC set up a group chaired by A. Himl, President of the Czech NOC and Sports Minister of Czechoslovakia, the country with an impressive record in mass sport. This group developed the structure, work program and determined the functions of the IOC 'Sport for All' Committee.

This IOC Committee was established in 1985. Next year the IOC launched the First Congress 'Sport for All' in Frankfurt-am-Mein under the motto 'Everyone Has the Right to Go in for Sport'.

In 1987 the IOC decided to hold the Olympic Day of World Running on June 23 every year.

The Second Congress 'Sport for All' was held in Czechoslovakia in 1988. The agenda included such items as strategy for the "Sport for All" movement, its infrastructure, programs of various countries, the role of mass media. Speaking at the Congress, IOC President J. A. Samaranch pointed out that the movement 'Sport for All' had firmly established itself in the world, with significant IOC assistance.

But the idea of J. A. Samaranch for the IOC to take in its fold 'sport for all' is not taken well by all. Thus, Willie Weiher, a sport leader of West Germany, thinks that the 'Sport for All' movement and the Olympic movement have different roots, principles and contents. The Olympic movement is based on the principles of the international sport, whereas 'Sport for All' is being developed by each country depending on national peculiarities, traditions and culture.

Later on, the 1994 Congress 'Sport for All — Health for All' was held in Uruguay, and the 1996 Congress will be held in Seoul.

Today the movement 'Sport for All' is increasingly associated with the tasks of health care, active longevity, prophylactics and even treatment of various diseases. Laboratory tests in many countries have proved convincingly the importance of active movements to fight cardio-vascular deficiencies, nervous diseases, metabolism, and even malignant tumors. Consequently, 'Sport for All' is closely linked with the tasks of medicine, lifestyle planning, rational use of labor in various areas of society.

It is not surprising that the organization and structure of the IOC and NOCs, the tasks they deal with, and trends of the Olympic sport development do not always take into account the needs of mass sport.

The IOC is known to have played a major part in the initial development of 'Sport for All'. Yet today it needs such an agency, with its own equipment and staff, that would be able to handle complex social problems facing the movement, to administer and coordinate management, funding and practical support of countries and organizations, and to implement the fundamental principle of this movement: making physical exercises and sport equally accessible to all social groups, irrespective of their race, creed or the position they occupy in society. But the leading role in the development of 'Sport for All' belongs to national sport bodies.

Clearly, there is a long way to go from granting to IFs the right to admit athletes to the Olympic Games to really open Games, with all top performers in contention. For one thing, completely "open" Olympic Games would result in total dependence of Olympic sports, the IOC and NOCs on business. For the other, not every professional may be eligible and not every eligible athlete will accept the invitation to compete in the Olympic Games.

The point is, the IFs hold different opinions as to the admission of professionals. Thus, the AIBA boxing rules state that no boxer to have taken part in a bout of more than six rounds is eligible to enter AIBA-staged tournaments. AIBA leaders do not intend to alter this rule because, they maintain,

amateur boxing is something completely different from professional boxing, both in the length of bouts, technique and tactics, and in the organization, system of funding and the attitude of boxers to the issue discussed.

FIBA, however, was only too glad to give the go ahead to the professionals to compete in the Olympic Games and world championships. But many specialists in the USA were concerned with the repercussions of this decision for fear of the game being run over by professional players, which would undermine the popularity of basketball in American Universities since that way students would have no chance of making it into the national team of the USA. There is another serious concern in that spectators, the mass media and businesses can lose interest in the Olympic basketball competitions as a result of absence of serious opposition to the stars from NBA.

The Association of Professional Baseball may never agree to allow their athletes to compete in the Olympics as the Games coincide with the height of the pro baseball season. Most probably, only some rookies and outgoing veterans will be able to accept the invitation. This looks like a repeat of the situation in ice hockey, when IIHF was the first to open the way for professionals to take part in the Olympic Games, thereby making hockey the most open of all Olympic sports. Yet NHL would not allow their stars to have enough time to prepare and compete in the Olympic Games.

FIFA, the soccer authority, insists that only players under 23 years of age be eligible to play at the Olympic tournament, whereas the IOC believes that this is discrimination and wants this decision to be scrapped, so that all the best football players come to compete at the Olympics. FIFA is justified in being concerned that open soccer tournaments will pose a threat to the profits made by this international federation from the world soccer championship and refuses to budge on the issue. Particularly, they argue, since even under current arrangements the soccer tournament attracts most spectators and sells more tickets than any other sport at the Olympic Games.

Major reforms have been introduced in cycling. The International Federation of Professional Cyclists (FICP) and its amateur counterpart (FIAC) have been restructured, with the International Cycling Union (UCI) remaining the ultimate authority in the sport. Accordingly, the whole system of cycling competitions is under an overhaul, and world records are registered jointly for professional and amateur athletes. All top cyclists are eligible to compete in the Olympic Games.

Further development of the eligibility issue depends on a number of factors.

First of all, much depends on the stand taken by respective IFs, as was mentioned above. Some of them support the idea of admitting all the best athletes to the Olympics, others are pursuing the wait-and see policy, still others would rather keep the status-quo. Whatever the alternatives, in considering their position on the matter of eligibility, International Federations proceed from the best interests of their sport, the way they see fit. The same goes to say about the IOC policies. Thus, J. A. Samaranch, the IOC President, is adamant in demanding an end to the age limit in soccer. At the same time, he would not like to admit professionals for the Olympic figure skating competitions, as he believes that they are inferior to those athletes who compete in the Olympic Games.

Secondly, a lot depends on the companies who had signed contracts with professional athletes. Sponsor firms that have contracts with top tennis players, for instance, are not at all happy with them skipping the Big Slam business tournaments in order to take part in the Olympic Games.

And thirdly, some professional athletes, particularly in combat sports (like boxing), do not feel enthusiastic about the Olympic Games, which give almost no remuneration and do not help their image, as there is always a possibility to be beaten by a newcomer. To say nothing of the fact that tough Olympic bouts are always fraught with danger of serious injuries.

However, whatever the decision of the IFs as relates eligibility of their athletes for the Olympic Games, and no matter how managers, sponsors and athletes feel about it, the process of a merger of professional and amateur sport is underway, and the Olympic Games will never be the same.

On the whole, one can conclude that the efforts of many leaders of international sport, who have sought for a number of years to keep intact the classic Olympic ideals and the purity of the Olympic movement, and to stop professionalization of sport, have become more and more futile and idealistic. Although few specialists doubt that professionalization of Olympic sport alters its traditional essence, introduces profiteering and distorts the Olympic principles, one can not but recognize that this process has become a reality. Further development of sport will be increasingly interlaced with professionalization, so that Olympic sport will not be able to maintain its identity unless it succeeds in keeping track of reality and making prompt decisions with due regard of the interests of the Olympic movement. Attempts to revive the outdated ideas of "pure" amateurism can only forestall progress in the countries that decide to embark on this road. Moreover, wherever the principle of amateur sport was intact, this did not stop intensification of pro-

fessionalization, re-routing it instead into an area of pseudo-amateurism and machinations (like illegal fees, fictitious jobs, etc.). Consequently, talk of amateurism in sport has come to be viewed as a joke.

For a whole century, professional and Olympic sport have gone their separate ways, developing their own intricate systems of competitions, organization and training methods, which produced outstanding athletes with impressive skills and achievements. Their merger is one of the most significant factors underpinning the further progress of sport and of its authority as a major phenomenon of modern age.

On the other hand, there exist certain constraints for sport professionalization, which can be overcome only in part, as different sports offer different commercial opportunities. Many sports can not be commercialized for lack of popularity and entertainment. This can be offset through targeted government support. However, governmental agencies in many countries do not take this factor into consideration at present and leave "poor" sports to their own devices. This is a serious drawback of the process of commercialism and professionalization in sport.

Olympic and Mass Sport

The idea of mass sport and top performance sport belonging to the same sphere of human activities had taken decades to evolve. This understanding was facilitated by the works of P. de Coubertin. He thought that "If 100 people do exercises, 50 of them should go in for sport. Of those 50, 20 are to specialize in one sport. And five of those 20 are to reach top form." It is this dictum of the French educator that is quoted by many researchers to prove the interconnection of mass and top performance sport.

In 1919 P. de Coubertin came up with a slogan "We are to reach the masses" as one of the guidelines for the IOC activities. However, the appeal went unheeded, as many IOC members did not see any connection between Olympic and mass sport, and hence did not share Coubertin's views.

Having resigned from the IOC in 1925, Coubertin established The International Sport Education Bureau in 1926, which suggested a number of sport reforms, including differentiation of physical activity, sport education and sport competitions, as well as propagation of physical fitness tests, similar to those in Sweden and Germany. Yet those ideas had not taken off either, for lack of support from sport community in other countries.

Until the 1960's, most countries of the world cultivated Olympic sport and 'sport for all' through

separate programs and without an interface. But the achievements of the Soviet athletes and athletes of other socialist countries at the Olympic Games of 1952, 1956 and 1960 triggered once again discussions about links between mass sport and athletic performance.

The concept of unity of mass and Olympic sport, recognized and implemented in the USSR in 1930's — 1950's, which proved its worth in major international competitions of the 50's, was borrowed by other socialist states of that time. East Germany was the first state to give top priority to development of mass, children and family sport as the centerpiece of Olympic sport in the country. The same approach was later employed by Bulgaria, Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Rumania, and Cuba. Attempts to coordinate mass and Olympic sport were made in other countries, too. An important factor at play was regular TV coverage (starting in 1960) of the Olympic Games, which many observers believe greatly accelerated mass sport movement.

Once included in the program of the Olympic Games, new sports gained in popularity with the general public. For example, mass sport was given a great boost in west Germany in the second half of the 1960's, before the XX Olympic Games of 1972 in Munich. Incidentally, it was during that period (1966) that the term 'sport for all' came to be used.

Two aspects should be noted in the analysis of the interrelationships between Olympic and mass sport.

One aspect is the obvious impact of the Olympic Games on the activation of the mass-scale development of the Olympic sports. The other aspect is that dependence of athletic skills and Olympic exploits in the given sport on the number of people practicing it is not to be overestimated, as the principle of quantity growing into quality did not work since the early 1970's. This fact, once recognized, should suffice to start thinking about setting up specialized governmental agencies in different countries to run mass and Olympic sport there. So it came as a surprise for many leaders of international and national sport when IOC President J. A. Samaranch launched steps in the early 1980's for the IOC to embrace 'sport for all' in its activities.

Paralympic Games

It was in July 1948 that Doctor Ludwig Guttman organized Stoke Mandeville Games in England for 16 paralyzed archers, men and women, who used to serve in the Army.



Opening ceremony of the Paralympic Games (Atlanta, 1996)

Over the years, the number of participants in such competitions has increased, as has the range of sports involved. The idea of Games for the handicapped and invalids had crossed the borders of Great Britain and transformed into an annual international sport festival. Since 1952, the Games included contestants-invalids from the Netherlands, West Germany, Sweden, and Norway.

International Stoke Mandeville Games Federation (SMGF) was later created to manage that type of international competitions, which established a tight relationship with the IOC.

The IOC awarded the Federation a special Cup at the 1956 Olympic Games in Melbourne for its success in practical implementation of the Olympic ideals of humanism.

By degrees, the world community came to realize that sport is not a prerogative of only healthy people, and that invalids, even those with serious spinal injuries, can go in for sport and take part in competitions as active competitors.

The first Games for Invalids to have been staged outside Great Britain, were held in Rome in 1960, straight after the Rome Olympics. Participating were 360 paralyzed men and women from 24 countries.

The Games for Invalids held in Tokyo in 1964 got the new name of Paralympics.

The term 'Paralympic' is a blend of two words ('paraplegia' and 'Olympiad'), which were originally used to describe the special kind of Games. When, later, the Games became regular and included not only paraplegic athletes, the first word was shortened down to 'para' to

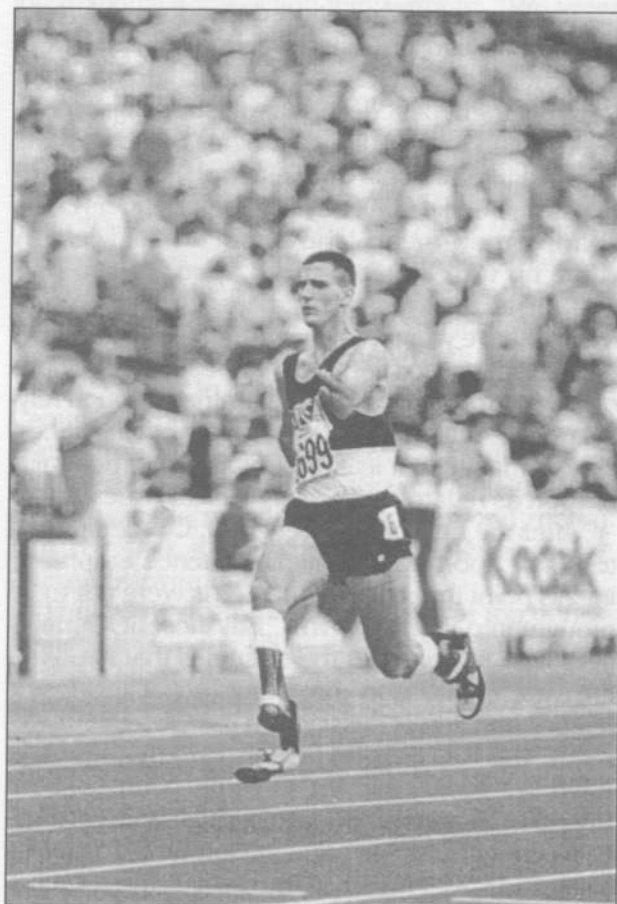
mean 'those that have joined'. The term 'Paralympic' was to carry across to the world at large that the Games for invalids joined the Olympic Games and would be held along with the Olympics.

Paralympics today are actually the Olympic Games for invalids, held once every four years, normally in the country that hosts Summer or Winter Olympic Games. Different categories of invalids are eligible: those with paralyzed upper and lower extremities; with quadriplegia; with amputations; the blind; those with cerebral palsy and other physical deficiencies.

The Paralympics competition program is quite broad. That of the Summer Paralympic Games, for instance, includes archery, shooting, track and field (javelin throw for length and accuracy, shot put, discus throw, different distance running, wheelchair racing, slalom, pentathlon), fencing, table tennis, basketball, billiards, skittles, soccer, swimming, volleyball, weightlifting, judo, etc. In most of those sports participants compete sitting in their wheelchairs.

The Paralympic Games have acquired huge popularity and become a major event in sporty and social life of the world community. Thus, in 1992, 3,200 athletes-invalids from 84 countries took part in the IX Paralympic Games in Barcelona. The 1994 Paralympic Games in Lillehammer hosted forty delegations.

The Atlanta Paralympic Games held in August 1996 convincingly demonstrated increased popularity of elite sports for people with physical disabilities. The Games featured 2522 male and 788



Moments of the Paralympic Games (Atlanta, 1996)

female athletes (3310 in total) from 104 countries competing in 17 sports events. 268 new world records were set, 517 gold, 516 silver and 541 bronze medals were awarded. According to all the above indices the Games turned to be the most successful in the history of Paralympic sports movement.

Recently the IOC tremendously increased its support of the Paralympic Games which began to attract greater audience as well as mass media.

The competition in the majority of sports events increased drastically. In many sports events the athletes with physical disabilities demonstrate outstanding results exceeding capacities of healthy and fit young people, representatives, for instance, of mass student sports.

In addition to the Paralympics, there are also Special Olympic Games staged for the mentally retarded ('Special Olympics'), which enjoy particular acclaim in the USA. Special Olympics program

includes such summer sports as aquatics, track and field, basketball, skittles, gymnastics, roller skate, soccer, volleyball; and winter sports, like Alpine skiing, Nordic skiing, speed skating, figure skating, and ice hockey.

Olympic Sport and Politics

Sport as a component of social life is unthinkable without a tight relation with the whole fabric of the political and economic system of society. The concept of 'sport beyond politics' still has its followers, but real life practice of modern sport proves the opposite. Even Pierre de Coubertin and his colleagues, who started modern Olympic movement, had preached freedom of sport from political factors, but in practice sought to use sport to strengthen peace and understanding among people, and to consolidate progressive forces and improve international cooperation.

Some people think that the liberal leaders of the Olympic movement at the turn of the 20th century came up with the concept of 'sport beyond politics' for tactical reasons: for the Olympic movement to have weight as an international phenomenon, sport was to steer clear of political ambitions of governments of different countries through relying on international interests. Hence, it was necessary to maintain at least a semblance of neutrality of sport as regards explosive political issues.

After the end of the Great War, Coubertin tried to isolate sport from political influence emphasizing his point that political problems were not to be brought into Olympic gyms. But those IOC members who represented the countries that had won the war, insisted on the expulsion of the losing nations and Soviet Russia from the Olympic movement. The IOC Session held in 1919 in Lausanne, ruled to move the VII Olympic Games from Budapest to Antwerp. To avoid tough political decisions concerning the participation of Germany, its allies and Soviet Russia in the Games, the IOC conceded the right of sending out invitations to the host-city, which effectively barred Russia, Germany and its allies from the 1919 Olympic Games.

But the history of top performance sport in general, and that of the Olympic movement in particular, has been a convincing proof of the fact that numerous appeals to separate sport and politics in order to undertake certain steps, were often voiced for political reasons. For instance, the government of Pretoria, in its attempts to break out of political isolation in the 1970's and 1980's through sport, had through all those years relied on the dictum about independence of sport from politics.

The credo of 'sport beyond politics' does not



Adolf Hitler with H. Baillet-Latour, the IOC President, and D. Luvold, Organizing Committee President, at the Opening Ceremony of the XI Olympic Games (Berlin, 1936)

stand criticism, if the centennial history of the Olympic movement is anything to go by. The best, and classical example is probably the 1936 Olympics in Berlin, when the Hitler regime had used sport and the Games for political and nationalistic ends.

Preparation for and staging of the Games of Olympiad and the Winter Olympic Games in 1936 were meant to immortalize the ideas of the Fuhrer, to substantiate supremacy of the Aryan race, and to ensure propaganda of the system of nation's physical culture. This became evident already in the shameless anti-Semitic campaign unleashed since 1931, when Germany won the bid to host the Games of Olympiad and the Winter Olympic Games in 1936. The pomp of the Olympics was meant to symbolize German supremacy. Full of ambiguity were the Olympic Oath taken by Rudolph Ismayer and the opening speech by Hitler who said: "... I declare the new-era Games of the XI Olympiad open". Militaristic attributes of the Games included the enormous number of uniformed soldiers on all sport facilities, in formation during the Opening Ceremony, lining the whole distance of the marathon run, a host of nazi flags around, etc.

According to the French Ambassador Francois Ponciet, the Olympics were held in the atmosphere of nervous mobilization, which bore evidence of an impending war under the disguise of the peaceful competition. Yet the demonstration of the intense nationalism proved stronger than the feeling of international unity. They mounted a huge number of floodlights on top of the high columns, which lit up the stadium during the pompous Closing Ceremony. The atmosphere created

around the Olympics led some sport specialists to describe the Games as "an international convention of the Reich parties in Berlin" (H. Hoffmann, 1993).

Olympic sport was brought in literature and art for propaganda of the nationalistic policies in Germany. The most obvious example was probably a specially ordered movie "The Olympiad" by the famous and undoubtedly talented Lenni Rieffenstall. The premiere of the movie was on April 20, 1938, when Hitler celebrated his birthday. The contents of this spectacular movie was overtly propagandistic.

By a sleight of hand the producer had altered the turns of the teams at the Opening Ceremony to create an impression that they all saluted the audience with the "Heil Hitler" gesture. Music that had accompanied the parade, was also tempered with. In fact, all the teams paraded to the beat of the military marches. But L. Rieffenstall kept the sound of the solemn military march only for the entrance of the German team, playing light folk music to accompany the movement of all the remaining teams (M. Loiperdinger, 1988).

Underlying the movie was the idea that, in essence, the Olympic idea is militaristic. To this end, every single sport was described by ample use of words like 'to fight', 'to win', etc.; suitable sport events were linked to the features and advantages of 'the Nordic race' and were used to symbolize the 'German Empire' (H. Hoffmann, 1993).

Later on, when athletes of socialist countries emerged on the Olympic arena, the Games turned into a competition of the two political systems and an important Cold War weapon. Olympic victories came to be seen as an indicator of relative health of the competing parties.

We believe that the biggest impact of politics on Olympic sport was seen in the ideological warfare between the USA and the USSR, West and East Germany, the USA and Cuba. The intense desire to prove the advantages of any one of the conflicting political systems through sport at the Olympic Games led to the use of such tricks, which distorted the nature of sport and destroyed the Olympic ideals. The worst culprits were, naturally, the USSR and the USA.

Politicians and the mass media of these states spared no efforts to transform sport into a political arena for competing political systems to give vent to their ambitions and to gain political advantage. These ends could not have been achieved other than through the efforts of sport organizers, coaches and even athletes themselves. Thus, Bob Mathias, the champion of the Olympic Games in Helsinki, described the first Olympic confrontation between the teams of the USSR and the USA as fol-

lows: "Russians bring a lot of pressure to bear on the American athletes. They are real enemies. You want to beat them, and you must. This was a strong desire with all athletes, and it was nothing like the feeling and desire instilled [in us] by competing with, say, Australians".

Soviet athletes are known to have entered the international sport area straight after the World War II, when it was unrealistic to expect them to start winning. The war-ravaged country had yet to heal its wounds, restore the existing sport facilities or build new ones, train sport organizers and coaches, etc. However, "the best friend of athletes" (one of the honorary names ascribed to Stalin) came up with an order for Soviet athletes to win every single international competition they went to. "We were aware of the instruction issued by Comrade Stalin to expedite development of sport, start meticulous training in preparation for competitions and field our teams by all means, if we are sure of gaining a victory", — reminisced N. N. Romanov, the former Chairman of the USSR Sport Committee, in his book "Difficult Roads to Olymp" (1987). Whenever athletes were leaving abroad for international competitions, their leaders were required to send a special memorandum to the Kremlin saying they guarantee that the athletes come back as winners.

With a view to encourage top performance, the Central Committee of the Russian Communist Party and the USSR Government introduced bonuses in 1945 to those Soviet athletes who would win the world title or set a world record. This decision stood when the USSR joined the Olympic movement in 1951.

Party and government controls over top performance sport in the USSR had a significant impact on the nature of the Olympic Games and set in motion an ever more active involvement of politics in sport through the use of the Games for ideological purposes by many governments.

Accordingly, losses at the Olympic Games were seen as major political defeats, and victories were directly associated with advantages of the political system. For instance, commenting on the USSR beating the US team by a substantial margin at the 1976 Games, where Americans also conceded defeat from East Germany, President of the NOC of the USSR S. Pavlov said the outcome had been natural, as it was "predetermined by the social policies of our states...".

The process of politization of the Olympic movement became particularly evident in the USA following the Montreal Olympics in 1976. The public outcry in society at the crushing defeat of the American team at the Olympic Games was so intense that the Administration of the USA decided to take over the preparation of the US national

team and participation at the Olympic Games. Yet even at the turn of the century it had been a matter of state policy in the USA to commingle sport performance with international propaganda of its national interests. It was for this reason that the American press came up with a proposal early in this century to recognize states as winners and suggested a system of counting up points at the Olympics, which was rejected by the IOC.

Sport became a clear-cut foreign policy instrument under R. Reagan's Administration. Sport turned into an inalienable part of the United States Information Agency (USIA) programs, and the Olympic Games in Los Angeles in 1984 were a political, as well as purely sporting event. President Ronald Reagan had put forward the motto 'Let us restore the former America', and there was nothing better to support it than a victory for the US team in Los Angeles.

Addressing members of the NOC of West Germany, President R. von Weizsäcker said: "Sport is getting ever more popular all over the world". This can be seen in this country in the frequency and volume of sport features on radio and television, which are on the rise with every passing year... The ever increasing importance of sport in all countries of the world is, undoubtedly, accounted for in part by the fact that sport is used as a political instrument".

Analyzing the links of politics and Olympic sport, we think it is necessary to isolate several ways of using sport for political ends.

The first line is that with increasing popularity of sport in modern world, with more and more interest that sport stars present to the general public, top politicians seek political gains through relations association with sport, outstanding athletes and coaches. Thus, for this purpose in 1972 Richard Nixon met J. Owens, W. Chamberlain and other athletes. Gerald Ford was supported in 1976 by P. Flemming, D. de Veron, C. Evert, and Jimmy Carter by M. Ali, T. Nobis, H. Aaron, A. Ash, etc.

The decision to boycott Moscow Olympic Games in autumn of 1980 had cost J. Carter reelection in 1980, whereas the victory of the American team at the Los Angeles Games in 1984 helped R. Reagan to stay in office for another term.

As early as 1974 Social-Democrats, the ruling political party of West Germany, approved "Support for Sport. The main guidelines", which laid down the basic principles of sport policies. West Germany at that period had probably more statesmen and politicians at the helm of sport organizations than any other country, with the USSR a close second. Many sport federations in the USSR were managed by government officials and politicians, and preparation for and results of Winter

and Summer Olympic Games used to be closely followed and discussed by leaders of the state and the Communist Party.

For years, Olympic sport was a high-priority issue for Eric Honnecker of East Germany, Fidel Castro of Cuba, Roh Deh U of the Republic of Korea and for many other statesmen.

Russian President Boris Yeltsin pays special attention to sport, too. In 1992 — 1994 he took part in a number of events related to the development of Olympic sport, supported several important government initiatives to improve preparation of Russian athletes for Olympic Games, to develop the material base of Olympic sport, and to ensure social security of outstanding athletes. For popularity, B. Yeltsin often mentions his involvement with sport, such as playing in a volleyball team as a student and regular tennis sessions.

Similar situations evolved in France, Spain, the People's Republic of China, Hungary, Bulgaria and many other countries, where sport has become a viable factor in big politics, and its support an important image-building factor for local statesmen and politicians.

The second line in the political use of sport is all about various governments seeking to win the bid to host major sport competitions, above all the Olympic Games, to advertise their economic achievements and to gain political recognition, which somehow gets out of their reach.

The idea of demonstrating national supremacy through sport had been set in motion ever since the triumph of the Greek marathon runner S. Louis at the First Modern Olympic Games of 1896 in Athens, followed by the showdown of Great Britain and the USA at the 1908 Games in London, when Americans lost to their rivals in the overall count.

As was shown above, politization of sport was at its peak in 1936 at the Berlin Olympics, where the nazi regime made use of the Games in an attempt to demonstrate the supremacy of the German nation, to prove that their striving for hegemony was grounded, and to propagate the ideas of nazism and militarism. The fact that Germany came first in the unofficial overall team count prepared ground for the implementation of political ambitions.

Obvious political considerations were there for everyone to see at the Olympic Games in 1964, when Japan sought to expedite the process of overcoming political and economic isolation following the defeat of Japan in the Second World War, through demonstrating its achievements in democratization of society, successes in economy, science and culture. The Tokyo Games of 1964, which hosted 5,596 athletes from 94 countries, were held in an atmosphere of friendship, which

improved significantly the image of Japan on the world political arena as a major economic power, which the country was desperately trying to achieve by other means.

Of clearly political and ideological nature were the Olympic Games of 1980 in Moscow and of 1984 in Los Angeles, the whole system of preparation for the Games being overshadowed to a considerable extent by the interests of the opposite political systems and ideologies.

Many Western observers emphasized that Republic of Korea entered the candidacy of Seoul to host the Olympic Games in 1988 to help the country circumvent political isolation. Indeed, in the late 1970's more than thirty states, whose NOCs had been recognized by the IOC, had no political relations with Republic of Korea.

The 1988 Olympic Games proved an efficient factor in domestic propaganda campaign to support national unity, to build up the feeling of patriotism, and to demonstrate that the government's foreign and domestic policies were on the right track. The Seoul Games indeed provided for unification of the people of Republic of Korea in the process of democratizing the country. In his speech at the 94th IOC Session J. A. Samaranch pointed out: "I don't think it will be rash to believe that we have contributed to this. Celebration of the Olympic Games in Seoul has markedly improved the situation in the country for a long time to come."

The 1988 Olympics also helped Republic of Korea to be recognized by the nations which had had no diplomatic relations with the host country. Sport reporters had aptly assessed the 1988 Games when they said that the success of the Olympic Games in Seoul had been not so much in sport, as in big politics.

However, attempts to use Olympic sport as a powerful argument in favor of the political recognition of the host country had been undertaken long before the Seoul Olympics. There are many examples to demonstrate that development of sport ties was directly linked with political recognition of the state.

The third line is associated with large-scale use of sport and of Olympic Games in an attempt to add to the authority of the host nation with the world community. Above all, it deals with the trend of 1950's — 1980's to identify achievements in top performance sport, in particular at the Olympic Games, with political and economic achievements of a country, and with the development of science, culture and education there. And although this dependence was not always there to be seen, there was an obvious tendency to use sport as a phenomena which reflects the political, economic and cultural level of different countries.

Practically every nation considered the level of top performance sport and triumphs of its athletes at the Olympic Games as an essential factor underlying national prestige. This holds for the USA, the USSR, East Germany and France, as much as for the National Democratic Republic of Korea and, particularly, the developing states.

The fourth line is to use sport in order to demonstrate independence of foreign and domestic policy, or else to prove the potential to bring pressure to bear on policies of other states.

Thus, Carter Administration made USOC boycott the Moscow Olympics in 1980 and unleashed an unprecedented campaign of pressure on the governments of other states for them to support that stand. Consequently, many of those countries, like West Germany, Canada, Japan, and Italy, gave in and joined in the boycott. Conversely, the situation was used by other nations and organizations to emphasize their independence and prove their ability to withstand pressure both from across the ocean and from their own governments. For instance, Valéry Jiscard d'Estaing, President of France, decided to support the NOC of France and send a delegation to Moscow, thereby showing due respect for the French athletes and for the numerous local supporters, as well as demonstrating independence of France from the USA. The government of Margaret Thatcher in the UK, however, went along with the boycott and subjected the British Olympic Association to an open pressure campaign to support the boycott. But moral and financial support of the general public and the Trade Union Congress helped the British Olympic Association to stand their ground and to send the British team for the celebration of the XXII Games of the Olympiad.

In 1988, Cuba decided to boycott the Olympic Games in Seoul to give support to North Korea, which was upset by the policies of the Organizing Committee of the XXIV Olympics, although all other former Socialist countries accepted the invitation to compete in Seoul.

The fifth line is using top performance sport for political ends. Unfortunately, it is a widely practiced ploy to boycott major international competitions, Olympic Games in particular, for political pressure, in order to discredit the policies of certain states, and bringing certain acute problems of modern world to the attention of the world community. Thus, in 1976, on the eve of the Olympic Games in Montreal, 28 African states refused to participate in the Games in protest over the invitation being sent out to New Zealand, a country which still supported the racist regime of Pretoria.

To protest the Soviet troops invasion of Afghanistan, the USA decided to boycott the 1980

Olympic Game in Moscow, with many other states following suit.

Four years later, the USSR and most of Socialist states, as well as many developing countries refused to take part in the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles for political reasons.

There was an unusual touch about Soviet athletes deciding not to compete in the Olympic Games in Los Angeles, though. The thing is that the official statement of the NOC of the USSR explained that Soviet athletes were not going to compete in the 1984 Olympics, because of an outbreak of chauvinism and anti-Soviet hysteria in the United States and for fear of attacks from hostile elements. Neither the statement, nor the follow-up interviews and pronouncements of Soviet sport officials used the word 'boycott'. But many foreign observers, who kept a close watch on the developments, were sure that the USSR has paid in kind for the USA boycott of the Moscow Olympics in 1980. Therefore, this "non-participation" is in fact tantamount to a boycott.

The sixth line includes all separate cases of the abuse of sport and the Olympic Games by political organizations and individuals to bring top the public attention certain facts, processes and developments on-going in the world. For instance, at the 1968 Olympic Games in Mexico, American black athletes chose the award ceremony to protest racial discrimination in the USA. Of political nature was also the attack of Black September terrorists on the Israeli athletes during the Olympic Games of 1972 in Munich.

Along with the problem of politization in sport, there emerged another problem widely discussed in the world of sport and in the mass media, the problem of nationalism at major sport competitions and the Olympic Games. "The patient is old, ill, and close to death", was the comment of the Observer newspaper. The patient was supposed to mean the Olympic Games, and illness — nationalism. What kind of antidote was recommended to 'the patient' by some Western experts? In their opinion, treatment is quite simple: no march in national uniforms at the Opening Ceremony, no national anthems, no national flags hoisted at the award ceremony, no names of countries on uniforms, etc.

However, this recipe did not go down well with other Western 'healers' and, more importantly, with athletes themselves. "It is a great feeling to stand on the dais and to see your flag flying next to other national flags", said J. Owens, winner of four gold medals at the 1936 Olympic Games. That was also the opinion of P. de Coubertin, who wrote: "Internationalism, as we see it, is based on respect of countries to each other and on a noble contest,

which excites an athlete when he sees the flag of his country being hoisted as a result of his toil".

The question of "denationalization" of Olympic Games became particularly acute following the boycotts of the Olympic Games in Moscow and Los Angeles. Some researchers came to the following conclusion: if you want politics out of the Games, ensure that individuals, rather than nations, compete in the Olympic Games.

USOC President R. Helmick was perfectly right to stress in his speech at the XI Olympic Congress in 1981 that 'it would be naive to assume that by substituting the IOC flag for national flags and the Olympic anthem for the national anthems, we can resolve all political problems related to the resurgence of nationalism at the Games'.

Indeed, nationalism has never been alien to the Olympic Games. The main point in the problem is that the feeling of pride in its own nation should not grow into a nationalistic feeling of hate for other nations, and into rabid chauvinism, which has nothing to do with the nature of sport and the Olympic ideals.

There is no way we can separate the concept of sport from the concept of politics. No one can argue that sport is politics, but it should be aimed at reaching mutual understanding, peace and friendship among nations. It is not an overestimation to say that all progressive humankind sees sport as one of the best means of drawing bridges between peoples and nations.

"Due to its universality, sport operates in the international arena as an instrument of friendship and peace. The Olympic ideals, long before the emergence of international organizations, contributed to bringing nations together, despite the borders that separate them. Sport embellishes life and revives the burning desire of people for justice and peace all over the world", wrote IOC President J. A. Samaranch to Pope John Paul II, the pontiff of Catholic Church. And it was not by accident that the Pope of Rome sent an epistle to the organizers and participants of the 1988 Olympic Games in Seoul, which said: "The XXIV Olympiad is a perfect opportunity to develop mutual understanding in the family of nations. I pray for them, that the Games may create new ties of friendship, harmony and well-being, that they promote the cause of peace".

Today, over 3.5 million spectators in the world watch the TV coverage of Olympic Games competitions on their screens. It is this huge popularity of the Games that attracts statesmen and politicians. "But principles of Olympism," P. de Coubertin pointed out, "should be free of the transient influence of politics". And this is the key point in the relationships of sport and politics.

Will politics have an impact on the Olympic sport movement in future? Certainly. Particularly now that Europe is going through major political transformations within the process of integration. It is necessary to take stock of possible spin-offs of the on-going changes and their impact on the organization of sport and the Olympic movement. The unification of Germany and the emergence of newly independent states on the territory of the former USSR are two factors that undoubtedly impacts the international Olympic movement. Olympic sport can not but feel the repercussions of the developments in Yugoslavia. The attempts of China to improve the image and authority of the country in the world through sport is an open secret today. There is still progress to be made in uprooting apartheid in sport in South Africa. These and many other current and future international problems will certainly influence Olympic sport, which will still be an arena of international cooperation, of propaganda for foreign and domestic consumption, and of competition. What matters is that sport and the Olympic movement should not be allowed to be used an instrument to flare up hatred.

Participation of Women in Olympic Sport

Following the Ancient Greek traditions of Olympic sport, P. de Coubertin would not hear about women participating in the Olympic competitions. "The Olympic Games", — he wrote, — "are a triumph of men's power, sport harmony, of the fundamentals of internationalism, and loyalty, seen by spectators as an art and applauded appreciatively by women". In fact, women were not among participants at the First Olympic Games.

The opinion of Coubertin was met by a mixed reaction from some IOC members who supported the idea of women's eligibility for the Olympic Games. As a result of further discussions, a compromise was reached that women were indeed eligible to compete in such Olympic program events as are acceptable to the social image of women and do not run counter to their physiological peculiarities.

Despite artificial obstacles, women had their debut at the Second Olympic Games of 1900 in Paris., where they competed in tennis and golf. The first woman to win the title of modern Olympic champion was Sh. Cooper of England in tennis. However, women had only a token representation at the Games of 1900, 1904 and 1908, with — 11 athletes, or 0.8 % — 1.3 % of the total number of participants.

At the Olympic Games of 1912 and 1920, there were significantly more women athletes (57 and 64, respectively), but as relates to the total field of participants, that amounted to just 2.2 % and 2.5 %.

The 22nd IOC Session held in Paris in 1924 gave a new impetus to the Olympic movement: from then on, women could compete in a majority of the Olympic program events.

Consequently, International Federations (IF) paid more attention to women who were willing to go in for sports seriously. Yet from 1924 to 1936, when the number of sports in the Olympic program rose from 10 in 1924 to 15 in 1936, that trend did not include the women's part of the program. In fact, women were allowed to compete in only four sports: swimming, fencing, track and field, and gymnastics (tennis and archery had been excluded). Naturally, women accounted for just only 4.4 % — 12.1 % per cent.

Similar was the situation in winter sports. In 1924 — 1936, the number of women athletes at the Winter Olympic Games was fluctuating in the range 4.4 % — 10.5 %. Out of the 13 — 14 sport events at the First, Second, and Third Olympic Games, women competed in only one (women's singles in figure skating). And it was only at the IVth Winter Olympics in 1936 that women's competition program included another sport: Alpine skiing (downhill and slalom), the number of women athletes reaching 17.

Mainly due to this circumstance, at the 34th IOC Session in Oslo in 1936, the International Federation of Women's Sport put forth an idea of special all-women Olympic Games. The International Amateur Athletics Federation, which was opposed to women participation in the Olympic Games, came up with a similar move suggesting track and field competitions for women only. But the majority of the IOC members voted down both of these proposals.

The number of women athletes at the post-war Olympic Games gradually increased, as did the number of sports. Thus, the women's program of the XVth Olympic Games in Helsinki (1952) included already 24 events in six sports (gymnastics, track and field, swimming, canoeing, diving and fencing), which accounted for 17.1 % of the Olympic program.

Over the previous 40 years, every Olympic cycle has seen a growing participation of women in Olympic sport: the number of events and sports, as well as the number of women participants of both Winter and Summer Olympics has been on the increase. More women came to be elected to the IOC, NOCs and IFs. This trend is to be seen today, too. For instance, the program of the XXVth Olympic Games in Barcelona included new sports

for women (judo, yachting, water slalom, some new events in track and field and canoeing), which brought the number of sport events for women to 14 in the Olympic program.

Softball and women soccer have been recognized, and heated discussions are still going on over the issue of inclusion in the women's Olympic program of some other sports and events, like weightlifting, water polo, decathlon, etc. Yet even to date, almost a third of the Olympic program is open for men only, whereas many people still maintain that certain items on the women's program (synchronized swimming, rhythmic exercise and some others) do not sit well with the Olympic movement.

There are many aspects to the problem of expanding participation of women athletes in the Olympic movement. Above all, mention must be made of the conservatism of many IFs that, although recognizing women's competition, view them as something of secondary importance, which does not deserve to be part of the Olympic Games program.

Of equal significance is the fact that the trend to include more women's events in the programs of the Games of Olympiad and of Winter Olympics crashes headlong against another trend, the decline in the total number of Olympic Games participants, which, in the opinion of Olympic Games organizers and of many leaders of the Olympic movement and of international sport, has exceeded all acceptable proportions.

Women's Olympic sport development is undoubtedly hampered by insufficient presence of women in its administration and governing bodies. Thus, out of the 95 members of the IOC, there are only seven women (7.4 %); just five NOCs have a woman as their President (2.6 %); and there is only one International Federation headed by a woman.

The development of women's Olympic sport has been also hampered by on-going stereotypes in the mass media. According to the recent report of a research done on the issue in the USA, 92 % of TV sports news coverage was devoted entirely to those sport events where only men competed; just 5 % of that time was devoted to women athletes competitions; 3 % dealt with extraneous talk of sport presenters. The ratio of articles on men's and women's sports was found to be 23:1, with reporters covering men's events using three times as much picturesque and colorful language as those covering women competitions in the same events. It was also discovered that many TV presenters often call women athletes condescendingly as 'girls', whereas they refrain from describing famous men athletes as 'boys'. Anita de Franz, an outstanding member of the IOC, was

clearly upset by this, when she said: "How can you call Martina Navratilova, Debi Thomas or Katarina Witt 'a girl'? Regrettably, dismissive treatment of women as persons who are not worthy of special respect, is not considered a particular sin in the world of sport, but this should no longer be so". It should be noted that after that speech of Anita de Franz, major US TV companies ordered no less than 100 copies of the report to make sure its contents are known to all TV reporters and staff.

Active development of women's sport has become a present-day reality. The popularity of any one sport, its area of practice the world over, and funds earmarked for its development are directly dependent on whether this or that sport is on the Olympic competitions program. Accordingly, it comes as no surprise that opinions clash when experts discuss the role of women's sport in the international Olympic movement.

Russia and the Olympic movement

One of the founders of the IOC was a Russian general Aleksey Boutovsky, author of a number of publications on pedagogy, history, music, hygiene, who worked at the Main Directorate of military education institutions. Problems of physical education were the mainstay of his pedagogical efforts. In 1890 he organized summer courses to train officers of cadet corps in physical education and lectured there on history, theory and methods of physical education. A. Boutovsky taught the same subjects to attendees of the central gymnastics-fencing society established 1909 in Petersburg.

Soon after the First Olympic Games in Athens (1896), Aleksey Boutovsky filed in his resignation. Instead, Pierre de Coubertin was offered two candidates to replace him: count Georgy Ribopier and prince Sergey Beloselsky-Belozersky. The IOC President refused to prefer one to the other, so in 1900 both of them were approved as new IOC members. In 1908 S. Beloselsky-Belozersky withdrew and suggested count S. Trubetskoy as his replacement.

G. Ribopier, owner of horse breeding plants, was President of St. Petersburg Athletic Society and President of Royal Moscow Horse Racing Society. He represented Russia in the IOC in 1900 — 1913. Although G. Ribopier had not put in personal appearance at least in one of the Olympic events, his correspondence with Coubertin is evidence of the active participation of the Russian count in the Olympic movement. Thus, when organizers of the Games of the IVth Olympiad to be held in London

refused to admit those athletes that had contested professionals, he begged to differ. His argument was that competing with professionals, amateurs have a better chance to determine how good their training schedule had been. In 1913 Georgy Ribopier was substituted in the IOC by "untitled" Georgy Duperront, on request from the Russian Olympic Committee, established in 1911. This appointment was mainly pre-determined by the recommendation of A. Boutovsky to accept Duperront in the IOC as a "very intelligent and educated person". Member of the IOC was also prince L. Urusov, who did not return to Russia after the 1917 revolution there, and, although in fact he did not represent any country, was among IOC members until 1933.

Attempts to establish the Russian Olympic Committee were made straight after the Founding Congress of the IOC in 1894. They failed for lack of interest from the Russian government and the majority of population. To give an example, here is an excerpt from a letter written on the matter by A. Boutovsky to P. Coubertin to explain the situation: "I must say that here, in Russia, there are still differing opinions about physical exercises. Our press does not yet raise the issue of physical education. Practically no gymnastics is taught as a subject in our gymnasiums. Although five years ago I wrote a text-book on gymnastics, specifically for gymnasiums, and got the approval of the Ministry of Public Education, only the Military Ministry and military schools were interested in it so far. But I am still hopeful of establishing the Olympic Committee, and hope for your support".

The Russian Olympic Committee was not established until 16 March 1911. According to the documents, its main objective was to unite all Russian sporting and gymnastic institutions for the purpose of preparing athletes for the Olympic Games. The Russian Olympic Committee was composed of the Honorary Chairman, Chairman, two deputies of Chairman, six Committee members and three candidates. Its curator was Great Prince Nikolay Nikolaevich, and Honorary Chairman baron Feofil Mayendorf. Vyacheslav Sreznevsky was elected Chairman of the Russian Olympic Committee and Georgy Duperront its Secretary.

Official records of the IOC quote, among other participants of the 1900 Olympic Games in Paris, three athletes of Russia: two in equestrian and one in archery. But there is no mention of this fact in the domestic literature.

Officially, Russia had its debut at the Olympic Games of 1908 in London. The application for entry gave eight names, but only five of those actually competed there. These were N. Panin-

Kolomenkin in figure skating, A. Petrov, N. Orlov, E. Zamotin and G. Demin in wrestling. Nikolay Panin-Kolomenkin won the gold medal in special figures in figure skating, and Nikolay Orlov and Andrey Petrov got the silver.

At the Vth Olympic Games of 1912 in Stockholm Russia was represented by a team of 169, who competed in almost all events on the Games program. But the team was not prepared well, so in the unofficial team count Russia came only fifteenth, its haul including just two silver medals (Martin Klein in wrestling and the 30-meter duel pistol team of captain Amos Kash, sub-lieutenant Pavel Voiloshnikov, junior officers Nikolay Melnitsky and Grigory Panteleimonov) and two bronze medals (Garry Blaus in shooting and Aleksander Vishnegradsky in yachting).

Following the lackluster performance at the 1912 Olympic Games, the Russian Olympic Committee had to admit that in future it was necessary to plan a more comprehensive system of preparation for the Olympic Games, with more active development of Olympic sport inside the country. To meet those requirements, Russian Olympics were launched.

The First Russian Olympiad was held on 23 — 24 August 1913 in Kiev. For this occasion, a Stadium was built there, the first and only one in pre-revolution Russia, with 579 athletes competing, including 285 officers from 15 sport organizations and military districts of nine cities.

The Second Russian Olympiad was held on 6 — 17 July 1914 on an hippodrome in Riga, as Petersburg and Moscow pulled out for lack of the necessary facilities and funds. The field of participants included 900 athletes from 50 sport organizations and military districts of twenty cities.

Although the Russian Olympiads were held under the 'august patronage' of Great Prince Dmitriy Pavlovich, a mere 21 thousand rubles was allocated to fund them.

The program of the Olympiads included track and field, weightlifting, wrestling, gymnastics, swimming, modern pentathlon, shooting, fencing, cycling and motoring. Women competed in track and field and fencing.

The Russian Olympiads, as well as regional competitions, like North Caucasian and Volga Olympiads held in Novorossiysk (1915) and Nizhny Novgorod (1916), respectively, played a major role in the propagation of Olympic sport in Russia and helped identify many talented athletes who could achieve world-class results.

From 1951 (the year the Olympic Committee of the USSR had been recognized by the IOC) to 1991, the Olympic movement in Russia was the biggest component part of Olympic sport in the USSR.

Following the break up of the USSR, the Olympic Committee of Russia was established, Vitaly Smirnov being elected its Chairman.

At the XVIth Winter Olympic Games in Albertville and the Games of the XXVth Olympiad in Barcelona, both in 1992, Russian athletes competed in the united team of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), which included all the former USSR republics except for the three Baltic states.

At the 1992 Winter Olympics, 118 athletes out of the 141-member strong CIS team came from Russia (83.7 %). They won four individual and 31 team gold medals, 4 and 5 silver, and 5 and 9 bronze medals, respectively. This accounted for 90.2 % of total points (147 out of 163) of the CIS team in the unofficial team count. In other words, as regards the number of gold medals won in Albertville, Russian athletes came third after the Olympic teams of Germany (10) and Norway (9), and would have occupied the second spot as regards the total number of medals and points in the unofficial team count.

The results of Russian athletes at the Games of the XXVth Olympiad in Barcelona were somewhat less impressive. Of the 498 members of the unified CIS team, Russia accounted for 56.6 % of the field (282 athletes) who won (individual and team events) 17 and 30 gold, 15 and 27 silver, and 10 and 34 bronze medals, respectively. This amounted to 345 out of the team's 730 points (47.3 %) in the unofficial team count.

Which means that Russia, had it competed as a separate team, would have been placed third in the unofficial team count at the Games of the XXVth Olympiad of 1992 in Barcelona.

Immediately after the 1992 Olympic Games, the newly established Olympic Committee of Russia launched an organization drive to prepare Russian athletes for the XVIIth Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer, Norway to be held in 1994 and the Games of the XXVIth Olympiad in Atlanta, USA in 1996. The preparation started under a severe economic crisis, in a handicapped economy in transition, at the time when, to a large extent, former administrative structures of Olympic sport in the country ceased to exist. An in-depth analysis of the state of Olympic sport in Russia allowed the leading sport specialists of that country, acting on request of the National Olympic Committee, to develop a concept of Russian athletes preparation for the upcoming Olympic Games.

The concept provided for:

- analysis of trends in the development of modern Olympic sport;
- analysis of conditions and the state of the development of Olympic sport in Russia;

- development of a system of organization and administration of training for the teams of Russia and for their reserve;
- development of the system of competitions;
- identification of fundamental principles of methods for national teams training and preparation;
- description of the system of scientific research, medical and information support of national teams.

The central issue was that Russia, in an environment of worsening social and economic crisis, would not be able to hope for a successful performance at the XVIIth Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer and the Games of the XXVIth Olympiad in Atlanta, unless appropriate steps were taken to stop the process exodus from the country of top athletes and, above all, coaches, that is those specialists who can make or break the system of training and competition performance. Accordingly, top priority in the work of sport organizations of all levels for building the right international image of Russian sport, was assigned to providing top athletes and coaches with everything they need. There is an understanding of the fact that it will be impossible to integrate Russian sport in to the international sport movement unless international standards are accepted for remuneration and incentives of athletes, coaches and other specialists, which needs the appropriate organizational, material and technical conditions.

As early as at the beginning of 1993, the government of Russia provided athletes with 2,500 stipends and undertaken steps to improve the material base of top performance sport. The Olympic Committee of Russia launched an active campaign of Olympic marketing to ensure the material base for the Olympic preparation.

To date, it is difficult to forecast the prospects of Olympic sport in Russia. However, the glorious past, the impressive number of outstanding athletes, coaches, researchers and other specialists, the developed network of sports for kids and youth, as well as a number of other factors bode well for the future of the Olympic movement in that country. The exceptionally successful performance of the Russian team at the XVIIth Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer seems to be first evidence to substantiate this optimistic prognostication.

The Soviet Union and the Olympic Movement

Prior to World War II, the USSR maintained contacts in sport only with sporting associations of workers in foreign countries.

In February 1928, athletes of the USSR took part in the Winter Games of the First International Spartakiad in Oslo, Norway.

At the First All-Union Spartakiad in Moscow (August 1928) more than 7,000 athletes competed, 612 of them were from workers sport associations of various countries of the world.

Why did not the Soviet Union join the IOC then? Historians have yet to find an answer to that question. But now, all indicators are that the IOC was not eager to see Soviet athletes at the Olympic Games, and the USSR was in no rush to set up its NOC and apply for membership in international sport federations.

By 1946 — 1950, however, the USSR was full member of 22 international sport associations. In 1949 — 1950 only, Soviet athletes set 848 all-union records, 49 of those exceeding the world records.

On 23 April 1951, Moscow sent the following telegram addressed to the then IOC President Sigfrid Edstrom in Lausanne: "This is to inform you of the establishment of the USSR Olympic Committee. The Olympic Committee of the USSR agrees with the IOC Charter and announces that it joins the International Olympic Committee. We are aware of the IOC Session to be held May 3 — 6, and we would like to send our representatives there. We beg you to advise us of the agenda of the IOC Session by phone. We ask you to approve our IOC membership at the May Session. Please appoint Konstantin Andrianov, Chairman of the USSR Olympic Committee, as member of the IOC. The address of the USSR Olympic Committee is 4 Skatarniy Lane, Moscow. On behalf of the USSR Olympic Committee, Sobolev, Executive Secretary."

Edstrom gave Sobolev this reply on April 24: "Your telegram has been received. We hereby invite Mr. Andrianov and you to attend the Session opening ceremony at the big hall of the Vienna Philharmonic to be held the 6th of May. Today I am sending you the agenda and the letter by air mail".

This was also the substance of a short speech by S. Edstrom at the IOC Executive Board Session on May 3, 1951, when he briefed the Board members of the telegram from the NOC of the USSR and of his reply. The Executive Board decided to recommend to the IOC Session to recognize the NOC of the USSR.

What can be said about the proceedings of the 46th IOC Session, which started on May 7, 1951 in Vienna? "Certainly, it is under unusual circumstances and somewhat hastily that the recognition of Russia is taking place", said, for example, Francois Pietri of France. "However, proceeding from the peace-making and universal nature of the IOC activities, we need to admit those awesome millions of athletes into our fold. After long years of absence, Russia

expressed its desire to rejoin the Olympic movement, so the IOC has only to be glad of this, rather than try and create an impression as if there existed some issues outside the scope of sport, which could prevent the recognition". Here is what Count Taon di Revel of Italy had to add to this: "The discussion may create an illusion that the IOC is weak. In fact, the recognition of the USSR is to be considered a success, for the Olympic Committee of that country has committed itself to abide by our rules".

Following the discussion, President Edstrom put the Executive Board recommendation to vote. As a result, the Olympic Committee of the USSR was admitted to the IOC membership, 31 votes of the IOC members in favor and with three abstentions. Thus, the USSR became a full-fledged member of the Olympic family.

In 1952 the Soviet national team had its debut at the Games of the XVth Olympiad in Helsinki. The debut was quite a success: the Soviet team won 22 gold, 30 silver and 19 bronze medals. The first Soviet athlete to win the honors of an Olympic champion was discus thrower Nina Romashkova.

Since then, athletes of the USSR have taken part in all Winter and Summer Olympic Games (except for the 1984 Los Angeles Games), having ascended the dais 1,204 times: they were awarded 473 gold, 376 silver and 355 bronze medals, and 815 Soviet athletes were given the coveted title of the Olympic champion. Polina Astakhova (gymnastics) and Nikolay Zimiatov (cross country skiing) won five Olympic titles; Lidiya Skoblikova (speed skating) and Vitaliy Shcherbo (gymnastics) six each; Viktor Chukarin, Boris Shakhlin, and Nikolay Andrianov (all gymnasts) seven each; and the outstanding Soviet gymnast Larisa Latynina was awarded 18 Olympic medals, nine of them gold.

As was mentioned above, in the 1992 Winter and Summer Olympic Games the USSR was superseded by the unified CIS team. In Albertville it won 23 Olympic medals, including 9 gold, 6 silver and 8 bronze. The CIS team haul at the Barcelona Olympics was 113 medals (45, 48 and 20, respectively). The best provider was Vitaliy Shcherbo, a gymnast from Bielorus, who won six gold medals in Barcelona.

At various times, the USSR (now Russia) was represented in the IOC by Konstantin Andrianov (1952 — 88), Aleksey Romanov (1952 — 71), Vitaliy Smirnov (1971 — present), Marat Gramov (1988 — 1992), Shamil Tarpishchev (since 1994).

After Konstantin Andrianov, the Olympic Committee of the USSR was headed by Sergey Pavlov (1975 — 1988), Marat Gramov (1988 — 1990), and Vitaliy Smirnov (1990 — 1991).

The Olympic Movement in Ukraine

Until 1992, when the International Olympic Committee recognized the National Olympic Committee of Ukraine, along with those of other republics of the former USSR, Olympic sport in Ukraine had been an integral part of the Olympic movement of Russia (prior to 1917) and the USSR (after 1917). This fact predetermined the development of Olympic sport in Ukraine for almost a full century.

An important landmark in the development of sport in Ukraine was the First Russian Olympiad (which, as aforementioned, was staged in Kiev at the end of August in 1913), as well as the establishment, in spring of that same year, of the Kiev Olympic Committee headed by A. Anokhin. Specifically for that Olympiad, a stadium was built in Kiev, the only capital facility of its kind in Ukraine. At that time, there were some 200 various sport collectives in Ukraine, where about 8,000 persons practiced different sports.

After the 1917 October Revolution, sport work intensified in Ukraine, with more people going in for sport, more sport facilities being built, and sport organizations emerging.

In 1923 the city of Kharkiv hosted the First All-Ukrainian Spartakiad, with a field of over 300 participants from eight Ukrainian provinces. The total count, in addition to results in the competition in track and field, gymnastics, weightlifting, cycling, and soccer, included mass physical culture achievements in the provinces and the number of women practicing sports there.

Over 20,000 athletes, in total, competed at the Fourth All-Ukrainian Spartakiad in 1927, with rural sport organizations and guests from Germany and Czechoslovakia taking part for the first time in such an event.

Ukrainian athletes demonstrated their skills convincingly at the All-Union Spartakiad of 1928, where they came out winners in many sport events (volleyball, handball, basketball, water polo, gymnastics, etc.).

The 1930's saw a surge in the development of sport in Ukraine. The State Institute of Physical Culture (GIFKU) was opened in Kharkiv in 1930. Five vocational schools of physical culture operated in Kiev, Dnipropetrovsk, Odessa, Luhansk and Artemovsk. A research institute of physical culture was established in 1931 in Kharkiv, and a Higher School of Coaches was launched within GIFKU in 1935.

Consequently, a sizable group of top performance athletes were brought up in Ukraine, who could stand their ground both at various USSR competitions and against opponents from abroad. Thus, in 1935 V. Titov set two world records in shooting. Another athlete from Ukraine, G. Popov,

through the use of scientifically grounded methods of training, set 126 weightlifting records of the USSR over three years (in 1938—1940), 79 of those exceeding the world records of that period.

Regrettably, that was the time when Ukrainian athletes had almost no chance of testing the strength of a foreign opposition in competitions abroad. The USSR had no Olympic Committee, the atmosphere of isolation of the USSR from the world community taking a heavy toll on the development of sport in Ukraine. Yet on those rare occasions when Ukrainian athletes were given such a chance, they invariably rose to the occasion and availed of such opportunities as best they could. Thus, Ukrainian athletes were included in 1937 to compete in the Third Worker Athletes Olympiad in Antwerp, and many of them (like gymnasts M. Dmitriev, Ye. Bokova, T. Demidenko, A. Zajtseva; Z. Sinitskaya in track and field; G. Popov, M. Kasianik, Y. Kutzenko, to name just a few) put in an excellent performance. In another episode, Kiev soccer team thrashed professionals from Red Star of France (6:1) in Paris.

Sport facilities were emerging all over Ukraine. By 1940, there were already 610 stadiums and universal sport grounds there, over 2,500 soccer pitches, more than 1,500 sport gyms and about 15,000 sport grounds.

Then came the Second World War, and active restoration of the war-ravaged economy following the liberation of Ukraine from the Nazi occupation. The Republican Committee of Ukraine on Physical Culture and Sport restarted its activities already in 1943, as did the State Institute of Physical Culture of Ukraine and the vocational schools of physical culture a year later, in 1944. The same year, major sport celebrations were held in Kiev to coincide with the opening of the Central Stadium in the capital city of Ukraine.

In the first post-war years Ukraine started to restore war-torn sport facilities and build new stadiums, sport palaces and swimming pools. By 1948 Ukraine reached the pre-war level as regards all fundamental indicators of physical culture and top performance sport development.

A completely new page of Olympic sport history started to be written following the recognition of the USSR Olympic Committee by the IOC and the decision of the NOC of the USSR to send a delegation to compete in the XVth Olympic Games in Helsinki (1952).

Sport organizations, coaches and athletes of Ukraine immediately went into Olympic preparation. Despite the lack of experience of competing internationally in major competitions, Ukrainian athletes who were selected to the USSR team, did amazingly well in Helsinki, winning (individually

Table 17
Achievements of Ukrainian athletes as USSR team members in the 1952 — 1968 Olympic Games

Games of Olympiads	Medals won by USSR team				Medals won by athletes of Ukraine							
					Gold		Silver		Bronze		Total	
	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total	Qty	% of total	Qty	% of total	Qty	% of total	Qty	% of total
XV, 1952, Helsinki	36	52	19	107	10	27.8	9	17.3	1	5.3	20	18.7
XVI, 1956, Melbourne	63	46	56	163	14	23.0	4	8.7	11	19.6	29	17.8
XVII, 1960, Rome	61	63	45	171	16	25.4	11	17.6	6	13.3	33	19.3
XVIII, 1964, Tokyo	61	63	50	174	13	21.3	12	19.0	7	14.0	32	18.4
XIX, 1968, Mexico City	66	62	60	188	14	21.2	10	16.1	8	13.3	32	17.0

and in team events) 10 gold, 9 silver and 1 bronze medals. To compare, Russian athletes on the USSR team were awarded 15 gold, 31 silver and 15 bronze medals in Helsinki, whereas the haul of athletes of eight other USSR republics was 7 gold, 12 silver and 3 bronze medals. These figures testify to a huge potential of sport in Ukraine at that time.

Quite impressive was the record of Ukrainian athletes in further Olympics during the 1950's and 1960's, when Ukraine gave a steady input to the successful performance of the USSR team at five successive Olympic Games. Ukraine particularly stood apart in producing top performers, who won every fourth medal awarded to the USSR athletes (see Table 17).

It was during that period Ukraine produced a group of outstanding athletes who became heroes of modern Olympic movement. Among those are gymnasts V. Chukarin, B. Shakhlin, L. Latynina; V. Golubnichiy, V. Krepkina (track and field); L. Zhabotinsky (weightlifting), G. Prozumenchikova (swimming); A. Shaparenko (canoeing) and many others.

Their achievements would have been unthinkable but for a well-developed system of top performance sport training and preparation in Ukraine. Its fundamental principles were as follows:

- state support of a comprehensive system of physical education, kids and youth sport, and top performance sport;
- a system of organization and methods put in place, both for mass sport and top performance sport;
- a wide network of sport facilities, physical culture collectives, kids sport schools and other organizations, where athletes did training sessions;
- popularity of sports with local population, particularly with kids; a healthy social attitude to top performance sport;
- an efficient system of training trainers, teachers and sport organizers at physical culture institutes and vocational schools;

- an advanced level of development of sport research, particularly in theory and methods of training and sport physiology.

In the follow-up of the defeat at the Mexico City Games, where the USSR was beaten by the USA, by a large margin, both in the number of gold medals won and in points in the team count, there developed an atmosphere of political tension as regards the results of performance at the Olympic Games. Contributing to this were such factors as politicization of Olympic sport in East Germany and, later on, in Cuba, Bulgaria and some other former socialist states, where sport was used as a political clout, or a manifestation of the efficiency of social, economic and political systems.

By the same token, the USSR (and Ukraine, naturally) had their training systems significantly modified; more sport facilities sprang up there; more funds were allotted to Olympic sport; modern Olympic Centers were commissioned; attention was focused on sport reserves and centralization of national teams preparation in the USSR. Methods of athletic preparation had been substantially improved, and training and competition work load increased.

Olympic sport of Ukraine, integrated even more tightly into the USSR sport system, was developed in accordance with the overall concept of Olympic sport development in the USSR, with a view of training and preparing USSR teams for Olympic Games and other major international competitions.

One has to admit that, on the whole, that policy worked extremely well to improve the prestige of Soviet sport on the international arena, particularly in Olympic sports.

Skills of top USSR athletes sky-rocketed, and a new generation of outstanding athletes appeared in Ukraine. The USSR team won convincingly the XXth and XXIst Olympic Games in Munich and Montreal on all counts, with a major contribution from Ukrainian athletes (see Table 18).

The contribution of athletes from Ukraine to the success story of the USSR was as significant in

Table 18
Contribution of Ukrainian athletes in the victories of
the USSR team at the XX and XXI Olympic Games of
1972 and 1976

Games, indicators	USSR team	Ukrainian athletes in the USSR team	
		Number	Percent
Games of the XX Olympiad			
Qty of participants	411	74	18
Qty of medals won:			
total	201	36	17.9
gold medals	106	20	18.7
silver medals	44	7	15.9
bronze medals	51	9	17.6
Games of the XXI Olympiad			
Qty of participants	409	94	22.3
Qty of medals won:			
total	281	71	25.3
gold medals	111	27	24.3
silver medals	93	22	23.7
bronze medals	77	22	28.6

later years, although it is hard to come up at this point with a complete and objective analysis of the potentialities of Ukrainian sport for the absence of many top performers at the Moscow Olympics in 1980 and for the boycott of the 1984 Games in Los Angeles by the NOCs of the USSR, East Germany and a few other socialist states. Once again, the interests of many outstanding athletes all over the world (including those of Ukraine) fell prey to political ambitions of some state leaders.

But subsequent Games proved the high preparedness of Soviet athletes. The national team of the USSR placed first, by a sizable margin, at the XXIVth Olympic Games in Seoul (1988), and the unified CIS team did likewise in Barcelona (1992), with Ukrainian athletes outstanding in both.

Those achievements were possible, to a large extent, due to an active development of modern base for sport. Olympic Centers offered facilities for accommodation, board, studies, rest and recuperation, as well as stadiums, swimming pools, gyms and other sport facilities.

Equally important was further improvement of the selection procedure to spot talented kids and to organize their training for years ahead. This was how a number of best athletes had been found and trained in Ukraine to gain recognition in Olympic sport, as well as talented organizers, scientists and other experts to ensure the development and operation of the whole system of training and competing at the Olympics from 1952 to 1992, until Ukraine gained independence and joined the international Olympic movement on its own.

Among the Ukrainian athletes to have won the Olympic honors at various Games are gymnasts N. Bocharova, V. Chukarin, B. Shakhlin, L. Latynina, P. Astakhova, Y. Tytov; L. Lysenko, V. Krepkina, V. Tsybulenko, V. Holubnychy, A. Bondarchuk, Y. Syedykh, V. Borzov, O. Bryzhina, T. Samoilenko, S. Bubka, T. Prorochenko, G. Avdeenko (track and field); A. Polyvoda, S. Kovalenko, A. Bilostinny, A. Volkov, N. Klimova (basketball); A. Shaparenko, Y. Filatov, V. Morozov, Y. Stetsenko, Y. Ryabchynska, Y. Kuryshko (rowing); V. Ivanov, B. Tereshchuk (volleyball); I. Bohdan, B. Gurevich, A. Kolchinsky, P. Pinigin, S. Belohlazov, A. Belohlazov (wrestling), L. Zhabotynsky (weightlifting); A. Kyrychenko (cycling); V. Mankin (yachting); Z. Turchyna, L. Karlova, N. Sherstyuk-Tymoshkina, T. Makarets-Kocherhina, M. Ishchenko, O. Zubaryeva, T. Glushchenko, L. Panchuk, Y. Gavrilov (handball); G. Prozumenshchikova, A. Sydorenko (swimming); H. Kryss, V. Sidiyak, V. Smirnov (fencing); A. Mykhaylychenko (soccer); D. Monakov (shooting); S. Novikov (judo); A. Tymoshenko (rhythmic exercises); V. Misevych (equestrian) and many others.

Great has been the contribution made to Olympic sport by such famous coaches as A. Mishakov, V. Petrovsky, A. Yaltyrian, S. Kolchinsky, A. Bondarchuk, I. Turchin, A. Deriugina, V. Smelova and many other experienced specialists.

Analysis of Olympic sport in Ukraine shows that the best achievements over the previous decades had been mostly in summer sports: track and field, gymnastics, fencing, wrestling, handball, soccer and some others.

Contribution of Ukraine in the record of the USSR at Winter Olympic Games was not as significant, due to the climate in Ukraine and traditional allocation of the roles of sporting nations. For instance, there were no Ukrainian athletes altogether on the USSR team that had a triumphant debut at the VIIth Winter Olympic Games in 1956. This tradition remained practically unchanged until the 1976 Winter Olympic Games.

In the early 70's Ukraine launched a number of coordinated efforts to develop winter sports in the country, like reconstruction of old and construction of new sport camps, invitation of famous coaches, setting up of winter sports departments at sport schools and centers.

At the 1976 Winter Olympic Games in Innsbruck Ukraine, for the first time in its winter sports history, was represented in the USSR Olympic team by two athletes:

I. Biakov (biathlon) and T. Tarasova (speed skating). Moreover, I. Biakov won a gold Olympic medal in the USSR biathlon relay team (4 x 10 km relay).

From there on, Ukraine sent at least several athletes to compete at the Winter Olympics for the USSR and the CIS teams. To quote their achievements, A. Batiuk won silver in the 4 x 10 km cross-

country men's relay at the XIVth Winter Olympics in Sarajevo (1984); V. Petrenko was awarded the gold medal in figure skating (men's singles at the Albertville Winter Olympics in 1992; and A. Zhytnik also got a gold medal in the CIS winning hockey team at the same Games in Albertville.

Following its recognition by the IOC in 1992, the NOC of Ukraine became a self-contained entity and the Olympic movement in Ukraine immediately faced a host of serious problems. Fundamental restructuring of society with accompanying steep economic decline and lack of political stability unavoidably took a heavy toll of top performance sport. In fact, Ukraine was faced with the problem of creating a completely new system of Olympic sport in the country, searching for new sources of funding and organization of a new system to prepare athletes for the Olympic Games.

In this respect, Ukraine was much more worse off than Russia, which preserved all the governing structures of the former USSR, Olympic sports federations, the best experts and coaches of USSR teams, representatives in the major international sport bodies (IOC and IFs), as well as the qualified sport referees and judges who had international experience. Conversely, Ukraine had to start from scratch, creating its NOC, national federations, finding coaches and team leaders for newly established national teams, drawing bridges with international sport organizations, and all of these in the absence of state support and lack of expertise as to how to provide for the needs of top performance sport through contacts with business circles and drawing on their funds.

The toughest part was that the overwhelming majority of specialists in Ukraine involved in Olympic sport were not ready to work in the area of international Olympic sport for lack of experience of being senior coaches of national teams and having almost no command of foreign languages. This was typical for all other areas of social life in the former USSR, and not unique for sport. Ukraine, like all other USSR republics, was responsible for bringing up the young generation of athletes, and passing them over into the hands of Moscow specialists as soon as the young were ready to hit the road of top performance sport as USSR team members. The rest was taken care by specialists of USSR teams, 90 % of them from Moscow. Those specialists selected the teams, trained and coached them in competitions, determined the calendar of competitions, maintained contacts with IFs, foreign referees, etc., thereby gaining the all-important expertise, which is a must for successful training and competition schedules.

There were also a few exceptions, when several outstanding Ukrainian coaches had previously worked as senior and chief coaches in the USSR

national teams, several top administrators managed major sport centers and other organizations involved in the Olympic preparation, and some scientists whose research helped provide USSR teams in certain Olympic sport with scientific and methodological support.

It was through the expertise and effort of those specialists that by the end of 1992 the concept had been developed of preparation of Ukrainian athletes for the XVIIth Winter Olympic Games of 1994 in Lillehammer and the Games of the XXVIth Olympiad to be held in 1996 in Atlanta.

The highlights of the concept were the following principles:

- close interaction of logistical, organizational, material, technical, scientific and methodological components in athletes training and preparing for the upcoming Olympic Games;
- targeting of the whole system of Olympic sport at the best, maximally possible performance by each athlete at the Olympic Games;
- determination of the elite group of top performance athletes capable of striking their top form where it matters to compete successfully at the Olympics, and providing them with everything they need at the same level as that accessible to their foreign opponents.

The concept put forward a set of priorities in the general strategy of preparation, its organization and material and technical base, preparation planning, the selection system for teams and their start-up lines; in scientific, methodological, and medico-biological support of athletes and teams; and in training specialists as well as in upgrading their qualification.

Awesome work had to be completed against the clock by the NOC of Ukraine headed by the two-time Olympic champion Valery Borzov, and by Olympic Sport Federations of Ukraine. Despite numerous financial and organizational difficulties, many athletes of Ukraine struck success at major international competitions already in 1993. Thus, world championships top honors were awarded to O. Baiul and V. Petrenko (figure skating), S. Bubka and I. Kravets (track and field); G. Misyutin (floor exercise, gymnastics), T. Taimazov (weightlifting) and some others. Many Ukrainian athletes became champions of Europe, World Universiad, winners of major international competitions.

The first official delegation of Ukraine in the history of Olympic sport to take part in the XVIIth Winter Olympic Games arrived in Lillehammer in February 1994. Their debut was pretty successful, with one gold and one bronze medals, and 18 points in the unofficial team count. The first Ukrainian Olympic champion was the incomparable Oksana Baiul in figure skating (women's singles).

ECONOMIC BASE OF OLYMPIC SPORTS

Fundamentals of economic policies of the IOC

One can safely say that the concept of "economy" has been non-existent in the Olympic sports until mid 1970's. Development of top performance sport, preparation of athletes and host cities for Olympics was normally funded by governments. Although the term 'commercialism' was widely used to describe commercial activities of the IOC, NOCs and IFs, their earnings were small and commercialism was generally scoffed at. Thus, A. Brundage, IOC President in 1952 — 72, was an all-time opponent of commercialism. His comment on the attempts to introduce commercialism into Olympic sport in the 1960's was as follows: "3% for commercialism to take off, and 97% for this process to come to nothing".

However, in the 1960's the IOC, National Olympic Committees and International Sport Federations came to feel acutely the pinch of inadequate funds to hold competitions in Olympic sports.

Further increase in the scale of participation in the Olympic movement, the ever-rising costs of construction and maintenance of modern sport facilities and arenas, growing number of competitions, the need of modern training camps, more sophisticated tools and equipment, to mention just a few factors, all of these required substantial funding.

As the logic of events proved later on, the only viable alternative was active commercialism of the whole of Olympic sports. This process was spurred on by the USSR, East Germany and other former socialist states, where governments financed Olympic sport from the state budgets.

In response, many sport leaders in western countries, for lack of state support, sought to find alternative sources of funding, which ultimately resulted in intensive commercialism of sports.

In addition to traditional funding, like own earnings of sport societies (membership dues, ticket sales proceeds, etc.) and government subsidies

(mainly appropriations for construction of sport facilities, organization of major competitions and to help athletes prepare for the Olympic Games), the 1970's saw the emergence of new sources of funding top performance sports. These, above all, were proceeds from the sales of TV coverage of competitions and from various commercial activities related to sales of sporting symbols and logos, advertising through the use of sport facilities and athletes, granting licenses and sponsorship programs, or the so-called marketing policies.

Sponsorship, licensing, advertising, marketing. These terms, recently common only in commercial language, have found everyday usage in the language of sport managers, coaches, leaders of the international and national sport movement.

It is interesting to note the marked transformations in the economic policies of the IOC, IFs, and NOCs over the previous few decades.

There had been no discussions of the IOC funds over more than 50 years after the IOC came into being (1896 — 1948). The International Sports Federations also had sufficient financial means through collection of membership dues and ticket sales proceeds at their respective world championships. At that time, the calendar of international competitions was relatively small, and IOC members and IFs leaders were normally well-off. Even though financial problems did arise at those times, too, but they had been dealt with in a simple way.

Prior to World War I, all members of the IOC not only picked up the bill for their own traveling expenses, but also paid dues in the amount of 25 Swiss Francs a year. The core of the IOC expenditures had been covered from private funds of its President, Pierre de Coubertin.

At the IOC Session of 1922 held in Paris it was decided to raise the annual membership dues of the IOC members to SFr 50. In addition, the NOCs and IFs also started to put in some money to the IOC coffers. All those funds, as well as money given by other agencies and individuals to the IOC as charity, helped the IOC to pay its current expenses.

In general, the finance system of the IOC, which took shape before World War II, was guided by one basic principle: no organization was to get a profit from celebration of the Olympic Games.

After the war, the international sports organizations found themselves in a fix financially. "With Pierre Coubertin dead and all his estate gone, — commented *Revue Olympique*, — the International Olympic Committee had to learn to live according to their means. Following the Second World War its expenses were twice the size of its revenues, made up mostly of membership dues. The International Sports Federations were also struggling with funding, but by that time they got the knack of raising substantial revenues from holding various championships. Therefore they thought it natural to claim a percentage of ticket sales during the Olympics. They submitted a proposal to this effect to the IOC for consideration. Consequently, this share of proceeds was determined at 3%, which was to be allocated to the IOC and the IFs".

The celebration of the first post-war Games in London in 1948 did not require significant funds, so the proceeds from the ticket sales not only covered the expenses, but also allowed the organizers to turn a profit. The IOC could not turn a blind eye on that fact, as the Olympic Charter made it a point that organizers not make a profit from the Olympic Games celebration. In order not to disregard this rule, A. Brundage proposed to amend it with an escape clause that possible proceeds go to support only amateur sport. This clause was included in the eight guiding principles of the IOC in 1949: "All the revenues following the celebration of the Games (after covering the expenses incurred and following the deduction of a specified amount to the IOC) shall be transferred to the National Olympic Committee of the nation which was the host of the Games. Those funds shall be used to assist development of the Olympic movement and amateur sports". It was the first expression of the need to deduct part of the Olympic Games proceeds in favor of the IOC.

Up to the 1960's, the IOC activity was mostly funded by its share of the proceeds from the Olympic Games ticket sales. Then the IOC budget was somewhat increased when Olympic Games host cities began to transfer SFr 100,000 after winning their bid.

From 1960 TV rights became an issue. Thus, the TV rights to broadcast the VIII Winter Olympic Games in Squaw Valley (USA) and the XVII Games of the Olympiad were bought by CBS for \$50,000 and \$60,000, respectively.

The IOC revenues increased as the TV broadcast price rose. The IOC got \$130,000 from the

Organizing Committee of the XVIII Games of the Olympiad in Tokyo (1964) and \$200,000 from the Organizing Committee of the IX Winter Olympic Games in Innsbruck (1964).

In the late 1960's the IFs participating in the preparation and celebration of the Olympic Games, and NOCs sending their athletes to compete in the Games, demanded from the IOC, in no uncertain terms, their share of the Olympic Games proceeds. So it was no accident that the X Olympic Congress held in Varna (Bulgaria) in 1973, focused on reconciliation of various issues (including financial differences) between the IOC, IFs and NOCs.

Starting in the early 1980's, with J. A. Samaranch at the helm, the IOC launches an active search for alternative sources of funds. It was necessary to do not only for lack of funds, but also in view of complete dependence on television, as the sale of TV broadcast rights was practically the only revenue of the IOC activities.

The IOC initiated the idea of setting up an efficient system of Olympic marketing, with its principal objectives being as follows:

- to ensure financial independence of the Olympic movement;
- to develop a long-scale program of Olympic marketing, sustaining continuity of the marketing structure between the Olympic Games;
- to create a system of allocating revenues among all the participants of the Olympic movement leading structures — the IOC, NOCs, IFs, and Organizing Committees;
- to bring order in the use of Olympic attributes and to control commercialism of the Olympic Games;
- to give financial assistance to sports in developing countries and to ensure popularity of Olympic sport, development of sport science and education.

Olympic marketing and advertising-sponsorship TOP programs

The problem of securing funds for Olympic Games and subsequent commercial relations between the Games organizers and individuals or institutions seeking promotion were visible already at the Games of the First Olympiad in 1896. The bill for refurbishment of the Olympic stadium was picked up by George Averoff, with a small revenue generated by advertisements during the memorial program. At the turn of this century the streams of revenues included proceeds from selling the retail sale rights to distribute souvenirs and to take pictures, as well as place advertisements in Olympic programs. The 1924 Congress in Paris were the

only Games of the modern age where advertisements were allowed at competition venues. During celebration of the Olympic Games in 1928 and 1932 in the focus of attention were commercial aspects like advertising and sales of various consumer goods. At the Games of 1928, Amsterdam breweries were allowed to set up small restaurants at competition sites. After the 1932 Los Angeles Games, the Olympic Village structures were taken apart and sold to offset, along with other revenues, the Organizers' expenses.

In the second half of this century the Games organizers offered more rights to companies which sought to advertise their goods and services. Eleven such companies took part in the sponsorship program of the Helsinki Games (1952), 46 companies did so in 1960 in Rome, and 250 in Tokyo (1964). The Organizing Committee of the Munich Olympic Games of 1972 were the first to use the services of an advertising agency, which brought order into the licenses issuing procedure. Rights were sold to use the official emblem of the Games, an official mascot appeared patented to sell it to interested firms¹. Practice was launched of supplies of assorted technical support facilities: telecommunications means, transport, information, etc.

The Olympic Games of 1976 in Montreal set a new record in the number of sponsors and suppliers (628). It was at those Games that the sports language was enriched for the first time with the concepts of an official sponsor, an official supplier, and an official advertiser. One of the most impressive sponsorship contract of that time was the permission to produce a new brand of cigarettes called "Olympia" (Tokyo, 1964), which brought to the Organizing Committee a profit in the amount of \$1 million.

The 1984 Games in Los Angeles launched a new stage in sponsorship development, corporate sponsorship. The Organizing Committee broke down sponsors in several categories: 34 companies were granted the status of official sponsors; and 64 companies bought licenses. The companies which signed contracts were major corporations, so they squeezed out of the Olympic business a number of competitors which had inferior financial means.

The highly efficient commercial program of the Games of XXIII Olympiad (1984) prompted to the IOC to come up with a completely new system of Olympic marketing, the official consulting being procured by ISL (International Sport and Leisure), a Swiss advertising agency.

The year 1985 saw the emergence of an international Olympic advertising and sponsorship program named TOP. The IOC leaders believe this program helps coordinate the efforts of international sponsor-companies, NOCs and OGOC, as well as increases their revenues through better organization of business.

The program of Olympic marketing developed by ISL for the IOC, allowed the IOC to break the shackles of its original inflexible philosophy and to get more actively involved in commercial activities.

The programs of Olympic marketing are run directly by the IOC, its Executive Board, the Commission on New Sources of Finance, and the Marketing Department established in 1989. The Marketing Department works in cooperation with several agencies, ISL being its centerpiece. The other agencies are GREY (GSI Group) doing PR, SRJ (sponsorship research), and SMS (sports marketing research).

From the very beginning, ISL and the IOC Commission for New Finance Sources focused on long-term contracts, for these allowed the IOC certain guarantees and a possibilities to plan ahead its activities. One of the primary tasks of ISL was to seek sponsors and going into contracts with them. The agency offered to companies (which it viewed as its potential partners) a brand new approach to their marketing strategy. Unqualified advantage was ascribed to manufacturers of goods sold globally. This was a concept which tied in the interests of business and sport and was intended to assist major companies to promote through sport the image of certain goods and services. This program of Olympic marketing was called TOP.

In 1985 nine transnational companies signed a sponsorship agreement with the IOC. That program got the name of TOP-I and brought \$95 million to the Olympic coffers. Late in 1988 eight of the original nine companies decided to renew the IOC contract for TOP-II program, which expired at the end of 1992. The contract was also signed by another four companies, which rose the number of the IOC sponsors to twelve.

The total revenues generated for the IOC by the 12 sponsors over the period of 1988 — 1992 amounted \$175 million, which was distributed as follows: 50% went to the organizers of the Albertville and Barcelona Games; about 7% to the IOC which funded various Olympic programs to develop sport in developing countries, to assist IFs and other organizations; and over 40% to NOCs.

It should be emphasized that participation in the TOP programs is voluntary for NOCs. But only three NOCs — those of Iran, Afghanistan and Cuba — did not take part in the TOP-II program.

The Olympic marketing program TOP-III (span-

¹ Olympic Marketing Fact File. IOC, 1995. P. 17—19

ning the 1994 Winter Olympics in Lillehammer and the Centennial Games in Atlanta in 1996), in which all NOCs took part, brought the IOC a record revenue (over \$300 million). This record amount was allocated to the Organizing Committees of Lillehammer and Atlanta Games, the IOC and NOCs.

The companies which took part in the TOP-III program give material and technical assistance to the celebration of the Games, fund the international Olympic movement, getting in return the permission to use exclusively the right manufacture and promote the world over goods with Olympic symbols. The IOC, NOCs, IFs, on the one hand, and TOP program companies-participants, on the other, share the opinion that sponsorship is not a one-sided support of Olympic sport by top businessmen; it is instead a mutually beneficial partnership, which is intended both to give full financial support to the Olympic Games celebration, development of the Olympic movement, and to ensure competitive edge and leadership to the companies that signed sponsorship agreements. CEOs of companies participating in the TOP program are certain that the efficiency of their business is firmly linked with their involvement in events which are of primary importance to consumers of their goods or services. Beyond all doubt, the Olympic Games are the biggest and most popular attraction of this kind.

The TOP-III program included ten companies, which are unquestionable leaders in their respective fields. Some of those went into cooperation with the Olympic movements years before, some others did so more recently (see Table 19). These companies hold in high esteem their contacts with the Olympic sports. Thus, Kathleen Driscoll, of John Hancock, a life insurance company, Vice Chairman running the company's corporate relations, points out that "the credibility of the Olympic five rings, combined with the John Hancock logo, gives us a distinct advantage over our competitors. It demonstrates not only our leadership in the industry, but also our dedication to the standard of excellence exemplified by the Olympic Games". James Brown, Olympic Operations Manager, Xerox, underlines that "...it made good business sense to get more involved as a TOP sponsor"¹.

Participation on the TOP program, according to Elizabeth Primrose-Smith, IBM Director for

Olympic and sporting relations, "... makes it possible for us to pronounce IBM leadership in information technologies, system integration and services"². Kodak President George Fisher says: "Tree positive values that Kodak shares with the Olympics are high ideals, disciplined commitment to goals and the recognition of the achievements of the best performers. I know of no other sponsorship opportunity that echoes these values on such a global scale"³.

Sponsor companies do not limit their participation in the TOP program by their basic production lines. Many companies offer to OCOGs other important services, too. For instance, Coca-Cola, drawing on its expertise and technologies, helped a lot to the Organizing Committee of the 1996 Atlanta Games in ticket sales. The company manufactured 35 color booklets which contained forms of ticket applications, the Games program, maps and schedule. The booklets were put up in 15,000 stores nationwide in the USA. VISA company takes an active part in the celebration of the Games, organizing, for example, art competitions, and implements a program of charity and gifts for the fund of the US Olympic team. Xerox sponsors an Olympic festival in the USA, offers financial support to a group of Olympic athletes who have brought fame to the USA, assists in holding public events which are celebrated prior to the Olympic Games.

The Centennial Olympic Congress in Paris (1994) discussed a concept of long-term strategy of marketing spanning the four year Olympic cycle

Table 19
Sponsors of the TOP-III Program

Company Name	Began cooperation	Functional Area
Kodak	1896	Still Imaging
Coca-Cola	1928	Soft Drinks
VISA	1988	Consumer Payment System
Bausch&Lomb	1988	Optical Products, Dental Care
Sports Illustrated/Time	1988	Magazines
Xerox	1960	Document Processing
Matsushita/Panasonic	1988	TV/Video/Audio Equipment
IBM	1960	Information Technologies
UPS	1984	Express Mail/Package Delivery
John Hancock	1988	Life Insurance

¹ Marketing Matters. The Olympic Marketing newsletter. IOC, spring 1995. P. 8.

² Marketing Matters. The Olympic Marketing newsletter. IOC, spring 1995. P. 5.

³ Marketing Matters. The Olympic Marketing newsletter. IOC, spring 1995. P. 5.

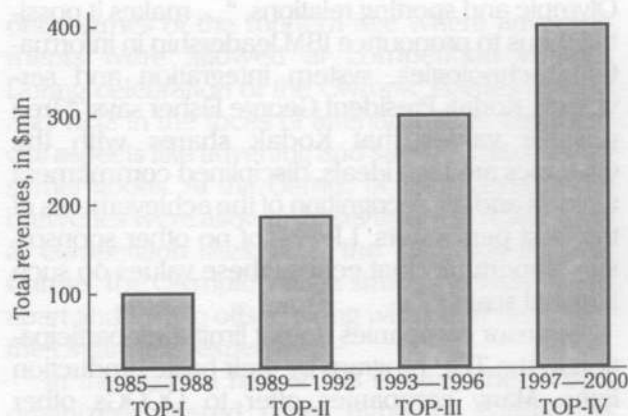


Fig. 6. Dynamics of the IOC revenues from the TOP programs

and the period thereafter. In the opinion of Mr. Samaranch, this approach has significant advantages, including a possibility of long-term relations; a better coordination of the efforts of the IOC, NOCs, IFs, OCOGs, TV companies, sponsors and other participants of the international Olympic movement; financial stability of the IOC and OCOGs; improved quality of goods and services during celebration of the Olympic Games, etc..

Of great interest were long-term programs of Olympic marketing to sponsors, too. In summer of 1996, the 10 sponsors of TOP-III completed the discussion of TOP-IV program. An indicator of a successful completion of this effort could be seen in that the total revenues of TOP-IV will surpass those of TOP-I four fold (see Fig. 6).

TV revenues look even more striking. In 1995 the IOC signed an agreement with NBC for the purchase of exclusive right to broadcast the Games of the Olympiad of the years 2000, 2004, 2008 and Winter Olympic Games of the years 2002 and 2006. For this right, NBC has paid over \$3.5 billion.

The IOC also develops actively its partnership with EBU, having sold to this organization the TV

Table 21
Dynamics of the expenses of US TV companies and EBU to purchase the Olympic TV coverage rights

Year	City	USA		Europe	
		Company	\$ mln	Company	\$ mln
1980	Moscow	ABC	85.0	EBU	7.1
1984	Los Angeles	NBC	225.6	EBU	22.0
1988	Seoul	NBC	300.0	EBU	30.2
1992	Barcelona	NBC	401.0	EBU	94.5
1996	Atlanta	NBC	456.0	EBU	247.5
2000	Sydney	NBC	705.0	EBU	350.0
2004		NBC	793.0	EBU	394.0
2008		NBC	894.0	EBU	443.0

coverage rights of the 2000 — 2008 Games for \$1.442 billion. The IOC took this decision in spite of the \$2 billion offer from the News Corporation TV company. EBU was selected taking into account the fact that this company has had TV rights to cover the Olympic Games ever since 1960, thereby having an undoubtedly better chance of attracting more viewers.

Contracts have been also signed with The Seven Network, an Australian TV broadcasting company, to cover the Games in 2002 — 2004 in Australia to the tune of \$140.75. Prior to that, the same Australian TV company bought the right to broadcast to Australia the Olympic Games in Atlanta (\$30 million), Nagano (\$9.3 million) and Sydney (\$45 million).

Table 20 shows how fast revenues grow from the sales of TV rights.

It is of interest to compare the dynamics of the expenses of US TV companies and EBU to purchase the Olympic TV coverage rights (see Tables 21, 22).

The data above show an increased involvement of EBU with Olympics recently. Suffice it to

Table 20
Dynamics of Total Olympic TV Rights Sales Revenues

Games of the Olympiad			Winter Olympic Games		
Year	City	\$mln	Year	City	\$mln
1980	Moscow	101	1980	Lake-Placid	21
1984	Los Angeles	287	1984	Sarajevo	103
1988	Seoul	403	1988	Calgary	325
1992	Barcelona	636	1992	Albertville	292
1996	Atlanta	896	1994	Lillehammer	353
2000	Sydney	1.100	1998	Nagano	677
2004		1.237	2002	Salt Lake City	509
2008		1.401	2006		763

Table 22
Dynamics of the expenses of US TV companies and EBU to purchase the Winter Olympic TV coverage rights

Year	City	USA		Europe	
		Company	\$ mln	Company	\$ mln
1980	Lake Placid	ABC	15.5	EBU	4.0
1984	Sarajevo	NBC	91.6	EBU	5.6
1988	Calgary	NBC	309.0	EBU	6.9
1992	Albertville	CBC	243.0	EBU	20.3
1994	Lillehammer	CBC	295.0	EBU	26.3
1998	Nagano	CBC	375.0	EBU	72.0
2002	Salt Lake City	NBC	545.0	EBU	120.0
2006		NBC	613.0	EBU	135.0

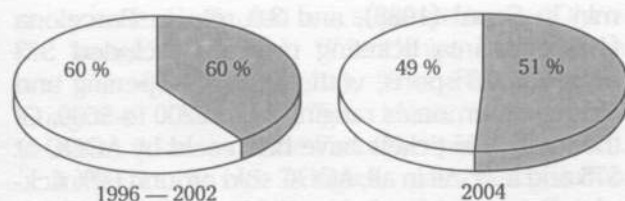


Fig. 7. TV Rights Revenues Distribution between the OCOGs (in white) and the IOC, NOCs and IFs (in gray)

say that in 1984 — 1988 EBU invested in the broadcast right of the Games of Olympiad and Winter Olympic Games, by comparison with the amounts paid by US TV companies, just 10 % and 2 — 6 %, respectively. In 2000 — 2008, however, EBU changed its priorities and the ratio rose to 49.6 % and 22.0 %. No doubt, this is another indication of effectiveness of the IOC advertising and sponsorship policies, as well as a concomitant of the increased popularity of the Olympic Games with the general public.

Long-term contracts with TV channels and the ever increasing growth of revenues from the sales of TV rights allowed the IOC to alter the distribution of revenues, cutting down the share of OCOGs and adding to that of the IOC, NOCs and IFs (see Fig. 7).

The ever growing attraction of the Olympic Games for TV companies can be accounted for by the growing number of the viewing audience, the general public of many countries becoming more knowledgeable in the area of Olympic sport, and the Games of the Olympiads and Winter Olympic Games being universally acknowledged as the major sport events.

The first Games to be televised were those of Berlin 1936, with a total 138 viewing hours and 162,000 viewers. The first European-wide live broadcast was in 1960 in Rome. Those Games were televised live to 18 European countries, and with only a few hours of interval in the United States, Canada and Japan. The first space satellite used to relay pictures overseas was to be seen in 1964 in Tokyo, and the Mexico City Games in four years (1968) were the first Olympics to be televised in color.

Technological breakthroughs and huge popularity of the Olympic Games caused a dramatic increase in the numbers of the viewing audience. The events of the Los Angeles Games in 1984 were watched by some 2.5 billion persons in 156 countries around the world. The Barcelona Games were televised already to 193 countries, with 16.6 billion viewers (added across all Olympic transmissions in all countries) constituting 85 % of all people with televisions. Major countries broadcast an average of approximately 17 hours per day, with a typical viewer tuning in an average of 11 times¹.

Winter Olympics were also hugely successful with viewers. The Albertville Games (1992) were televised to 86 countries, with 8 billion people tuned in. Just two years later, global television coverage of the Lillehammer Games was up 40 %, shown in over 120 countries to 10.7 million viewers¹.

The recent public opinion research done by the OCOGs, the IOC, and ISL agency in the USA, the UK and Japan showed that the Olympic Games are a major factor in public life (Table 23), that most people are well aware of the Olympic history and symbol (Table 24), and that they see Olympics as the most popular sporting event (Table 25).

Similar results were obtained by researchers of the Ukrainian State University of Physical Culture and Sport who, over 1995 — 96, interviewed students, medium-age and senior individuals residing in Ukraine and Russia. Different were only levels of popularity of major competitions, which is only to be expected, given the difference of traditions in developing sports in those countries (Table 26).

Table 23
Public Opinion Survey about the Olympic Games

Agree that Olympics are:	% of respondents			
	USA	UK	Japan	Average
of importance in upbringing & education	97	86	64	82
major sports competitions in the world	79	85	82	82
a matter of national pride	97	90	78	88
a benchmark of top achievement	91	89	71	84
a symbol of international cooperation	93	79	72	81
drawing nations closer	86	69	76	77

Table 24
Awareness of Logos of Major Competitions and Organizations

Logo/Symbol	% of respondents			
	USA	UK	Japan	Average
Olympic rings	91	97	100	96
Wimbledon Logo	80	93	88	87
1994 Soccer World Cup	62	73	75	70
UN	53	40	62	52
EU	30	57	25	37
Athletics World Championships	18	25	20	21

¹ Marketing Matters. The Olympic Marketing newsletter. IOC, summer 1996. P. 3—5.

Table 25
Public Opinion About Popularity
of Major Sport Competitions

Sport Competitions	% of respondents			
	USA	UK	Japan	Average
Olympic Games	59	53	63	42
Athletics World Championships	21	41	82	65
Soccer World Cup	10	38	70	39
NFL Superbowl	63	8	25	32
Wimbledon	17	34	37	29
Formula One	14	28	35	26
Basketball World Championships	29	8	34	24

Table 26
Public Opinion Among Urban Residents
of Ukraine and Russia About Popularity
of Various Competitions

Sport Competitions	% of respondents			
	Students		Middle-aged and Senior	
	UKR	RUS	UKR	RUS
Olympic Games	86	88	80	83
Soccer World Cup	52	55	56	57
Ice Hockey World Championships	15	35	20	46
Athletics World Championships	25	18	17	15
Formula One	12	13	6	8
ATP Tennis Tournaments	15	25	5	10
National Soccer Championships	17	24	10	25

All of the above, as well as the active marketing policy of the IOC and OCOGs motivated long-term contracts with TV companies which were prepared to put up huge amount of money even in the absence of a selected host city for the Olympics. It is a completely new trend which reflects the growing popularity of the Olympic Games and improved efficiency of their TV coverage.

Despite stable relationships with TV companies, the IOC believes there is a gap between the revenues the international Olympic system generated by different means. To avoid unnecessary dependence on television, the IOC, OCOGs, NOCs and Ifs spare no efforts seeking for other fund sources.

One of such fund alternatives is a system of ticketing. the experience of the Atlanta OCOG is evidence of sizable reserves in this area, too. More than 11 million 1996 Olympic Games tickets available for competitions in Atlanta, compare favorably with 6.9 mln tickets in Los Angeles (1984), 4.3

mln in Seoul (1988), and 3.9 mln in Barcelona (1992). Atlanta ticketing program included 573 events in 26 sports, with prices for opening and closing ceremonies ranging from \$200 to \$600. Of the total, 95% tickets have been sold by AOOC at \$75 and less. All in all, AOOC sold around 60% tickets, at an average of around \$40 per ticket, which accounted for 17% of the total revenues of AOOC.

Part of the IOC and OCOG revenues is generated by licensing and the sales of rights to put Olympic symbols on consumer goods. For this right, manufacturers pay a certain percentage of their profit to the IOC, OCOGs or NOCs.

In the past, companies which bought licenses, would mostly produce Olympic souvenirs, like pins, T-shirts, caps, Olympic symbols, etc. But the licensing program has lately has expanded dramatically. Thus, the Licensing department of the Atlanta Games Organizing Committee has granted licenses to 93 companies to produce all sorts of goods: clothes, headgear, foodstuff, consumer goods, toys, games, etc. Already in 1995 over 200 patented goods were on sale, and by the beginning of the Games this number has exceeded 6,000.

The licensing program includes publishing books on Olympic subjects, and production of video films. For instance, a huge success was publication of the Sports Literature Encyclopedia under the IOC Medical Commission. The first of a series of Olympic video films, a three-part issue "Olympic Century", unveiled at the Centennial Olympic Congress in Paris in 1994, is now on sale in over 140 countries. Also implemented are other programs: the Olympic Hall of Fame in 13 parts, a historic series in cartoons, as well as a series dedicated to the Olympic movement and its values.

A couple of words about another stream of revenue, the sales of Olympic coins. Minting and sales of coins dedicated to the Olympic Games is an important source of funds.

According to some historians, the first coins are supposed to have been minted under Messini in Sicily (c. 480B.C.) to celebrate the ruler's victory in the Olympic chariot races.

The first official legal tender coins were minted for the 1952 Helsinki Summer Olympic Games and soon became a popular souvenir and an important revenue source. Particularly visible coins minting and sales were during the 1972 Olympics in Munich, where 100 million coins were minted at DM10 each.

On the eve of the centennial jubilee of the Olympic Games, the IOC proposed to expand the coin program. It was proposed to issue several series of memorial coins assisted by the mints of Canada, Australia, France, Austria and Greece. Each of the mints produced a series of three coins,

every series dedicated to a separate topic: "Olympic Image" (Canada), "Friendship, Participation and Fair Play" (Australia), "The First Olympic Congress" (France), "Art, Music and Sport" (Austria), "Games of the First Olympiad" (Greece).

In 1992, the U.S. Congress passed legislation authorizing the minting of special Legal Tender Coins (Collector products) by the United States Mint to honor the 1996 Atlanta Centennial Olympic Games. This collection is comprised of 16 coins: two \$5 gold coins, four \$1 silver coins and two \$.50 clad coins. Coin sales commenced in April, 1995, and over US\$42.2 million were sold to coin collectors and fans of the Olympic Games worldwide during the U.S. Mint's month-long subscription program¹.

Certain revenues flow to the IOC coffers from the Olympic philatelic programs. The first series of 12 stamps was issued and sold prior to the First Olympiad. Part of the proceeds went to finance the completion of the construction of such venues as the rifle range, the cycle track, the jetties and boathouses for swimming and nautical sports. Since then, the issue of stamps has been a source of revenues at all subsequent Olympics.

Countries other than the host country also began to issue Olympic stamps to generate revenue. Thus, in 1992, 137 countries issued 1,230,000 stamps bearing the Olympic rings.

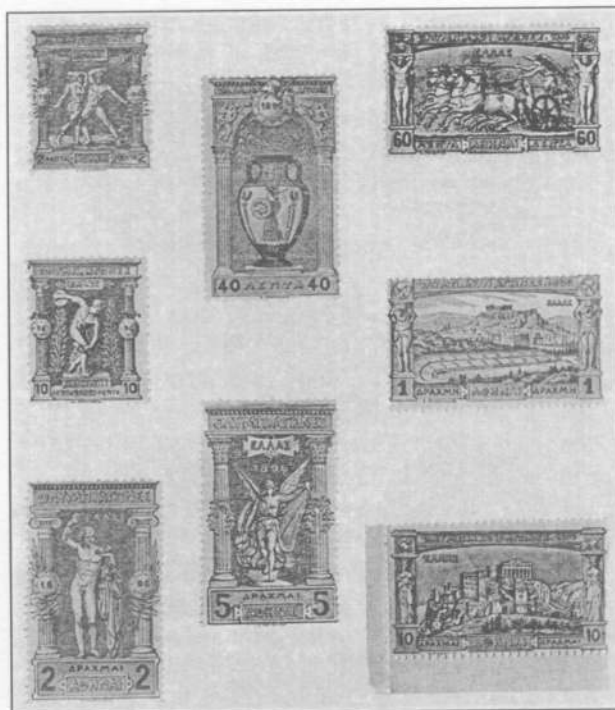
Along with stamps, the program includes the issue of post cards, the first of those having been offered for sale in 1924.

The sales of pins and commemorative medals are also quite popular. Naturally, the lion's share of pins and commemorative medals is sold in the countries which host the Olympic Games. For example, the Licensing Department of the 1996 Atlanta Games Organizing Committee and Coca-Cola have designed over 900 types of pins and launched the International Society for Pin Sales, the first ever society of its kind in Olympic history. The activities of the 1996 Atlanta Games Organizing Committee proves that it is possible to drive up the revenues from sponsorship, licensing and other sources, which allowed the organizers to a sufficient extent avoid complete dependence on television.

Olympic sports funding in different countries

Funds for Olympic sport had not differed much in various parts of the world until the mid 1950's. At that time, indeed, Olympic sport was amateurish, being funded by governments only rarely, and just to pay for taking athletes to compete at Olympics.

¹ Olympic Marketing Fact File. IOC, 1995. P. 17—19

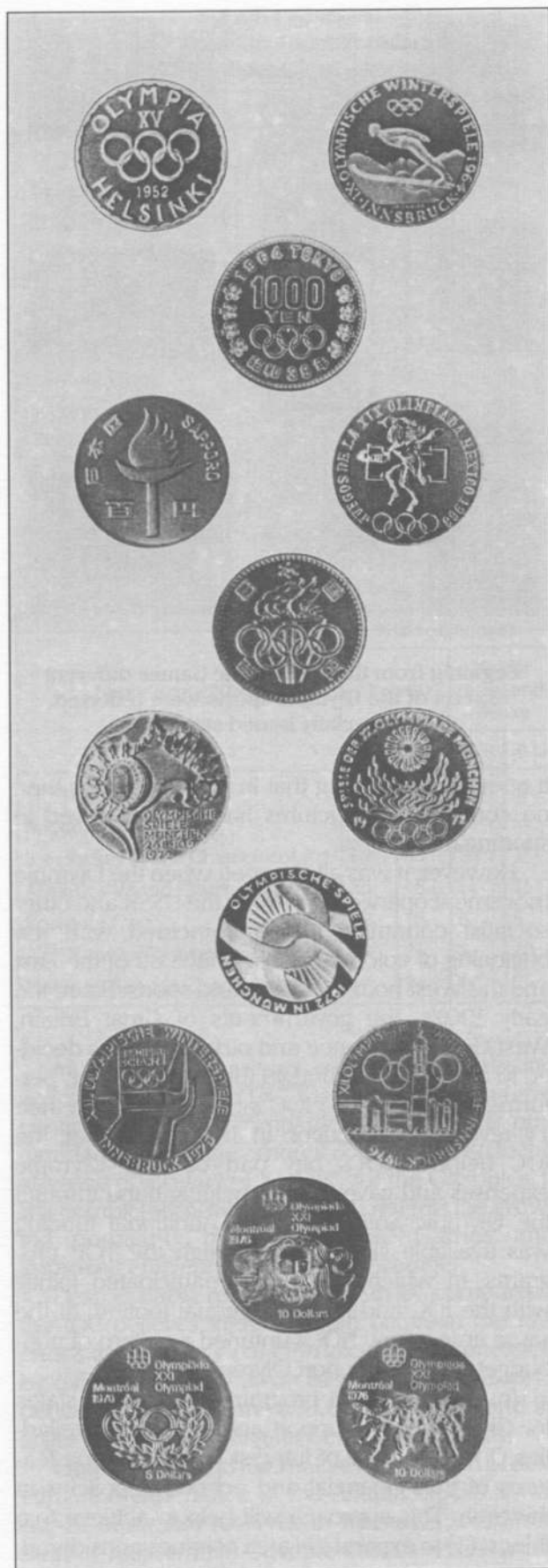


Beginnig from the 1st Olympic Games different aspects of the Olympic sports were reflected in specially issued stamps

It goes without saying that in most countries then no commercial structures had been involved in sporting matters.

However, it was all changed when the Olympic movement opened up to let in the USSR and other socialist countries, which coincided with the beginning of cold war and the face off of the East and the West both in politics and sports. Since the early 1960's, the governments of Great Britain, West Germany, France and other countries decided to allocate more budget funds to assist top performance sports. The IOC included NOCs in their TV revenues distribution in 1972. Thereafter, the IOC helped NOCs pay part of their Olympic expenses and gave them a helping hand through the Olympic Solidarity Fund. Additional funding was available since 1985 through the TOP programs, in which NOCs took participated jointly with the IOC and IFs on an equal footing. At the same time, many NOCs unfurled a system of non-budget funds to support Olympic sports.

In analyzing fund programs of different states for Olympic sport support and indicating similarities, it may also be of interest to note unique features of their financial and economic policies in this area. This approach will help to achieve two things: (1) to expand the area of issues considered, going into more detail; and (2) concentrate on practices of NOCs without too much theory.



The issue of Olympic coins is one of significant profitable sources

Given almost the same sources of funds available, practically each country has developed its own ways to address financial problems of Olympic sports. Thus, governments of Germany and France fund the programs of their athletes participation in the Olympic Games from the state budget, whereas the NOCs of the USA and Great Britain are subsidized primarily by corporations and individuals.

Italian sports, however, went a completely different route, turning to proceeds of Totocalcio and wagers.

Lotteries as a means to fund sports are used by sporting organizations in other countries, too: Austria, Greece, Denmark, Ireland, Canada, Portugal, Finland to name just a few. This example was followed by the Russian Olympic Committee and the NOC of Ukraine.

In the 80's many countries of the West (particularly the USA) saw a boom of commercial advertising on TV, which gave a boost to sport revenues, too. The development of cable and commercial television, the emergence of a 24-hour sport cable TV channel in the USA in 1980 and in Europe in the late 80's strengthened the leadership of television as provider of funds for sport. Ads and sponsorship programs are equally significant in generating sport revenues.

Below is given an overview of fund sources for sport in several industrially developed countries. We shall contemplate only those lines of financial activities which are most successful in a given country or can be used as mainstream trend indications in fund schemes for modern Olympic sport.

Until the early 1980's the financial policies of the U.S. Olympic Committee (USOC) had been founded on the motto: "American athletes are sent to the Olympics by Americans, rather than by America". But this approach started to change in the second half of the 70's.

Here is how the U.S. press described the activities of USOC in the early 1980's: "There were times when USOC operated as a tourist agency: its sole obligation was to select national teams and send them to the Olympic Games. The principal matter of pride for USOC was the fact that it had been the only National Olympic Committee in the world to get no government subsidies. Between the Olympics, it maintained no contacts with amateur athletes. To replenish its scanty budget, USOC literally had to beg for more money. No longer so. Now USOC is an affluent corporation. For decades, the Olympic functions in the U.S. had been split among various agencies and had no sufficient financial base. But today this country seems to have embarked on the right road".

This conclusion can be supported by the figures of a robust growth the USOC budget for several four-year cycles. It amounted to \$6.5 mln in 1965 — 1968, and rose to \$14.8 mln in 1973 — 1978, \$99 mln in 1981 — 1984, \$292 mln in 1989 — 1992 and surpassed the mark of \$400 mln in 1993 — 1996.

Basic revenue sources of USOC are mainly proceeds from sponsor firms, corporate and individual gifts, ticketing and TV rights to cover USOC-organized competitions, including the annual U.S. Olympic Festival; revenues from advertising and licensing programs, Olympic coins sales and other commercial ventures, including financial support from the international Olympic TOP program.

Analysis of the \$159-million USOC budget for 1985 — 1988 shows that 42 % of the budget accounts for donations from sponsor firms and licensing effort, 19 % was received as gifts from American citizens, 28 % from television, 7 % from Olympic coin sales, and 4% from other commercial ventures.

The USOC budget for 1989 — 1992 was planned at \$292 million. This amount, in addition to the revenue above, included \$64 million from the IOC sale of TV rights to U.S. television companies to cover the 1992 Olympics, \$2 million from public funds, as well as voluntary gifts of individual taxpayers in the amount of 1 — 2 U.S. dollars each whenever it was found at the end of year that they were to get back whatever they had been over-taxed. This uniquely American fund source brings USOC tens millions of dollars. Between them, USOC and U.S. Olympic Sports Federations had acquired over \$600 million in 1989 — 1992.

USOC is actively involved in a direct marketing program, reaching individual Americans for their donations. Voluntary agencies which collect funds for USOC in all states, send out up to 10 million letters to U.S. residents annually.

USOC expenditures include financial support given to Olympic sports federations. Thus, in the 1985 — 1988 Olympic cycle USOC allocated over \$40 million to summer sports federations and some \$8 million to winter sports federations. The USOC allocations to the National Sports Federations rose dramatically over the four years of the next Olympic cycle (1989 — 1992) and amounted to some \$90 million to help athletes prepare for the Albertville and Barcelona Olympics.

The share of such allocations depends on the popularity of the given sport, its place in the Olympic program, athletes achievement level and their potential.

Currently, USOC is implementing the following on-going programs of athletes support, which are seen as top priority issues: 1) direct payments to athlete; 2) Olympic team members employment,

i.e. providing such athletes with jobs at firms and corporations, which help them train and compete; 3) paying stipends to athletes who are university students. There are also other programs to compensate American athletes for time lost at their jobs in preparation for the Olympic Games.

It should be emphasized that of late USOC has become markedly more athlete-oriented in its operations. Just a few years ago R. Helmick, the former USOC president, pointed out that winning Olympic medals was "our athletes private business", whereas currently USOC invests more in athlete preparation and to provide them with financial assistance. In its long-term program, USOC makes a point of the fact that most of cash it gets finds its way to athletes, which was not the case in the past.

There emerged new trends in the USOC economic activities recently. Differently from the past, when USOC rejected the idea of government subsidies to maintain its "independent sport" credo, from the early 1990's it has established closer links with governmental agencies. Besides, in its commercial efforts the USOC took a page or two from the marketing history of National Baseball League of the USA, NFL, NBA and NHL.

The marketing policies of the NOC of Canada is severely hampered by the Canadian government which keeps tight control over the advertising and sponsorship operations of the National Olympic Committee. For instance, the government outlaws financial and all other assistance to national sporting organizations from tobacco and alcohol producing companies.

The NOC of Belgium is unique in that it gets revenues from three organizations set up under it. These are (1) Private Assistance Association, which unites 40 various firms transferring part of their profits to the NOC in the amounts specified in their separate contracts; (2) Committee on NOC Assistance Development; and (3) a Travel Agency set up jointly with Sabena Airlines to help the NOC provide transportation services to athletes. It should be noted that sporting community circles view favorably the marketing policies of the Belgian NOC whose budget is made up of government subsidies (6 %), lottery proceeds (20 %) and private sector revenues (74 %). Of key importance for the NOC of Belgium is cooperation with sponsors, whom it breaks down into two groups: regular sponsors (contracts up to \$30,000 a year) and major sponsors (up to and in excess of \$300,000 a year).

The sports budget in Italy is being managed by the National Olympic Committee of Italy (CONI). 80 percent of the budget is made up of revenues from the Totocalcio soccer wagers, which are allo-

cated as follows: 37.2 percent to the CONI, 8 percent to cover management expenses, 4 percent to finance credits to the sports construction industry, 5.5 percent to the Soccer Federation, the remainder going to the state budget (26.8 %) and to pay out wins on bets.

The CONI financial support accounts for as much as 90 percent 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 Athletics Federation coming second in the volume of subsidies.

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. 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 percent.

An important source of the CONI budget are profits from advertising, television 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.

Describing the organizational structure of sports in Germany, we pointed out that the federal government 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. Among such undertakings are, for example, construction of training centers for top performance athletes, their material support for the period of their training and participation in competitions, employment programs for federal coaches, etc.

According to the German press, government subsidies account for some 80 % of the DSB annual budget and for over 60 % of the yearly funds of the NOC of Germany.

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" established in 1967, whose goal over a quarter of century now has been to reimburse the top athletes' expenses as relates to their sporting activities and performing on the international arena. The foundation funds assist athletes to train in preparation for the Olympics, to compete at the Olympics, as well as implement other athlete support programs.

The main revenue streams for the "Support of German Sport" Foundation are generated by sales of Olympic series stamps assisted by most popular athletes. This brings annually up to 50 — 55 % of all the revenues of the Foundation. Proceeds from lotteries account for 17 — 20 % of the budget; private donations and gifts bring 12 — 15 %; 5 — 7 % is raised by annual sport balls (since 1969); and 3 — 5% comes from the sales printed matter, and the issue of coins to commemorate major sporting events, above all the Olympic Games.

To sum up the findings of this section, let us highlight several generic trends which reflect the current state of Olympic sports funding in different countries.

Fund sources for modern Olympic sport include the following: (1) government subsidies; (2) NOC own funds and those of national sports federations that are generated by various means (membership dues, staging competitions, etc.); (3)

Financial support given by the IOC and IFs, mainly as a result of implementing the TOP programs.

Allocations from state budgets are still very much in the picture for certain NOCs, but with every passing year, these are less and less likely to satisfy the requirements of modern sport.

Under such circumstances, NOCs and national sports federations have no other option but to search for alternative sources of funds. The basic ones of those are as follows:

1. corporate sponsorship (including Olympic marketing programs pursued by NOCs and various companies);
2. own commercial ventures by NOCs and national Olympic sports federations (ticketing proceeds, TV rights, licensing, publishing and advertising revenues);
3. proceeds from sports lotteries (including Olympic lotteries) and from wagers;
4. Olympic coins and stamps sales revenues;
5. private donations, various kinds of financial support from Olympic and other foundations.

According to the analysis of commercial activities of NOCs and national sports federations in several industrially developed countries, not only professional, but also Olympic sport has grown into an economic sector in its own right. Sport creates a market to sell goods and services, which explains why firms, companies and whole industries producing such merchandise (sport equipment, uniforms and fitness centers manufacturers, mass media, advertising business) take an interest in developing sports, even if not in all countries and not to the same extent as regards different sports. This, in fact, is the root of financial differentiation of National Olympic Committees and national sports federations.

New revenue sources have been found for sport over the preceding years. Intermediaries of sport, mass media and business have revised the old concepts of competitions and enhanced those features which were capable of attracting more viewers to sport.

Television is going on strong as a vehicle in sport funding. With specialized sports channels taking shape in the USA and in Europe, NOCs and national sports federations got an opportunity to raise more funds through sales of TV rights to cover their competitions.

Many National Olympic Committees and national sports federations have launched more aggressive marketing policies aimed at advertising, sponsorship and licensing.

But stronger ties between sport, mass media and businesses require from all participants strict observance of certain principles to ensure sports attractiveness without business considerations taking precedence.

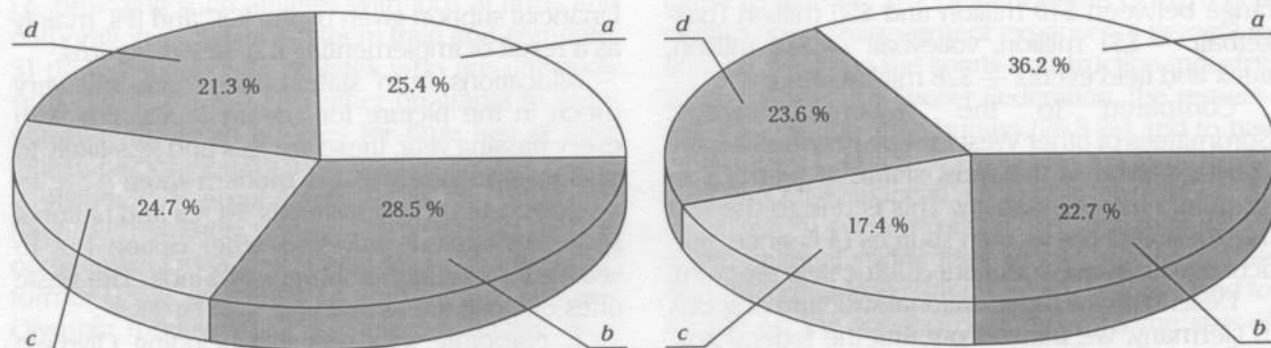


Fig. 8. Percentage of financing of the investments of the XXIV and XXV Games in Seoul (1988) and Barcelona (1992) in millions US\$, by agencies:
 (a) central administration; (b) territorial administrations; (c) Organizing Committee; (d) private sector

One should also keep it in mind that sport marketing is something more than just an additional source of funds: marketing is often a decisive factor in expanding sports calendar, new events and new competition procedures rules emerging, and even introducing changes in the existing regulations of certain sports.

We believe that Olympic foundations as non-governmental commercial structures of sport bringing together private capital, business and financial circles, may well soon establish themselves among key organizations which determine further development of Olympic sport. It is through the effort of such foundations that, in addition to funding sport, it is possible to solve the problems of social adaptation of acting and former top performance athletes, especially in times of economic recession and social upheavals (these may be programs of full-time and part-time employment, getting athletes through vocational schools and universities, offering retraining courses, etc.).

National Olympic Committees and national sports federations are greatly concerned with programs of material support to top performers in sport. Such programs are implemented both by NOCs (like those in the USA, Canada, Japan and other countries) and by special-purpose founda-

tions, which act as separate legal entities (which is the case, for instance, in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, among others).

Ever more popular in different countries is the American program of employment of athletes by firms and companies which allow them paid leaves of absence to train and compete. In conclusion, we would like to point out that in launching this program in 1977, USOC drew on the experience of the USSR in this area.

Economic programs of Olympic Games organization and celebration

By now, various countries whose cities put in their bids to host the Olympics, are fully aware that the Games are not only the most popular sports competitions worldwide, but also a powerful boost to economy and an incentive to implement state-of-the-art technologies in many industries and areas of activities.

Preparation for the Game celebration requires huge funds. To prove that this is so, it will suffice to look through the economic data of the Games in Seoul and Barcelona (Table 27).

It is easy to see that the funds are distributed evenly among different agencies, which indicates

Table 27
Funds of the XXIV and XXV Games in Seoul (1988) and Barcelona (1992) in millions US\$, by agencies

Sources of funds	Seoul, 1988	Barcelona, 1992
Central administration	801.5	3,395.8
Territorial administrations	900.8	2,129.8
Organizing Committee	780.1	1,635.1
Private Sector	673.0	2,215.4
T o t a l	3,155.4	9,376.1

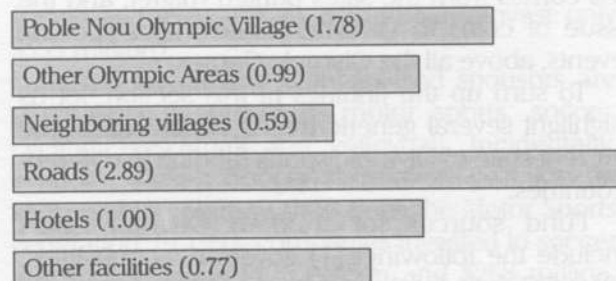


Fig. 9. Spending on various works (in US\$ billion) of the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games (F. Brunet, 1993)

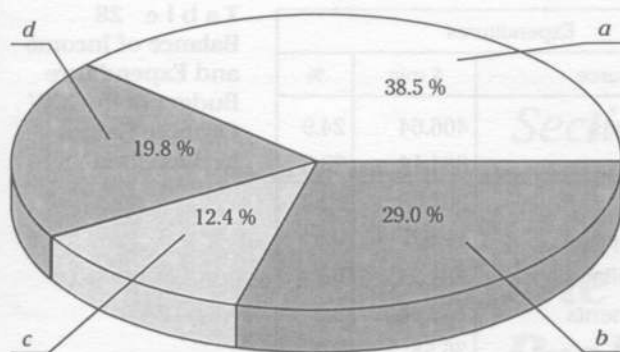


Fig. 10. Works of the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games: distribution by area: (a) Barcelona; (b) Metropolitan area; (c) Barcelona region; (d) Elsewhere

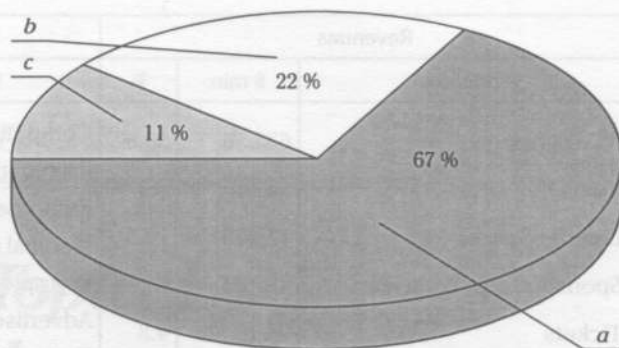


Fig. 11. Revenue sources of the 1896 Games of the First Olympiad in Athens: (a) private donations; (b) stamps sales; (c) ticketing, sales of pins and medals

great interest in successful celebration of the Olympics both from the central and regional administrations, representatives of private sector and different categories of population (see Fig. 8).

The practice of preparation and celebration of the Olympic Games shows that a larger share of funds is spent not to stage competitions but to develop the infrastructure of host cities and their suburbs. For example, this accounted for \$8 million expenditure of the organizers of the 1992 Games, of which only 9.1 % went to construction of sports facilities, whereas the bulk of funds was used to build roads, housing and offices, hotels, etc. (see Fig. 9). It should be noted that only 38.5 % of funds was used in Barcelona itself, the remainder being spent in other regions of Spain (see Fig. 10).

The Olympics celebration practices analysis proves that the main sources of revenue for Organizing Committees have been lotteries, TV rights, the issue and sales of Olympic coins, commemorative medals, stamps, revenue streams from licensing sales of printed matter, ticketing, donations of sponsors, individuals, etc.

At the beginning of the Olympic centenary, the mainstay of the Olympic funding were private donations and proceeds from the sales of pins, tickets, and stamps. The First Olympic Games of 1896 in Athens were made possible through those kinds of funds (see Fig. 11).

In the 1950's — 1970's the main revenue sources were the sales of stamps, coins, tickets, and lotteries. Thus, in 1972 the larger chunk of revenues of the Munich Olympics were generated by lotteries (31 %) and coin sales (55 %).

Starting from the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles, the front runners have become sales of TV rights to television companies and programs of sponsorship and licensing.

Dubbed by the U.S. press 'the least commercialized', the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles turned an unheard-of profit. According to "Sports

Illustrated", the LAOOC revenues came to \$619 million, including \$236 million from TV rights, \$90 million from ticket sales; \$134 million from sales of consumer goods with Olympic symbols; \$26 million from Olympic coins sales; and \$80 million from interest on capital. Expenditures of the Olympics celebration reached \$469 million, including the salaries and bonuses to some 40,000 employees who worked during the Games; and administrative costs (\$31 mln); the cost of Olympic facilities construction (\$91.7 mln); preparation of Olympic venues (\$37 mln) and dormitories (\$30 mln). Given the statistics, LAOOC got a profit of \$150 million, which is ten times the expected target. But following repeated calculations and added bank interest on capital invested, the LAOOC profit was estimated at around \$225 mln.

The revenue of the 1988 Calgary Winter Olympics was \$557 mln, including \$326 mln for TV rights; \$40 mln for tickets; \$89 mln from sponsors and official suppliers of the Games; whereas expenditures were in the amount of \$525 mln. Therefore, the Calgary Games organizers turned a profit of \$32 mln. According to the estimates of the Canadian government, the economy of Canada grew by approximately \$1 billion as a result of the celebration of the Olympics in Calgary.

The economic program of the Seoul Olympic Games was in complete conformity with the tasks set by the government of the Republic of Korea: "Dollars mean nothing when the country's prestige is at stake". (We believe the same holds true for Moscow Games, although in ruble denomination). The revenues of the Seoul Games were estimated at \$1,113.74 million, including \$289 mln from TV rights, \$183 from ticket sales and lotteries, \$163 mln from commemorative medals and coins, \$105.5 mln from pins and souvenirs, \$161.5 from Olympic Village apartment sales, etc.; and direct expenditures of the Organizing Committee without government subsidies came to \$147.7 million. Together

Revenues			Expenditures		
Source	\$ mln	%	Source	\$ mln	%
RTV rights	635.56	38.8	Competitions	406.64	24.9
Coins	56.84	3.5	Preparation	384.14	23.5
Loteries&pools	168.70	10.3	Equipment	207.63	12.7
Sponsors, ads, licenses	487.04	29.7	Medical support	11.52	0.7
Tickets	79.18	4.8	Olympic Village	132.74	8.1
Public & private donations	108.43	6.6	Advertisements	133.94	8.2
Other	102.39	6.3	Protocol	36.58	2.2
T o t a l	1,638.14	100	Cultural program	39.24	2.4
			Planning & security	231.04	14.1
			T o t a l	1,635.14	100

Table 28
Balance of Income
and Expenditure
Budget of the XXV
Olympic Games
in Barcelona

with donations of Koreans residing both outside and inside the Republic of Korea (\$355.4 mln), the total revenues of the 1988 Games were almost \$1.5 billion, and the net profit rose to \$497 million.

The Organizing Committee of the 1992 Winter Olympic Games in Albertville approved a \$450-million budget of the Games. The organizers developed a comprehensive sponsorship program, without precedent in France, with an admission fee for official sponsor firms in the amount of Fr50 million (US\$10 million). For TV coverage rights, CBS paid \$243 mln, EBU — \$24 mln, Canada — \$10 mln, Australia — 8.5 mln, Japan — \$9 mln, West Germany — \$2.4 mln. The total revenue from TV rights sales was \$380 mln (or 31.3% of total revenues of the Games). Altogether, some \$ billion was invested in the Albertville Games, or five times the funds invested in the Calgary Games.

The marketing policy of the Organizing Committee of the 1992 Olympic Games in Barcelona was recognized by the IOC as the most

successful. Contracts were signed with 15 sponsor firms, 25 general vendors/suppliers and 33 suppliers of equipment. The revenue and expenditure of the 1992 Games budget were estimated at \$1,638.14 billion and \$1,635.14 billion, respectively (Table 28).

86 % of the revenues of the Organizing Committee of the XVII Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer (over \$520 million) were generated by proceeds from TV rights sales and sponsorship, all the other revenue streams bringing a mere 14 % of total revenues (see Fig. 12). The most balanced turned out to be the marketing program of the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta, with greatest revenues of the total \$1.6 billion generated by contracts with TV companies and sponsorship programs (see Fig. 13).

As we see, funds invested in the Olympic Games celebration and revenues generated are growing all the time. To a great extent, this is made possible through concerted efforts of the IOC, IFs, OCOGs, NOCs and the whole of Olympic marketing.

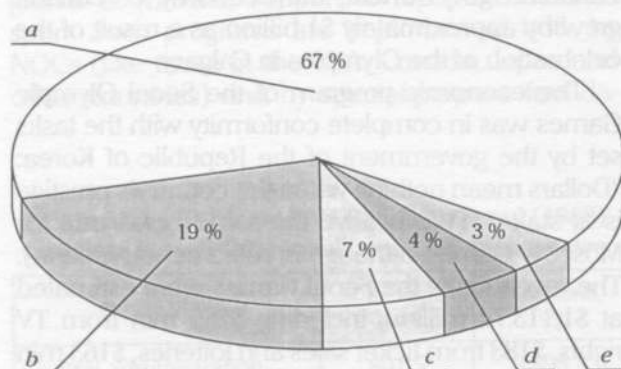


Fig. 12. Revenue structure of the Organizing Committee of the XVII Winter Olympic Games:
(a) TV rights; (b) sponsorship; (c) tickets; (d) licenses;
(e) other projects

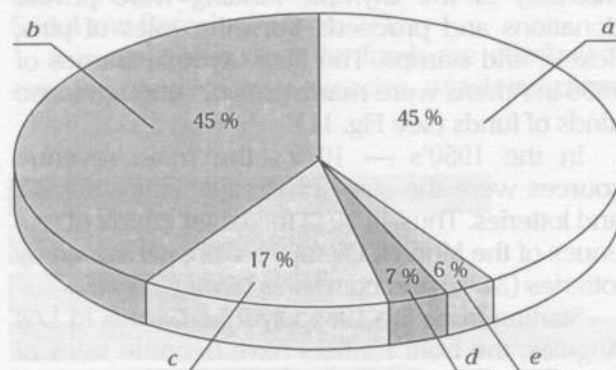


Fig. 13. Revenue structure of the Organizing Committee of the Games inter Olympic Games:
(a) TV rights; (b) sponsorship; (c) tickets; (d) licenses;
(e) other projects

Section Five

Some Topical Problems Of Modern Sport



ATHLETES AND OLYMPIC SPORTS

The Role of Athletes in Olympic Sports

Today it is no longer necessary to prove the role of Olympic sport as a most popular social phenomenon in the world, a venue for efficient cooperation of nations for the purpose of harmonious development and respect of man, more secure peace, better understanding between nations and states, and for the development of science and culture. The ever closer ties of Olympic sport with social, political, and economic aspects of world community provided for further authority of sport in modern times, and ensured its stability and independence.

Current state and further development of Olympic sport have been the result of hundred-year-long efforts of representatives of the Olympic sport system (the IOC, NOCs, IFs, Olympic Games organizing committees, etc.), mass media, statesmen and government officials, educationalists, sport researchers, coaches, doctors, etc. But the centerpiece of sports development have always been athletes, whose skills, performance and behavior have been the cornerstone of all the complex processes of modern Olympic sport.

What impact do outstanding athletes have on the development of Olympic sport and other man's endeavors?

Firstly, athletic performance and results account for a uniquely beautiful and breath-taking spectacle, which attracts hundreds of thousands spectators to stadiums and billions of TV viewers all over the world.

Secondly, athletic achievements of athletes, better than any other human deeds, ensure their native countries' popularity with the world public. It is particularly important for such states which, as yet, have not established themselves on the world political and economic map and are seeking for recognition in the world. It is particularly true of government officials and politicians, rather than sports specialists. Thus,

according to Leonid Kuchma, Ukraine's President, the gold medal won by Oksana Bayul at the XVII Winter Olympic Games has done more for Ukraine's popularity in the outside world than the combined efforts of all the diplomatic corps of the country.

Thirdly, it is the educational impact of famous athletes on the young generation, with kids seeking to be like their favorite champions. Above all, this describes the attitude of a great number of youths who practice sports in youth sport schools, sport clubs at schools, colleges and universities, as well as at sport boarding schools and Olympic reserve schools. Thus, some 10,000 best athletes competed at the Olympic Games in Atlanta, whereas back home, at sport schools, their performance was closely watched by hundreds of millions of teenagers and kids, who put in a lot of time and effort to be like sport stars, in sport and everyday life. Also, for many more young people, who do not go in for sport, sport stars shine like a beacon, setting an example of physical perfection and health to follow.

Forthly, they do so by participating in various social functions, like supporting election campaigns of politicians or doing charity work. An example of such activity was raising funds by athletes at the Lillehammer Winter Olympics to help residents of war-ravaged Sarajevo in the former Yugoslavia.

Five, by their continuous striving for progress athletes give a boost to scientific research in theory and practice of athletic training, to support subjects (biomechanics, physiology, medicine, psychology, etc.), development and production of new, more efficient and sophisticated sport equipment and tools, uniform, food products, etc.

Taken separately, performance results per se, even those of top athletes, are not enough to fathom the strain needed to set new records and win Olympic awards, what is to be done to spot a talented youth among thousands of other kids and to put him in Olympic contention through rigorous

training schedules, or to foresee difficulties on his long road to perfection.

Yet correct answers to these question predetermine results and the fate of many young people who have devoted themselves to sports.

Most importantly, one should bear in mind that today a top performance athlete, to be able to win at the Olympic Games, is to possess outstanding morphological characteristics, a unique combination of extremely well developed physical and psychological qualities. Yet even the best of natural qualities promising a bright future in a certain sport are merely a starting point in a sporting career. To achieve real success in sports, it takes a lengthy period of educating and training, so that future victories can only come as a result of a complex dialectic unity of in-born and acquired qualities, of biological and social factors.

It is essential to recognize that no natural qualities of an athlete can bring the fruit of success in sports, unless he goes through a rigorous and rationally developed training process. Modern training schedules are in fact a complicated many-year process based on a host of methods to achieve technical, tactical, physical and psychological perfection, enormous work involving awesome physical and psychological strain. These days, elite athletes train and compete at least 5 — 8 hours daily, with two to four training session each day. Accordingly, much depends on the organic link of training efforts with means of restoring strength and with rational nourishment.

Having said that, one should also remember that even the most rationally designed training process will not guarantee success without taking stock of a great number of external factors dealing with athletes' life style, medication, prevention of injuries, organizational, material and technical support of the training process, the qualifications and pedagogical skills of coaches, etc.

In each one of the areas above, athletes can encounter problems and potential danger spots which can make or break his sporting career. Following is a short description of such problems.

Problems of Athletes

Although athletes are at the forefront of modern Olympic sports, their activities are fraught with many dangers that can take a heavy toll of their athletic career. Moreover, as compared with other representatives of the system of Olympic sport (such as functionaries of the IOC, NOCs, international and national sport federations, sponsors, managers, coaches, doctors, referees, the mass media, etc.), athletes are the most vulnerable and

the least protected category. Here is a short list of factors which most severely affect athletes today.

Strange as it may sound, the primary danger source for an athlete is his coach, whose qualifications, organizational and pedagogical skills prove to be decisive for the fate of athletes, particularly at the beginning of their career in sport. It is up to a coach to seal the fate of a child in sport by deciding that the latter has no future, thereby throwing a child out of sports. There are scores of examples when coaches had made a terrible mistake this way, only for rejected kids, having gone through an inescapable emotional stress, to prove their worth and to grow into top-class athletes. Who knows, how many less luckier talents have been lost to sport in the past?

Even more dangerous for an athlete can be inadequately scheduled preparation and training. One of the worst problems is a forced training system that coaches put kids, adolescents and youths, in order to achieve speedy results. By now, both theory and practice have proved that speeding up of adaptation of youths to a severe schedule of workout, competing and training strains of adults effectively destroys any chance of achieving the athletes' true potential later, at the optimum age. Excessive workloads result in quick adaptation of a growing organism, adaptation mechanism of young athletes being as quickly spent, with no further progress in performance. The likely results are too much strain and subsequent nervous breakdowns, which interfere with natural development of a young person.

Not infrequently, adult athletes can suffer arbitrary decisions of coaches, too. Notoriously harmful is a primitive form of group training in certain sports, based on a non-stop stiff competition in a group of roughly equal trainees. This method, for example, had been used for many years in cycling in the former USSR. Fifty to sixty athletes used to go through an extremely tough series of training camp sessions and test trials to prove, again and again, their qualifications and the right to be selected to a national team. Thus, the routine workloads made redundant thoughtful individual forms of training aimed at perfecting and developing technical and technical skills. The majority of athletes would buckle under this system after only a few months due to physical, nervous and psychological drain, or concomitant injuries, and were removed from the team. Those who managed to withstand the pressure and strain until the end of the year, would often be a spectacular success at the Olympic Games or World Championships. Yet in a year or two, at the age of 22 — 24, they would invariably disappear from sport as a result of the previous strain and the irrational training and preparation. At

that age professionals in cycling just started their professional careers and would compete in professional sports until they reached the age of 30 — 35, sometimes even longer.

Another example of violating athletes' rights are cases of subjective selection to a national team. Most frequently, this happens in games, combat sports and complex-dynamic events, where a subjective opinion of coaches or their confidence in an athlete supersede an objective outcome of trials. One does not need to be a psychologist to understand the feelings of an athlete who beat all opponents in the trials, but was left empty-handed, whereas somebody who he had beaten was selected by the decision of coaches, with support from organizers.

Modern sport is extremely dangerous for athletes' health. There exist many risk factors which can seriously damage their health, and sometimes even cause death.

Above all, such risks are linked with the use of controlled and banned substances: anabolic steroids, growth-affecting hormones, stimulants, narcotics, etc. All such substances can be severely detrimental to health. Some of them, under the training and competition strains, can kill (stimulants, narcotics), others, if taken for long (anabolic steroids, hormones, etc.), may cause serious illness and irrevocably damage health.

The IOC is engaged in an active struggle against the use of banned medication, yet unless the campaign is joined by various bodies and agencies on the international and domestic level and supported by education and conscience-raising efforts aimed both at athletes and doctors, coaches, and sport leaders, doping will remain one of the most dangerous and damaging problems for athletes. Otherwise, athletes will continue to suffer physically, will be disqualified and ostracized as before, whereas doctors, coaches and organizers, often worse culprits than the caught athletes, may go scotch free.

Ungrounded and excessive workload, incompatible with the age and functional peculiarities of athletes, can be no less harmful to health. This interferes with natural development of their organisms, puts them under excessive strain (with the cardio-vascular and central nervous systems being affected most of all) and sharply increases the incidence of injuries.

There is hardly an athlete of renown who has not suffered injuries in his career. Many outstanding performers had to retire from sport through injuries, many others failed to improve their results after an injury, and in several cases injuries led to athletes' death. For the most part, injuries are accounted for by deficiencies of competition rules,

by liberalism of referees (in games and combat sports), defects of sport tools and equipment, or inadequate sport facilities. Many injuries could have been avoided but for negligence of coaches in training and at competitions, as well as for athletes' lack of awareness of methods to preclude injuries.

Concerted efforts can well bring down the number of sport injuries. Thus, better-quality tracks, pistes and hills, as well as more sophisticated equipment used in Alpine skiing and ski jumping competitions and training resulted in a dramatic decrease of injuries, despite higher speed and longer jumps. Likewise, an introduction of protective helmets in boxing and a ban on high sticking in hockey helped to cut down the number of head injuries in those sports.

Injuries are less likely with meticulous work planning, ample warming-up prior to training or competing, and reasonable dieting in line with specific features of a given sport and the level of effort. Of particular importance is mastering of special technique and efficient moves, which saves unnecessary strain on bones, muscles and cartilage tissue and prevents injuries. Special attention should be paid to the quality of tools and equipment that athletes use in training and competitions, as well to the quality of sport shoes and garments. Sufficient rest, massage, rational drinking habits also provide for injury prevention.

For lack of the necessary conditions at home and to improve their performance, many talented athletes from developing countries often leave abroad to train at good sport centers there. This should also be viewed as a problem in Olympic sport, because of potential danger to such athletes. The matter is that they frequently have no guarantee to get education and social security in the event of a serious injury, lack of progress and an end of their sport career. In many instances, this can lead to a tragedy.

One should also mention the ever increasing dependence of athletes on sponsors, managers, and organizers of competitions. This results in ruthless exploitation of athletes who are required to compete way too often. To date, this situation has emerged in many sports, particularly in track and field, soccer, tennis and some other most commercially attractive sports. Commercial considerations beat by a large margin the interests of athletes, too, when it comes to the dates and venues of competitions. The most recent example, characteristic of the situation today, were the Olympic Games in Atlanta. It has been a typical case of ignoring the interests of athletes who compete out of doors.

Athletes also lack protection against less than diligent press and television reporters, who often interfere with their privacy. Regrettably, it is an established fact that scandals in sport attract the media much more than outstanding results, crucial episodes in competitions or in sport preparation. Athletes are worse off as there is no in-depth analysis of their skills and peculiarities of preparation. Instead, there appear boring reports with a run down of obvious string of events and a host of obscure numbers and facts. One of the reasons is an obvious lack of qualification by many reporters who, being unable to perceive the intricacies of modern Olympic sports, have to opt for quasi-sporting facts, scandals and cheap sensationalism.

With every passing year it is becoming increasingly obvious that athletes, although the centerpiece of Olympic sport, in practice have no say in deciding its fundamental issues. This is nothing new. Thus, in a publication in *Sports Magazine* (of the former USSR) dated 1986, Sergey Bubka came up with a proposal to convene a World Conference of Athletes for them to discuss their problems and submit their proposals to the IOC. "Isn't it time to stop the practice when much too often it is sport functionaries who, on behalf of athletes, speak up and decide the future of world sports behind the backs of the real competitors?", Bubka asked at that time.

At the 1994 Olympic Congress in Paris, both outstanding athletes and representatives of many sport organizations and the mass media demanded a more prominent role for athletes in the development of Olympic sport, and called for the establishment of the World Union of Olympian Athletes which would address the issues of protecting the rights of athletes and upgrading their role in resolving topical problems of the sport movement.

However, it is premature to speak of any progress in this area so far. As before, Olympic Games host cities are selected, competition schedules and regulations are determined, appraisal of sport facilities and dormitories for participants is done without athletes' participation, often for purely commercial reasons, prompted by OCOGs, International Sport Federations and TV companies. Consequently, athletes compete under unsatisfactory conditions, live in shoddy dormitories, eat bad food, make do with lack of relaxing surrounding and recreation. Athletes are defenseless against subjectivity of referees and judges, particularly in gymnastics, wrestling, judo, boxing, diving, etc., and they have no chance of having reconsider even the most blatant mistakes.

Examples of such right violations are plenty. For instance, at the Seoul Olympics in 1988 the starts of many competitions, to suit the requirements of the

US television, had been moved to morning hours, which was completely incompatible with the established methods of most of athletes' preparation for competitions and, undoubtedly, had impacted their results. Athletes had also suffered judicial subjectivity and arbitrariness at the Seoul Games.

Even more problems and inconveniences were awaiting for athletes in 1996, in Atlanta. Wrong was the selection itself of this city to host the Olympic Games because of heat and humidity. Crime was also a problem, which was further compounded by a bomb explosion in the Centennial Park injuring over 100 people. Constant warnings by the ACOG and the local police to stay away from crime areas in the city did not help to improve the psychological atmosphere, either.

While in Atlanta, athletes had to cope with inadequate housing and utilities, lots of junk food which was no good for athletes in intensive training. There was practically nowhere to rest or to prepare for upcoming starts. Unfortunately, the Organizers of the Games have either overlooked or have not known at all that Olympic sport facilities are not merely competition venues and spectator tribunes, but should also include a number of services for athletes, like comfortable rest rooms, massage rooms, special food and fitness rooms, etc. In fact, athletes had almost nothing of the sort in Atlanta, which means they could not count on an efficient preparation for starts and faced the danger of sustaining injuries.

Athletes' interests suffered because of arbitrary decisions of judges in gymnastics, wrestling, games and even in track and field events, where some pro-American judges and referees did things incompatible with articles of the Olympic Charter. Thus, not only some athletes were stripped of well-deserved medals and were injured psychologically; these instances were graphic examples of flagrant violations of the Olympic principles and international law.

Many of these problems had at their root not only lack of professional qualities of the Games Organizers, but also their all-out efforts to save as much as possible in order to turn a maximum profit for the Games. Regrettably, the profitability principle proved once again to be the guiding principle of the Atlanta Games Organizing Committee, just as it had been in Los Angeles in 1984. For some reason, the idea never crossed the mind of the organizers that commercial success of the Games depends, above everything else, on the athletic performance, the level of competition, the number of sport stars competing and new Olympic and world records set, all of which are the result of toils of the athletes.

Obviously, the people who bring hundreds of million dollars of profit to the Games organizers, the IOC, and the IFs, should not live in cramped and shoddy student dormitories without a telephone and television, eat inferior food, compete at second-rate facilities, face transportation problems, etc. It is not as if the Organizing Committee turned a blind eye on all of this: the US team broke the established traditions, refused to be quartered in the Olympic Village and eventually got a much better deal than their opponents.

The IOC will probably have to address the need to reconsider the principles of Olympic Games profit distribution. Time has arrived to oblige OCOGs to set up a prize fund for Olympic medal winners. Indeed, it seems a paradox that OCOGs get multi-million profits to use as they see fit, whereas athletes who actually create the profit, get from the organizers a bunch of flowers and hope for a remuneration only from their governments or sponsors. The amount of the prize fund (around one thousand money prizes for winners of Olympic gold, silver and bronze medals) is to be determined by the IOC and IFs at the time of the bidding process as an obligatory condition for the cities to submit their bids.

Serious dangers lurk in athletes themselves, in their attitudes and psyche. The ambitions of top performers often interfere with their obligations in the family, society, professional activities, and can prevent the proper development of an individual (M. Herzog, 1994). More often than not, it is the result of the dominance of speedy physical development and achievement of sport results over education and upbringing. And preparation for real life was left for later. As a result, many top athletes, still during their sport careers, show signs of unilat-

eral development which often led to all kinds of irrational outbursts in dealings with their families, partners, opponents, referees, spectators, and the media.

The winner of three Olympic gold medals Johann Olaf Koss (J. O. Koss, 1994) points out that an outstanding athlete faces three basic challenges today: 1) egoism; 2) alienation from the real world environment; and 3) difficulties involved in retirement from sport. Elite athletes normally exhibit aggressiveness, supremacy over opponents, efforts to overpower them, and lack of mercy in sport competition. But these qualities can result in serious problems in real life. Therefore, factors like these must be taken care of in the process of educating athletes.

This threatens champions as much as thousands of other athletes who have never made it to the award-winning rostrum, but for many years have undergone the same pressures and strains that the stars of modern sport are. They do not possess the popularity and material well-being of luckier opponents, which often makes their transition to ordinary life even more difficult after they quit sport.

Recently discussions have been launched on various levels of a possible development and international recognition of the status of top performance athletes to determine their rights and obligations in their relations with federations, sport organizations, coaches and other specialists working in the area of sport.

It is necessary to enhance the role and independence of athletes in Olympic sport if we want to put an end to the common opinion that athletes are merely "a pawn in a fantastic media show, a robot created to set records and advertise merchandise" (A. Diallo, 1994).

SPORT FACILITIES AND ENVIRONMENT PROTECTION IN OLYMPIC SPORT

Requirements to Sport Facilities

The whole history of modern Olympic sport goes hand in hand with development of sport facilities — like stadiums, gyms, swimming pools, hippodromes, shooting ranges, rowing canals, etc. — as the key elements of its material base. Obsolete sport structures built at the turn of this century have been substituted by sophisticated modern facilities constructed with the use of the latest inventions in construction industry, architecture, electronics and automation, environment protection and safety measures.

One of the headaches of Olympic Games organizers has always been making sure that the venues they have are good enough for athletes to achieve top results, on the one hand, and that they satisfy the ever growing demands of spectators and the mass media, on the other hand.

The host cities have to address this issue three times.

First, the problem is to be described at the time the city comes up with the announcement about its Olympic Games bid. At this point, bidding cities are to fill out a questionnaire furnished by the IOC, with a separate section on the state of sport facilities. It includes questions pertaining to the quality of sport venues (whether they are sheltered, indoor or outdoor, what kind of roofing they gave, etc.), their size, drainage systems, spectator fencing, special sport equipment, scoreboards, tools and equipment used by judges, adequate locker rooms for athletes and referees, doping control rooms, space and premises for administration services, the media, spectator catering, etc. Moreover, International Sport Federations also have certain requirements to be met by candidate cities.

OCOGs, the IOC and IFs are fully aware that the Olympic Games, in addition to being the most important international sport competition in the world, are also major cultural events attracting

worldwide attention. Hence, Olympic facilities are to meet the tough standards associated with the Games, as well as to be a showpiece of the host country's achievements in architecture, science and technology.

As a rule, the design development and actual construction of Olympic facilities go simultaneously with accompanying problems of urban development, transportation, telecommunications, etc.

An overriding concern of organizers is the need to reconcile the capacity of a facility to provide seats for thousands of spectators at major sport competitions and its subsequent day-to-day, routine running. That is why Olympic facilities are normally built to last as multi-purpose constructions.

The sitting capacity of sport facilities to be used at the Olympic Games is top of the list of requirements of the IOC and IFs. This requirement, naturally, is based on the popularity of particular sports and their ability to draw the attention of the viewing audience, spectators and the mass media. Thus, the sitting capacity of stadiums for soccer and athletics is to be at least 30,000. Swimming pools should sit no less than 12,000 spectators. The optimum capacity of volleyball and basketball venues is determined at 15,000, whereas that of track cycling and weightlifting venues should be at least 5,000. This target for gymnastics, rhythmic exercises and diving, respectively, is 15,000; 6,000 and 1,700.

Cities that bid to host the Olympic Games face the need to upgrade their existing facilities and to construct new ones. Along with solving these tasks, they have to address issues of transportation, power and water supply, environment protection, etc.

There is also a contradiction facing the Olympic Games organizers in deciding the best location for sport facilities in their cities. On the one hand, the facilities should be placed in the vicinity of the Olympic Village, on the other, for obvious reasons,



Olympic stadium of the I Olympics (Athens, 1896)

it makes sense to locate sport facilities so that they cover the whole city area, not far from residential areas, and can be easily accessed by spectators, local residents and tourists who came to see most of the Games.

All Games organizers, under the oversight of the IOC and IFs, addressed these issues in various ways. But history shows that it is next to impossible to meet the demands of representatives of all sports and the needs of all categories of the Games participants: athletes, spectators, guests, etc.

Organizers are supposed to familiarize various IF and IOC commissions with their cities and sport venues. According to the bye-law to Rule 37 of the Olympic Charter, these commissions "shall study

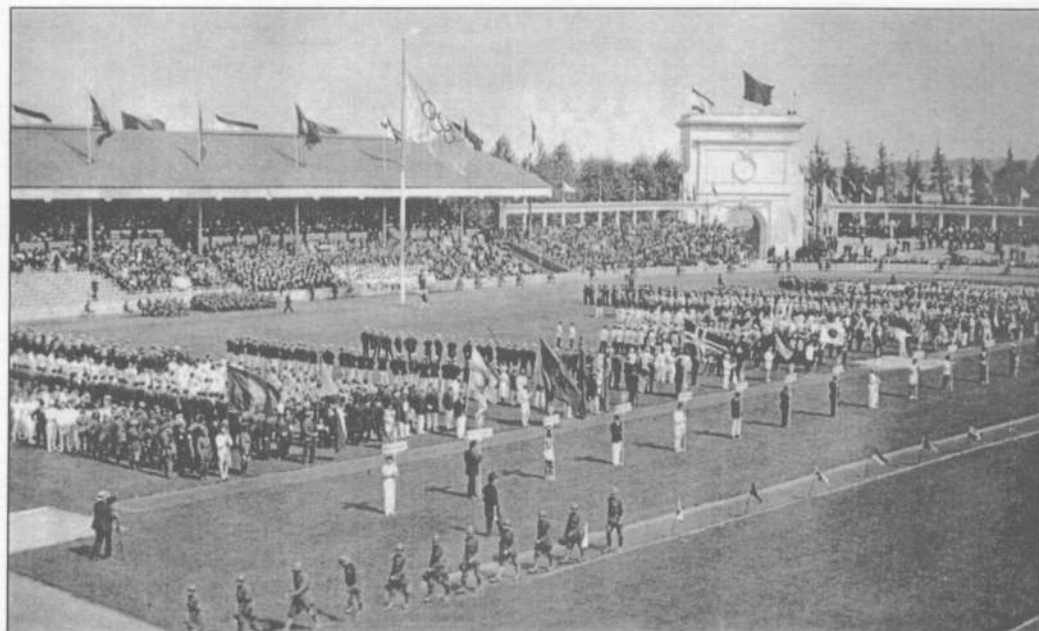
the candidatures of all candidate cities, inspect all sites and submit a written report on all candidatures to the IOC not later than two months before the opening date of the Session which shall elect the host city of the Olympic Games". It is important to note that one of the fundamental tasks of such commissions is to visit and study the venues of competitions in all sports included in the Olympic Games program, as well as construction plans of new facilities and reconstruction plans of existing facilities used for competition and training by national teams participating in the Games.

The second stage begins after the IOC has selected a city to host the upcoming Olympic Games. This decision is made by an IOC Session



Olympic stadium of the IV Olympics (London, 1908)

Olympic
stadium of the
VII Olympics
(Antwerp, 1920)



no less than six years before the beginning of the Games. The IFs and the IOC exercise tough control at this stage. The Olympic Charter contains a number of items referring to sites of Olympic competitions. Thus, Item 1.5 of Bye-Law 57 obliges the IFs "To delegate, in coordination with the OCOG, two representatives during the setting-up of the facilities for their sports in order to ensure that their rules are complied with and to check the conditions regarding accommodation, food and transportation provided for the technical officials and judges." As we see, it is the OCOG that is responsible for preparation of competition and training facilities for the Olympic Games. But it exercises its responsibilities under constant control and super-

vision of the IFs, the IOC, the NOC of the host country, and, naturally, the mass media.

The Olympic Charter vests the main responsibility with the IFs in their particular sports for the construction and preparation of the Olympic sport facilities.

Item 57.3 of Olympic Charter Rule 57 "Technical Arrangements" states: "Each IF is responsible for the technical control and direction of its sport; all competition and training sites and all equipment must comply with its rules". Which means in effect that the organizers must be strictly controlled by representatives of International Federations of Olympic sports. However, in their criticism of the organizers for shortfalls in the quality of site preparations for

Olympic
stadium of
the XI Olympics
(Berlin, 1936)





Olympic
stadium of the
XVIII Olympics
(Tokyo, 1964)



Olympic
stadium of the
XXIII Olympics
(Los Angeles,
1984)

**Olympic
stadium of the
XXIV Olympics
(Seoul, 1988)**



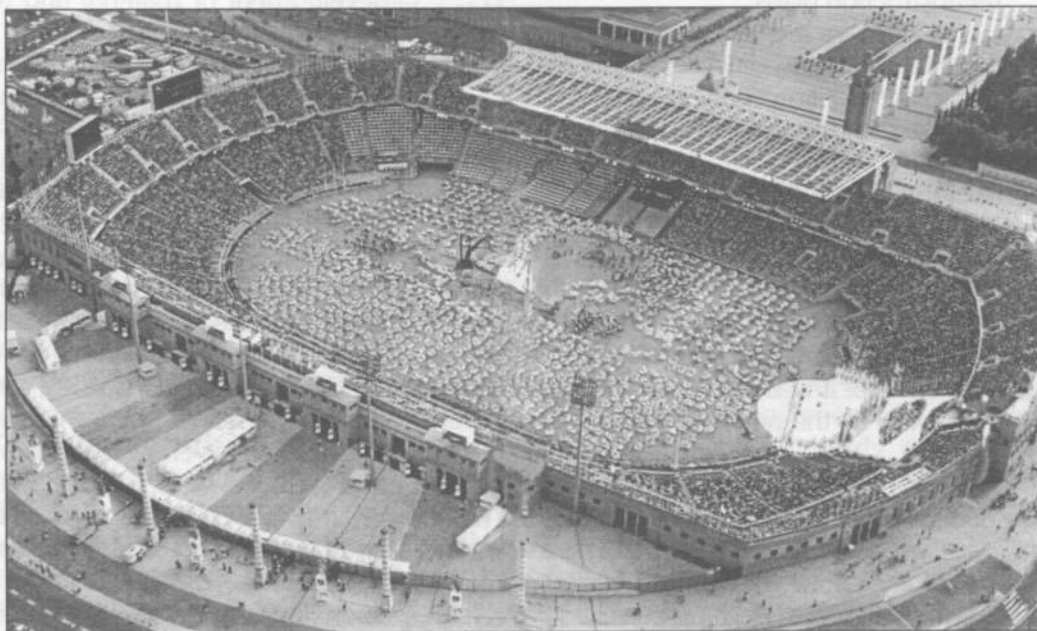
competitions, the mass media often overlooks the responsibilities of IFs over the construction and preparation of facilities. This responsibility is stipulated in Item 4, Rule 57 of the Olympic Charter: "At the latest three years before the opening of the Olympic Games, the IFs must, after consulting the OCOG, inform the IOC and the NOCs of the choice of the technical installations, sports gear and equipment to be used during the Olympic Games.

The Olympic Charter recognizes that the Olympic Games host country "in accordance with

a formula submitted to the IOC Executive Board for approval, may organize pre-Olympic events for the purpose of testing the facilities to be used during the Olympic Games". But this provision seems to be more of a recommendation than an obligation. It all depends, of course, on the degree of readiness of such facilities for competitions.

Those cities that were constructing and preparing their Olympic facilities in due time, the Organizing Committees made sure the facilities were tested long before the opening of the

**Olympic
stadium of the
XXV Olympics
(Barcelona,
1992)**



Olympic Games. For instance, two years prior to the 1998 Games in Seoul, the city hosted the Xth Asian Games as a dress rehearsal of the Olympics. Accordingly, many newspapers wrote afterwards that the Asian Games had forewarned the Organizing Committee of the Seoul OCOG about some deficiencies in the facilities preparation for the Olympics.

Stage Three begins for the OCOGs after closing the Olympic Games and is about the actual use of the sites and facilities thereafter. The problem is particularly acute for the biggest of sites which require huge maintenance expenditures. Potential solutions include a wide spectrum of measures, from using the sites as originally intended, for training and major competitions, to some other use (fairs, exhibitions, theater performances, pop and rock star concerts), complete refurbishment, or sometimes to their dismantling and taking apart.

Peculiarities of sport facilities construction and preparation

The OCOG of the Olympic Games host city is to deal with a number of issues, including:

- selection of sites for Olympic athletes' training and competitions in pursuant to the requirements of the IFs and the IOC;
- designing and construction of new facilities and modernization of existing ones, taking into account nature protection and environment standards of local authorities;
- finding of the new construction and modernization of existing facilities, procurement of necessary equipment;
- controlling implementation of construction and reconstruction plans;
- taking steps for the best possible transportation of athletes, judges, officials, guests and spectators to competition venues;
- holding pre-Olympic competitions to test the sites;
- deciding on the future use of Olympic sites following the Olympic Games.

Let us analyze briefly the most important of these issues.

Until the 1960's, the main task of OCOGs was to organize the celebration of the Olympic Games in such a way that it was indeed a major sport competition, with all the needs of athletes and guests well met.

After the Tokyo Games of 1964, many reports mentioned the emergence of a new task, the need to develop and improve Olympic host cities in future. They spoke about laying down roads, telecommunications, building hotels, airports, tele-

vision facilities, improve city utilities, in addition to construction and reconstruction of sport sites and facilities. For instance, the Tokyo Olympics OCOG in 1964 spent \$25.5 million to run the Games, \$460 million for construction and reconstruction projects, whereas its expenditure for the city infrastructure development and improvement amounted to over \$2.6 billion.

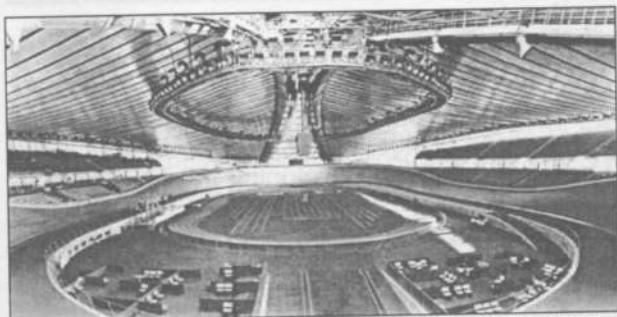
Why do candidate cities agree to go to such expenses? For one thing, because the Olympic Games help to improve the economic growth of the host city and of the local area, to say nothing of its image, both domestically and internationally.

Well-developed transportation system and communications, expansion of the road network, construction of utility companies, hotels, and often new TV centers and airports, etc. provide favorable grounds for economic growth and the improvement of the structure of the local economy. Economists have calculated that the \$9.4 billion investment in preparation and celebration of the 1992 Olympic Games in Barcelona over 1986 — 1993 brought \$26 billion to the economy of the city and the country. This is a second reason for cities to bid for hosting the Games and to spend huge sums of money for election campaigns. It is well known that big investments in infrastructure development and upgrading are unlikely to bring fast returns. Staging the Olympic Games speeds up this process. Thus, host cities win as they built their infrastructure to use for years to come.

The OCOGs bear direct responsibility for development of the Games material and technical base and for organizational expenses of OCOG's activities in preparation and celebration of the Games. The latter, normally, are more or less stable structurally, whereas the expenses involved in the development of material and technical base are dependent on many factors. Above all, they depend on whether or not the bidding city has sport facilities which meet the requirements of IFs to hold major competitions and to be used by Olympic Games athletes for training.

Some OCOGs, as was the case with that of the Munich Olympics, included the cost of urban development and construction of roads leading to sport sites, in addition to their expenditures for sport facilities construction and reconstruction. Some other OCOGs chose to act differently. The OCOG of the Tokyo Games, for instance, did not include in their \$25.5 million expenditure the expenses involved in creating the Games' material and technical base, which had been much higher.

In fact, it costs much more to build and equip sport venues and other facilities than to stage and celebrate the Olympic Games. Even with enough sport facilities in the host city, it costs a lot to



Olympic facilities of Moscow

upgrade and adequately equip them. Many specialists believe the structure of expenditures of the Munich OCOG in 1972 to be the most typical of the modern Olympic Games. Of the DM 1.972 billion total expenditures, it spent 31.54% on the organizational expenses and 68.46% covered the construction and upgrading of sport facilities, the Olympic Village, the press center, road works, etc.

Normally, the expenditures for preparation of sport sites and the Olympic Village account for 20 to 50 percent of OCOGs' budget, depending on the terms of local authorities' participation.

Naturally, OCOGs are to organize with due diligence the construction and restructuring of facilities and to control quality of the work. However, in reality it is not always the case.

Let us recollect the activities of the private Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games in Los Angeles (LAOOC) in preparation for the 1988 Games. At that time, during another cold war wave, the mass media of the former USSR leveled a barrage of criticism, often in a biased way, describing the LAOOC activities. But even today, some actions of the 1988 Olympic Games Organizational Committee seem doubtful, as one cannot view the Olympic movement as a source of profit, from which, in the words of LAOOC President P. Uberrote, "we should squeeze out as much as possible for the private sector".

In analyzing the LAOOC activities related to the construction and preparation of sites for the Olympic Games, one should remember the private

nature of the OCOG. The main task was to hold the most economical, or more exactly the cheapest Olympics in the post-war period.

To cut down spending, LAOOC shifted the burden of the financial responsibility for construction and reconstruction of Olympic facilities onto the sponsors of the Games, on companies, firms and corporations. For instance, Southland Corp., the owner of a chain of '7 — 11' food stores, offered, in return for the right to be an official supplier of ready-made foodstuff for the Olympic Games, \$4 million to build an Olympic cycling track.. According to the LAOOC President, managers of the corporation had never seen a cycling track before. McDonalds undertook the construction of the swimming pool, while Atlantic Richfields, an oil company, reconstructed and retooled the Coliseum Stadium, the site of the opening and closing ceremonies and the track and field events venue, etc.

LAOOC faced problems not only with funding, construction and reconstruction of facilities by sponsors, but also in choosing the construction sites for some events, its main principle being to drive down the construction costs.

But saving money in developing the material and technical base of the Games, LAOOC effectively lost its control over the construction activities. Accordingly, for the sake of economizing, the cycling track surface was made of concrete, instead of wood. This is why shortly after the commissioning, the surface was unusable and had to be redone. Many sport grounds had no warm-up areas for athletes' preparation. There were many problems with setting up venues for rowing and equestrian.

Similar situation was concerning the construction of the Olympic Village. The decision to go without the Village was accounted for by the financial problems of LAOOC. But let us recollect that it was in Los Angeles prior to the 1932 Olympics that the idea of building a separate Olympic Village and its implementation had taken off. And those were the times of the Great Depression, when the organizers were really in a tight squeeze.

Avery Brundage, the then AAU President who went on to be elected the IOC President, said that "the Olympic Village, more than any other event, helped fulfill the Olympic ideas." This assessment was part of the official report of the US Olympic Committee in 1932. One cannot but remember the fact that athletes participating in the 1980 Winter Olympic Games in Lake Placid, USA had been accommodated in a brand new jail building.

One could understand the LAOOC managers if they, indeed, 'could hardly make ends meet' and if

they would have ended up in debt after the Games. But in reality, the 'least commercialized' Games turned an unheard-of profit (about \$225 million), almost half the total expenditures of LAOOC. Therefore, in their activities the organizers and sponsors were far from always looking after the interests of athletes and other participants of the Los Angeles Games.

Too bad, but the shortfalls of Los Angeles did not teach anything the Organizing Committee of the Atlanta Olympic Games. ACOG, once again, sacrificed the interests of athletes and other participants of the Games in preparation of the facilities and the Olympic Village for the sake of maximum profitability. Consequently, a significant part of sport sites and the Olympic Village, on many fundamental issues, failed to meet the minimal requirements to this major competition, and were simply inferior to those built in Moscow, Seoul and Barcelona.

The criticism is in no way ideologically motivated. We maintain quite simply that we ought to approach with the highest moral standards to everything which has a relation to Olympic sport if we want to preserve its ideals, authority and to strengthen the unity of the international Olympic sport system.

Most OCOGs develop good relations with local authorities and, together, put in all the necessary efforts to prepare the sport sites, thereby ensuring a successful celebration of the Games and, at the same time, actively developing the infrastructure of host cities.

The 1964 Olympic Games in Tokyo set a good example of sport sites' location. Its advantage was the shortest possible distance between the entrance to sport venues and public transportation stops and car parking lots. Most of the sport complexes there are placed so that local transportation system routes converge on the venues.

The Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games in Munich declared the city in 1972 the Olympic center of "short distances and green landscapes". For this idea to come true, they put up Oberwiesenthal, the Olympic stadium, on a grass- and wood-covered plot of land, five kilometers from downtown, to hold competition in the majority of sports. Next to the stadium was the Olympic Village with many training facilities and the press center.

In Montreal, Canada in 1976, the OCOG prepared 15 major sport facilities within 10 to 15 kilometers from each other. The main Olympic center and the Olympic Village, five kilometers from the center of the city, were conveniently connected with the downtown area by the metro and a highway.



Olympic facilities of Lillehammer

The basis of the sport structures location for the Olympic Games of 1980 in Moscow was chosen the general development plan of the city, primarily development and enhancement of the existing sport complexes.

In addition to the reconstruction and upgrading of the existing ones, a number of new facilities were designed, built and equipped with most sophisticated tools and equipment, such as the Olimpiysky sheltered sport complex, the cycling track, the rowing canal, the swimming pool, the weightlifting complex, etc. All the sport facilities were located in several contiguous areas, with highways connecting them together.

The sport center in Seoul, covering the area of 545,000 square meters, had been built in 1977 and was upgraded several times since then. This is where new facilities were later added for boxing, water polo, track and field events and soccer. The central stadium to seat 100,000 spectators was constructed in 1984. Several other facilities were added some four kilometers away to form, collectively, the National Sport Complex. It was commissioned prior to the 1986 Asian Games. This Complex included three newly built sport halls for fencing, weightlifting, swimming and diving. The Olym-

pic Village also was situated on the territory of the National Sport Complex.

It should be noted that the OCOG of Seoul, in order to avoid building expensive sport facilities which would be loss-making after the Games, concentrated on upgrading the already existing venues. It succeeded, in principle, in its efforts to adequately prepare the sport facilities, athletes, participants and the media accommodation, etc. Accordingly, the Seoul Games proved to be a success, both organizationally and in sport terms.

Not that they avoided certain shortcomings and unnecessary mistakes. Thus, long distances from the Olympic Village and the National Sport Complex to handball, equestrian and some other venues caused severe problems to athletes, officials and spectators. The idea of organizers to hold boxing competitions on two rings under one roof proved a disaster. It caused many embarrassments, including an unfortunate incident when a boxer stopped fighting, mistaking the stop gong from the other ring, and was immediately knocked out by his opponent.

The Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games in Barcelona in 1992 determined four municipalities to hold most of the sport events that make up the Olympic program: Montjuic,



Olympic facilities of Atlanta

Diagonal, Val d'Ebron and Park de Mar. These districts played host to the Olympic competitions and accommodated the participants and guests of the Olympics, as well as the numerous services of the Games. The area of each of the four districts was 140 to 210 hectares, they are not more than five kilometers apart and are suitably linked by the transportation system (within less than 20-minute drive from each other).

Montjuic has been dubbed 'the Acropolis of Europe'. It was home of the 'Olympic Circle', the main sport complex of the Olympics. The Olympic Stadium was reconstructed in 1984. One of its peculiarities is the 130-meters-long shelter over the central stand. In addition to this stadium, the Olympic Circle includes several more sport facilities that were used as venues of the Olympic competitions.

Sports Palace 'San-Jordi' (17,000 seats) was designed by Arata Isozaki, the famous Japanese architect. Volleyball and handball Olympic tournaments were held there. Near 'San-Jordi' is located the National Institute of Physical Education of

Catalonia, where Greco-Roman wrestling competitions were held during the Olympics. Swimmers competed at Bernard Picornell swimming pool, whereas water polo and divers were accommodated at a new swimming pool, Municipal de Montjuic. Other venues making up the Olympic Circle were Pavellio Espania Industrial (weightlifting), Palau de la Metallurgia (fencing and pentathlon), Estadi Olympic, Anella Olimpica, and Park del Migdia (track and fields), Palau Municipal d'Espor (preliminary rounds of volleyball).

The second largest sport center of the Barcelona Olympics was the district of Diagonal, with the world-famous Nou Camp stadium (120,000 seats). This municipality enjoys a wide network of highways and subterranean routes connecting the Diagonal district with other Olympic venues. Next to Nou Camp is Blaugrana Sports Palace (6,400 seats), the venue of competitions in judo, taekwondo and roller skate hockey. Pentathlon, dressage and concourse events were held in Real Club de Polo (16 seats). Soccer matches were played at Nou Camp and Sarria (42,000 seats) stadiums. Diagonal had offered not only sports facilities, but also five-star hotels to accommodate the Olympic family, and the Barcelona University campus, in whose conference halls the IOC and IFs held their sessions during the Games.

Val d'Ebron, another center of the Olympic Games, is located in the northern area of Barcelona. Its center is the cycling stadium (6,400 seats) which had been built in 1984 for the World Championships in Cycling. It was actually the first sport facility built with the upcoming Olympics in mind. Other Olympic venues located in Val d'Ebron were: Centro Municipal de Tennis (tennis tournament), Centro Municipal de Pelota (the Basque exhibition event at the Barcelona Games), Palau Municipal d'Espor (volleyball), and Camp de Tir amb Ark (archery). Val d'Ebron also hosted one of the two media villages for 2,200.

The fourth major center of the Olympics in Barcelona was Park de Mar. It borders on the Barcelona Port. The municipality of Park de Mar hosted competitions in three sport events. Table tennis awards were fought out in Estacio del Nord (51,000 seats), badminton was played at Pavellio del Park Esportu de la Mar Belia (4,000 seats), and Port Olympic de Barcelona was the venue for yachting. The Barcelona port was also home base for 70 "de luxe" ships which were used as floating hotels for the Olympic Games guests and tourists.

The Organizing Committee of the Atlanta Olympic Games (AGOC) founded preparation of sport facilities on two main principles: the tight economy of money and the rational use of sport

facilities and venues after the Olympics. In other words, the interests of athletes and spectators were not among top priorities of AGOC. Consequently, cyclists had to compete on a primitive make-shift track made of removable modules. Conditions for water polo were no better. Swimming and diving events were held in the swimming pool of Georgia Tech, with huge stands for spectators made of temporary metal structures. In all such cases the participants had nowhere to rest between starts or to have massage and other treatment.

Hardly a success was the decision to use Clark University student dormitories as the Olympic Village. The conditions there (standard three-room apartments with a small hall and two small bedrooms with twin beds, but no telephone or TV) were incompatible with the needs of athletes who were exposed to immense physical and psychological strain. Inferior to the expected standards were also the primitive open 25-meter swimming pool on the territory of the Olympic Village, and the stadium, several gyms and tiny saunas, which served no good to weight lifters, wrestlers, boxers and gymnasts.

On the whole, just half of the Atlanta facilities were up to modern standards and practice of celebrating the Olympic Games in the previous decades. Regrettably, AGOC members did not follow the example of their counterparts in Moscow, Seoul and Barcelona, where the Olympic Villages had been located in newly built residential areas, with appropriate infrastructure and comfortable apartments.

As has been mentioned previously, one of the bottlenecks in planning Olympic facilities is their remoteness from each other, which causes transportation problems for athletes, judges, officials and guests. This problem is particularly acute for Winter Olympic Games which are held, as a rule, in small resort towns. An example of such problems can be those with transportation in Lake Placid.

Although in general transportation is quite good in Calgary, the 1988 Winter Olympic Games could be called 'The Long Distance Games'. The Canmore Ski Center was 120 kilometers, and Alpine ski pistes on the Allan mountain 90 kilometers away from the Olympic Village. One of peculiarities of the Games in Calgary was holding skating competitions indoors. That was the first case in the history of Winter Olympics when skating awards were contested under the roof, rather than in the open air.

Specialists highly appreciated the quality of sport facilities built prior to the 1994 Winter Olympics in Lillehammer, Norway: jumping hills,

venues for marathon skiers, biathlon and freestyle; the award ceremony stadium and the two skating rinks, Christine Hall and Hakan Hall.

The Alpine ski downhill piste with a vertical drop of 820 meters was laid down in Kwitfiell, while slalom competitions were held in Hafiell. The 1,460-meter luge and bobsled track was built in Hyusseskugen. Hockey matches were played in Hamar and Hjovik. Hamar also hosted speed skating, figure skating and short track competitions. The ski jumping stand in the Olympic Park of Lillehammer could seat 7,500 spectators, with some 50,000 being able to see ski jumping events. Hockey stadiums Christine Hall and Hakan Hall accommodated up to 10,000 spectators each.

Moreover, developing the designs of the Olympic sites, Norwegian architects meant to give them a national flavor. Given their vast experience in subterranean designs, the organizers took a courageous step and built the Hjovik ice arena in a rocky mountain, which gave it the name of the 'Mountain Hall'. It includes a hockey rink, stands for 5,500 spectators and a swimming pool. Building this complex venue (total area 10,200 square meters) cost NK 134.7 million (\$20 million). The longest distance between the Olympic sites was 58 kilometers from Hamar to the Olympic Park and 550 kilometers from Lillehammer to Kvitfjell.

The Use of Sport Facilities After the Olympic Games

One of the most pressing problems of the Olympic movement and, particularly, of Winter Olympic Games is how sport sites and facilities are to be used once the Games celebration is over. Even in such huge cities like Moscow and Seoul it is practically impossible to avoid considerable losses in subsequent use and maintenance of swimming pools or cycling tracks with 10,000 — 15,000 capacity, to say nothing about profitable use of 10,000-seat capacity ice hockey or speed skating palaces built in small resorts.

A good example of the problem could be the Olympic facilities of Lake Placid, with a population of only a couple of thousand. Although it is a popular winter resort attracting thousands of visitors, many of its sport sites, particularly the speed skating stadium, the jumping hills, the luge and bobsled track, and the Sports Palace had been mostly idle and carried huge maintenance bills for the municipality. It was only a decade later that the US Olympic Committee decided to set up a training center in Lake Placid for American athletes. This was certainly a useful decision to be followed by other NOCs

and sport organizations of other countries. But easier said than done. And even if this idea is implemented, sport facilities are rarely used at full capacity.

Suffice to take a look at the fate of Squaw Valley, another Winter Olympics host city in the US. For many years after the 1932 Games, it used to be a training camp for American athletes. But the obsolete facilities there became redundant after the commissioning of modern facilities in Lake Placid. The same fate is likely await Lake Placid, too, following the celebration of the Salt Lake City Winter Olympics in 2002.

With this problem in mind, the Organizing Committee of the Atlanta Games proceeded to designing the future Olympic facilities from the very inception. Thus, they promised the American public that all of those facilities would be transferred to the ownership of the state of Atlanta and of Atlanta universities and colleges.

The Olympic stadium which had cost \$200 million to built would be the new home of Atlanta Braves, the local baseball team. The Aquatic Center would belong to Georgia Tech and would host student competitions. The field hockey stadium would be given to Clark Atlanta University and Morris Brown College. The municipality of Atlanta would take possession of the international equestrian park.

Georgia Tech and Georgia State Universities got renovated dormitories, and the Olympic Park became a new city sight and a pleasure spot for Atlanta residents. But some facilities (the water polo swimming pool, the cycling track, a number of temporary constructions of the Olympic Village, the additional stands of the Aquatic Center, etc.) were disassembled and taken away after the Games.

The need to build new Olympic facilities and the impossibility of putting them to a cost effective use after the Games are over is a sever problem for small and medium countries which effectively puts them out of contention for the right to host the Olympic Games.

We believe that in the XXI century the leaders of the international Olympic movement will come to terms with the idea of selecting some ten permanent locations to celebrate the Games of the Olympiad in the five continents of the globe (in Australia, the Americas, Asia, Africa, Europe and Oceania) and five or six locations for the Winter Olympic Games (in Asia, America and Europe). This approach will allow to cut down dramatically the costs of building and subsequently using and maintaining them. These places may become international sport centers taking turns to host the Olympic Games.

The Olympic Games and Nature Protection

Major sport events, such as the Games of Olympiad and the Winter Olympic Games, should necessarily take into account the possible impact on the environment. Indeed, there are many aspects of the Games that are potentially hazardous to the environment: these are setting up and reconstruction of many sport facilities, accommodation of tens of thousands of the Games participants, officials, guests, spectators and the media; power and water supplies; transportation; waste disposal, etc. Obviously, all the works in preparation of host cities for the celebration of the Olympic Games need to be done with a view to prevent the negative impact on the nature and environment.

The issue of nature protection emerged first in the early 1970's. Upon the selection of Denver, Colorado to host the 1976 Winter Olympic Games, it proved that the local authorities had not taken into account the demands of nature protection groups who protested against the construction of the Alpine skiing facilities, the luge and bobsled tracks, the biathlon shooting range, etc. Consequently, this caused such an uproar that, following the efforts of the green movement, the Games had to be transferred to Innsbruck, Austria.

The UN addressed the issue of sports and environment for the first time in July 1992, at the UN Environment Protection Conference in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. It was there that the IOC proclaimed top priority of environment issues in its ongoing activities, given the active development of sports and celebration of the Olympic Games. Top of the list were the following issues:

- education of leaders of sport movement in problems related to sports and nature protection;
- comprehensive overview of environment issues in the bidding campaign of candidate cities to host the Olympic Games;
- tougher requirements to nature-friendliness of sport facilities;
- cooperation with governmental agencies and NGOs to protect nature.

Characteristically, the Bidding Guide for candidate cities states: "The Olympic movement considers it necessary to take care of protecting environment. The IOC assigns great significance to the need that the Olympic Games set a good example in this matter". The Guide calls the OCOG's attention to the requirement to exclude or minimize damage to the environment, including even such

aspects as conservation of power and water, cutting down pollution, etc.

The bidding documents to host the Olympic Games should include a statement that all the works in preparation for the Games will comply with the local, regional and national regulations and nature protection legislation. In addition to consultations with ecological agencies, the candidate city is to provide in its bid the opinion of such agencies concerning the celebration of the Games in that location. It is also the responsibility of candidate cities to provide measures aimed at cutting down air pollution by car exhausts.

The attitude of the IOC to nature protection issues was reflected in the fact of a special discussion of the matter by the 1994 Centennial Olympic Congress in Paris and by the First International Conference on interaction of modern sport and environment held in the Olympic Museum in Lausanne. This conference, held under the UN auspices (the Environment Program), attracted over 120 delegates of various agencies who, for the first time, had a chance for an in-depth analysis of the problem and searching for ways to resolve it. Many reports showed how modern sports could avoid conflicts with environment and, moreover, improve the ecological situation.

OCOGs and sports industry have also taken certain practical steps recently in addressing this issue.

One of the most noticeable achievements of the Organizing Committee of the 1992 Olympic Games and local authorities in Barcelona was a complete overhaul and redevelopment of the sea front area in downtown, which had previously been a real eyesore. They pulled down the old dilapidated buildings, cleared the rubble and set up a new residential area at the coast, with offices, the Olympic Village (a set of apartment buildings with shops and service centers), five parks, motorboat and yacht moorings, and modern freeways. Thus, they improved the transportation and reshaped the sea front area, which had long been a dream of Barcelona residents (A.A. Lorenzo, 1994).

The successful celebration of the XVII Winter Olympics in Lillehammer (1994) would hardly have been possible without a fruitful cooperation of the OCOG with federal and local authorities of Norway and environmental NGOs of the host country.

Accordingly, all the sport facilities designs had been developed in line with the scape line and local traditions. Redundant facilities were disassembled after the Games and either reprocessed or put to further use where necessary; recycled were even the 500 kilograms of lead bullets col-

lected after biathlon training and competitions. After negotiations with the OCOG in Lillehammer, Kodak introduced alterations into their technology for safe reprocessing of some 500,000 liters of chemicals used during the Games (E. Dowdeswell, 1995). Electric cars were used to prepare ice at the speed skating stadium and at the hockey rinks, and even cutlery was made of starch.

An ecology task force was set up under the Organizing Committee of the Atlanta Games in 1996. This was necessitated by the fact that new facilities were put up at the built-up areas. Thus, the new Olympic stadium was built instead of the car park of the old one. The old stadium, once the Games are over, will be torn down to give way to the new parking lots. The tarmac from the territory of the new stadium is to be recycled and used as filling in developing the new parking lot. The new stadium will seat 45,000 spectators instead of the 85,000 as before, and the remaining ("saved") construction materials will be reused elsewhere. For instance, the track covering layer will be given to the local university.

Efficient use and economy of electric power

Special power generating photo elements were designed to be installed at the Aquatic Center, which helped save a lot of power. For this purpose, custom-made power saving floodlights were mounted at most of sport grounds in Atlanta.

In order not to cut down the trees around the rowing venue, it was decided to construct spectator stands right on the water, on a special platform on the lake.

Waste disposal was a special concern of the organizers. To this end, glass, aluminum and plastic containers were avoided as much as possible during the Games (W. Z. Moss, 1995).

Problems of ecology are top of the list of priorities with other OCOGs, too. The one in Nagano, Japan launched a special nature protection council in the run-up to the 1998 Winter Olympic Games. The aim of the organizers is to use the existing facilities to the fullest extent possible and to foresee all potential dangers in the new construction. Thus, it was found that the biathlon venue, unless moved, would endanger the population of rare birds. After careful analysis, the venue was indeed moved to another locality. They will use innovative, completely safe methods of icing the luge and bobsled tracks. Besides, during the Nagano Games the organizers are to employ low-

exhaust transportation vehicles, energy saving technologies and means to keep at minimum the waste and litter at the Olympic venues (S. Lizawa, 1995).

The OCOG of the Olympic Games of 2000 in Sydney, Australia are also concerned about environment and nature protection. They expect to use wood and brick modules in the Olympic Village to improve isolation and ventilation. Most sophisticated technologies will be used to reprocess and reuse water during the Games. The OCOG of the Sydney Games intends to demonstrate to the world the advantages of using the solar power.

It is only natural that active development of sports and the ever increasing number of sport events in the world give grounds for concern and apprehension on the part of local administrations, IFs, and sports equipment manufacturers. As

shown by the recent practice, there are endless possibilities for improvements in nature protection efforts. To give an example, let us remember that organizers of major rowing competitions managed to convert useless dikes and quarries into lakes, and to clean up many polluted areas. Their efforts bore fruit not only in providing the appropriate conditions for athletes' training and competitions, but also for recreation of the general public (D. Oswald, 1994).

Much has been done recently to recycle broken or obsolete sport tools, equipment and uniforms, such as skis, ski boots, various sporting footwear, etc. By reprocessing the latter, for example, it is possible to produce modern synthetic material to be used in many areas, as floor covering, etc. On the other hand, various used materials can be recycled to produce sport goods, like some trainers, with their soles made almost 50% of old car tires.

OLYMPIC SPORT AND MASS MEDIA

Interaction of Olympic Sport with Mass Media

The whole history of the modern Olympic movement is closely linked with the mass media. Founder of the IOC Pierre de Coubertin, the writer and the journalist, did a lot late in the 19th century for the press to promote the idea of a rebirth of the Olympic Games and to help implement it.

Only eleven reporters were present at the Games of the First Olympiad in 1896 in Athens. But it is thanks to them that today we know so much about those Games: about the run-up problems, the people who had been most instrumental in making the Games possible, the best athletes and the celebration of the Games. Their legacy was a number of unique photos depicting the highlights of the First Olympic Games of modern Age.

With every coming Games, the number of reporters and the scope of their coverage have gradually increased. Their enthusiasm and skills started the breath-taking history of modern Olympic sport.

The International Association of Sport Journalists was established in 1924 and did much to promote the Olympic Games. The IOC Press Commission was formed in 1967, the IOC TV Commission in 1971, and the IOC Radio Commission in 1983, thereby ensuring the links of the IOC with the mass media.

In recent decades, radio and television have been the focal point in the development of Olympic sport. Mass media today has established themselves as equal partners, on an equal footing with other participants of major sport events, particularly the Olympic Games, in terms of fund sourcing, advertising, interrelations with the IFs, making up the program of competitions, etc.

Indeed, the success of Olympics today depends not only on the number of participants, their performance, level of competition or new records set, but also the number of viewing audience, the TV hours, the number of reporters accredited, etc. Of great importance is the input of mass media in the

promotion of new sport events and talented athletes, the description of tactics and techniques employed, ups and downs of competitors' behavior, achievements and deficiencies of competitions, which ultimately ensures the progress of the Olympic movement.

The mass media, television broadcasting in particular, helped to bring to the public's notice many sport events. Accordingly, sport got a new boost, the ground has been laid for new funds and athlete support programs, and outstanding athletes obtained powerful means of advertising and promotion, lucrative both to them and also for the press, radio and television. In fact, modern mass media can turn an obscure athlete into a mega star, a world celebrity, almost overnight.

Another attraction of sport to the general public is that mass media can help the audience to transcend frontiers and huge distances and get to know the countries and cities hosting sport competitions. Live coverage draws throngs of people in the world, making them share the joys and sorrows of contestants and draw invisible bridges between the audience and the athletes.

Noticeable changes in the relation of Olympic sport and the mass media occurred in the early 1970's, when the Summer and Winter Olympic Games became commercially attractive for television.

The IOC and OCOGs' revenues from TV rights sales have grown dramatically: from \$287 million in 1984 and \$636 million in 1992 to \$1,100 million in the year 2000 (for the Games of the Olympiad); and from \$103 million in 1984, \$292 million in 1992 to \$509 million in 1998 (Winter Olympic Games). Conversely, TV channels have put in a lot of efforts to make sport more attractive for television.

The impact of television companies led to the emergence of new sports and events in the Olympic Games program, the admission of professional athletes to the Olympics, the timetable changes for the commercially viable sports to be broadcast during the prime time for the purpose of



**Representatives
of mass media
at the I Olympic
Games**
(Athens, 1896)

catching the eye of the viewers and sponsors, particularly those in the USA.

Television also had a hand in introduction of changes in the administration of the Opening and Closing ceremonies of the Olympic Games. In accordance with the demands of television and to beat the number of viewers of such ceremonies secured by the organizers of the previous Olympics, OCOGs do their best to stage every subsequent ceremony even grander. Naturally, it costs an awful lot. For instance, the ACOG paid almost \$20 million for the Opening Ceremony in Atlanta (Nancy Beffa, p. 33).

Thus, the new policy of television regarding sport was aimed at making it as attractive as possible, both to common viewers and, certainly, to advertising corporations.

Another attraction of sport for television companies lies in that the dynamics of competitions in various events are perfect for them to develop and implement new ideas and technologies in program presentation, test new types of graphics, etc. (T. Downing, p.25).

Sport, in its turn, needs television not only for promotion's sake, but mostly to source funds to hold competitions, to improve its material base, and to provide financial support to athletes. In reply to the demands from television, many International Sport Federations had to introduce alterations into competition regulations to accom-

modate for more attractiveness of their sport for television companies. This has been the case, among other sports, with basketball, water polo, and free style wrestling. The money paid by TV for the right to broadcast competitions, is the main source of funds to many sport agencies dealing with athletes training and preparation that pay salaries and bonuses to athletes for their performance. Besides, television is absolutely indispensable, as it helps find sponsors who play a major part in financing sport and providing funds for training and remunerating athletes.

Speaking of the financial impact of television on Olympic sport, it is worth turning to the path covered by the American professional sport. The role played by television in the development of the American professional sport can hardly be overestimated. Today proceeds from TV rights account for the principal source of funds for the development of professional basketball, baseball and football in the US. They allowed to raise wages of professionals in these and other sports. Thus, the average wage in NBA and GBL was \$350,000 a year, whereas in 1996 it has reached \$1,500,000.

Today one can see an obvious trend of transference of professional sport coverage methods from professional to Olympic sport arena. This process has been spurred on by the admission of professionals to compete in the Olympic Games.

With every passing year, show biz is bringing more and more pressure to bear on sport, inasmuch as sponsors and television invest heavily in sport. Accordingly, sport is learning to adapt to the new setting. One of the examples is the appearance of TV-requested competitions. Consequently, the International Olympic movement and media agencies have to address a new challenge and develop a strategy of covering Olympic sport, as Olympic and professional sport are different types of activity. This is going to be a tough task. On the one hand, the principles of television coverage, if copied on a large scale, could distort the uniqueness and peculiarity of Olympic sport. On the other hand, further development of Olympic sport is directly dependent on finding new sources of funds.

Many sport movement leaders and mass media representatives believe today that the alliance of television and the Olympic Games is subject of economics and a must for the Game to survive. True, but one must not overlook the fact that this alliance belongs, above all, in the area of spiritual values which are capable of enriching society.

The TV rights to cover the Games of the XXVII Olympiad in Sydney in 2000 and the XIX Winter Olympic Games in Salt Lake City in 2002 have obtained NBC, an American company which pledges to promote the Olympic ideals more actively than ever before. And following the closing of the Atlanta Games, it aired a half-hour-long program, produced in cooperation with the IOC about the Olympic movement, which is to run until the beginning of the Games of the year 2002. The program will present background information about the Olympic movement, preparation of Sydney and Salt Lake City for the Olympic Games, and various features about outstanding Olympic athletes.

High-profile status in propagating the Olympic ideals and featuring the on-going preparation of athletes for the Olympic Games can and must belong to special education channels that are popular in many countries. Such programs are certain to be of use to athletes, too, as this will motivate them to improve results in sport.

The interrelations of sport and the mass media are mutually beneficial. They provide for popularity and profitability of both. However, their interests do not necessarily coincide, so that negative trends in one or the other can be detrimental to their beneficial cooperation. Therefore, it is important for the relations of sport and the mass media to develop in harmony, with due consideration of the interests of both parties.

Professional and Ethical Problems of Mass Media

Prior to the 1980's representatives of the mass media and of sport had worked separately, although often they had to tackle similar problems vying for public attention. Lack of coordination and, at times, misunderstanding of tasks they faced often impacted adversely the attitude of the general public both to sport and the media, whether the press, radio or television.

The IOC-initiated First International Symposium "Sport, Mass Media and Olympism" launched a comprehensive and in-depth analysis of the media activities. It studied the many aspects of the telling impact of mass media on the development of Olympic sport, the nature of links of the press, radio and television with sport, and the prospects for their mutually advantageous relations in future. On the agenda of the symposium were also some dangerous trends in the activities of the mass media, and such problems of sport which relate to mass media interests and complicate the promotion of sport values proper, as well as humanitarian, moral and ethical values of sport.

Representatives of both sport bodies and the mass media were concerned with the ever growing dependence of Olympic sport and the Olympic Games on commercial television which interferes with purely sport matters. Open to question, for instance, were changes that had been introduced into the Olympic program by the COG in Seoul in 1988, under pressure from television companies and at the expense of the best interests of athletes.

Sebastian Coe sparked off applause when he said: "As a veteran who has participated in two Olympic Games and member of the IOC Athlete's Commission, I shall actively oppose the pressure brought to bear on the Seoul Organizing Committee to move the finals of most of sport events, particularly in track and fields and gymnastics, to morning hours to suit the needs of North American viewers".

W. Daume publicly announced to the participants of the Symposium the resolution of the NOC of West Germany which stated that the demand of the US television to move the finals in Seoul to morning was in contradiction with the interests of athletes.

Undoubtedly, the concerted rebuff of the American proposal, despite the much too general phrasing of the symposium's recommendations, duly impressed the IFs. Making plans concerning the timetable of the Seoul Games, the International Federations assured the world that the competi-

tions there would take place as usual, in the afternoon and in the evening.

But some eighteen months later the television business and NBC came on top. Boxing, wrestling, tennis, modern pentathlon, rowing, cycling road race, equestrian and shooting competitions were held in the morning, while basketball, track and fields, gymnastics, swimming, men's volleyball and yachting started in the afternoon. Consequently, TV audience in Europe had to contend with watching Olympic events in these sports late at night or early in the morning, and the athletes had to compete at unusual times.

More than ten years have passed, but there are as much problems and contradictions in the media activities today as before. The increased popularity of Olympic sport and its intense commercialization have intensified both professional and moral-ethical problems of the mass media. This is why the agenda of the 1994 Olympic Centennial Congress in Paris included a special area of "Sport and Mass Media".

In the hearings of this section, delegates discussed various aspects of relations between sport, the press, radio and television and pointed out that the promotion and propaganda of sport over the previous century had been successful through the services and support of the mass media. It is with the tangible assistance of the press that Baron de Coubertin, the founding father of the modern Olympic Games, had succeeded in his undertakings. The press has thrown its weight behind the Games and, even more so, the Olympic traditions and ideas. These are closely related with sport values and with other areas of human activities: education, health protection, etc. (Hodler, 1994).

At the same time, the press, radio and television have faced more problems and differences that run counter to the interests of athletes, sport bodies and spectators, as well as those of the mass media themselves. Here is a brief description of some of the problems.

The soft spot of the media to sensations and scandals in and around sport leads to distortions in the reporting materials, blowing minor details of the Olympic movement to major proportions.

D. Pietri, the Italian marathon runner who had been disqualified in 1948 in London for crossing the finishing line with outside assistance, was widely publicized by the press and became known to the whole world, although the names of many Olympic marathon champions remain virtually unknown to the general public.

Similarly, Jim Thorpe, a decathlon winner of the V Olympiad, was stripped of his gold medal following the press accusations of having accepting

payment for playing years before in an obscure baseball team. The unjustified disqualification got him the media support and sympathy of the world, although the medal was not returned to Thorpe's family until after his death. But, on balance, Jim Thorpe came down in the Olympic history as an athlete who is probably known better than all the other Olympic decathlon champions taken together.

In another widely publicized instance, the outstanding American champion Jesse Owens, winner of four gold medals at the 1936 Olympics in Berlin, dined out with his friends and, instead of eating, had to give autographs. After a hundredth autograph, he excused himself and said that he would continue after he had something to eat. The next day a newspaper affirmed that the inimitable Owens had lost a lot of supporters by refusing to give autographs in a restaurant (Bud Greenolen, p. 23).

Following the disqualification of Ben Johnson in a doping scandal at the XXIV Olympic Games in Seoul, there appeared thousands of publications all over the world. The incident was dubbed by sport reporters and presents 'the greatest scandal of the 20th century' and even 'the Olympic Watergate'. By contrast, hardly any coverage was given to another, much more significant incident related to doping in sport. We mean the statement of D. Thompson, the English decathlon athlete, who, according to a Yugoslav reporter A. Tiyanitsa, said that over 80% American and 25% British athletes used doping in Seoul to improve their performance.

Ironically, even today the name of Johnson in athletics more often than not is associated with the scandal of Ben Johnson than with the triumph of Michael Johnson of the US, the winner of two gold medals who set the new world record in the 200 meters in Atlanta.

The world press has trumped up the doping-taking incidents involving East German athletes. The mud-slinging campaign has attributed the unique sport achievements of the team of East Germany in Summer and Winter Olympic Games solely to effects of doping.

In reality, the situation was quite different. The success of East Germany in sport had been mainly accounted for by the well-developed system of sport for children and youth, the science-based selection methods of talented athletes, the use of state-of-the-art training methodologies, the most sophisticated training facilities and centers, development of highly-efficient sport equipment and tools, etc. Admittedly, achievements in certain sports had been caused by using doping. However, the one-

sided approach to the scandal story of East Germany sport, to the complete exclusion of all other factors, could not but distort the real picture.

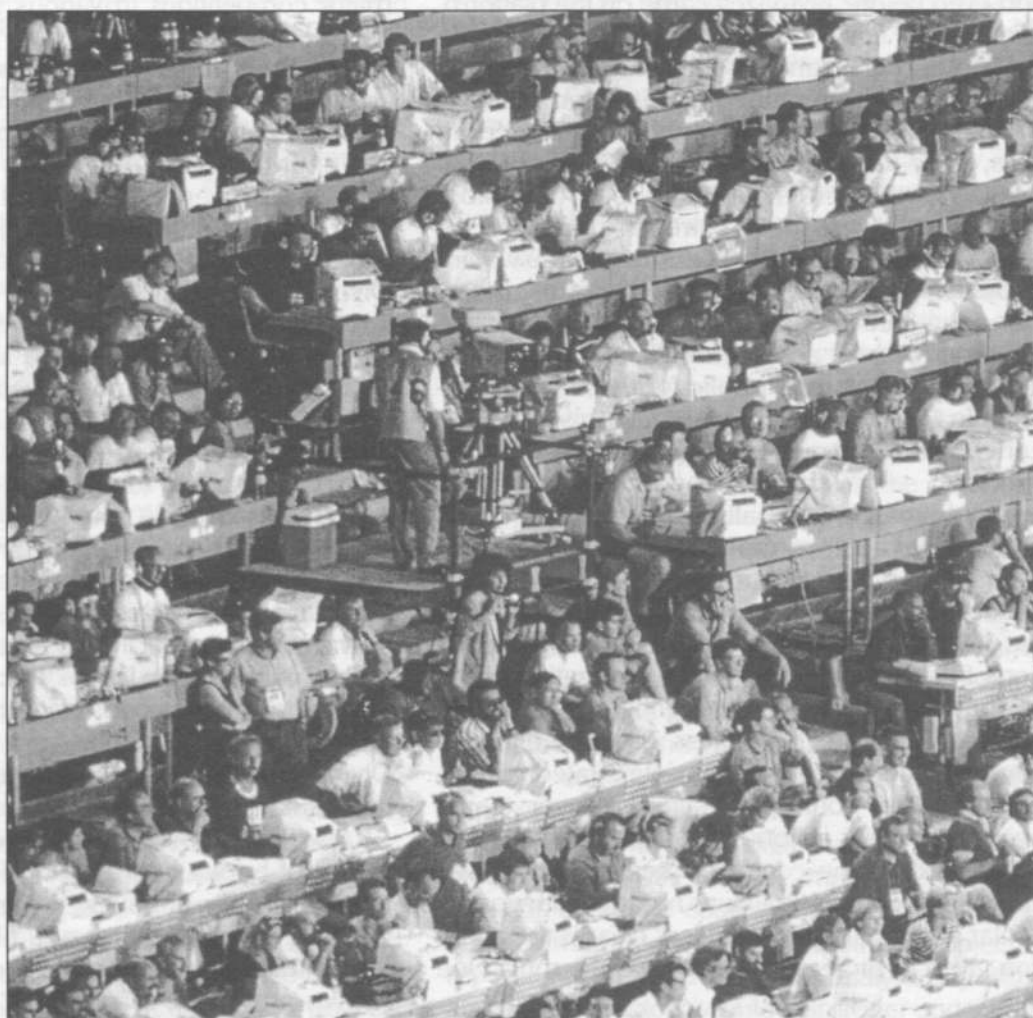
As a result, losses had been incurred by international sport and, particularly, German sport. On the initiative of West German politicians and sport specialists after unification in 1991 — 92 the sport system of East Germany was completely destroyed. Sport centers were closed down there, sport reserve development system axed, Leipzig physical research institute, the biggest in the world, all but decommissioned, best coaches, teachers and researches sacked, although they had nothing to do with the use of doping.

Results did not take long to show: the unified team of Germany won only 65 medals (including 20 gold) at the Atlanta Games in 1996. Let us remind the readers, for comparison, that East Germany won 90 (40 gold) medals in Montreal in 1976 and 102 (37 gold) medals in Seoul in 1988, whereas the combined medal haul of East and West Germany in 1976 and 1988 was, respectively,

129(50) and 142 (48). What is even more surprising, the total number of medals awarded in Atlanta exceeded that in Montreal and Seoul by 73 and 44, respectively.

The coverage of the main heroes of the Olympic Games, athletes and coaches, by the press, radio and television in numerous reports, news flashes, articles and programs is definitely stereotype. Typically, reporters rush to interview winners straight after finish, with champions holding the flag of their nation. Incidentally, even in this traditional ceremony there emerged certain problems. It is no longer possible for an accredited journalist to interview Olympic medal winners if they happen to be from his country. Chances are that, differently from the past, he will not be allowed to do so immediately after the finish, as this spot tends to have already been bought by a TV company as an exclusive right. As a rule, these exclusive rights belong to US television giants.

If we turn to what was going on at the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta, it is easy to prove that television companies do not always use their



Mass media
representatives
at work
(Atlanta, 1996)

exclusive right for the benefit and in the interests of the whole international Olympic movement. In Atlanta the blatant aim of the television crews, most unfortunately, was not to give a broadest possible picture of the Games, suit the different preferences of various parts of the world to certain sports, and to bring to the fore the champions and medal winners. Instead, television was invariably after US athletes, even those that were far from the award rostrum.

The Olympic champions, if they happened to be from the US team, appeared on TV screens much longer than champions from other countries. Thus, K. Angle of US, who drew in the final 1:1, but was undeservedly mistakenly awarded the gold medal in the 100-kilogram free style wrestling class over the much more active Iranian athlete, was given five times more air time than the outstanding super heavyweight A. Karelin of Russia, three-time Olympic champion and unbeaten for ten years now. In another incident, T. Taymazov of Ukraine (108 kg), who set a new world record in the jerk and beat the runner-up by 10 kg in the total, was given less time on the screen than American athletes who had gone out of competition even before Taymazov came on the platform. Examples of this sort of TV coverage are plenty.

Another problem of the modern Olympic sport is surprisingly unequal attention of mass media to different sport events. In various countries, three to six or eight events account for 80 — 90% of the screen time on sport television. The point is not only extreme popularity of some sport events and obscurity of others. A lot depends on the ability of the media to understand the tactics of all sports, to know their history and the best achievements, and to develop a taste of the general public for the skills of athletes in less popular sports. Only this way one can hope to attract more public attention to sport.

Unfortunately, journalists who possess such professional qualities are few and far between in sport, as can be seen from the analysis of sport publications in Ukraine in the year-long run-up to the 1996 Olympic Games. Naturally, the participation of the national team in the celebration of the Atlanta Games was the highlight of 1996 in Ukraine. But instead, the press was riveted to soccer, which level has recently deteriorated considerably in the country, Ukrainian soccer teams being practically a non-entity internationally over this period. In the center of press attention was also tennis, where Ukrainians has met with no particular success, either. Even less clear is the attention given to professional hockey or Formula One races.

In fact, it is always easier to reprocess yesterday's reports of foreign colleagues describing tennis, hockey or motor racing, with no Ukrainian participation in sight. Such publications are beyond critique if only for lack of any essential interest inside the country. Much more difficult to comment and analyze, professionally and knowingly, the developments in cycling, track and fields, swimming, biathlon, shooting, free style or Greco-Roman wrestling, weightlifting, etc. This is the kind of information Olympic sport in Ukraine needs, but to find it in the Ukrainian press is practically out of the question.

The job of the international sport media is made ever more difficult by the growing number of sport events in the Olympic program and of participating athletes. This is an spin-off of a paradox: the IOC is trying to curtail the expansion of the Olympic Game program, whereas more and more NOCs emerge on the political map of the world, new sports are included in the program, and the IFs are increasing the program and the number of participants in the traditionally popular sports. As a result of this, the mass media are continuously stretched, they are spread too thin to be able to cover all major competitions in various sports completely and proportionately.

To date, the leader of mass media is television. According to some estimates, sport takes up five to twelve percent of programs of various TV channels. But even this volume is not enough to cover sufficiently all sport events, the ever growing number of major competitions, the popular athletes and topical issues of Olympic sport. At the same time, the over-stretched television programs often display superfluous information and shallow presentation of facts, events and processes. Educational, cultural and humanitarian issues often remain in the background, programs become superficial, quantitative factors overtake qualitative ones (Hans-Dieter Kreis, 1994, p. 54).

Therefore, training of skilled reporters is so crucial to give them professional and moral perfection. This can be achieved through seminars held by the International Olympic Academy in Olympia and various events in the Olympic Museum in Lausanne. Much good is also done to this end by education work undertaken by the National Olympic Academies and Olympic research and education centers launched in many countries.

Also important are such measures as publication of books, production of education films, and setting up archives. For example, the IOC initiated the production of a film 'The Olympic Centennial' in three parts, which was first shown at the 1994 Olympic Congress in Paris.

The first TV transmission of the Games took place in Berlin in 1936



The Paris Congress saw presentations of the first in the world textbook 'Olympic Sport' (part I) by V. Platonov and S. Guskov for higher education institutes of physical culture and sport; 'The Olympic Revolution' by D. Miller (about the activities of the IOC President J. A. Samaranch); 'Five Rings over Seoul' by R. Pound, the IOC Vice President; 'The Centennial of Olympic Congresses: 1894 — 1994' by N. Muller, etc.

Periodicals carry a considerable weight in propagating sport and describing various aspects of Olympic sport. Two special magazines have recently been started in Ukraine, for instance: 'Science in Olympic Sport' (for sport specialists) and 'The Olympic Arena' (for the general public).

All of these provide a powerful ground for improving the qualifications of the mass media, as reporters, in addition to simply acting as a conduit of information, may become qualified specialists, well-versed in sport problems and able to pass the knowledge to their readers, listeners and/or viewers. An increasing number of reporters come to realize the need to inform people in their sport event presentations with history of the Olympic movement, ethical and moral foundations of Olympism, its organizational, material, technical, medical, and other problems and difficulties.

Presently, there is no longer the favorite topic of the past for the mass media to cover, i.e. the opposition of the USA, the USSR and East Germany, and between socialist and capitalist countries in sport, which often used to be described with political

overtones. For more than four decades, the contest of the USSR and the USA, which was later joined by East Germany in the 1970's and 80's, had been the highlight of the unofficial teams' total count, with unavoidably political comments in the press, radio and television. The emergence of 15 new independent states after the dissolution of the USSR and the unification of Germany resulted in the US coming into the unopposed lead in the Olympic sport arena. Although less spectacular than the achievements of the former USSR, the performance of the US team was by far the best at the XXVI Olympic Games in Atlanta and will surely remain best, at least until the end of the next four-year period.

Following the Sydney Olympics, the situation is likely to change, with China the only realistic contender to be able to challenge the US dominant position within the first decade of the 21st century. The forecast is based not only on the results of the Atlanta Games, but, more importantly, the analysis of trends in the development of mass, reserve and top performance sport in China and other countries like Russia and Germany which, if only theoretically, can potentially join the fray for world supremacy in sport in future.

There are different organizations and social groups, along with athletes, impacting the development of sport: coaches, doctors, organizers, businessmen, politicians and others. Objective reporting of their activities, with analysis of positive and negative factors, would help better understand



**Representatives
of photo media
awaiting thrilling
moments
(Atlanta, 1996)**

the problems of modern sport and find means of improving its organizational, material and technical base.

One should also analyze the work of different public and commercial agencies responsible for assisting sport: funds, lotteries, etc. So far, regrettably, they are outside of the scope of serious interest of the mass media. Consequently, the problems and mistakes of such agencies are often mistaken for those of sport.

Indeed, there have lately emerged a number of incidents when various commercial structures, often with suspicious record and sources of funds, try to set up links with Olympic sport for the purpose of using its noble ideals as a cover for their illegal deals.

The problems and contradictions in the activities of the mass media called for counter measures. This need was one of the reasons of the Centennial Olympic Congress undertaking to put together a special Code of Conduct (D. Oswald, 1994) for the press, radio and television to adhere to. Agreements are proposed to be signed between sport organizations and the mass media whereby no reporter is allowed to present sport events unless he subscribes to abide by the requirements of the Code.

The Code of Conduct is based on the notions of competence, striving for justice, the truthful interpretation of events, respect of the rights of participants of competitions, particularly the right of athletes to be heard, a responsible and balanced choice of topics and sports, the need for specialization of reporters and commentators in particular sports, and, last but not least, the promotion of humanitarian, moral and educational aspects of sport.

Athletes are entitled to assume that the press, radio and television staff covering competitions are all in possession of the appropriate qualifications and of due knowledge of the event they have been assigned to do. They should also be aware of training procedures and preparation methods, the techniques and tactics employed in a given sport, as well as sport psychology, physiology, medicine, etc.

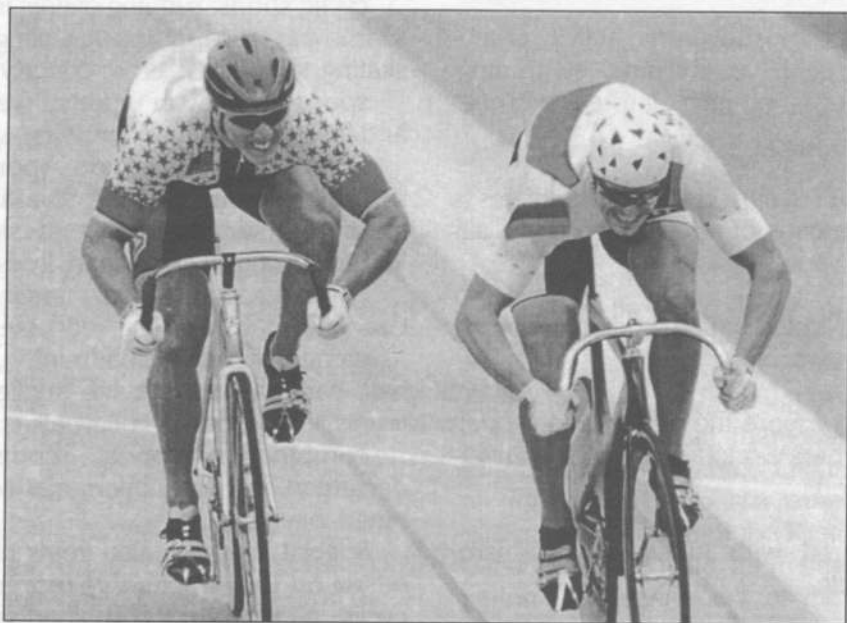
Sport community and the general public must be certain that journalists and reporters are in pursuit of objectivity, that they can withstand and parry all attempts to exert influence on them, whoever tries to do so. It is only complete independence that brings public respect to the media. Simultaneously, media representatives must always respect independence of athletes and sport organizations, their rights and philosophic principles. The guiding principle of sport coverage by the media is to be a quest for fair sport competition and pursuing the interests of sport.

All mass media representatives should present nothing but truthful and objective information. Above all, concerning the reporting of the life and principles of sport stars. Reporters should go after truth, rather than sensation. The media should resist the temptation to file their interpretation of events on the basis of only superficial impressions, unverified assertions, or individual attitude to this or that athlete. Above all, reporters should avoid biased or ungrounded interpretations which can be detrimental to a sport or an athlete.

The media should guarantee the right of athletes, coaches and other sport participants to present their side of the story. The ultimate goal of all those concerned should be the uplifting of the role of athletes in society as the central element of Olympic sport.

Section Six

Olympic Sports, Competitions and Athletes Performance



SPORT EVENTS IN THE PROGRAMS OF SUMMER AND WINTER OLYMPIC GAMES

Classification of Olympic Sports

There are different types of classifications of sports. Depending on the peculiarities of training procedures and competitive activities of athletes, sports are generally broken down into six groups.

Group One:

sports with the utmost dynamic activity of athletes (track and field, weightlifting, swimming, rowing, gymnastics, athletic games, combat events, etc.).

Group Two:

sports where the dynamic activity of athletes is aimed at driving means of conveyance (cars, aircraft, motorbikes, yachts).

Group Three:

sports where athletes use special sporting weapons (rifles, bows, etc.).

Group Four:

sports which compare the design and modeling results of designers work (aircraft and sea/river-craft modeling, etc.).

Group Five:

sports associated with hiking, like tourism, mountaineering, etc.

Group Six:

sports of abstract and composite thinking, like chess, draughts, etc. (L. Matveyev, 1977).

However, this sort of classification is no good for the Olympic sports, as in accordance with the Olympic Charter, some sports can not be included in the Olympic Games program due to their non-compliance with the basic Olympic sports criteria. These are mainly sports, events or disciplines where performance and results are practically determined by the mechanical driving force. Therefore, the so-called technical sports in Groups Two and Four, like car racing, aquatics, gliding, piloting, motorcycling, aircraft and seacraft modeling, etc., are not to be included in the Olympic program. Likewise, sports in Groups Five and Six do not belong to the Olympic Games program.

Summer and Winter Olympic sports are classi-

fied according to another principle. The most commonly used classification is based on the peculiarity of movement, and on the structure of training and competing activities in various sports.

This classification is made up of the following sports:

cyclic sports: running events in track and field, swimming, rowing and kayaking, cycling, speed skating, short track, cross country skiing.

speed-and-power sports: weightlifting, track and field jumping and throwing, ski jumping.

complex coordination sports: gymnastics, rhythmic all-round, diving, shooting, archery, synchronized swimming, figure skating, yachting, kayaking slalom, equestrian, freestyle.

combat sports: boxing, fencing, free style and Greco-Roman wrestling, judo, taekwondo.

games: basketball, badminton, baseball, volleyball, handball, soccer, ice hockey, hockey, table tennis, tennis, beach volleyball, curling.

combination sports: modern pentathlon, decathlon and heptathlon, triathlon, Nordic combined, biathlon.

Special literature also treats of Olympic sports based on the structure of movement. These are cyclic, a-cyclic and combined movement structures. In cyclic movement sports (swimming, rowing, speed skating, etc.) athletes do repetitive cycles of stereotype movements. In a-cyclic movement sports (wrestling, boxing, gymnastics, games, etc.) athletes quickly change movement cycles, like in combination sports or biathlon, where athletes do both cyclic and a-cyclic movements.

Depending on the area and the number of countries practicing them, sports can be grouped into INTERNATIONAL (track and field, swimming, gymnastics, games, etc.), REGIONAL (baseball, taekwondo, hockey, etc.) and NATIONAL (those that are practiced by a limited number of nations and countries). With further development of international sport movement, regional and sometimes even national sports gain the status of internation-

Interpersonal relations	Indirect impact	Direct impact	Injury-prone impact
Individual	Throwing events, weightlifting, figure skating, etc.	Running events, swimming, etc.	Boxing, wrestling, fencing
Total-group	Team events in pentathlon, gymnastics, etc.		Track and ski relays
Synchro-group	Two- and four-man bobsled, two-man luge	Rowing team events	
Function-group	Pair skating, ice dancing, etc.	Tennis, table tennis (doubles), volleyball	Cycling (team events), soccer, ice hockey, handball, basketball, etc.

Table 29
Classification of sports, events and disciplines depending on athlete interrelationship types (B. Barth, 1994, modified)

al sports. This tendency is promulgated by international sport organizations and is due to common trends in international sports, such as commercial and political factors.

Sports, events and sport disciplines can also be grouped in conformity with interrelationships among athletes, which allows to add to the above-mentioned classification system.

Sports in the Programs of Olympic Games

The programs of the Olympic Games of the First Period (1896 — 1912) had a few distinctive features, above all a disproportion in sports of different groups (see Fig. 14).

As shown in the diagram, cyclic and complex-coordination sports had a clear advantage then (60,3 % of the competition program). The rest of the program was made up of speed-and-power sports, combat and games. Combination sports were included in the program of only two of the First Period Games: in 1904 (athletic combination) and 1912 (athletic pentathlon, decathlon and modern pentathlon).

Olympic Games programs in the First Period lacked stability, being dependent on many factors, such as sporting traditions in the host country, the position of the IOC, IFs and certain members of these organizations, the financial and material situation of the host cities, etc. Thus, at the First Olympic Games of 1896 combat sports were represented by one event in Greco-Roman wrestling and three events in fencing. There was no wrestling or boxing events at the Second Games (1900), whereas the program of the Olympic Games of 1904 and 1908 included fourteen events in the two combat sports. In 1912 there again was a sharp reverse change: there was no boxing in the program which included only five wrestling events.

The situation was even more fluid in games. The program of the 1896 Games included only ten-

nis. Sixteen years later, at the Games of the Fifth Olympiad, athletes competed in tennis, water polo and soccer. However, the programs of the Second, Third and Fourth Games (1900 — 1908) included various games, even those that were practiced by only a few countries: lacrosse (a Canadian game of cross-rackets and a ball), polo (a team game of four horsemen a side playing a wooden ball), jeux-de-pomme (an ancient ball game, the beginnings of tennis), rackets (another game similar to tennis), golf, rugby, hockey, etc. Moreover, representatives of only one to three countries constituted the field in some of these games.

The number of events in certain sports also varied from Games to Games. Gymnastics is a good example. At the Third Games of 1904, for instance, there were eleven gymnastic events in the program, whereas four years later (1908) the program on the Fourth Games included only two events of the sport. Then again, there were six cycling track events at the 1908 games, and in the 1912 Olympic program there was only a 320-km road race.

The peculiarities of the First Period of Olympic Games reflected the then situation in the initial period of development of the Olympic Games, when the Games programs were determined by host-cities, rather than by the IOC or IFs.

During the Second Period of Olympic Games (1920 — 1948) the proportion of sports groups has changed in the competition programs (see Fig. 15).

There was a marked increase in the number of cyclic sports and combat events, and a sizable decline in the number of games and complex-coordination sports. For instance, the program of the VII Olympic Games (1920) still had included some games of limited popularity (like polo, with four teams to compete, and rugby with only two teams), but the 1948 Games of the XIV Olympiad included only those games that were practiced all over the world (23 teams in basketball, 18 teams each in water polo and soccer, and 13 teams in hockey).

Similar trend developed in certain complex-coordination sports. In the 1920 Games there were

Fig. 14.
Sports in
the First
Period of
the Olympic
Games
(1896-1912)

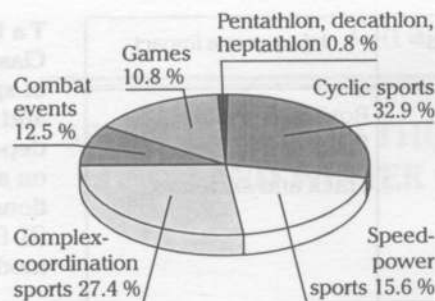
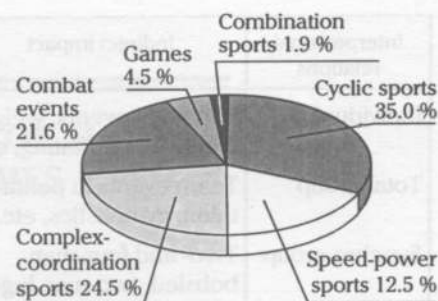


Fig. 15.
Sports in
the Second
Period of
the Olympic
Games
(1896-1912)



14 events in yachting, one craft participating in the seven of those and the rest being represented by two to four vessels. Naturally, as a result of this, yachting events had undergone revision and change. In 1948 the program included competition in five vessel types, each having a field of 11 through 21.

The shooting program in 1920 included 10 individual and 11 team events. Only army rifle events carried ten sets of awards. Gradually, the program in this sport had also been revised and changed. Thus, in 1936 three individual sets of awards were up for grabs in three shooting types, and in 1948 the number of events and sets of awards came to four.

The program of Olympic Games and the number of events in different sport groups had been gradually changed (see Fig. 16). Only combined events remained stable (two or three events over the whole period of Olympic Games). However, the overall stability was generally achieved in 1932 — 1948, when there had been no major changes in the ratio of different groups of sports. If at all, minor changes were effected as relates events in the stable Olympic sports. The program included only those sports and events, which were widely practiced in IOC-recognized NOCs. For instance, the program of the XI Games in 1936 included the following sports: basketball, boxing, free style and Greco-Roman wrestling, cycling (track and road race events), polo, handball, gymnastics, rowing,

canoeing, equestrian, track and field, yachting, swimming, diving, water polo, modern pentathlon, shooting, weightlifting, fencing, soccer and hockey.

The beginning of the Third Modern Olympic Period is characterized by stable Olympic competition programs. Athletes had competed for 149 — 163 sets of awards at the 1952 — 1964 Olympic Games, with a stable proportion of sports of different groups (see Table 30).

Over the next 16 years the number of events on the program had been gradually expanded. Accordingly, athletes fought it out for 203 sets of awards at the XXII Olympic Games in Moscow, 56 sets of awards more than at the Rome Games of the XVII Olympiad in Rome (see Table 30). The program had been expanded mainly through adding more events of the long-established Olympic sports (43). A mere 12 sets of awards had been given out in new sports over the period of 1964 — 1980: in volleyball (two sets), handball (two), judo (seven) and archery (two). A new trend had evolved during this period to cut down the number of speed-power and complex-coordination sports, adding more combat events and games.

Recently, the Olympic program has expanded even more markedly, by 15 — 20 events every four years. Therefore, the Atlanta Games of 1996 will stage competitions in 276 sport events (see Table 30). Thus, the program is to increase by 36.0 % compared to 1980, or by 85.2 % as against the 1952 Games.

It should be noted that new sports has been actively brought into the Olympic program in recent years. These are badminton, baseball, beach volleyball, rhythmic all-round, synchronized swimming, table tennis, tennis, kayak slalom. But the dominating tendency in the expansion has still been addition of new events in the traditional Olympic sports. Out of 73 new events which have been added to the Olympic program in 1980 — 1996, new sports accounted for only 26.0 % (19 events), whereas there will be 44 sets of awards in track and field events in 1996 (as compared with 38 events in 1980), 32 swimming events (against 28 in 1980), 14 cycling events (6 events in 1980) and 16 shooting events (7 events in 1980).

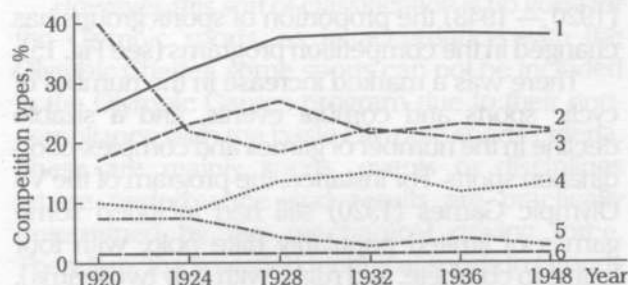


Fig. 16. Dynamics of different sports events
representation in the programs of
the Olympic Games 1920-1948:

1 — Cyclic sports; 2 — Combat events; 3 — Complex-coordination sports; 4 — Speed-power sports;
5 — Games; 6 — Combination Sports

Table 30
Sports of different groups in the Olympic Games programs
of 1952 — 1996 with their share in %

Sports groups	1952	1956	1960	1964	1968	1972	1976	1980	1984	1988	1992	1996
Cyclic	52 34.9 %	58 35.6 %	57 37.5 %	61 37.3 %	72 41.9 %	75 38.5 %	81 40.9 %	80 39.4 %	86 38.9 %	93 39.3 %	94 36.6 %	100 36.9 %
Speed/power	21 14.1 %	23 14.1 %	21 13.8 %	21 12.9 %	21 12.2 %	23 11.8 %	23 11.6 %	23 11.3 %	23 10.5 %	23 9.7 %	23 8.9 %	24 8.9 %
Complex-coordination	38 25.5 %	41 25.7 %	36 23.7 %	36 22.1 %	37 21.5 %	44 22.5 %	40 20.2 %	39 19.2 %	60 22.6 %	52 21.9 %	58 22.6 %	60 22.1 %
Combat events	31 20.8 %	34 20.9 %	31 20.4 %	35 21.5 %	32 18.6 %	42 21.5 %	41 20.8 %	47 23.2 %	48 21.7 %	47 19.8 %	55 21.9 %	56 20.7 %
Games	4 2.7 %	4 2.5 %	4 2.6 %	6 3.7 %	6 3.5 %	7 3.7 %	9 4.5 %	10 4.9 %	10 4.5 %	18 7.6 %	23 8.9 %	28 10.3 %
Combination	3 2.0 %	3 1.8 %	3 2.0 %	4 2.5 %	4 2.3 %	4 2.0 %	4 2.0 %	4 2.0 %	4 1.8 %	4 1.7 %	4 1.6 %	3 1.1 %
Total	149	163	163	163	172	195	198	203	221	237	257	271

One should not overlook the latest trend to introduce more events for women athletes and spectacular events in the Olympic program. For instance, at the XXV Olympic Games in Barcelona (1992) new women events were introduced in the individual cycling pursuit, judo (seven categories), individual and pair badminton, etc. In addition, Atlanta Olympics will stage such competitions for female athletes as team race and time trial in cycling, a mountain-bike cross country race, team events in and synchronized swimming, individual

and team events in the foil, and a triple jump. More newcomers in female events there will be soccer, beach volleyball and modern pentathlon.

Recent developments in the Olympic program, such as emergence of tennis, badminton, table tennis, beach volleyball, kayaking slalom, etc., changes in the cycling program (introduction of the group race, individual time trial, withdrawal of the team race), more events in trap shooting, an absolute category in judo, etc. are all clear indicators of the striving by the IOC and IFs to offer more

Table 31
Sport Groups in the Program of the XXVI Olympic Games in 1996

Sports	Number of events					New events	Discontinued events
	total	men	women	joint	mixed		
Cyclic	100	56	44	—	—	Track cycling: team race (men), team race (women); Road cycling: individual time trial (men), individual time trial (women), mountain bike cross country (men and women)	Cycling: team road race (men)
Complex-coordination	60	32	22	6	—	Shooting: double-trap (men and women), 30-meter running target (men); Synchronized swimming: group event; Rhythmic all-round: team exercises	Synchronized swimming: solo and duet events
Combat sports	56	45	11	—	—	Judo: absolute category (men), absolute category (women); Fencing: individual foil (women), team foil (women)	
Speed-power	24	18	6	—	—	Track and field: triple jump (women)	
Games	28	14	13	—	1	Beach volleyball (men, women); Soccer (women); Badminton (mixed)	
Combination sports	3	2	1	—	—	Modern pentathlon: individual and team events (women)	
Total	271	169	100	6	1		

Table 32
Track and field events in
the Olympic Games program

Sport disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
Running	100 m	100 m
	200 m	200 m
	400 m	400 m
	800 m	800 m
	1,500 m	1,000 m
	5,000 m	3,000 m
	10,000 m	10,000 m
	marathon	marathon
Relays	4 x 100 m	4 x 100 m
	4 x 400 m	4 x 400 m
Hurdles	100 m	100 m
	400 m	400 m
Steeplechase	3,000 m	—
Walk	20,000 m	10,000 m
	50,000 m	
High Jump	+	+
Long Jump	+	+
Pole Vault	+	—
Triple Jump	+	+
Shot Put	+	+
Javelin	+	+
Discus	+	+
Hammer	+	—
Combination sports	Decathlon	Pentathlon

events, which draw enthusiastic support from spectators and are attractive for the mass media.

Cyclic sports carry the most awards — 100 (36.2 %), followed by complex-coordination sports (61 sets of awards, 22.2 %), combat sports (58 and 21.0 %), games (27 and 9.8 %, respectively), speed-power sports (24 and 8.7 %), and combination sports (6 and 2.2 %). Besides, the share of female participation has increased dramatically in the award distribution: 100 sets of medals are put up in female events, six sets in events where men and women are eligible, and one set in a mixed event (see Table 31).

Following is a brief characteristics of sports, events and disciplines on the program of the XXVI Olympic Games of 1996 in Atlanta, Georgia.

Track and field. Ever since 1896, Olympic medals are awarded in 44 track and field events (24 for men and 20 for women), as shown in Table 32. Twenty eight sets of medals are awarded in cyclic events like running and walking (63.6 % of the total number of awards), fourteen sets of awards in

speed-power sport events (31.8 %), and two sets in combined events (4.5 %) (see Table 32).

The International Amateur Athletic Federation (I.A.A.F.) and a number of national federations are discussing the possibility of introducing changes in the track and field program. In particular, it was suggested to introduce the 200-meter hurdles and hammer throw for women, discarding the 10,000-meter running and the 10-kilometer walk, etc.

Swimming. Swimming has been part of the Olympic program since 1896, swimming events for women athletes having been introduced for the first time in modern Olympic history in 1912. To date, it is a second medal-intensive sport: 32 sets of awards (16 each for male and female athletes) are contested at the Olympic Games in six swimming events (see Table 33).

The International Swimming Federation (F.I.N.A.) and a number of national swimming federations are thinking about expanding the Olympic program through introduction of 50-meter distances in all swimming events, as well as the 25-kilometer swimming marathon.

The leading swimming nations to date are China, the USA, Germany, Russia, Hungary and Australia.

Rowing. Rowing for men started its Olympic history in 1900, and female rowing was introduced in 1976. In eight rowing events to date fourteen sets of Olympic medals are awarded (eight sets for men and six sets for women), as shown in Table 34.

Several national federations, particularly from Latin America and Asia, suggest that there should be

Table 33
Swimming in the Olympic Games Program

Sport disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
Freestyle	50 m	50 m
	100 m	100 m
	200 m	200 m
	400 m	400 m
	1,500 m	800 m
Backstroke	100 m	100 m
	200 m	200 m
Breaststroke	100 m	100 m
	200 m	200 m
Butterfly	100 m	100 m
	200 m	200 m
Medley	200 m	200 m
	400 m	400 m
Relays	4 x 100 m freestyle	4 x 100 m freestyle
	4 x 200 m freestyle	4 x 200 m freestyle
	4 x 100 m medley	4 x 100 m medley

Table 34
Rowing in the Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
Single Sculls	2	2
Pair-Oared Shell Without Coxswain	2	—
Pair-Oared Shell With Coxswain	2	2
Double Sculls	2	2
Quadruple Sculls	2	2
Four-Oared Shell With Coxswain	2	2
Four-Oared Shell Without Coxswain	2	—
Eight-Oared Shell With Coxswain	2	2

a limit to the athletes weight in some vessel types (57 kg for women and 70 kg for men) in order to avoid a situation where some countries may go out of contention in rowing due to the ethnic peculiarities of the local morphotype. Two new classes are likely to be introduced (for men to start with) for "light-weight" athletes, the two-men pair and the four, both with a coxswain, instead of the four and the two with a coxswain, which normally have a crew of tall and heavy athletes. A possible change is further being discussed to introduce a 1,000-meter distance instead of the 2,000-meter in this sport.

Canoeing. Canoeing has been part of the Olympic program since 1936. To date there are twelve sets of medals (nine for men and three for women) in five canoeing events (see Table 35).

The International Federation of Rowing Societies (F.I.S.A.) is putting forward a suggestion to expand the program by adding a 200-meter sprint event in canoeing or, which is more realistic, to introduce the instead of the less popular 1,000-meter race.

Cycling. Cycling had been a major part of the Olympic program already at the Games of the First Olympiad in 1896, with the 333.3-meter trial, the 2,000-meter scratch, the 10- and 100-km road race, the 12-hour race, and the 87-km team road race. The cycling program of the Olympic Games in 1896 — 1924 had lacked stability: sometimes it contained only track races (1900, 1904), and at other times there were only road races (1912). The contemporary procedure of cycling competitions had started to take shape since the Games of 1928, so that to date the program includes both track and road events.

Track medals are awarded in eight disciplines (five men's and three women's ones) in five events.

In road races there are six sets of medals to be won (three apiece for men and women) in three events (see Table 36).

Table 35
Canoeing in the Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
Kayak Singles	500 m; 1,000 m	500 m —
Kayak Pairs	500 m; 1,000 m	500 m —
Kayak Fours	1,000 m	500 m
Canadian Singles	500 m; 1,000 m	— —
Canadian Pairs	500 m; 1,000 m	— —

So far there are no suggestion of major changes in the Olympic cycling program. Due to insufficient interest for spectators and a great number of participants, the team road race has been dropped, and instead the program included the individual time trial and the cycling cross. The International union of Cyclists (U.C.I.) and many national federations believe this cycling program is likely to attract more spectators and ensure more commercial interest to road races.

Gymnastics. Gymnastics has been part of the competition programs of all Games of modern Olympiads. At the I — IV Games the program of gymnastics all-round competition had included some events of track and field (for instance, pole vault, rope climbing, shot put) and weightlifting.

The present-day program, suggested by the International Federation of Gymnastics (F.I.G.) and approved by the IOC in 1973, is made up of nine disciplines (see Table 37) and 14 events (eight men's and six women's ones). In contrast to many other sports, gymnastics enjoys a stable competition program.

Table 36
Cycling in the Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
<i>Track events</i>		
Scratch	+	+
1,000-meter time trial	+	—
4,000-meter individual pursuit	+	+
4,000-meter team pursuit	+	—
Team track race	+	+
<i>Road events</i>		
Individual race (group)	+	+
Individual time trial	+	+
Mountain bike cross country	+	+

Table 37
Gymnastics in the Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
Team combined event	+	+
All-round	+	+
Floor exercises	+	+
Long horse vault	+	+
Parallel bars	+	+
Horizontal bar	+	—
Side Horse	+	—
Rings	+	—
Balance beam	—	+

Shooting. Except for the Games of 1904 and 1928, bullet shooting has been part of all Olympic Games since 1896. Presently this sport carries twelve sets of awards (eight for men and four for women) in nine events (see Table 38).

The International Union of Shooters (U.I.T.) is discussing a possible substitution of pneumatic weapons for combat rifles and pistols for the sake of safety and for ecological reasons.

Trap Shooting. This sport has been included in the Olympic program since 1904 (except for the Games of 1908 and 1928 — 1948). There are three men's events (round stand, ditch stand, double-trap) and one women's event (double-trap).

Archery. This sport had appeared at the Olympic Games first in 1900 — 1908 and in 1920, i.e. during the period when the Games program had been determined by the Organizing Committee of the Games and by national federations of the host countries. Archery resumed to be held at the Olympic Games starting from the Games of 1972.

Table 39
Yachting in the Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines, Yachting Classes	Events	
	Men	Women
470	+	+
Windglider	+	+
Finn	+	—
Star	+	—
Soling	+	—
Tornado	+	—
Flying Dutchman	+	—
Europe	—	+

Table 38
Shooting in the Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
Small-bore rifle, three positions	+	+
Small-bore rifle, prone	+	+
Small-bore pistol	+	—
Air rifle	+	+
Air pistol	+	+
Rapid-fire pistol	+	—
Free pistol	—	+
Moving target (60 shots)	+	—
Moving target (30 shots)	+	—

Today athletes compete in four archery events: the men's and women's individual and team events.

Equestrian. Except for the Games of 1904, equestrian has been part of the Olympic program since 1900. In 1900 the equestrian program included individual hurdles, high and long jumps; since 1912 there had been individual and team triathlon, individual dressage, team hurdles; team dressage had been added since 1928; polo had been included in the program in 1900, 1908, 1920, 1924 and 1936; and figure riding in 1920.

The present-day equestrian program of the Olympic Games includes six events and six disciplines (where men and women compete together): individual dressage, team dressage, individual hurdles, team hurdles, individual triathlon, team triathlon. The equestrian program has been fairly stable.

Yachting. Yachting had been canceled at the first Olympic Games in 1896 due to bad weather, so this sport has been included in the Olympic program since 1900 (except for 1904).

Presently, the program includes 10 disciplines (seven for men and three for women) in eight yachting events (see Table 39).

The yachting Olympic program has been changed many times, so that it had started to take present shape as late as the 1960s. At the 1992 Games in Barcelona this program was expanded by adding two new events for women (the sail boat and 'Europe').

Kayak slalom. This sport had been first included in the Olympic program as a demonstration in 1972. To date, athletes compete in four disciplines of four events (see Table 40).

Discussions are going on now about dropping kayak slalom and substituting it with a 1,000-meter downhill event instead.

Diving. Part of the Olympic program since 1904 (female diving since 1912), the diving program today includes two events (platform diving and springboard diving) and four disciplines (two each for men and women). Diving has had a stable program of late.

Synchronized swimming. This sport was included in the Olympic Games program in 1984.

Medals awarded in one event only — group synchronized swimming. The individual and pair events have now been excluded from the program.

Rhythmic gymnastics. Part of the Olympic program since 1988.

Medals are awarded in two women's events, individual all-round and group exercises. The latter will have an Olympic debut in Atlanta in 1996, and the former having been the only event of this sport in 1992 in Barcelona.

Free-style wrestling had been included in the Olympic program in 1904. Olympic medals are awarded in ten events (weight categories):

I — up to 48 kg, II — 52 kg, III — 57 kg, IV — 62 kg, V — 68 kg, VI — 74 kg, VII — 82 kg, VIII — 90 kg, IX — 100 kg, X — 130 kg.

According to the decision of FILA, new weight categories have been introduced since 01.01.1997:

I — 48 — 52 kg, II — 58 kg, III — 63 kg, IV — 69 kg, V — 76 kg, VI — 85 kg, VII — 97 kg, VIII — 97 — 125 kg.

There are suggestions to include in the program six events for female wrestlers:

I — 41 — 46 kg, II — 51 kg, III — 56 kg, IV — 62 kg, V — 68 kg, VI — 68 — 75 kg.

Greco-Roman wrestling has been among the mainstays of the Olympic program ever since the very first modern Olympics of 1896. Olympic medals are awarded in ten events (weight categories):

I — up to 48 kg, II — 52 kg, III — 57 kg, IV — 62 kg, V — 68 kg, VI — 74 kg, VII — 82 kg, VIII — 90 kg, IX — 100 kg, X — 130 kg.

Table 41
Judo in the Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Events	
	Men, kg	Women, kg
Weight class	60	48
Weight class	65	52
Weight class	71	56
Weight class	78	61
Weight class	86	66
Weight class	95	72
Absolute (open) class	over 95	over 72

Table 40
Kayak Slalom in the Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
Kayak singles	—	+
Kayak doubles	+	—
Canadian singles	+	—
Canadian doubles	+	—

According to the decision of FILA, new weight categories have been introduced since 01.01.1997:

I — 48 — 52 kg, II — 58 kg, III — 63 kg, IV — 69 kg, V — 76 kg, VI — 85 kg, VII — 97 kg, VIII — 97 — 125 kg.

The IOC has recently discussed a possible lifting of this sport from the Olympic program for lack of popularity with spectators. So far it has been decided to leave Greco-Roman wrestling among the Olympic sports program.

Judo has been part of the Olympic program since 1964, except for the Games of 1968.

Presently, medals are awarded in 16 judo events (eight men's and eight women's weight categories), as shown in Table 41.

Boxing has been a regular item on the Olympic program since 1904, except for 1912. Men athletes fight it out for Olympic awards in twelve weight categories: 48 kg, 51 kg, 54 kg, 57 kg, 60 kg, 63.5 kg, 67 kg, 71 kg, 75 kg, 81 kg, 91 kg, and over 91 kg.

The IOC Medical Committee has lately initiated a heated discussion whether or not to drop boxing from the program of the Olympic Games as a sport harmful for the athletes' health. So far, however, boxing remains part of the Olympic program.

Fencing. Individual foil and saber events had been contested at the First Modern Olympic Games in 1896, followed by the inclusion of the individual epee in 1900.

Table 42
Fencing in the Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
Individual foil	+	+
Team foil	+	+
Individual epee	+	+
Team epee	+	+
Individual saber	+	—
Team saber	+	—

Table 43
Badminton in the Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Events		
	Men	Women	Mixed
Singles	+	+	
Doubles	+	+	+

As shown in Table 42, the present fencing program of the Olympic Games includes 10 events (six men's and four women's events).

Changes of this program at the 1996 Olympic Games include adding two new events (women's epee), cutting down the duration of the fencing competition (six days' program instead of eleven days') and the number of athletes on teams (three instead of five).

Weightlifting has been part of the Olympic program since 1896 (except for the Games of 1900, 1908 and 1912).

To date, Olympic medals are awarded in 10 weightlifting categories: 54 kg, 59 kg, 64 kg, 70 kg, 76 kg, 83 kg, 91 kg, 99 kg, 108 kg, above 108 kg. The winner is determined by the sum of the two movements (the two-arm snatch and jerk).

With more and more women athletes going in for weightlifting, there have been more suggestions to include female weightlifting in the Olympic Games program.

Badminton made its Olympic debut in 1992 in Barcelona. There are five sets of medals awarded at the Olympic Games to date: two men's, two women's and one mixed badminton events (see Table 43).

Basketball had been included in the Olympic program in 1936 (tournament for men's teams), followed by women's basketball entering the Olympic Games program in 1976. Accordingly, two sets of Olympic medals are awarded to men's and women's teams.

Baseball. Included in the Olympic program in 1988, baseball is played by men's teams, the winners awarded the Olympic gold, silver and bronze medals.

Water polo has been on the program of the Olympic Games since 1900, with one set of awards being contested by men.

The IOC is contemplating the exclusion of water polo from the Olympic program as a game with insufficient popularity in the world.

Volleyball has been played by teams of men and women since the Olympic Games of 1964.

Handball. The eleven-a-side handball had been played at the 1936 Olympic Games. The seven-a-side handball for men was introduced in the Olympic program in 1972, followed by women's handball competition in 1976.

Accordingly, two sets of awards are contested at the modern Olympic Games.

Tennis had been played at the Olympic Games since 1896 (men's individual event), the women's individual event being added in 1900. Following the Paris Games of 1924, tennis was excluded from the Olympic competition program as a professional game. Tennis regained Olympic recognition at the 79th IOC Session in Prague in 1977, when the International Tennis Federation (I.T.F.) was recognized as the governing body of the game. Tennis was readmitted to the Olympic Games program in 1988, following a change of the IOC attitude to matters of professional sport.

Presently, there are two men's and two women's tennis events (individual and pairs).

Table tennis was included in the Olympic program in 1988. To date athletes compete in two men's and two women's table tennis events (individual and pairs).

The International Table Tennis Federation (I.T.T.F.) is currently suggesting to add mixed pairs to the Olympic table tennis program.

Soccer. Men had contested in the Olympic soccer tournaments since 1900 (except for the Games of 1932).

In the latest development, the International Football Associations Federation (FIFA) has succeeded in securing the IOC support to include women's soccer in the program of the Olympic Games, starting in 1996.

Hockey. Men's hockey teams have been competing at the Olympic Games since 1908 (except for the Games of 1912 and 1924). And women's teams made their Olympic debut in 1980.

Modern pentathlon emerged among the Olympic sports program in 1912 as army officers' training basic events (dressage, fencing, shooting, swimming and running). Until 1992 men had contested in individual and team modern pentathlon competitions. In 1996 Atlanta Olympics only individual competitions were held.

Sports in the Program of Winter Olympic Games

The first Winter Olympic Games were staged after the IOC and IFs had developed the fundamental principles of making up the program of Olympic competitions. Accordingly, the Winter Olympic Games were spared the chaos of the first few modern Games programs, which had been formed by the host cities, practically with no participation of the IOC or IFs.

The program of even the very first Winter Olympic Games included only the most popular and sufficiently widely practiced sports, like bobsled (nine crews from five countries); Nordic skiing (from 27 to 41 athletes in each of the event, representing 8 — 12 countries); speed skating (16 — 17 participants from 6 — 9 countries); figure skating (8 — 18 participants from 6 — 9 countries); ice hockey (eight teams from eight nations).

At various times, the Winter Olympic program included 19 sports. In addition to the 14 main winter sports in Table 44, there were also five demonstration sports at several Olympics: the ski race of military patrols at the I, II, IV and V Winter Olympic Games in 1924, 1928, 1936 and 1948; dog sled races at the III Winter Games (1932), winter pentathlon at the V Winter Games in 1948; bandy at the VI and XI Winter Olympic Games in 1952 and 1972; speed skiing at the XVI Winter Games in 1992.

The record number of events in 12 winter sports were included in the program of the Lillehammer Olympic Games in 1994 (see Table 44). By contrast, the program of the upcoming Winter Olympic Games in Nagano, Japan will include already 64 events in 13 winter sports.

The development of Winter Olympics has resulted in a significant increase of the Olympic program: compared with the first Winter Games, the number of sports has increased twofold, and the number of events has risen by more than 4.5 times.

One can point out several stages in the dynamics of change in forming the program of Winter Olympic Games.

In 1924 — 1936 the program had been relatively stable, with such items on the program as bobsled, cross country skiing, ski jumping, Nordic combined, ice hockey, speed and figure skating.

The program had undergone more active changes in the period following the end of the Second World War. The 1948 St. Moritz Winter Olympic Games saw the debut of five new winter events: four in Alpine skiing (two men's and two women's events) and one in skeleton. As a result, the program turned out to be better balanced, more varied and interesting.

The first Olympic competitions in men's biathlon and four women's speed skating events were held in 1960 at the Winter Olympic Games in Squaw Valley, USA (before that, only men competed in speed skating at the Olympics). The program of the 1964 Winter Olympic Games in Innsbruck, Austria included three Luge events for the first time (two men's and one women's events).

Several subsequent Winter Games had gone without major innovations, although the pro-

Table 44
Sport Groups and Events in the Program of XVI, XVII, VIII Winter Olympic Games (1992, 1994, 1998)

Sport groups	Events					
	1992		1994		1998	
	Qty	%	Qty	%	Qty	%
<i>Cyclic sports</i>						
Speed skating	10	17.6	10	16.4	10	15.6
Skiing	10	17.6	10	16.4	10	15.6
Short-track	4	7.0	6	9.8	6	8.4
Total	24	42.2	26	42.6	26	40.6
<i>Speed-power sports</i>						
Ski jumping	3	5.3	3	4.9	3	4.7
Total	3	5.3	3	4.9	3	4.7
<i>Complex-coordination sports</i>						
Bobsled	2	3.5	2	3.3	2	3.1
Alpine skiing	10	17.5	10	16.4	10	15.6
Luge	3	5.3	3	4.9	3	4.7
Figure skating	4	7.0	4	6.6	4	6.2
Freestyle	2	3.5	4	6.6	4	6.2
Total	21	36.8	23	37.8	23	35.8
<i>Games</i>						
Curling	—	—	—	—	2	3.1
Hockey	1	1.7	1	1.6	2	3.1
Total	1	1.7	1	1.6	4	6.2
<i>Combination sports</i>						
Biathlon	6	10.5	6	9.8	6	9.4
Nordic combination	2	3.5	2	3.3	2	3.1
Total	8	14.0	8	13.1	8	12.5

Table 45
Nordic Skiing in the Winter Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
<i>Cross country, km</i>		
5	—	+
10	+	+
15	+	+
30	+	+
50	+	—
<i>Relays, km</i>		
4 x 5	—	+
4 x 10	+	—

Table 46
Alpine Skiing in the Winter
Olympic Games Programs

Sport Disciplines	Events	
	Men	Women
Downhill	+	+
Slalom	+	+
Giant slalom	+	+
Super G	+	+
Alpine combination	+	+

gram had gradually expanded: in twenty years (1964 — 1984) the number of events had risen from 34 to 39.

As a result of the general trend for commercialism of Olympic sports in 1980's — 1990's, particularly in terms of TV coverage, more events and new sports have emerged in the Olympic program during that period. Thus, a whole eight new events (four of those in Alpine skiing) were included in the program of the Calgary Winter Games in 1988.

The most essential changes in the history of the Olympic program had probably occurred at the 1992 Olympics in Albertville, with eleven new events and three new sports (curling, short-track, freestyle) having an Olympic debut there. Except for curling, which turned out to be quite short-lived, the general number of events on the Olympic program was again on the increase, reaching 61 events in Lillehammer in 1994. The program of the Nagano Winter Olympics in 1998 will have further additions, with men's and women's curling and women's ice hockey expanding it even more. It should be noted that three sports (Nordic, Alpine skiing and speed skating) will carry about 50 % of awards, i.e. as many awards as all the other 10 sports taken together.

Here is a brief description of sports, events and disciplines represented in the programs of Lillehammer and Nagano Winter Olympic Games in 1994 and 1998, respectively.

Cross-country skiing. On the Winter Olympic program since 1924, the first being the 18- and 50-kilometer races.

The present-day program includes ten individual and relay skiing events (see Table 45).

Ski jumping has been part of the Olympic program since 1924.

Presently there are three ski jumping events on the Olympic program: individual K120 hill jumps, individual K90 hill jumps and the team jumps from K120 hill.

Nordic combined includes the K90 jumps and the 15-kilometer cross country race. Part of the Olympic program since 1924. Presently men compete for individual and team awards.

Speed skating. Men compete in this sport at the Olympic games since 1924, women joining the fray in 1960. The speed skating program includes currently ten events: 500-, 1,000-, 1,500-, 5,000- and 10,000-meter races for men; 500-, 1,000-, 1,500-, 3,000- and 5,000-meter races for women.

Short-track has a short Olympic history, having emerged quite recently, at the 1992 Olympic Games.

Olympic medals are awarded in six short-track events: the 500-, 1,000-meter races and the 5,000-meter relay (men); 500-, 1,000-meter races and the 3,000-meter relay (women).

Biathlon was first included in the Olympic program in 1960 (as a continuation of the military patrol races as demonstration events which had been staged previously in 1924, 1928, 1936 and 1948).

The biathlon program includes two disciplines (the individual race and the relay) and six events: the 10- and 20-kilometer races and the 4 x 10-kilometer relay (men) and the 7.5- and 15-kilometer races and the 4 x 7.5-kilometer relay (women).

Alpine skiing. Certain Alpine events had been put on the Olympic program as early as 1936: Alpine combination (downhill and slalom) since 1936; the combination and the two events separately since 1948; downhill, slalom and super G as separate events since 1952.

Today the program in this sport includes 10 events (5 men's and 5 women's) in five Alpine disciplines (see Table 46).

The Alpine Skiing IF and some national federations have come up with a suggestion to stage a parallel slalom as part of the Olympic program.

Freestyle has been included in the Winter Olympic Games program since 1992. At the XVII Games in Lillehammer Olympic medals were awarded in two men's and two women's events in mogul and aerials.

Table 47
Figure skating in the Winter
Olympic Games Program

Sport Disciplines	Sport event		
	Men	Women	Pairs
Singles	+	+	
Pairs			+
Ice dancing			+

Bobsled. The first four-man bobsled event had been staged at the First Winter Olympic Games in 1924.

Today, the bobsled program includes the two-man and four-man events.

Luge has been part of the Olympic program since 1964 (in 1928 and 1948 the program included skeleton instead).

Presently there are three luge events at the Olympics: one-seater luge (men and women) and two-men luge.

Figure skating. The Olympic history of figure skating begins in 1908 (singles and pairs), first in the program of the Games of Summer Olympiads, and then, since 1924, as part of the Winter Olympic Games. In 1976 the program was expanded to include ice dancing.

Presently Olympic medals are awarded in four figure skating events (men singles, women singles, pairs and ice dancing), as shown in Table 47.

Ice hockey had been first included in the program of the VII Summer Olympic Games in 1920, and has been part of Winter Olympic Games since 1924. Women will take part in the Olympic hockey tournament for the first time at the XVIII Winter Olympic Games in Nagano in 1998.

Curling had been demonstrated first in the exhibition part of the XVI Winter Olympic Games in Albertville (1992). After missing the Lillehammer Games of 1994, curling will rejoin the Olympic program in 1998 in Nagano, where two sets of medals will be awarded to winners in curling.

SYSTEM OF ATHLETIC COMPETITIONS

Competitions in Olympic Sports

Competitions in Olympic sports are the key element underpinning the whole system of organizations, training methods and preparation of athletes for high performance in competitions. Sports make no sense without contests. Accordingly, Olympic sport can largely be accounted for as an area of skills and knowledge which underlie and ensure the competitive functions and the development of competitions.

Sporting competitions represent a peculiar model of real day-to-day human relations in the world: contention, victories and losses, striving for never-ending perfection and seeking top results to achieve creative, prestigious and material gains. Competitions are used as a yardstick to measure the quality of organizational, technical and material support of athletes' training, of selection procedures and bringing up new athletes for Olympic sports, the qualifications of coaches, the efficiency of special education system, the level of research and development in sports, athletes' medicinal support, etc.

The maximum realization of athletes' and teams' potential, a comparison of the level of their fitness and preparedness, top performance and setting records are all impossible other than through competitions.

In reading special literature, one often comes across a biological-behaviorist approach to sporting contests. Adherents of this approach view competitions primarily as "specific forms of aggressiveness", "antagonistic instincts", "psychological relaxation", "a form of distraction", etc. This approach significantly detracts from the idea of sporting contests and the whole of Olympic sports, which are founded on a perfectly conscious, rather than instinctive, human activity (Ponomarev, 1987).

Rivalry during contests is to be found not only among athletes and coaches. Competition involves National Olympic Committees, national

sports federations, athlete preparation system designers and team leaders, researchers, doctors, supporting staff, vendors, sporting equipment and uniform providers, suppliers of fitness centers, diagnostics equipment, etc., as well as team supporters.

Competition of athletes is assessed in conformity with both objective criteria (the level and closeness of results, the level of contest depending on the number of proficiency of competitors, the number of spectators, mass media coverage, etc.), and subjective criteria (the opinion of athletes, spectators, specialists). Thus, rivalry is the basic type of relations in competitions. The aim of mass sports participants lies in competition per se, while Olympic sports are characterized by the specific target of winning, achieving desired result or place. High level of competition, particularly under a close scrutiny of the mass media, is an important precondition of attracting the attention of the general public (Keller, 1987).

Along with rivalry due to contradictory targets of competitors, there are also grounds to pull the efforts of athletes and specialists together, like the aims of upholding the popularity and importance of sport, sharing the expertise in training and competition schedules, sporting science results, equipment and sporting instrument designing, etc. Real life abounds in examples of goodwill and cooperation in competitions of various levels.

Sport competitions as social phenomena abide by fundamental principles applicable in any type of human activities (in labor, studies, art, etc.): openness and transparency, compatibility of results, feasibility of copying the practical experience. Openness is ensured by a variety of information and the presence of spectators, which provides for public control of athletic performance and is a means of experience exchange. Compatibility of results is ensured by competition rules, objective criteria of result registration, and equal conditions for all participants. Practical reproduction of competition experience is ensured by periodicity and

traditions of competitions, a stable calendar, selection and eligibility rules. This principle provides for stable and top performance, as well as high competitiveness of athletes.

Competitions are a powerful factor in disclosing the functional reserves of a human organism and improving technical, tactical and psychological preparedness/fitness of athletes. Therefore, competitions are viewed as a most effective and indispensable means of ensuring athletes' top form (Platonov, 1986; Suslov, 1995).

Competition Types

Sport competitions are subdivided into various types depending on their goal, objectives, organization forms and the field of competitors.

Major international competitions, which crown lengthy stages of training, are to assess the level of athletes preparedness and the quality of training systems. Competitions of other types may be aimed at selecting athletes to participate in major competitions, being a reliable means of improving various aspects of athletic fitness and readiness.

Here are principal types of competitions: preparatory, test, simulation, trial/selection and major competitions.

Preparatory competitions. The basic objectives of this type of competitions are as follows: improving and rationalizing the techniques and tactics of athletes in competitions; adapting various functional systems of the organism to competitive efforts and strains, etc. In the process of preparatory competitions, athletes improve their competitive fitness and gain competitive practice.

Test competitions. These are held to control the level of athletes' preparedness, to check out the techniques, tactics, movement dynamics, psychological readiness for competitive efforts. The results of test competitions help adjust the training schedule and procedure. Test competitions may be those held expressly for this purpose or even official competitions of various levels.

Simulation competitions. The main objective of this type of competition is to prepare athletes for major competitions of a macro cycle, like the central event of the year or of a four-year period. This purpose may be served both by simulation competitions proper and official calendar competitions. They are called to simulate, in part or completely, the upcoming major competitions.

Trial/selection competitions. These are meant to select athletes for national teams and to compete in individual events at major competitions. The peculiar feature of competitions of this type are selection criteria: to win a specific place or to

Table 48
Maximum Days of Official Competitions and Starts¹
by Elite Athletes Within a Year Cycle

Sports or Events	Number of Days	Number of Starts
Gymnastics	20 — 30	150 — 200
Diving	20 — 30	250 — 320
Fencing	30 — 40	415 — 480
High jump	35 — 45	120 — 180
Long jump	35 — 45	120 — 180
Hammer	35 — 45	120 — 180
Sprint (100 and 200 meters)	22 — 26	28 — 32
Running (800 and 1,500 meters)	20 — 25	20 — 25
Long distance running (5,000 and 10,000 meters)	15 — 20	15 — 20
Marathon	4 — 6	4 — 6
Soccer	70 — 85	70 — 85
Table tennis	77 — 80	380 — 420
Water polo	70 — 85	70 — 85
Handball	70 — 80	70 — 80
Free style wrestling	30 — 40	50 — 70
Greco-Roman wrestling	30 — 40	50 — 70
Boxing	22 — 30	22 — 30
Weightlifting	10 — 12	50 — 77
Alpine skiing	30 — 40	30 — 40
Biathlon	25 — 30	25 — 30
Cross country	30 — 40	30 — 40
Speed skating	40 — 45	40 — 50

show a predetermined result, which is a valid proof of an athlete having a chance of making it into the top flight at major competitions. Selection competitions may be in the form of an official event or a special trial.

Major competitions. These are those competitions where an athlete is to strike top form within the given preparation period. It is at such major competitions that athletes should be able to produce the maximum mobilization of their technical and tactical skills and functional abilities, to set for themselves the highest possible targets and to demonstrate the top level of psychological readiness to achieve those targets.

Naturally, in Olympic sports such major competitions are seen to be the Games of Olympiads, Winter Olympic Games, world championships, major continental and regional competitions, as well as such complex major competitions as World Universiads.

¹ Starts are defined as participation in a heat, a round, a bout, a try in gymnastics, wrestling, boxing, jumps, weightlifting, a soccer match, etc.

Starts	Competition types				
	Athlete specialization				
	Sprint (50 and 100 m)	Medium distances (200 — 400 m)		Long distances (800 and 1,500 m)	
		extra	main	extra	main
Total number of starts	90 — 110/ 90 — 100 ¹	50 — 60/ 30 — 40	40 — 60/ 40 — 50	35 — 50/ 30 — 40	20 — 25/ 20 — 25
Preparatory, test and simulation competitions	70 — 80/ 60 — 70	50 — 60/ 30 — 40	30 — 35/ 30 — 40	35 — 50/ 30 — 40	12 — 15/ 12 — 15
Selection trials	10 — 15/ 10 — 15	—	6 — 8/ 4 — 6	—	3 — 5/ 3 — 5
Major competitions	10 — 15/ 10 — 15	—	6 — 8/ 4 — 6	—	4 — 6/ 4 — 6

Table 49
Number of Starts
a Year of Elite
Swimmers
in Various
Competitions

The volumes of competitive activities in various Olympic sports are shown in Table 48.

The number of starts in competitions of various types differs greatly. The most starts can be expected in preparatory, test and simulation competitions (see Table 49 and 50).

Regulations and Ways to Stage Competitions

Athletic competitions are regulated by sets of rules, which are specific for every sport. Rules are laid down for the organization of competition in each sport; sport events and rules of staging competitions in those events; requirements to the competition venues, equipment and tools; the composition of the competition jury and its obligations; rules of refereeing; rules of athletes' conduct and activities, etc.

Competition rules clarify various points distinctly and objectively, diminishing as much as possible the impact of external factors on the outcome of

competitions. However, despite the fact that many items of the rules deal with objectively quantifiable parameters (the duration of games, bouts, rounds, the time of appearing on the start line, the intervals between tries, etc.), much remains dependent on the qualification and meticulousness of judges and referees. There is little room for subjectivity in quantifiable events and sports, like swimming, track and field, shooting, etc. But in games, complex-coordination sports and combat events the subjective assessment by referees and their abilities to comply to the requirements of rules proves to be decisive for objective placing of contestants in the final list of competitions.

International Sport Federations continuously work to improve the rules of competitions, trying to make possibly objective the system of determining competition results and attracting more interest to their sport on the part of the public and the mass media.

The fundamental document determining the conditions of holding specific competitions, is the Regulation of Competitions. The responsibility for

Table 50
Number of Starts a Year of Elite Men Cyclists in Various Competitions

Number of starts	Sport Events									
	Scratch		1,000-meter time trial		Individual and team track race (4 km)		Individual time road race		Individual road race (common start)	
	extra	main	extra	main	extra	main	extra	main	extra	main
Total starts	40—50	150—160	100—120	4—5	90—100	30—35	90—95	10—15	8—12	102—108
Preparatory, test, simulation	40—50	128—134	100—120	2—3	90—100	22—28	87—92	7—12	8—12	99—105
Selection trials	—	8—16	—	1	—	2—8	2	2	—	2
Major competitions	—	8—16	—	1	—	2—8	1	1	—	2

¹ Men/Women

elaborating the Regulation and its timely dissemination among the interested parties is vested with the organizers of the given competition.

The Regulation is to define the following items: the name of the competition (classification, championships, etc.); the goal and objectives of the competition (a test of training schedule quality, determination of results, sharing practical experience, etc.); eligibility (age limit, qualification, place of residence, membership of the NOC or a sport society, etc.); nature of competitions (individual, team, individual/team); place and date of the competition; the calendar and day-to-day schedule; competition requirements, ways of determining results; the number of participants; method of determining winners; the uniforms, equipment and tools used by athletes; award ceremony; terms of accommodation of athletes and judges (organizers liabilities); documents for athletes to fill out to be eligible; the format of the official entry application and the deadline for its submission, etc.

The Regulation of competitions is particularly important as it determines, in a way, the development of sport. Thus, making eligible to compete only top athletes would certainly result in a decrease of the mass base of the given sport, which, in due course, will have a negative impact on the elite sport. The broader inclusion of athletes of various qualification, age and different genders is good for sport: more athletes are involved, from various demographic groups; accordingly, this calls for more coaches of various qualifications to work with kids, youth and adults, newcomers and seasoned athletes, etc.; further development of material and technical foundation of sport, etc.

In Olympic sports there are various methods of organizing competitions, depending on the peculiarities of a particular sport and its traditions; the objectives of the competition; the number of participants and the venue; the jury qualifications and the time allotted for the competition, etc.

Most sports hold competitions according to one of the following most frequently used organization principles: round robin, elimination/round robin, mixed and elimination.

Round robin. This method requires that every participant (athletes or teams) engage all others one by one, the results of each encounter (wins, losses and draws in certain amount points) are summed up to be used as a yardstick to place the athletes or teams in the final ranking. The winner is the participant/participants with the highest number of points.

Under this system, though, there often occur cases when two or more athletes or teams notch

the same amount of points. Then the advantage is determined by the regulation of the competition. The criterion can be one of the following: the advantage in personal encounters of the tied-in participants; the higher number of wins; a better ratio of hits given and conceded (in fencing), a better ratio of goals for and against (in soccer), of points scored and conceded (in basketball, wrestling, etc.); and others. The regulation can also provide for an additional match/bout in case of a split result.

Elimination/round robin principle. Under this system the participants (athletes or teams) are first divided into preliminary groups, where each meets each other one by one. Following that, the top participants (in most sports these are the top one, two or three, but not more than half the original number) pass on to the next stage of the competition. They are again grouped to engage in the round robin and/or elimination procedure, until the final match/bout/round to determine the winner(s).

With a sufficient number of participants, athletes or teams gain competition experience through the elimination/round robin procedure (particularly in the round robin stage). Moreover, this system proves an objective method to determine the best athletes and teams.

Mixed principle. Under this system, all participants first undergo one, two or three round robin stages, with a dice deciding adversaries in the subsequent elimination matches/bouts. The number of finalists and the number of preliminary stage winners are determined by the regulation of the competition. In the finals, the round robin principle is normally used.

As a possible alternative, athletes/teams are engaged in direct elimination following the preliminary matches in groups.

A similar system of competition is the playoffs, popular in the USA and in many European countries. At the first stage teams play each other in their leagues or groups. At the second stage the winners of the first stage (their number is determined by the Regulation for each league or group) meet with each other in two or more rounds. Then, at the third stage, there comes the turn of quarterfinal playoffs, where the loser is eliminated after each series (for instance, the team placed first takes on the last team, etc.). Usually teams at this stage meet from two to four times. After this series, the winners hold semifinal matches (or series) to determine the two teams to play in the finals. The rest of the places are played out in the same way. The popularity of this system and the wide area where it is in use over the recent years, can be accounted for by the successful attempts to make

the games exceedingly unpredictable and tough, which attracts the attention of TV channels, lotteries and wager organizers for commercial reasons.

The objectivity of determining winners under the mixed system of competitions largely depends on the outcome of the draw. The best way to guarantee objectivity is to seed athletes or teams in preliminary groups depending on their ranking as a result of the previous competitions.

Direct elimination principle. Under this system, the athlete or team to have lost a match/bout is immediately eliminated.

Additional matches are possible under this system, when losers fight it out for the right to continue in contention. Another alternative is for participants to be eliminated after two defeats, instead of one as above. The drawback of the direct elimination system is that, because of an unfortunate draw, strong competitors can be eliminated, while weaklings, being paired together, go through to the next round. The remedy, once again, seems to be the preliminary seeding of participants to ensure an impartial but objective pairing of adversaries at the initial stage.

Whatever the competition principle, any competition can include two stages: preliminary rounds and the finals. Depending on the field of participants, intermediary stages are possible between the preliminary rounds and the finals, in the form of the second round, quarterfinals, and semifinals.

Competitions in track and field, weightlifting, swimming and some other sports can be held in two stages: the qualifying and the principal ones. First, athletes are to qualify for the principal stage by achieving the qualification requirement, as established in advance. Only those who met that normative requirement are eligible to compete for awards in the next stage.

Competitions can include individual, team and individual/team events.

In individual competitions the objective is to determine places of all participants, as well as winners and medalists.

In individual/team competitions placings are determined of competing teams, in addition to places of individual athletes. A peculiar feature of this type of competition is that in individual/team competitions all participants contest each other, even those from one team.

In team competitions the objective is only to determine the places of competing teams. In contrast to individual/team competitions, here athletes of one team compete only with members of other teams.

In sport games (soccer, basketball, volleyball, etc.) and in rowing (except for singles), only teams

compete. In other sports there may be all types of competition: individual, individual/team and team competitions.

Determination of Competition Results

According to the way of determining results of athletes' performance, competitions can be broken into four groups:

1. Sports with objective means of metric measuring the competitors' results.

2. Sports where results are determined according to symbolic units (points, etc.) awarded for performing a specific program of competitions.

3. Sports where results are determined by the final effect (impact) or by the advantage in the number of symbolic units (points, etc.) for actions under variable circumstances.

4. Combination sports (Keller, Platonov, 1993).

Group One includes sports in which results can be measured by time, distance, the weight of tools, and accuracy. It is such sports as follows:

- sports with relatively stable competition circumstances: track and field events, swimming, weightlifting, track cycling, shooting, speed skating, etc.

Competitions in these sports are held on standard grounds (stadiums, swimming pools, halls, shooting ranges, etc.) with relatively permanent external conditions;

- sports with variable competition circumstances: Nordic and Alpine skiing, yachting, cycling (road races), etc. With varying track profiles and changing external conditions, athletes are required to be ready for such changes, taking this peculiarity into account in their training on the eve of the competitions.

Competitive activities of athletes in these sports are peculiar in that athletes are aware beforehand of their objective and potential results, as well as those of their future competitors. Naturally, apprehending (at least approximately) possible results, athletes and their coaches can try and plan their future achievement and select competitive tactics accordingly.

Group Three includes sports where results are assessed subjectively by referees in symbolic units, being guided by the external impression of accuracy, complexity and beauty of athletic performance. These are such sports as:

- gymnastics and rhythmic all-round, acrobatics, diving, synchronized swimming, etc.;
- ski jumping, figure skating, etc.

The overall result in ski jumping is determined not only by the distance covered in flight, but also

by the assessment of the beauty of the jump. In figure skating the final result is determined both by the sum total of the points earned and by the artistic impression as expressed in the sum total of places given by referees in separate events.

Group Three is made up of the following three subgroups:

- sports where the final result is determined by the number of points/goals scored within the complete playing time allowed (like in soccer, hockey, basketball, handball, etc.);
- wrestling, boxing and fencing as sports where, although there is a specific time allowed, athlete can win before the time runs out in two situations: 1) a successful action which carries the so-called 'clear' victory (a knock-out in boxing, a 'clear' win like a touch in wrestling); or 2) victory declared at the moment of an athlete having achieved a specific number of points ahead of the time limit (like in fencing);
- sports where victory is achieved by meeting the specific goal, without a time limit (tennis, table tennis, volleyball, etc.).

Group Four includes combination sports, like modern pentathlon, biathlon, Nordic combined, decathlon, etc.

Peculiarity of the competitive activity in sports of Group Four is that a deficiency in one event can be compensated for by a success in another one, and the winner is the one who has an advantage in the overall count based on a particular success in the favorable events of the combination.

It takes a special analysis of specificity of the combination components, developing special tactics to take advantage of the individual merits of every athlete, etc. Biathlon stands apart in this group, because the competitions in the two events (cross country and shooting) are held concurrently, which makes this sport particularly difficult and complicates the tasks of participants.

Competition Circumstances, Which Have an Impact on Competitors

Competitive activities of athletes can be influenced by the following circumstances: peculiarities of the venue; spectator conduct; competition tools and equipment; geographic locality of the competition venue; refereeing; the actions of coaches, etc.

Let us analyze each of these circumstances:

Venue Peculiarities. The place of competition is getting all the more important, taking into account the increased popularity of sport in the world and stiffer competition in most sports. The tactics in games, such as soccer, basketball, handball, ice

hockey, volleyball, largely depend on whether the upcoming game is to be played home or away. In some soccer two-round tournaments, for example, in case of equal number of points the winner is the team which scored more away goals (one away goal in this situation is worth two scored at home). Naturally, this calls for special strategy and particular game tactics.

The factor of whether or not the competition is to be held away or at home, is acquiring more importance in other sports, too, and for various reasons, as will be discussed further.

Spectator Conduct. The conduct of spectators creates the psychological backdrop of the competition. Indeed, the reaction of spectators, even within the bounds of ethics, has an impact on athletes by creating a friendly or hostile atmosphere during competitions.

Competition Equipment and Tools. In determining the tactics for competitions and undertaking pre-start training, one should be governed by the quality of the court surface (which may be artificial, wooden, natural, etc.); the time of day (morning, afternoon, evening); the competition schedule (regular, unusual); lighting (artificial, natural, placement of floodlights); the quality of the equipment and tools (modern, obsolete, standard, customized); the quality of lockers and facilities (comfortable, uncomfortable); the distance from the hotel to the venue; availability and quality of recreation facilities, etc.

As proved by the practical experience, the improvements in the level of results achieved in most Olympic sports of late are accounted for by the implementation of sophisticated, state-of-the-art tools and equipment as much as by the arrival of young talented performers and rational training schedules. New equipment and tools can effect substantial changes in the structure of athletes' competitive activities, their strategy and tactics, the system of training and preparation. This trend is best seen in cycling, gymnastics, track and field (pole vault, javelin throwing), Alpine skiing, ski jumping, bobsled, luge, etc.

Geographic and Climatic Conditions. Geographic and climatic conditions must necessarily be taken into account when planning competitive activities. Thus, a successful performance in competing at medium altitudes is impossible without special account of the impact of hypoxia on the organism of athletes. Equally important is to pay attention to adapting the functional systems of athletes to the high temperatures and excessive humidity at the competition venue. Different time zones take a toll of the usual rhythm of movement and vegetative functions of athletes, which needs a special emphasis in training and during competi-

tions. This must always be a matter of coach concern. Thus, at the Atlanta Olympics in 1996, athletes will face heat and high humidity on top of the time difference.

Refereeing. Competition organizers are obliged to ensure qualified and objective refereeing. Yet, as any other human activity, refereeing is also subjective in part. Qualification of judges and referees may differ, too. Unfortunately, there have been precedents of willfully subjective refereeing at international competitions, particularly for political, ideological or commercial ends. Therefore, although not a particularly tough problem in metrically measured sports (Group One sports), subjective refereeing may be decisive in determining the outcome of both individual starts and the whole of competitions in Group Two (sports with symbolic units) and Group Three (sports where the result depends on the final impact). The significance of subjective refereeing can be illustrated by reference to the strategic decision of GDR sport authorities, whose concept of preparation for the Olympic Games of 1976 — 1988 chose to focus the country efforts of sports with the lowest possible level of hostile refereeing, such as track and field, swimming, rowing, speed skating, bobsled, luge, etc.

The problem of refereeing is always uppermost in the attention of coaches training athletes and teams in games, combat events, complex-coordination sports. Quite right, as history of competitions abounds in cases of willful or honest mistakes of judges and referees distorting the outcome of major international competitions (including Olympic Games) in gymnastics, figure skating, wrestling, boxing, water polo and other sports.

It should be pointed out that competition rules of many sports (like gymnastics and, diving, synchronized swimming, figure skating, etc.) give no detailed criteria for assessing such indicators as spectacular manner of performance, artistic impression, originality, intensity, complexity and logical sequence of movement, as well as some other peculiarities which are critically important to determine winners. Which proves once again that in elaborating an adequate plan for athletes' competitive activities, it is necessary to take into account the composition of the jury, the experience and preferences of particular judges and referees, potential area of subjective assessment, etc.

Actions of Coaches. Despite the general Code of Conduct, which is partially determined in the Regulations and Competition Rules, stiff competition can not but affect the actions of coaches. These can be classified as athlete-friendly, athlete-unfriendly and athlete-indifferent.

Experienced athletes, who are aware of the possible conduct of their coaches under duress, apprehends potential incursions of coaches during competitions and, accordingly, provides for possible adjustments of their competition activity plans.

Coaches, on the other hand, are to prepare advance planning of alternatives in competitive activities of their athletes, without excessive emotionality which may result in irrational decisions, conflicts, disruption of an efficient technical/tactical scheme of athlete(s) activities.

The Role of Competitions in Athlete Preparation System

Competitions are not only a means to control competitiveness or to determine winners, but also a most important means of improving training and competitive performance.

Pre-competition training and competitive activities in contention are a powerful means to mobilize potential functions of athletes' organism, to stimulate further their adaptation reactions, to withstand psychological pressures of difficult competition circumstances and to work out efficient technical/tactical decisions. Hence, many specialists seek to increase the level of athletes' competitiveness through competitions as an important stage of the training schedule. This approach finds a graphic expression in elite athletes training, particularly at the stage of the maximum realization of athletes' individual assets (D. Hare, 1982; Vaitsekhovsky, 1985).

The role and significance of competitions greatly vary depending on the stage of the many-year preparation system. The initial stages presuppose mainly preparatory and test competitions, their objectives being to check out the effect of the previous training stage, acquire competitive practice, add to the level of emotions in the process of preparation. With the improvement of athletes' qualification, competitive practice includes gradually preparatory, simulation, trial and major competitions.

One can indicate three methodological approaches in modern competitions. The first one applies to athletes who seek to take part in as many competitions as possible, putting in maximum performance (A. Kuznetsov, 1986). The second approach is to take part in low-intensity competitions, concentrating on preparation for the season's major competitions. The third approach involves a comprehensive but distinctly streamlined competitive activity, where preparatory and test competitions are used simply as training means: there is no special emphasis on results and

the system of preparation is aimed at high performance at trials and, above all, major competitions.

The advantage of the first approach is that athletes are free to use competitions as a means and vehicle of preparation and control over training efficiency. They get used to competitive environment and perform on a high and stable level for a considerable length of time. However, special research has proved (V. Platonov, 1988) that a constant striving for top results in all kinds of competitions, although provides for stability, puts athletes under excessive psychological and physical pressure, results in techniques deterioration and, as a rule, leads to a flop in major competitions.

The second approach also has its disadvantages, particularly for top athletes preparation. First, a limited competition practice deprives athletes of a most important factor for a further development of their organism adaptation facilities (Platonov, Vaitsekhovsky, 1985). Secondly, insufficient competition practice often undermines their chance to make use of their techniques, tactical and functional potential. This is due to the fact that under such system upcoming competitions are seen as an unknown challenge, causing athletes to feel nervous and restless when competing. Unforeseen and fluid situations during competitions

cause stress in an unused organism, which may bring a fiasco (R. Mathesius 1994).

The third approach is best, as it combines the advantages of the preceding two methods and spreads their disadvantages. One should remember that in order to implement an athlete's techniques, tactical, psychological and functional potential in major competitions, it is necessary to ensure his full effort in preparatory, test and simulation competitions to facilitate an integrated input of his level of preparedness to meet the optimum competitive requirements (Platonov 1992).

Training and competing should be simultaneously taken into account in planning the year-long cycle of preparation, competition efforts being complemented by dynamic efforts in training. Competitions at every stage of a training cycle are to be compatible with the goals of preparation at that particular stage of the period, the objectives of an athlete's participation in competitions being compatible with his level of preparation to achieve planned results. All competitions within a yearly cycle should be aimed at athletes achieving the peak of their functional, technique-tactical and psychological potential by the beginning of the major competitions of the cycle (Platonov, Fesenko 1994).

COMPETITIVE ACTIVITIES IN SPORT

Results of Competition Activities

Sport results as a product of athletic performance, having special significance for athletes, coaches, spectators, sports clubs, countries, etc., are contingent upon many factors. Among them are the athlete's individuality, efficiency of pre-competition training schedule, material/technical conditions of training and competitions, the climatic, geographical and social circumstances of competitions, etc.

Such results are assessed by athletes and society depending on the level of competition, the field of participants, the level of competitive effort and strain, and the way the athlete's performance unfurled during competitions. Naturally, top marks are assigned to outstanding performance in major competitions, against tough opposition and with top-form opponents who had equal chances to win.

Society assesses sport results depending on what kind of sport is involved, the event and its popularity in this or that corner of the world. For instance, the USA favorites are tennis, baseball, ice hockey, basketball, track and field, North Europe looks for cross country races, Alpine skiing and speed skating, whereas Eastern Europe is keen on weightlifting (particularly in heavyweight classes), Greco-Roman and free style wrestling, soccer, etc.

Sport results which surpass those achieved previously in the official competitions of certain ranks, are recognized as records.

Records are registered in those sports where performance can be determined in units of weight, distance, time, number of hits, etc. directly or by means of special tables in standard points (like in track and field and speed skating combination sports).

For a result to be registered as a record, this result is to be achieved in official competitions, which have been staged in conformity with conditions and requirements established by the international/continental/national federation in the appro-

priate sport. Such requirements include the qualifications of judges, the conditions at the competition venue, the number and qualifications of contestants, the quality of sport equipment and competition tools, etc.

In sports like marathon, rowing, skiing, etc., where the track profile and venue conditions have a major impact on results, top achievements are registered instead of records.

Depending on competition category, there are world, Olympic, regional, continental, national, territorial, club records and sport society top achievements.

Records in modern Olympic sport, as well as Olympic gold medals, can be within the grasp of only those athletes, who had developed their unique physical powers through optimally planned multi-year system of preparation and training. Much more is needed to add to this, such as sophisticated sport tools and equipment, favorable climate and weather, proper psychological disposition, etc.

Scientists have done research for many years into the factors providing for bettering results in Olympic sports, and tried to identify such trends in various sports. However, there are so many factors contributing to the trends that sporting practice regularly refutes the most dashing prognostications. Every major competition, world championships and Olympic Games, bring new surprises, world and Olympic records.

It is interesting to see dramatic changes in our expectations of athletic achievements in various Olympic sports over a couple of decades. Thus, at the XVI Olympic Games in 1956 in Melbourne the famous US weightlifting athlete Paul Andersen who weighed in at 160 kg, snatched 145 kg and got 180 kg in the jerk. Just 20 years later, at the Games of XXI Olympiad in Montreal he would have lost the competition even in the middleweight class, while the results of super heavyweight winner V. Alekseyev of the USSR were 175 kg in the snatch and 230 kg in the jerk.

Table 51
Winning results in swimming in 1972 and places
of athletes showing the same results in 1992

Distance, style	Athlete	Result	Would-be place in 1992
<i>Men</i>			
100 m freestyle	M. Spitz	51.22	83
200 m freestyle	M. Spitz	1:52.78	115
1,500 m freestyle	M. Barton	15:52.58	89
100 m, breaststroke	N. Taguchi	1:04.94	123
200 m, breaststroke	J. Hencken	2:21.35	132
100 m, butterfly	M. Spitz	54:27	13
200 m, butterfly	M. Spitz	2:00.70	24
200 m, backstroke	R. Matthes	2:02.82	53
200 m, medley	G. Larson	2:07.17	111
<i>Women</i>			
200 m freestyle	S. Gould	2:03.56	58
400 m freestyle	S. Gould	4:19.04	60
800 m freestyle	K. Rothhammer	8:53.68	65
100 m, breaststroke	C. Carr	1:13.58	131
100 m, butterfly	M. Aoki	1:03.34	70
200 m, butterfly	K. Moe	2:15.57	50
200 m, backstroke	M. Belote	2:19.19	122
200 m, medley	S. Gould	2:23.07	157
400 m, medley	G. Neall	5:02.97	169

One of the highlights of the XX Olympic Games in Munich were outstanding results of swimmers, who set nine world records in men's events and nine world records in women's events. Among the winners were superb athletes M. Spitz, J. Hencken, R. Matthes, S. Gould, K. Rothhammer and some others. In 1992 those results would place them as shown in Table 51.

The data in the table indicate a tremendous progress in swimming and a varying scope of progress from event to event. The most marked progress is seen in all women's events and in men's 100- and 200-meter breaststroke, 200-meter medley, 200-meter freestyle events. The slower progress in some other men's events (100- and 200-meter butterfly, 200-meter backstroke) compared with 1972 can be accounted for by the immense talent of M. Spitz and R. Matthes.

The same trend is seen in other quantitatively-measured sports and events.

The number of world and Olympic records at Olympic Games is a most important indicator of the Games level, toughness of competition and efficiency of top athletes training and preparation schedules on the eve of the Olympic starts. The

number of Olympic events where records are broken is gradually increasing. For instance, in 1952 at the Games of the XV Olympiad there had been records set in 60 sport events, whereas in 40 years time, in 1992, the number of records reached one hundred (see Table 52). The number of record-breaking events in Winter Olympics has been increasing even faster: compare four events in 1956 and sixteen events in 1994 (see Table 53).

In the recent decades, a trend has emerged in the Olympic Games program of a decline in the percent of record-breaking events. Thus, at the 1968 Games it was 47.1 %, but then it has been decreasing until it went down to 38.9 % in 1992 (Table 52). The trend is opposite in the Winter Olympic Games program, above all due to the inclusion of short-track (Table 53).

The inclusion of new sport events and improvement of the material basis of winter sports, particularly the emergence of covered speed skating palaces, made it possible, for instance, to set more world records at the Calgary Games than in the previous eight Winter Games taken together. The Games of 1992 and 1994 also saw a great number of records.

The situation at the Games of Olympiads is quite different. Even given the superb quality of sports facilities in Seoul (1988) and tough competition both in team and individual events, athletes set thirty world records there, or 30.3 % of the world-registering events in the program. However, at the 1980 Games, with many Western teams joining in the boycott of the Moscow Olympics, athletes had set 36 world records (42.9 %), and at the Montreal Games of 1976, there had been even more world record broken — 46 (52.3 %), with practically all world top athletes in contention.

The results of the Games of XXV Olympiad in Barcelona proved even more graphically than the Seoul Games that the results of Olympic champions fell short of the world record level.

The dramatic decline in sport results at the Los Angeles Games in 1984 may have been put down to the absence of top performers from the USSR, East Germany, Bulgaria, Hungary and some other countries, but the results of the XXV Games in Barcelona are sufficient evidence of more substantive causes for the climb down in the number of world and Olympic records. To see that this is so, it is enough to review the level of achievements in such sports as have the broadest representation in the Olympic program.

First of all, one should note a general decline in the number of world records in a year in various sports (see Table 54). Particularly acute is the crisis with records in weightlifting. It is by now an open secret that the outstanding achievements of 1970's

Table 52
Olympic Games program events where new records were set in 1952 — 1996

Parameters	Year											
	1952	1956	1960	1964	1968	1972	1976	1980	1984	1988	1992	1996
Total number of events	149	163	152	163	172	195	198	203	221	232	257	271
Number of record-registering events and their % in program	60 40.3	64 39.3	66 43.4	69 42.3	81 47.1	88 45.1	83 41.9	84 41.8	94 42.5	99 41.8	100 38.9	134 41.7
Number of Olympic records	66	77	76	81	84	94	82	74	22	104	30	54
Number of world records	18	22	30	32	27	46	34	36	11	30	14	27

Table 53
Winter Olympic Games program events where new records were set in 1956 — 1994

Parameters	Year										
	1956	1960	1964	1968	1972	1976	1980	1984	1988	1992	1994
Total number of events	24	29	34	35	25	37	38	39	46	57	61
Number of record-registering events and their % in program	4 16.7	8 27.6	8 22.5	8 22.9	8 22.9	9 24.3	9 23.7	9 23.1	10 21.7	16 28.1	16 26.2
Number of Olympic records	4	6	5	6	7	8	9	4	10	6	5
Number of world records	2	3	—	—	—	—	1	1	8	6	3

Table 54
Number of world records in Olympic years and at the Olympic Games in the most widely practiced sports

Olympic years	Track and field		Swimming		Weightlifting	
	Records in a year	Records at Olympic Games	Records in a year	Records at Olympic Games	Records in a year	Records at Olympic Games
1972	51	12 (23.5 %)	46	27 (58.7 %)	53	10 (18.9 %)
1976	36	7 (19.4 %)	44	25 (56.8 %)	45	4 (8.9 %)
1988	11	4 (3.6 %)	16	11 (68.8 %)	38	11 (28.2 %)
1992	16	4 (25.0 %)	10	8 (80.0 %)	2	0
1996	5	2 (40.0 %)	5	4 (80.0 %)	19	19 (100 %)

and 1980's in this sport had been mainly the effect of doping. The tough anti-doping campaign initiated by the IOC in mid-80's came down hardest on weightlifting. Due to athletes fear of sanctions for dope taking and bringing up their awareness of the dangers of doping, the level of performance in this sport had slumped dramatically. Some world records which had been set more than ten years ago (by Y. Vardanyan in the 82.5-kg class and Y. Zakharevich in the 100-kg class, for instance) still stand. The results of Olympic champions in weightlifting have markedly declined, with the results of the Barcelona champions, on the average, being 5.5 % short of world records, and in some weight classes (like 60 kg, 75 kg and 100 kg) the margin reaching 7 — 9 %.

Due to this situation, following the Olympic Games in Barcelona the International Weightlifting Federation decided to introduce changes in the

weight classes and started registering world records in the new categories since 1993.

A decline in weightlifting performance also prompted the International Weightlifting Federation to develop women's weightlifting, where world records are still on the rise. Presently, changes are being prepared in the Olympic weightlifting program. Following the Olympic Games in Atlanta, the program will include competitions for women and teams will be mixed, with new weight classes, their total number coming down to 4 — 6 (at present there are 10 men's weight classes and 9 women's weight classes).

The situation in track and field is also difficult. The results of an overwhelming majority of winners at the XXV Olympic Games in Barcelona in 1992 fell far short of those of the champions at the Seoul Olympics achieved in 1988. The 1992 results exceeded those of 1988 only in 9 out of 43 events

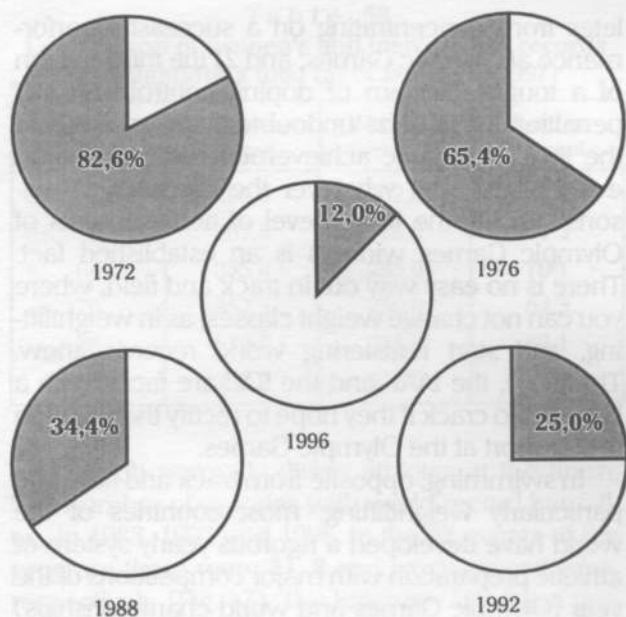


Fig. 17. Percent of victories with world records of total number of swimming events at the Olympic Games of 1972, 1976, 1988, 1992, and 1996

of the Olympic program (20.9 %). The decline in result was most remarkable in the 200-, 1,500- and 10,000-meter running, discus and hammer throw, etc. (men) and 100-, 3,000-meter running, high and long jump, shot put, discus, etc. (women). Moreover, results in some events (men's 800-

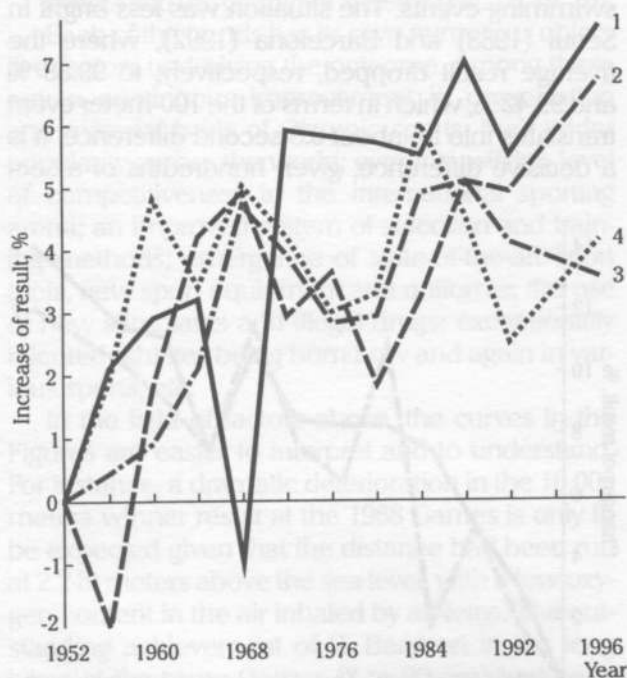


Fig. 18. Dynamics of the results of Olympic champions in running events of track and field (men):
1 — 10 000 m; 2 — 200 m;
3 — 100 m; 4 — 1500 m

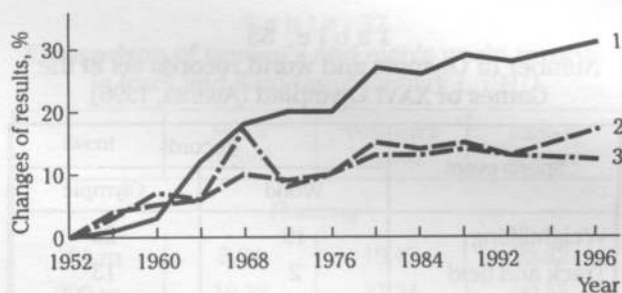


Fig. 19. Dynamics of the results of Olympic champions in jumping events (men):
1 — pole vault; 2 — high jump; 3 — long jump

1,500- and 10,000-meters and women's 800-meters) in Barcelona were inferior to those achieved by winners of the 1976 Olympic Games.

There is a marked tendency of the Olympic winners showing results below the world record level. For example, at the Games of 1972 in Munich, 25 of the 38 winning results had been in the range of 99 % — 100 % of the world record level (65.8 %), in 12 events winners' results were 97 % — 99 % of the world records (31.6 %), and a lower result was achieved in only one event (2.6 % of the total number of events on the program).

However, in 1988 at the XXIV Olympic Games in Seoul the tide turned: winners in 22 out of 42

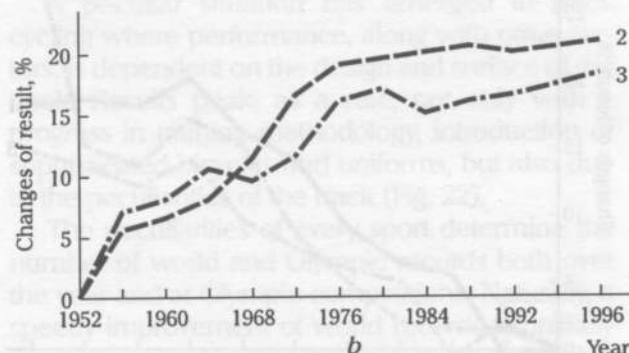
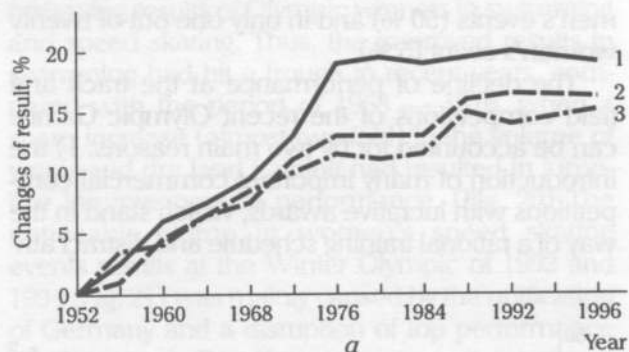


Fig. 20. Dynamics of the results of Olympic champions in freestyle swimming
(a — men; b — women):
1 — 1500 m; 2 — 400 m; 3 — 100 m

Table 55
Number of Olympic and world records set at the Games of XXVI Olympiad (Atlanta, 1996)

Sports event	Records	
	World	Olympic
Weightlifting	19	25
Track and field	2	13
Swimming	4	4
Cycling	1	1
Shooting	1	9
Trap shooting	—	4
Total	27	54

events (52.4 %) performed more than 1 % worse than the world record level, and in some events (men's decathlon, 5,000 meters, javelin and discus, women's discus and javelin) winners' results proved 4 % — 8 % lower than the world record.

The results of champions of the Barcelona Games declined further. Thus, in some women's events (100- and 3,000-meters, long jump, shot put, discus and some others) amounted to just 90 — 91 % of the world records.

World records have become fairly few and far between in track and field events. In 1990 — 95 world records have been improved in 12 of the 24 men's events (50 %) and in only one out of twenty women's event (5 %).

The decline of performance at the track and field competitions of the recent Olympic Games can be accounted for by two main reasons: 1) the introduction of many important commercial competitions with lucrative awards, which stand in the way of a rational training schedule and distract ath-

letes from concentrating on a successful performance at Olympic Games; and 2) the introduction of a tougher system of doping control and stiff penalties, which has undoubtedly taken a toll of the level of athletic achievements in many sport events. However, whatever the causes and reasons can be, the lower level of achievements of Olympic Games winners is an established fact. There is no easy way out in track and field, where you can not change weight classes, as in weightlifting, and start registering world records anew. Therefore, the IAAF and the IOC are faced with a hard nut to crack if they hope to rectify the situation in this sport at the Olympic Games.

In swimming, opposite from track and field and particularly weightlifting, most countries of the world have developed a rigorous yearly system of athletic preparation with major competitions of the year (Olympic Games and world championships) as the focal point. The importance of commercial competitions in swimming is nowhere as great as in track and field. Consequently, most of world records in swimming are set at the Games of Olympiads (see Table 54) and world championships. But swimming, too, has not avoided some of the negative trends, on the average, in the level of performance at the Olympic Games. Thus, the average result of Olympic champions in 1972 and 1976 was, respectively, 99.86 % and 99.94 % of the world record level. World records were broken in 24 of the 29 (1972) and 17 of the 26 (1976) Olympic swimming events. The situation was less bright in Seoul (1988) and Barcelona (1992), where the average result dropped, respectively, to 99.58 % and 99.42 %, which in terms of the 100-meter event translates into an about 0.3-second difference. It is a decisive difference, given hundredths of a sec-

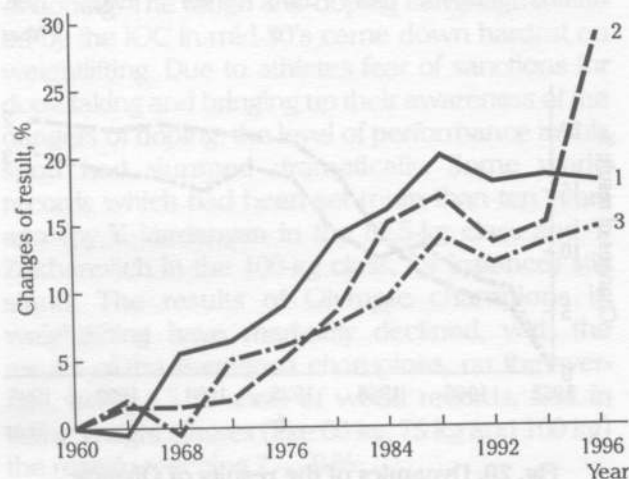


Fig. 21. Dynamics of the results of Olympic champions in speed skating (women):
1 — 3000 m; 2 — 1500 m; 3 — 500 m

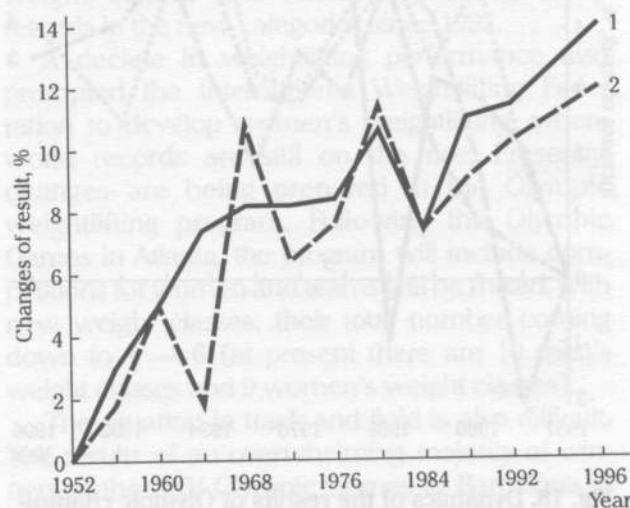


Fig. 22. Dynamics of the results of Olympic champions in cycling (track): 1 — 4000 m team pursuit; 2 — 1000 m time trial (men)

Table 56
Comparison of women's and men's world records
in weightlifting total (as of January 1, 1997)

Weight class, kg	Men's record	Women's record	Ratio in percent
54	290.0	202.5	69.8
59	307.5	220.0	71.5
64	335.0	235.0	70.1
70	357.5	230.0	64.3
76	372.5	235.0	63.1
83	392.5	242.5	61.8

and which normally divide athletes at the finish. The number of victories with world-record has fallen. In 1988, 1992 and 1996, in the 32 events of the program there were 11, 8 and world-record wins, respectively. (Fig. 17). The tendency has been preserved at the 1996 Atlanta Olympics: world records were set in 4 of 32 competition events (12%) (Table 55).

Analysis of changes in the performance of winners in various sports and events at the Games of Olympiads and the Winter Olympic Games since 1952 identifies several trends:

- steadily increasing general level of athletic performance in various sports and events;
- oscillating performance in certain events;
- significant difference in the dynamics of improving performance depending upon sports, events and the gender of athletes (Fig. 18, 19, 20).

Each of the trends has its own numerous objective factors underlying the outcome. Among these are: a continuous improvement in organization and material basis of Olympic sports; their wider popularity across the world; ever intensifying level of competitiveness in the international sporting arena; an improved system of selection and training methods; emergence of state-of-the-art sport tools, new sport equipment and uniforms; the use of new stimulants and illegal drugs; exceptionally talented athletes being born now and again in various sports, etc.

In the light of factors above, the curves in the Figures are easier to interpret and to understand. For instance, a dramatic deterioration in the 10,000 meters winner result at the 1968 Games is only to be expected given that the distance had been run at 2,240 meters above the sea level, with a low oxygen content in the air inhaled by athletes. The outstanding achievement of R. Beamon in the long jump at the same Games (8 m 90 cm) had been way ahead of both the winners of the previous Games (Fig. 19) and the most optimistic expectations in this event. In the opinion of specialists, this feat was made possible by a whole complex of fac-

Table 57
Comparison of women's and men's world records
in track and field (as of January 1, 1997)

Event	Men's record	Women's record	Ratio in percent
<i>Running</i>			
100 m	9.84	10.49	93.82
200 m	19.32	21.34	90.55
400 m	43.29	47.60	90.95
800 m	1:41.73	1:53.28	89.90
1,500 m	3:28.82	3:52.47	89.83
5,000 m	12:58.39	14:37.33	88.72
10,000 m	27:08.23	30:13.74	89.77
42.195 m	2:06.50	2:21:06	89.89
<i>Jumping</i>			
High jump	244 cm	209 cm	85.66
Long jump	895 cm	752 cm	84.02
Triple jump	18 m 17 cm	15 m 50 cm	84.75

tors: the skills of the athlete, the assistance of wind, the perfect hit, the best possible angle of the jump, etc. It should be noted that after that competition R. Beamon was never once at least near repeating his famous result.

Many interesting things can be disclosed in reviewing results of Olympic winners in swimming and speed skating. Thus, the improved results in swimming had hit a trough in recent years, compared with the period of 1968 — 1976, when a sharp increase (almost two-fold) in the volume of water and dry land training had resulted in jump-like improvement of performance. (Fig. 20) The noticeable slump in women's speed skating events results at the Winter Olympic of 1992 and 1994 (Fig. 21) was mainly caused by the unification of Germany and a disruption of top performance sport system in East Germany.

A peculiar situation has emerged in track cycling where performance, along with other factors, is dependent on the design and surface of the track. Results peak, as a rule, not only with a progress in training methodology, introduction of sophisticated bicycles and uniforms, but also due to the peculiarities of the track (Fig. 22).

The peculiarities of every sport determine the number of world and Olympic records both over the year and at Olympic competitions. Naturally, a speedy improvement of world records is unlikely in swimming and track and field, those sports that are practiced all over the world, have scientifically developed training methodology, absence of dependence of most events on special equipment and tools, etc. A certain stabilization of achieve-

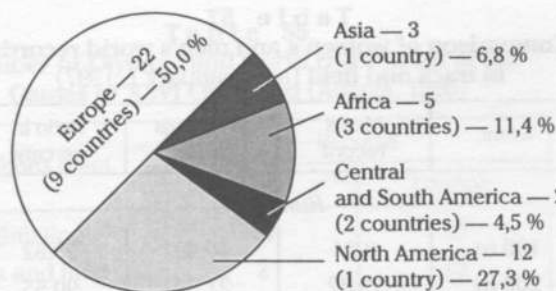


Fig. 23. Distribution of world records in track and field among representatives of different countries (as of January 1, 1997)

ments is unavoidable in most of events in the two sports.

Conversely, in sports like cycling, where results depend on training methods as much as on the quality and design of equipment and tools, there are grounds to expect new world records. To prove this point, it will suffice to note one fact only: in the 15 years since commissioning of the Olympic high speed cycling track in Moscow athletes competing there have set more than 100 world records (since 1980).

More world records are achieved with the emergence of new sports, events and disciplines, like short-track, for instance. At the Winter Olympic Games in Albertville, where short-track made its debut, world records were repeatedly broken, even in preliminary heats. This example proves the point that inclusion of new events greatly stimulates sport, provides for more popularity and attractiveness of sport with young people, expansion of sport's calendar, construction of modern sporting facilities, improvement of training methods, etc.

World records can also be stimulated by changes in the policies of International Sport Federations, like those of the weightlifting federation at present. Alterations of weight classes are certain to result in many more world records.

Expansion of the Olympic sports geography,

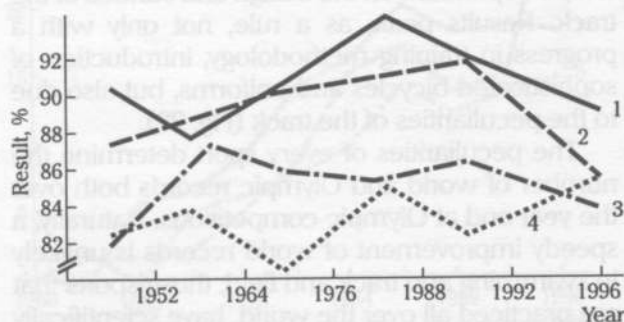


Fig. 25. Olympic Winning Results in Women's Track and Field (as a Ratio of Men's Results in Corresponding Events)

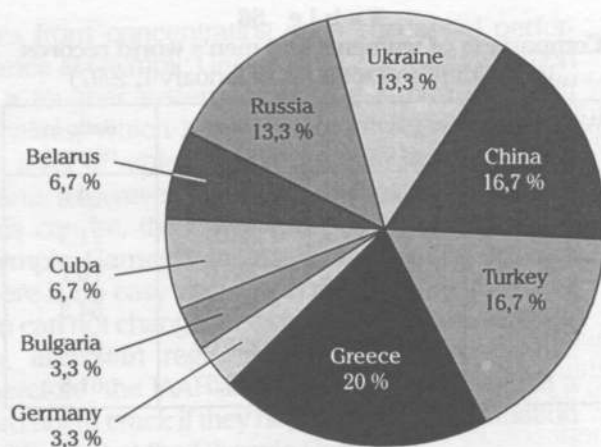


Fig. 24. Distribution of world records in weightlifting among representatives of different countries (as of January 1, 1997)

increase of the number of countries with sufficient conditions of athletes' preparation will significantly contribute to maintaining high level of athletic performances in various sports events and breaking world records. This process is rather intensive now which may be illustrated on the material of different sports events. For instance, in track and field the record holders as of January 1, 1997 have been representatives of 16 countries (Fig. 23), whereas in weightlifting — those of 9 (Fig. 24). Outstanding performances are quite frequently demonstrated by athletes of those countries which have not had high athletic achievements in the past.

It may be interesting to compare men's and women's world records (Table 56 and 57).

The results in the Tables indicate that the difference is minimal where the results are determined by those components where men and women are practically equal. Such are most sports which require stamina. The gender differences are most evident in speed-and-power sports, like long and high jump, and weightlifting.

Some authors say that women's sports are

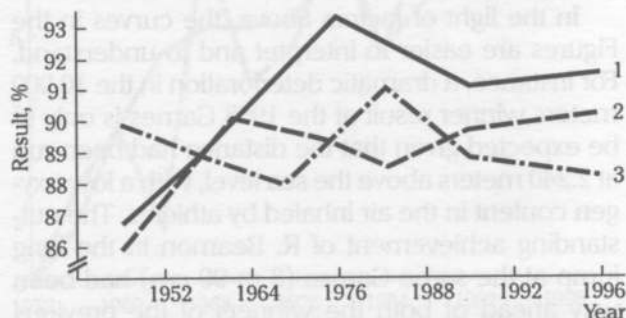


Fig. 26. Olympic Winning Results in Women's Swimming (as a Ratio of Men's Results in Corresponding Events)

making more progress than men's, and in future women will hold their own against men, and in some event will probably do even better than men. However, as clearly indicated by the analysis of Olympic winners result dynamics over the previous 40 years, the ratio of results in men's and women's events, which have been included in the programs of all Olympic Games, has been fairly stable (Fig. 25 and 26).

Certain fluctuations are caused by individual factors (such as appearance of a huge talent of an athlete, possible dope taking, etc.) and do not refute the general rule of the concurrent improvement of men's and women's sport results. Essential biological differences between genders predetermine an obvious advantage of men in all record-registering sport events.

One often hears arguments over skills of some sport teams in the past and in the present. What could have been the outcome of a face off between contemporary teams and the teams of

the 1950's, 1960's and 1970's in soccer, ice hockey or basketball? Many reporters make an issue of such juxtaposition and often arrive at opposite conclusions. Even coaches and players, who had met with success in the past, are often inclined to undervalue present-day teams and players. However, there are no grounds to affirm that soccer, hockey, basketball and other games had progressed over the decades less markedly than swimming, field throwing, speed skating or gymnastics. Moreover, stiff competition in games, their commercialization, interlacing of Olympic and professional sport are sufficient grounds to suppose that in terms of selection, development of technique and tactics, games have made even better progress than some other sport events. Hence, one can reasonably ask if it really makes sense to assume that the best teams of the 1950's — 1970's could hold their own against present-day teams, when comparisons in measurable sports prove that this is totally out of the question?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Ageyevets V.U.* ... And General Butovsky for Russia (In Russian). — M.: Sovetsky sport, 1994. — 30p.
- Ageyevets V.U., Khodorov A.M.* Five rings: ideas and morality (In Russian). — L.: Lenizdat, 1985. — 160 p.
- A history of modern Olympism. — Barcelona Centennial, 1992. — 315 p.
- Alekseyev R.O.* International Olympic movement (In Russian). — M.: Znaniye, 1966. — 96 p.
- Andersen P. CHR.* Den nye Olympiaboken. — Oslo: Dreyers Forlag, 1957. — 287 p.
- Andreff K.* Economie du sport // Revue EPS, 1990. — 223. — P. 79 — 89.
- Andronicos M.* Athletic and education // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S.A., 1992. — P.41 — 76.
- Andronicos M.* Olympia. The Archeological site and the Museum. Ekdotike Athenon S.A. — P. 80.
- Antony D.* Britain and the Olympic Games: rediscovery of a heritage // Birmingham, 1987. — 173 p.
- Antony D.* Developoment of Olympism in Great Britain // Olympic Message. — 1994. — No. 39.
- Antony D.* The humanistic mission of the Olympic movement and the role of the Olympic solidarity in the developing countries // International Olympic Academy, 34 Session. — Olympia, 1994. — P.81 — 92.
- Antony D.* Coubertin, Sloans and Herbert — the Olympic organizing triumvirate // Olympic Congress of centenary, 1994. — P. 40 — 44.
- Arkhipov Y.M., Sedov A.B.* At the Olympic track (In Russian). — M.: Sov. Russia, 1961. — 92 p.
- Arnold P., Jendral H.V.* Olympische Spiele. Geschichte und Hohenpunrte von 1896 bis heute. — Copress Verlag, Munchen, 1983. — 254 S.
- Athletes of socialist states at international arena. Reference book / Compiled by V.L. Shteinbach (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1974. — 303 p.
- Bach T.* L'ideal doit devenir realite // Message Olympique. — 4. — Mai, 1983. — P. 43 — 45.
- Baher P.* The Olympic Games // The Independent. — August 18, 1924. — 113. — P. 96 — 98.
- Barks S.* The modern Olympic story. — Budapest: Corvin Press, 1964. — 322 p.
- Barton E.* The American Olympic Boycott of 1980: The amalgam of diplomacy and propaganda in influencing public opinion // Doctoral Diss. — Boston University. — 1983. — 181 p.
- Bazunov B.A.* Olympic time of Moscow (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1978. — 190 p.
- Bazunov B.A., Popov S.G.* Moscow'80. (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1974. — 133 p.
- Bedjaoni M.* Law and sport: towards a necessary harmony in an Unconventional couple // Olympic review, 1993. — No 313. — P. 499 — 501.
- Beffa N.* The athlete's parade // The Olympic Movement and the mass media, 1996, XXVI — 1, p. 26 — 30.
- Beffa N.* The participation of mass media in the development of the Olympic movement // Centennial Olympic Congress Report, 1994. — P. 348.
- Berhlund B., et al.* International Journal of Sports Medicine, 1982. — 4. — P. 234 — 236.
- Bericht Presse- und Öffentlichkeitsarbeit. 11 Olympischer Kongress // Baden-Baden, 1981. — 1150 S. Neuss: Prosport Presse Service.
- Berlioux M.* Lord Noel-Baher and Olympism // Olympic review. — 183. — Jan. 1983. — P. 15 — 17.
- Bernett H.* Symbolik und Zeremoniell der XI Olympischen Spiele in Berlin 1936 // Sportwissenschaft 16. — 1986. — 369 S.
- Berry R., Gould W., Standohar P.* Labour relations in professional sport // Donver, Mass.: Auburn House Publ. Co., 1976. — 374 p.
- Blackshaw J.* International Sports Sponsorship and the EC // Blackshaw J., Hogg G. Sports Marketing Europe. The Legal and Tax Aspects. — Kluwer Law and Taxation Publishers. Deventer, Boston, 1993. — P. 393 — 412.
- Blackshaw J. S., Hogg G.* Sports Marketing Europe. The Legal and Tax Aspects // Kluwer Law and Taxation Publishers. Deventer, Boston, 1993. — 482 p.
- Blackshaw J.* France (Philippe Netto) // Blackshaw J.S., Hogg G. Sports Marketing Europe. The Legal and Tax Aspects. — Kluwer Law and Taxation Publishers. Deventer, Boston, 1993. — P. 97 — 118.
- Blackshaw J.* United Kingdom // Blackshaw J. S., Hogg G. Sports Marketing Europe. The Legal and Tax

- Aspects. — Kluwer Law and Taxation Publishers. Deventer, Boston, 1993. — P. 5 — 31.
- Bland E. A. Olympic story. — London: Salisbury Square, 1948. — 252 p.
- Boga M. Jogos Olympicos na atiga Grecia e Olimpismo moderno. — Lisboa, 1934. — 195 p.
- Boulogne G.-P. La vie et d'oeuvre pedagogique de Pierre de Coubertin 1863 — 1937 // Quebec: Editions Lemac Inc., 1975. — 118 p.
- Boulogne G.-P., et al. Die Zukunft der Olympischen spiele. — Koln: Pahl — Rugenstelu, 1976. — 216 S.
- Boulogne G.-P. Olimpijsky dun Pjera de Kubertena. — Beograd: Narodna Knjiga, 1984. — 189 p.
- Brant M. The Games. — Proteus, London and N. Y., 1980. — 271 p.
- Bratt K. A. J. Sigfrid Edstrom en levnadsteckning // P. A. Norestedt & Sonners Forlaf, Stockholm, 1953. — 296 p.
- Brien A., Simon T. The effect of red blood cell infusion on 10-km race time // Journal of the American Medical Association, 1987. — 257. — P. 2761 — 2765.
- Brohm J.-M. Le mythe Olympique. — Berlin: Christian Bourgois Editions, 1981. — 476 p.
- Brundage A. Die Herausforderung (Mit einer biografischen einleitung von Hans Klein). — Munchen, 1972. — 192 S.
- Brundage A. Personal Olympic collection, 1908 — 1975 // Chicago: University of Illinois, 1976. — 211 p.
- Brundage A., Coubertin P., Curtins E., Diem C. Die Olympischen spiele // Philip Reclam jun., Stuttgart, 1971. — 80 p.
- Brunet F. Economy of the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games // 1993, Lausanne: IOC, p. 163.
- Brunnhafte L. Olympiaboken 1960 // Svenska Sportforlaget A. B., Stockholm 1960. — 260 p.
- Cagigal J.M. Olympism: a reflection and a blueprint of society // Olympic review. — 181. — Nov. 1982. — P. 671 — 675.
- Cagigal J. M. El deporte en la sociedad actual // Madrid: Prensa Espanola, 1975. — 160 p.
- Caille A. The concept of fair play // Olympic Congress of centenary, 1994. — P. 4 — 8.
- Case B. Hosting the Olympic Games: an economic dilemma // Physical education, 1982. — P. 208 — 211.
- Castro F. International Olympic movement. Acute crisis due to the 1988 Seul Olympic games. The only possible solution of the problem. — Havana: Editora Politica, 1985. — P. 5 — 12.
- Catherwood D., Van Kirtz R. The Complete Guide to Special Event Management // John Wiley & Sons, N. Y., 1992. — 306 p.
- Chanadi A. Reconnaissance du CIO // Revue Olympique. — 174. — Avr. 1982. — P. 167 — 170.
- Chappelet J.-L. Le systeme olympique. — Presses universitaires de Grenoble, Grenoble, 1991. — 263 p.
- Chavan P. Pierre de Coubertin and his family: a personal reminiscence // Olympic review. — 184/185. — Feb./March 1983. — P. 115 — 118.
- Chazpentier H. La grande histoire des medailles Olympiques Francais de 1896 a 1988 // Robert Laffont, 1991. — 253 p.
- Cherarducci M. Olympia. — Edizioni Landonu, 1968. — 312 p.
- Clark S. J. Amateurism, Olympism, and pedagogy: Cornerstones of the modern Olympic movement: Doctoral Diss. — Standford University. — 1975. — 198 p.
- Coe S. More than a game: sport in our time. — London: BBC Book, 1992. — 240 p.
- Cole D. H. Selected factors involved in Olympic dominance: Masters Diss. — Cal. State at Long Beach. — 1977. — 106 p.
- Colinon M. Histoire des jeux Olympiques // Grand Pavois Reportage, 1960. — N. 1. — 126 p.
- Comite international Olympique. Guide pour l'organisation de session // Lausanne: CIO, 1989. — 32 p.
- Comite international Olympique. Recommandations pour les sessions du Comite international Olympique // Lausanne: CIO, 1972.
- Concours Internationaux d'exercices physique et de sports. Rapports, — Paris : Imprimerie Nationale, , 1900. — 427 p.
- Congres Olympique. Rapport officiel // Lausanne: CIO, 1973. — 171 p.
- Connors M., Dupuis D. L., Morgan B. The Olympics Factbook, — Detroit, Chicago, Washington D. C., London, Visible., 1992. — 614 p.
- Cook T. A. The Olympic games. — London: Archibald Constable Co., 1908. — 231 p.
- Coubertin P. de. Les jeux Olympiques de 1896 // Pierre de Coubertin l'idee Olympique. — Lausanne, 1986. — P. 9 — 13.
- Coubertin P. de. Notes sur l'education publique // Librairie hachette et Gie. 79, boulevard Saint-Germain, Paris, 1901. — 319 p.
- Coubertin P. de. Schule sport erziehung. Gedanken zum offentlichen Erziehungswesen // Verlag Karl Hofmann Schorndorf, 1972. — 210 S.
- Coubertin P. de. The Olympic Idea. Discourses and Essays. Schorndorf, 1966 (here: Olympic Letters 1918/1919). — P. 155.
- Coubertin P. Der Olympische Gedanke: Reden und Aufsätze. — Lausanne, Stuttgart, Sportverlag, 1966. — 167 S.
- Coubertin P. Les assises philosophiques de l'Olympisme moderne. — Lausanne, 1966. — P. 129 — 133.
- Coubertin P. Letters Olympiques (VIII — XX) // L'idee Olympique, Lausanne, 1966. — P. 57 — 67.
- Coubertin P. Memorias Olympicas // Comite Olimpico International, Lausanne, 1979. — 141 p.
- Coubertin P. Notre France // Edition du Centenaire (1830 — 1930), 1930. — 207 p.

- Coubertin P.* Olympic // Geneve, 1929. — 12 p.
- Coubertin P.* The Olympic idea: discourses and essays. — Lausanne, Stuttgart, Sport-verlag, 1966. — 147 p.
- Coubertin P.* Une campagne de vingt-et-un ans: (1857 — 1908). — Paris: Education physique, 1909. — 220 p.
- Coubertin P., Samaranch J.A.* Espirit Olimpique. — Contrastes, l'esprit du Temps, 1992. — 96 p.
- Coubertin Pierre de.* Ideario Olimpico. Discursos y ensayos. — Instituto nacional de education fisica, Madrid 1973. — 243 p.
- Coubertin P.* Olympische Erinnerungen. — Berlin: Sportverlag, 1987. — 280 S.
- Daume V.* Olympische Spiele haben ihre grenzen erreicht // Sportkurier, 1989. — No. 59. — S. 24.
- Delen S., Edstrom J. S.* En Levnadsteckning. — P. A. Norstedt and Soners Forlag, Stockholm, 1953. — 296 p.
- Die Olympischen Spiele. Munchen Sapporo, 1972. — Koln: Lingen Verlag, 1972. — 312 S.
- Die Olympischen Spiele von 1896 bis 1980. Namen, Zahlen, Fakten // Zusammengestellt von Volder Kluge. — Berlin: Sportverlag, 1981. — 414 S.
- Die Spiele // Le rapport officiel du Comité Organisateur des Jeux de la XXe Olympiade Munich 1972, pro Sport Munchen. — T.2. — 450 p.
- Die Spiele // Le rapport officiel du Comité Organisateur des Jeux de la XXe Olympiade Munich 1972, pro Sport Munchen. — T.3. — 563 p.
- Diegel H.* The prospectus of modern competitive sport // International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 1988. — V. 23. — 3. — P. 177 — 189.
- Dirix A.* The doping problem // Olympic review. — 187. — May 1983. — 288 p.
- Dowdeswell E.* Under — Secretary — General of the United Nations and Executive Director of the United Nations Environment Programm (World conference on sport and the environment). Final report.
- Downing T.* A historical perspective // The Olympic Movement and the mass media, 1996, XXVI — 1, p. 26 — 30.
- Drees L.* Olympia. Gotter, Kutsstler und Athleten. — Deutscher Bucherbund, Stuttgart, Hamburg, 1967. — 238 S.
- Duncan S., Garroni M., Iwata Y.* The administration of an Olympic Games // IOC, 1966 — 1969. — 115 p.
- Durantez C.* La Academia Olimpica Internacional // Comité Olimpico Espanol, 1988. — 173 p.
- Durantez C.* El Olimpismo y sus juegos // Olympic review, 1991. — No 285. — 353 p.
- Durantez C.* Olympia. Y los juegos Olympicas antiguas // Buzlada-Pamplona, Torno I. — 1975, Espania. — 249 p.
- Durantez C.* Olympia. Y los juegos Olympicas antiguas // Buzlada-Pamplona, Torno II. — 1975, Espania. — 500 p.
- Durantez C.* The Olympic Flame // IOC, 1988. — 195 p.
- Ebert J.* Olympia. Mythos und geschichte moderner wettkampfe // Edition Tusch Wien, 1980. — 187 S.
- Edelman R.* The professionalization of Soviet sport. The case of the soccer Union // Journal of Sport History, 1990. — V. 17. — No 1. — P. 44 — 45.
- Edwards H.* The struggle that must be. — N.Y.: Macmillan Publ., 1980. — 350 p.
- Eitzen D. C., Sage G. H.* Sociology of Americal Sport / Dubuque, lo.: Grawn, 1977. — 336 p.
- El deporte en la Grecia antigua // Centre Cultural de la Fundacion "La Caixa". — Barcelona, 1992. — 424 p.
- Encyclopaedia in physical culture and sport (3 volumes) (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1961.
- Ercegan M.* The politics of the Olympic games. — Berkely, Los-Angeles: University of California Press, 1979. — 212 p.
- Euripides.* Tragedies (In Russian). — M., 1980.
- Eyquem M.-T.* Pierre de Coubertin: ein leben fur die jugened der Welt // Dortmund: Lehropp, 1972. — 271 S.
- Flembke R.* Das grosse Handbuch der Olympischen Sommerspiele // Verlegt bei Kindler, Munchen, 1971. — 482 S.
- Fallu E., Guimond L.* Des jeux Olympiques dans l'antiquite // Editions Paulines et Apostolat des Editions, 1976. — 141 p.
- Filaretos N.* The International Olympic Academy // International Olympic Academy, 31 Session. — Olympia, 1992. — P. 45 — 51.
- Filaretos N.* The Olympic movement's contribution to modern society // Centennial Olympic Congress Report, 1994. — P.141 — 143.
- Final Report // Organizing Committee for the XIIth Winter Olympic Games 1976. — Innsbruck, 1976. — 448 p.
- Final Report by the Organizing Committee of the XIVth Winter Olympic Games 1984 // Stampa, 1984. — 198 p.
- Finley M. I. & Pleket H. W.* The Olympic games: The first thousand years // New York: Viking, 1976. — 277 p.
- Firsov Z.P.* In Olympic swimming-pools (In Russian). — M.: Sov.Russia, 1960. — 223 p.
- Firsov Z.P., Gavrilin V.M.* Under Olympic rings of Tokyo (In Russian). — M.: Voenizdat, 1965. — 184 p.
- Fleuridas C.* L'administration et l'organisation des jeux Olympiques. — Paris, 1974. — 345 p.
- Fleuridas C.* Les jeux Olympiques: aspects historiques, institutionnels, sociologiques // Paris: Revue E. P. S., 1984. — 142 p.
- Foldesi G. S.* Introduction to Olympism in sport sociology // International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 1992. — V. 27. — No. 2. — P. 103 — 106.
- Frenzen K.-H.* Olympische Spiele. Geschichte, Regeln, Einrichtungen // Meyer und Meyer Verlag, 1988. — 143 S.
- Frolov V.V.* Football at the Olympiads (In Russian). — M.: Sov.Russia, 1959. — 94 p.

- Funke H.* La sociedad agonal. Centre cultural de la fundacion "La Caixa". — Barcelona, 1992, P.34 — 42.
- Fuoss D. E.* An analysis of the incidents in the Olympic Games from 1924 to 1948, with reference to the contribution of the Games to international understanding: Doctoral Diss. — Columbia University, 1952.
- Gafner R.* Avenir de l'athlete Olympique (Future of the Olympic athlete) // Message Olympique. — 2. — Sept. 1982. — P. 29 — 37.
- Gabor R. R.* The International Olympic Committee and the politics of the Olympic Movement // A senior thesis submitted to the department of politics in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey, April 18, 1988. — 96 p.
- Games of the XXII Olympiad Moscow 1980. Official Report of the Organizing Committee of the Games of the XXII Olympiad. — M.: Fizkultura i Sport, 1981. — 643 p.
- Gardiner N.* Greek athletic sports and festivals. — Dubugul, 1979. — P.70.
- Gardiner N.* Athletics of the ancient world. — Chicago: Ares Publ., 1930. — 246 p.
- Gavrillin V.M., Zharov K.P.* 50 golden victories: At the XX Olympic games (In Russian). — M.: Voenizdat, 1973. — 214 p.
- Georgiadis K.* International Olympic Academy: the history of its establishment, aims and activities // Commercialization in sport and the Olympic movement. Ancient Olympia, 1993. — P. 57 — 61.
- Georgiev N.* The Olympic programme // Olympic Horizons, 1989. — 209. — P. 12.
- Gessmann R.* Fair Play in Olympic Education and its Practice in Schools. IOA / Ancient Olympia, 1993. — P. 3 — 12.
- Gibson R. L.* Avery Brundage: professional amateur: Doctoral Diss. — Kent State University, 1976. — 221 p.
- Gilder N.* The 1894 Olympic Handbook // Holt, Rinehart and Winston, N. Y. — 1983. — 208 p.
- Gilleron Ch.* Les relations de Lausanne et du mouvement Olympique a l'epoque de Pierre de Coubertin, 1894 — 1939 // Institute Olympique de Lausanne, 1993. — 220 p.
- Giochi della XVII Olimpiade Roma 1960. Rapporto Ufficiale del Comitato Organizzatore // Comitato Organizzatore dei Giochi della XVII Olimpiade, Roma 1960. — V. I. — 894 p.
- Giochi della XVII Olimpiade Roma 1960. Rapporto Ufficiale del Comitato Organizzatore // Comitato Organizzatore dei Giochi della XVII Olimpiade, Roma 1960. — V. II. — 1050 p.
- Girardi W.* Olympic Games. — N.Y.: Collins Publ., 1972. — 128 p.
- Glader E. A.* Amateurism and athletics. — N.Y.: Leisure Press, 1978. — 224 p.
- Glendhill N.* Exercise and Sport Science Reviews, 1985. — 13. — P. 75 — 93.
- Glenn S. R.* A history of the International Olympic Committee and television, 1936 — 1980: Doctoral Diss. — The Pennsylvania State University. — 1993. — 364 p.
- Gneiss K.* Sport. A philosophic inquiry // Southern Illinois University Press, 1969. — 274 p.
- Goldman, Bush B., Galatz P.* Death in the locker room: steroids and sports / South Bend, 2nd.: Icarus Press, 1984. — 370 p.
- Horacius.* To Lydia // Olympic flame (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1980. — P.56.
- Herodot.* History (In Russian). — L., 1972.
- Grader E. A.* A study of amateurism in sports: A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. Department of Physical Education for Men in the Graduate College of the University of Iowa, 1970. — 406 p.
- Graham C. C.* A historical and aesthetic analysis of Leni Riefenstahl's "Olympia" (Germany): Doctoral Diss. — New York University. — 1984. — 682 p.
- Graham P., Ueberhorst H.* The modern Olympics. — N.Y.: Leisure Press, 1976. — 254 p.
- Grawford S.A.G.M.* Olympic Games: 1896 — 1984. The march of technology evolution of scientific sport // Olympic review. — 181. — Nov. 1982. — P. 666 — 670.
- Gray W., Barney R.* Devotion to whom? German-American loyalty on the issue of participation in the 1936 Olympic Games // Journal of Sport History, 1990. — V.17. — No 2. — P. 214 — 231.
- Greer H. S.* Future of Olympism as a social movement // Arena review, 6(2). — Dec. 1982. — P. 22 — 25.
- Grenoble'68. The USSR team at the X Winter Olympic games (In Russian) / Compiled by R.V.Orlov. — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1968. — 104 p.
- Grigoryev Y.Y., Melnikov I., Chertkov V.* Munich: Olympiad and politics. Games from night to morning (In Russian). — M.: Sov.Russia, 1974. — 144 p.
- Groothoff C. I.* De Olympische Spielen // Jim Meulenhoff, Amsterdam, 1930. — 328 S.
- Growther N. B.* Rome and the ancient Olympic Games // Canadian Symposium on the history of sport. — Toronto, 1982.
- Grupe O.* Does top-level sport (still) have a future? Attempt at a definition // Georg Anders/Guido Schilling (ed.): Does top-level sport (still) have a future? Magglingen, 1985. — P. 43 — 70.
- Guelfand E.* Olympic Games: equality in law and inequality in practice // Olympic Review. — 184/185, Feb./March 1983. — P. 130 — 131.
- Guide du congres: 11e Congres Olympique: Baden-Baden 1981 // Nationales Olympisches Komitee fur Deutschland Organisationsburo fur den 11 Olympischen Kongress, 1981. — 3 Vol.
- Guldenpfennig S.* Wegweiser in die Zukunft der

- Olympischen Bewegung: Zwischenbericht 1981. — Köln: Pahl — Rugenstein, 1982. — 219 S.
- Guttman A.* From ritual to record. The nature of modern sport. — N. Y.: Columbia University Press, 1978. — 198 p.
- Guttman A.* The Games must go on. Avery Brundage and the Olympic movement. — N. Y.: Columbia University Press, 1984. — 317 p.
- Guttman A.* The Olympics. A history of the modern Games. — Urbana & Chicago: University of Illinois Press, 1991. — 191 p.
- Harley D.* War against drugs ESOC vows to end problem and help U. S. athletes win // *Olympian*. — 10 (5). — Nov. 1983. — P. 36 — 38.
- Hargreaves J.* Olympism and nationalism: some preliminary consideration // *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 1992. — V. 27. — 2. — P. 119 — 133.
- Harre D.* Principles of sports training: Introduction to the theory and methods of training. — East Berlin: Sportverlag, 1982.
- Harris H. A.* Greek Athletes and athletics // Greenwood Press, West Port., Conn., 1964. — 244 p.
- Hazan B.* Olympic sports and propaganda games: Moscow 1980 // New Brunswick, N. J., Transaction Books, 1982. — 218 p.
- Henry B.* An approved history of the Olympic games. — Los Angeles, 1981. — 504 p.
- Henry B., Yeomans P. H.* An approved history of the Olympic Games // The Southern California Committee for the Olympic Games, Los Angeles, California, 1984. — 503 p.
- Herrmann H.-V.* Olympia. Hultigum und Wettkampftat. — München: Hirmer Verlag, 1972. — 269 S.
- Hersh P.* Sport and the economy // Centennial Olympic Congress Report, 1994. — P.278.
- Hersh P.* Following in the ancient ski tracks of Rodeyman Norway prepares to reclaim its Olympic birthright in 1994 // *Sports Almanac*, Houghton Mifflin Company. — Boston, 1994. — P.554 — 559.
- Herzog M.* The athlete's development, place and role in society // Centennial Olympic Congress Report, 1994. — P.177.
- Hickok R.* New Encyclopaedia of Sports. — N.Y.: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1977. — 543 p.
- Hill Ch.* Olympic politics. — N.Y.: Manchester University Press, 1992. — 266 p.
- Hodler M.* Sport and the economy // Centennial Olympic Congress Report, 1994. — P.276.
- Hodler M.* Sport and the environment // Centennial Olympic Congress Report, 1994. — P.105.
- Hodler M.* Sport and the mass media // Centennial Olympic Congress Report, 1994. — P.329.
- Hodler M.* The contemporary athlete // Centennial Olympic Congress Report, 1994. — P.162 — 163.
- Hoffman S.* La carrière du Pere Didon, Dominicain (1840 — 1990): These de Doctorat d'etudes-lettres presentee devant l'universite de Paris IV — Sorbonne, 1985. — V. I, 11. — 1364 p.
- Hoffmann H.* Mythos Olympia. — Berlin: Aufbauverlag, 1993. — 213 S.
- Holden L.* An investigation of the sociopolitical influences on the Olympic Games, 1948 to 1968: Masters Diss. — Cal State at Long Beach. — 1972. — 99 p.
- Hollmann W., Hettinger T.* Sportmedizin Arbeit und Trainingsgrundlagen. — Stuttgart — New York, 1980.
- Homer.* Iliad (In Russian). — M., 1978.
- Honle A.* Olympia in der Politik der griechischen Staatenwelt // Reberhausen: Rotsch. — 212 S.
- Horn B.* Olympia. — München: Verlag, 1968. — 312 S.
- Horn B.* Von Olympia bis heute. Athen bis Tokio // Markus-Verlag Eupen, München 1964. — 279 S.
- Hulme D. L., Jr.* The viability of international sport as a political weapon: The 1980 US Olympic Boycott (United States) // Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy (Tufts University): Doctoral Diss. — 1988. — 364 p.
- International Conference. Law and sport // Court of Arbitration for sport. — Lausanne, 13 — 14 September 1993. — 183 p.
- International Olympic Academy. 13th session. 20th June — 5th July 1990. Women in the Olympic Movement // IOC, 1991. — 253 p.
- International sports societies and touristic organizations: Reference book / V.I. Koval (ed.). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1973. — 328 p.
- IV Olympische Winterspiele 1936. — Reichssportverlag, Berlin SW 68, 1936. — 449 S.
- Wallechinsky D.* The complete book of the Olympics. — Aurum Press, 1991. — 763 p.
- Jaccard C.* The Olympic Museum: Year zero // Olympic Message. The Olympic Museum. — No. 37, September 1993. — P. 83.
- Jemmarinen M.* Sport and international understanding. — Berlin: Springer-Verlag, 1984. — 372 p.
- Jeux de la VIII^e Olympiade Paris 1924. Rapport officiel // Comité Olympique Français, 1924. — 852 p.
- Jeznigan S.* Women and the Olympics // Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1962. — No. 32 (4). — P. 25 — 26.
- Johnson W.* All that glitters is not gold. The Olympic Games. — New York, 1972. — 298 p.
- Johnson W. O.* Omnipresent Olympics // Sports Almanac "Sports Illustrated", Little Brown & Co., Boston, New York, Toronto, London, 1994. — P. 576 — 579.
- Johnson W.* The Olympics. A history of the Olympic Games // Sports Illustrated, N. Y., 1992. — 224 p.
- Jokl E.* Sports in the cultural pattern of the world. A study of the 1952 Olympic Games. — Helsinki: Institute Occupational Health, 1956. — 126 p.
- Justification for banning performance enhancing substances and practices in the Olympic Games:

- Doctoral Diss. — University of Western Ontario. — 1993. — 333 p.
- Kahlich E., Papp L., Subert Z.* Olimpia jatekok. — Budapest: Sport, 1977. — 566 p.
- Kamper E.* Encyclopaedia of the Olympic games. — Harenberg, Dortmund, 1972. — 497 p.
- Karin D.* A political history of the Olympic games. — Colorado: Westview Press, 1982. — 161 p.
- Kartashov Y.A.* Gymnastics at the Olympic games (In Russian). — M.: Sov. Russia, 1960. — 102 P.
- Kempa H.* Zukunft der Olympischen Spiele // Theorie und Praxis der Körperkultur, 31 (1). — Jan. 1982. — S. 6 — 7.
- Khavin B.N.* 500 questions and answers about the Olympic games (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1971. — 175 p.
- Khavin B.N.* Everything about the Olympic games: Reference book. — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1979. — 607 p.
- Keller V.S.* The system of sports competitions and competitive activity of athletes (In Russian) // The Theory of Sport. — K.: Vyshcha shk., 1987 — P.66 — 100.
- Keller V.S., Platonov V.N.* Theoretical and methodical bases of the athletes preparation (In Russian). — Lviv: Ukr. sport .assots., 1993. — 268p.
- Kidane F.* The mass media in the developing countries// The Olympic movement and the mass media. — 1996. — XXVI — 1 — January-February-March. — P. 213 — 215.
- Kidane F.* Government: the main sponsor in developing countries // Sources of Financing Sports. — 1996. — No.3. — P.96 — 98.
- Kidane F.* The beginning of the ANOC // Olympic Review. XXVI — 12. — December 1996 — January 1997. — P. 4 — 6.
- Kidane F.* Once upon a time // Olympic Review. — 1996. — April- May. — P.6 — 11.
- Kidane F.* The IOC and the United Nations // Olympic Congress of centenary, 1994. — P. 3.
- Kieran J., Dally A., Jordan P.* The story of the Olympic Games. 776 B. C. to 1976. — N.Y.: Lippincots, 1977. — 314 P.
- Killanin M.* My Olympic years // London: Lecker and Warburg, 1983. — 238 p.
- Killanin M.* Notable speeches by Lord Killanin from 1972 to 1981 // CIO, 1985. — 125 p.
- Killanin M., Rodda J.* The Olympic Games. — London: Paulton House, 1979. — 319 p.
- Kim Un En.* IOC, Olympic movement and international relations // International sports and Olympic movement (In Russian). — M., 1993. — P.20 — 30.
- Kirby G. T.* Some remarks upon the Olympic and Pedagogic Congresses. — Prague, Czecho-Slovakia, 1925. — 22p.
- Kirsch A.* The definition of the Olympic idea in the Olympic Charter // Bulletin of the Federation internationale d'education physique. — 53(4). — Oct./Dec. 1983. — P. 25 — 28.
- Kiselev R.M.* X Olympic Congress (review) (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1975. — 102 p.
- Kisilev N.S., Melnikova I.A.* Blue sky over Melbourne (In Russian). — M.: Molodaya Gvardia, 1957. — 176 p.
- Klein H.* Avery Brundage die herausforderung, 1972. — 192 S.
- Kluge V.* Winter Olympia kompakt. — Berlin: Sportverlag, 1992. — 535 S.
- Knab R.* Die Periodoniken: Ein Betrag zur Geschichte der gymnischer Agone an den 4 griechischen Hauptfesten. — Chicago: Ares Publ., 1934. — 83 S.
- Koss O.* Potential dangers affecting the athlete // Centennial Olympic Congress Report, 1994. — P.215.
- Kocsis M.* Olimpiai memzetek. — Budapest: Sport, 1976. — 286 p.
- Koval V.I.* Olympic Games'80 (Economic aspect) (In Russian). — M.: Znaniye, 1978. — 48 p.
- Kruger A.* Die Olympischen Spiele 1936 und die Weltmeinung. — Berlin: Bartels und Wernetz, 1972. — 177 S.
- Kuehl J.* Sponsoren koennen helfen, doch der sponsoring ist kein allhellmittel zur finnanzierung des sports // Olympische jugend, 1990. — No6. — S. 4 — 5.
- Kuleshov A.P., Sobolev P.A.* In the snow of Squaw Valley. America during the Olympics (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1960. — 224 p.
- Kuleshov A.P., Sobolev P.A.* In the remote Melbourne. Essays about the XVI Olympic games (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1957. — 360 p.
- Kuleshov A.P., Sobolev P.A.* Snow Olympics (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1956. — 140 p.
- Kun L.* General history of physical culture and sport (In Russian). — M.: Raduga, 1982. — 399 p.
- Kun N.A.* Legends and myths of Ancient Greece (In Russian). — M.: Prosveshcheniye, 1975. — 464 p.
- Kyrkos B.* Sport in the Hellenistic and Roman periods // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A. 1976. — P. 275 — 286.
- L'actualite de Pierre de Coubertin // Rapport du Symposium du 18 au 20 Mars 1986 a l'Universite de Lausanne / Schors-Verlag Niedernhausen/Taunus, 1987. — 312 p.*
- L'Olympisme dans l'antiquite // Bertelsmann, UFA, Lausanne, 1993. — 160 p.*
- Lagorce G., Pariente R.* La fabuleuse des Jeux Olympiques. Etehiver. — Paris: Editions O. D. I. L., 1984. — 829 p.
- Lagorce G., Pariente R.* La fabuleuse histoire de Jeux Olympiques. — Paris, 1988 — 828 p.
- Lamb D. R.* Anabolic steroids in athletics: How well do they work and how dangerous are they? // American Journal of Sports Medicine, 1985. — 12. — P. 31 — 38.
- Lambros S. P., Polites N. G.* The Olympic Games B. C. 776 — A. D. 1896. Part I. The Olympic Games in ancient

- times // Athenes, Charles Beck (Ed.), London, H. Grevel k Co., 33 King — Str., Covent Garden, W. C., 1896. — 117 p.
- Lanzi N.* Les jeux Olympiques, 1896 — 1936. — Paris: EHESS, 1989. — 123 p.
- Larrauri I., Agostoni J.* Collections and services // Olympic Message. The Olympic Museum. — No. 37, September 1993. — P. 54 — 55.
- Lathe Y. de.* Mes huitiemes et derniers Jeux Olympiques et tous les Jeux de 1896 a 1984 // Editions des Vacances, La Metairie, 1984. — 291 p.
- Le rapport officiel du Comite Organisateur des Jeux de la XXe Olympiade Munich 1972, pro Sport Munchen, 1972. — V. I. — 400 p.
- Lebedev L.G., Melnikov I.A.* In the beams of the Olympic fire (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1977. — 102 p.
- Ledos E., Maire F.* Marketing et development d'une association sportive // Revue EPS, 1989. — 220. — P. 36 — 40.
- Lee J.-Y.* Sport nationalism in the modern Olympic Games: Doctoral Diss. — University of Northern Colorado, 1990. — 252 p.
- Leebron E. J.* An analysis of selected United States media coverage of the 1972 Munich Olympic tragedy // Doctoral Diss. — Northwestern University. — 1978. — 428 p.
- Leigh M. H.* The evolution of women's participation in the summer Olympic Games, 1900 — 1948 Doctoral Diss. — Ohio State University. — 1974. — 490 p.
- Leigh M.* Pierre de Coubertin: a man of his time // Quest, June 1974. — No 22. — P. 19 — 24.
- Leiper J. M.* The International Olympic Committee: the pursuit of Olympism, 1894 — 1970: Doctoral Diss. — University of Alberta (Canada). — 1976. — 272 p.
- Lekarska N.* Essays and studies on Olympic problems. — Sofia: Medicina and Fizkultura, 1973. — 121 p.
- Lekarska N.* Tenth and eleventh Olympic Congress. Comparative studies and essays. — Sofia: Sofia Press, 1986. — 179 p.
- Lenk H.* In search of a renovated Olympic idea // Olympic review. — 187. — May 1983. — P. 289 — 293.
- Lenk H.* Toward a social philosophy of the Olympics: values, aims, reality of the Olympic movement // Spiele-Verlag, 1976. — 109 p.
- Lenk H.* Werte. Ziele, Wirklichkeit der modernen Olympischen Spiele. — Stuttgart, 1964. — S. 8 — 16.
- Lenk H.* Werte. Ziele, Wirklichkeit der modernen Olympischen Spiele // Verlag Karl Hofmann Schorndorf bei Stuttgart, 1972. — 376 S.
- Lennartz K., Teutenberg W.* Die deutsche Olympia — Mannschaft von 1896 // Kasseler Sportverlag, 1992. — 64 S.
- Leonard W.* A sociological perspective of sport // Bueges Publ. Co., Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1980. — 320 p.
- Leu B.* Olympic athlete in antiquity // Olympic review. — 181. — Nov. 1982. — P. 659 — 665.
- Leveling K.* Der amateurgedanke und die Olympischen Spiele. — Koln: Deutsche sportschule, 1957. — 109 S.
- Liculus.* Epigrams about fisticuffs fighters // Olympic flame (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1980. — 51 p.
- Lizawa S.* The XVIII Winter Olympic Games in Nagano (NAOC) // World Conference on Sport and the Environment. Final Report, 1995, p. 80 — 87.
- Logofet O.* Five Olympic days (In Russian). — M.: Sov.Russia, 1960. — 72 p.
- Loiperdinger M.* Dokument-halb Falschung. Zur Inszenierung der Eroffnungsfeier in Riefenstahls Olympia-Film // Medium, Frankfurt/Main, 3. — 1988. — 45 S.
- Lord Killarin.* My Olympic years. — London: Seeker and Wartburg, 1983. — 238 p.
- Lorenzo A.A.* Sport, Education and Environment. // World Conference on Sport and the Environment. Final Report, 1995, p. 112 — 119.
- Lotz F.* Science and the Olympic movement // Olympic review. — 190/191. — Aug. / Sept. 1983. — P. 565 — 569.
- Lucan.* Collection of works (In Russian). — M. — L., 1935. — V.1 — 11.
- Lucas C.J.P.* The Olympic Games 1904 // St. Louis, MO., Woodward & Tiernan Printing Co., 1905. — 144 p.
- Lucas J.* Olympism in the USA // Olympic Message. — 1994. — No.39.
- Lucas J.* Baron Pierre de Coubertin and the formative years of the modern international Olympic movement 1883 — 1896 // Ann. Arbom. Mich., 1987. — 222 p.
- Lucas J.* Future of the Olympic Games // Champaign, Ill., Human Kinetics, 1992. — 231 p.
- Lucas J.* The modern Olympic Games // A. S. Barnes and Co., 1980. — No. 9. — 242 p.
- Lucas J.* Future of the Olympic Games // International Journal of Physical Education, 1992. — V. 29. — N 4. — P. 46 — 47.
- Luculus.* Epigrams about fisticuffs fighters // Olympic Flame (In Russian). — M.:Fizkultura i sport, 1980. — 51 p.
- Lukashin Y.S., Khavin B.N.* White Olympiads (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1960. — 397 p.
- Lyberg W.* The IOC and the medias // Olympic Congress of centenary, 1994. — P.21 — 24.
- Lyberg W.* The IOC sessions 1894 — 1955. — Stockholm, V. I. — 318 p.
- Lyberg W.* The IOC sessions 1956 — 1988. — Stockholm, V. II. — 390 p.
- Lyberg W.* Keep the tradition // The Olympic movement and the mass media. — 1996. — XXVI — 1. — January-February-March. — P.134 — 136.

- Lyubomirov N.* XV Olympic games (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1955. — 327 p.
- Lyubomirov N.I.* From Athens to Rome (In Russian). — M.: Sov.Russia, 1960.
- Lyubomirov N.I.* Moscow the capital of Olympics'80 (In Russian). — M.: Znaniye, 1980. — 64 p.
- Lyubomirov N.I.* Soviet sport and Olympic movement (In Russian). — M.: Znaniye, 1967. — 96 p.
- MacAllon J.* Encountering our others: social science and Olympic sport. — Seoul, Korea, 1987. — 31 p.
- MacAllon J.* This great symbol: Pierre de Coubertin and the origins of the modern Olympic games. — Chicago: University Press, 1984. — 359 p.
- MacDougell J., Wenger H., Green H.* Physiological testing of the elite athlete. — Canada: Mutual Press, 1982. — 174 p.
- Macintosh D., Cantelon H., McDermott L.* The IOC and South Africa: a lesson in transnational relations // International Review for the Sociology of sport, 1993. — V. 28. — N 4. — P. 373 — 395.
- Mali M.* Philosophic de l'Olympisme // Message Olympique. — 2. — Sept. 1982. — P. 19 — 28.
- Mallon B.* A bibliography of the Olympic Games and the Olympic movement, 1983. — 208 p.
- Mamleyev D.F., Silantyev V.A.* Star time of Montreal (In Russian). — M.: Izvestiya, 1976. — 239 p.
- Mandell R.* The first modern Olympics // University of California Press, Berkeley, Los Angeles, 1976. — 194 p.
- Marchand J.* The better and for worse // The Olympic movement and the mass media. — 1996. — XXVI — 1. — January- February-March. — P. 14 — 17.
- Marchand J.* Pierre de Coubertin and journalism // Olympic Congress of centenary, 1994. — P. 28 — 30.
- Marcucci C., Searingi C.* Olimpiadi. Storia delle Olimpiadi antiche e moderne // Il Gallo Grande, Milano, 1959. — 258 p.
- Marrion H.* Historie de l'education dans l'antiquite. — Paris, 1950. — P.97.
- Martin P.-R.* The friends of the Olympic Museum // Olympic Message. The Olympic Museum. — N 37. — Sept. 1993. — P. 82.
- Mashin Y.D.* Outcomes of the XVII Olympic games (Tokyo) (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1965. — 46 p.
- Mathys F. K.* American at the first Olympic Games // Olympic Review, 171. — Jan. 1982. — P. 27 — 28.
- Mattle M.-C.* A powerful computer system to serve sport // Olympic Review, 1992. — No. 292 — 293. — P. 97 — 99.
- Matveyev L.P.* The bases of sports training (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1977. — 280p.
- Matveyev L.P.* Problems of revealing and formulating specific regularities and principles of athletic training // Methodological preparation of elite athletes. — M.: VNIIFK, 1984. — P.30 — 39.
- Mauer T.* Die Olympischen Kongresse 1894 — 1930 und ihre Einordnung in die Olympische Bewegung. — Koln, 1981. — 178 S.
- Maurizio T.* Il Congresso Olimpico di Praga: 1925 // S. 1.: s.n., 1980.
- Mayer O.* Retrospectives Olympiques: Athenes 1896 — Paris 1900/1960. — 75 p.
- Meranzov H., Georgiev N.* Analysis of the Olympic programme. — Sofia: Sofia Press, 1985. — 247 p.
- Mevert F.* Olympische Spiele der Neuzeit — von Athen bis Los Angeles // Niedernhausen/Taunus, Schors-Verlag, 1983. — 185 S.
- Meyer G.* Updating the Olympic Programme // Olympic review. — 177. — July 1982. — P. 401 — 402.
- Meze F.* 60 years of the Olympic games (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1959. — 391 p.
- Meze F.* The modern Olympic Games. — Budapest.: Pannonia Press, 1956. — 413 p.
- Miller D.* The last Olympic ideal // The Olympic movement and the mass media. — 1996. — XXVI — 1. — January-February-March. — P. 131 — 133.
- Miller D.* La revolution Olympique. Portrait de Juan Antonio Samaranch // Payot and Rivages, 1993. — 406 p.
- Miller D.* Olympic revolution. — London: Pavilion Books Ltd., 1992. — 266 p.
- Monreal L.* A living force in constant motion // Olympic Message. The Olympic Museum. — 1993. — Sept. — No.37. — P.46, 53.
- Morton H.* Soviet sport. — N.Y.: Collier Books, 1963. — 221 p.
- Mouratidis J.* Greek sports, games and festivals before the eighth century B. C.: Doctoral Diss. — The Ohio State University. — 1982. — 269 p.
- Moss W.F.* The Games of the XXVI Olympiad in Atlanta (ACOG) // World Conference on Sport and the Environment. Final Report, 1995, p. 70 — 80.
- Mukherjee S.* The Olympic Games. The story of sport from Olympia to Moscow. — New Delhi: Lancers Publ., 1980. — 174 p.
- Mulders D.* The Olympische Amateur definition seit dem Parizer Kongress 1894 // Deutsche Sporthochschule, Koln, 1968. — 200 S.
- Muller N.* Pierre de Coubertin textes choisis. Olympisme // Tome II, Weidmann Zurich — New York, 1986. — 760 p.
- Muller N.* Die Olympische Idee Pierre de Coubertin und Carl Diem in ihrer Auswirkung auf die IOA // Graz, 1975. — Doc. Dissertation.
- Muller N.* L'actualite de Pierre de Coubertin. The relevance of Pierre de Coubertin today // I Schors-Verlag Niedernhausen/Taunus, 1987. — 312 p.
- Muller N.* Olympische Erziehung // Signale der Zeit. Festschrift zum 70. Geburtstag von Prof. Dr. Josef Recla. — Schorndorf, 1975. — S. 133 — 140.
- Muller N.* Olympism and sport for all // IOA, 1988. — P. 1 — 12.

- Muller N. Olympismus als Gegenstand schulischer Erziehung // *Olympisches Feuer* (1991), 3. — S. 49 — 53.
- Muller N. Von. Paris bis Baden-Baden. Die Olympischen Kongresse 1894 — 1981 // Schors-Verlag Niedernhausen Taunus, 1983. — 220S.
- Muller N., Rioux G. Pierre de Coubertin. Textes choisis // Weidmann, Zurich, 1986. Tome I. Revelation. — 666 p.
- Muller N., Schanz O. Bibliography of the works of Pierre de Coubertin // *Olympic review*, 1992. — V. 297 — 298. — 386 p.
- Muller N. International Olympic Academy, IOA: 30 years of IOA as mirrored by its lectures 1961 — 1990 // CIO, Lausanne, 1991. — 368 p.
- Mullin B., Hardy S., Sutton W. Sport Marketing // Human Kinetic Publisher, 1993. — 295 p.
- Murion H. I. Historie de l'education dans l'antiquite. — Paris, 1950. — P. 97.
- Mussche H. Deporte y arquitectura // Centre cultural de la fundacion "La Caixa". — Barcelona, 1992. — P.42 — 56.
- Myths of the peoples of the world. Encyclopaedia (2 volumes) (In Russian). — M.: Sovetskaya encyclopedia, 1982.
- Neuber M. Die Olympischen Spiele des Kleinen Mannes // *Olympisch jugend*, 1992. — No 5. — S.6 — 7.
- Nissiotis N. Philosophy of Olympism: idealism and realism in the Olympic idea // *Bulletin of the Federation internationale d'education physique*. — 3/4. — Oct./Dec. 1983. — P. 9 — 11.
- Novoskoltsev V.A. Blazing relay (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1979. — 303 p.
- Novoskoltsev V.A. Interwined rainbow. Sketches about Coubertin (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1964. — 84 p.
- Oduyale A. T. Future of the Olympic movement // *Olympic Review*, 182. — Dec. 1982. — P. 737 — 740.
- Official Report of the Games of the XXIIIrd Olympiad. — Los Angeles, 1984. — V. I. — 517 p.
- Official report of the XVI Olympic Winter Games of Albertville and Savoie // Organizing Committee, Albertville, France, 1992. — 486 p.
- Official Report. Games of the XXI Olympiad // Organizing Committee, Montreal 1976. — V. I. — 618 p.
- Official Report. Games of the XXI Olympiad // Organizing Committee, Montreal 1976. — V. II. — 239 p.
- Official Report. Games of the XXI Olympiad // Organizing Committee, Montreal 1976. — V. III. — 693 p.
- Official Report. III Olympic Winter Games // III Olympic Winter Games Committee, Lake Placid, N. Y., 1992. — 291 p.
- Official Report. The Seoul Olympic Organizing Committee. — Korea: Textbook Co., 1989. — 727 p.
- Official Results. XIII Olympic Winter Games, Lake Placid, 1980.
- Officiell Redogorelse for Olympiska Spelen i Stockholm 1912 // Organisationskommitten. Wahlstrom & Widstrand, Stockholm, 1912. — 520 S.
- Offizieller Bericht der IX Olympischen Winterspiele Innsbruck 1964 // Organisationskomitee der IX Olympischen Winterspiele. — Innsbruck, 1964. — 352 S.
- Okafor V. P. The interaction of sports and politics as a dilemma of the modern Olympic Games: Doctoral Diss. — Ohio State University, 1979. — 295 p.
- Olympia 1936 und die leibesübungen im nationalsozialistischen staat // Zweiter band, Buchvertrieb Olympiade 1936, Berlin. — 519 S.
- Olympic Charter, 1994. — Lausanne, IOC, 1993. — 119 p.
- Olympic constellation. Winners of the XI Winter and XX Summer Olympic games: Reference book / Compiled by A.D.Biryukov (In Russian). — M.:Fizkultura i sport, 1974. — 270 p.
- Olympic encyclopaedia (In Russian). — M.: Sovetskaya encyclopedia, 1980. — 416 p.
- Olympic flame. Sport in the works of world poets (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1980. — 381 p.
- Olympic movement problems (Olympic Committee of Bulgaria). — Sofia, 1977. — 365 p.
- Olympic Scientific Congress 1984: Official report. Sport history (Muller .N., Ruhe J., eds.). — Schors-Verlag, 1985. — 486 p.
- Olympic Solidarity // Marketing manual. — Lausanne, IOC, 1993. — 55 p.
- Olympic Solidarity. The last 10 years // International Olympic Committee, Lausanne, 1993. — 53 p.
- Opperman R. Africa's first Olympians: the story of the Olympic movement in South Africa 1907 — 1987. — Johannesburg: Sanoe, 1987. — 68 p.
- Organisationsdarstellung und folgerungen. 11 Olympischer Kongress Baden-Baden 1981 und 84 session des internationalen Olympischen Komitees 20 september bis 3 oktober 1981 // Nationales Olympisches Komitee fur Deutschlad, 1981. — 418 S.
- Oswald D. Doping: the sports movement leads the way // *Olympic Review*. — 1993. — No.303/304.— P.34 — 37.
- Oswald D. Sport and the mass media // Centennial Olympiuc Congress Report, 1994. — P.7 — 10, 331 — 334.
- Pahud J.-F. The memory of the Olympic Movement // *Olympic Message. The Olympic Museum*. — N 37. — Sept. 1993. — P. 64 — 66.
- Palaeologos K.I. The pentathlon // *The Olympic Games in ancient Greece*, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 214 — 215.
- Palaeologos K.I. Wrestling // *The Olympic Games in ancient Greece*, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 202 — 213.

- Palaeologos K.I.* Running // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 155 — 175.
- Palaeologos K.I.* An Olympiad // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 128 — 133.
- Palaeologos K.I.* Rules of the competitions // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 122 — 127.
- Palaeologos K.I.* Boxing // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 216 — 225.
- Palaeologos K.I.* The organisation of the Games // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 104 — 113.
- Palaeologos K.I.* The pankration // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 226 — 231.
- Palaeologos K.I.* The preparation of the athletes // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 114 — 121.
- Palaeologos K.I.* Jumping // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 176 — 187.
- Palaeologos K.I.* The Discus // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 188 — 195.
- Palaeologos K.I.* The javelin // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 196 — 201.
- Panagiotopoulos D.* A scientific approach to the Olympic Games and the teaching of Olympism in higher institutions of physical education // Int. J. Phys. Educ., 1992. — V. 29. — P. 33 — 36.
- Pappas N. K.* History and development of the International Olympic Academy, 1927 — 1977: Doctoral Diss. — Univ. of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1978. — 310 p.
- Parandovsky Yan.* Mythology. Beliefs and legends of Greeks and Romans (In Russian). — M., 1971.
- Parandovsky Yan.* Olympic disc (In Russian). — M.: Progress, 1979. — P. 73 — 74.
- Pavlov S.P.* Olympic year. Outcomes. Lessons. Perspectives (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1973. — 63 p.
- Pavlov S.P.* Physical culture and sport in the USSR (In Russian). — M.: Znaniye, 1979. — 64 p.
- Pavlov S.P.* XIX Olympiad. Hopes, outcomes, problems (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1968. — 63 p.
- Payne M.* A further partnership // Olympic Message. The Olympic Museum. — No 37. — Sept. 1993. — P. 70 — 71.
- Payne M.* Olympic marketing in the next millennium // Sources of Financing Sports. — 1996. — No. 3. — P. 19 — 24.
- Payne R.* Sports et industrie // Message Olympique, 1989. — No. 24. — P. 37 — 43.
- Peereboom K.* Olympisch Logboek 1960 // De Bezige Bij, Amsterdam 1960. — 272 p.
- Pendleton B. B.* The People's Republic of China and the Olympic Movement: A question of recognition: Doctoral Diss. — Univ. of Alberta (Canada), 1978.
- Pentazou M.* Honours conferred on the victors // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 134 — 141.
- Pescante M.* A dream to be cultivated // Olympic Congress of centenary, 1994. — P. 32.
- Peterson P. M.* History of Olympic skiing for women in the United States. A cultural interpretation: Doctoral Diss., 1967. — 287 p.
- Piewcewicz J.* Dans les CNO et leurs pays // Olympic magazine, 1990. — N 1. — P. 41 — 44.
- Pils P.* Zukunft der Olympischen Spiele // Olympische Blatter. — 10(2). — July 1982. — S. 10 — 13.
- Pindar.* Odes (Pindar, Vakhilid, Fragments) (In Russian). — M., 1980.
- Pindar.* The first Olympic song // Olympic flame (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1980. — P. 43 — 48.
- Platonov V.N.* Preparation of elite athletes (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1986. — 286 p.
- Platonov V.N.* The adaptation in sport (In Russian). — K.: Zdorovja, 1988. — 214 p.
- Platonov V.N.* La adaptacion en el deporte. — Barcelona: Editorial Paidotribo, 1991. — 313 p.
- Platonov V.N.* Tratado de la actividad fisica. Las bases del entrenamiento deportivo. — Barcelona: Editorial Paidotribo, 1992. — 313 p.
- Platonov V.N.* Modern athletic training (In Russian). — K.: Zdorovye, 1980. — 336 p.
- Platonov V.N.* Sports theory (In Russian). — K.: Vyscha shkola, 1987. — 424 p.
- Platonov V.N.* Theory and methods of athletic training (In Russian). — K.: Vyscha shkola, 1984. — 352 p.
- Platonov V.N., Vaitsekhovsky S.M.* The training of elite swimmers (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1985. — 256 p.
- Platonov V.N., Petrovsky V.V.* Olympic sport as a system of knowledge and sphere of activity // Modern Olympic sport (In Russian). — K., 1993. — P. 13 — 17.
- Platt A. R.* The Olympic Games and their political aspects: 1952 to 1972: Doctoral Diss. — Kent State University. — 1976. — 377 p.
- Pleket H.* The Olympic Games and their decline // 1st joint international session for directors of national Olympic academies, members and staff of national Olympic Committees and international sports federations. — Ancient Olympia, 1992. — P. 19 — 24.
- Polevoy V.M.* Art of Greece (In Russian). — M.: Sovetsky khudozhnik, 1975. — 445 p.
- Poole L & G.* History of ancient Olympic games. — London.: Vision Press, 1965. — 143 p.

- Ponomarev N.A.* The modern Olympism as the type of spirituality (In Russian) // The Modern Olympic Sport. — K.: KGIFK, 1993. — P.64 — 66.
- Ponomarev N.A.* Olympism — general human value (In Russian). — K.: KGIFK, 1993. — P.61 — 64.
- Pound P.* The Centenary: looking back — looking forward // Message Olympique. Olympic message, 1994. — No.39. — P.11.
- Pound R.* Le sponsorisme et les jeux Olympiques // Message Olympique, 1989. — No. 24.
- Pound W.* The commercialization of sport: dilemma or deliverance? // Olympic Congress of centenary, 1994. — P.9 — 11.
- Pound R.W.* The importance of commercialism for the Olympic movement // Sources of Financing Sports. — 1996. — No.3. — P.10 — 13.
- Powell J. T.* Development of Olympic athletes // Olympic review. — 193. — Nov. 1983. — P.748 — 753.
- Premier Conres international Olympique pedagogique de Prague 1925.. an II de la Ville Olympiade, 29 mai — 4 juin: reglement et programme, compte rendu des seances, annexes. — Prague: Impr. d'Etat, 1925. — 104 p.
- Preobrazhensky S.A.* In hot fights. Competition at the Olympics (In Russian). — M.: Sov. Russia, 1979. — 188 p.
- Prochazka K.* Olympijske hry od Athen 1896 po Moskvu 1980 // Olympia, Praha 1984. — 640 p.
- Profissionais e amadores (Conferencias Desportivas). — Lisboa, 1942. — 108 p.
- Radzig S.I.* History of ancient Greek literature (In Russian). — M.: Vysshaya shk., 1977. — 522 p.
- Rapport general du Comite Executif des II-mes Jeux Olympiques d'hiver et documents officiels / divers // Comite Olympique Suisse, St.-Moritz, 1928. — 43 p.
- Rapport general sur les Jeux Olympiques d'hiver. St.-Moritz 1948 // Lausanne, Comite Olympique Suisse. — 74 p.
- Rapport officiel des Jeux de la IX' Olympiade Amsterdam 1928 // Comite Olympique Hollandais, J. H. de Bussy, Amsterdam — Rokin, 1928. — 1021 p.
- Rapport officiel des Jeux de la VII Olympiade Anvers, 1920. — 174 p.
- Rapport officiel. Xes Jeux Olympiques d'hiver Grenoble 1968 // Comite Organisateur des Jeux, / 1968. — 409 p.
- Rashke W. I.* The archaeology of the Olympics // The University of Wisconsin Press. — 1988. — 297 p.
- Redis B.* Who is who in antiquity: Reference book. Ancient Greek and ancient Roman classics (In Russian). — M.: Detskaya kniga, 1993. — 320 p.
- Reglements des congres Olympiques qui ont eu lieu de 1894 a 1930. — Sofia: Comite Olympique Bulgare, 1970. — 88 p.
- Riordan I.* Sport in Soviet society // Cambridge University Press, N. Y., 1977. — 435 p.
- Riordan J.* Great Britain and the 1980 Olympics — victory for Olympism // Current research on peace and violence, 5. — 1982. — P.144 — 158..
- Rivkin L.I.* In the valley of Alpheia. Olympic games in the ancient Greek art (In Russian). — M., 1969.
- Robinson R. S.* Sources for the history of Greek athletics. — Chicago: Ares Publishers, 1955. — 289 p.
- Rodda I.* Le CIO depuis 1972// Message Olympique, 1989. — N 23. — P.17 — 24.
- Rodichenko V.S.* Organization and technical provision of the Olympic competitions (In Russian). — M.: Znaniye, 1978. — 64 p.
- Romanov A.O.* International sports movement (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1973. — 255 p.
- Romanov N.N.* Difficult roads to Olympus (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1987.
- Romashko A.I.* Sports facilities for the Olympic games (In Russian). — M.: Znaniye, 1970. — 32 p.
- Romero F. G.* Los Juegos Olimpicos y el deporte en Grecia // Editorial AUSA Sabadell, 1984. — 450 p.
- Rose D. A.* Olympic athletes: amateur or professional? // World sport psychology Congress. — Ottawa, 1981.
- Rubin R.* VIII Olympic Winter Games. Squaw Valley, California 1960. Final report // California Olympic Commission. — 159 p.
- Ruiz A.G.* Los Juegos Olimpicos de las XXV Olimpiadas de Verano de la era moderna y desde la era antigua a Barcelona — 92 // San tander, 1990. — 669 p.
- Ryberg W.* Evolution de la cooptation // Message Olympique, 1989. — No 23. — P.59 — 63.
- Sage G.* Sport and American Society (3rd ed.) // Addison Wesley Publ. Co., Reading, Mass., 1980. — 395 p.
- Samaranch J.A.* Preface //Olympic Message. The Olympic Museum. — No 37., Sept. 1993. — P.2 — 3.
- Samaranch J.A.* I'm fundamentally an optimist // Olympic review. — No 262. — P.376 — 379.
- Samaranch J.A.* The year in review (Editorial)// Olympic Review. XXVI — 12-December 1996-January 1997.
- Santone D.* Greek athletics and the genesis of sport // Canadian Journal of History of Sport, 1990. — V.21. — No.1. — P.85 — 86
- Savelyev B.N.* Wizards of Olympic rinks (In Russian). — M.: Znaniye, 1960. — 63 p.
- Savvin V.I.* Modern Olympic movement (In Russian). — M.: Znaniye, 1970. — 32 p.
- Schaap R.* An illustrated history of the Olympics // 3rd Ed., Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1975. — 388 p.
- Schaap R.* An illustrated history of the Olympics // New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1963. — 320 p.
- Scheider A. Jo-Anne.* Drugs in sport, the straight dope: A philosophical analysis of the justification for banning performance — enhancing substances and practices in the Olympic Games: Doctoral Diss. — University of Western Ontario, 1993.— 333 p.
- Schelsky H.* Friede auf Zeit: die Zukunft der Olympischen Spiele // Osnzbruck: A. Fromm, 1973. — 79 S.

- Scherer K A. 75 Olympische jahre // Munchen: pro sport, 1970. — 174 S.
- Scherer K A. Ueber Olympiatrene, Boykott und Verzicht — Eine jahrhundertstatih // Olympisches feuer, 1990. — No 92. — S. 14 — 17.
- Schneidman N. The Soviet road to Olympus: theory and practice of Soviet physical culture and sport // Henley: Rontledge and Kegan, 1979. — 180 p.
- Schobel H. Olympia und seine spiele // Sportverlag Berlin, Edition Leipzig, 1964. — 305 S.
- Schobel H. Olympia und seine spiele // Urania-Verlag Leipzig. Jena., Berlin, 1976. — 184 S.
- Schobel H. Olympic et ses jeux // Editions Leipzig, 1965. — 17 p.
- Segrave I., Chu D. (Eds.) Olympism // Champaign, Illinois: Human Kinetics, 1981. — 346 p.
- Shanin Y.V. Heroes of antique stadia (In Russian). M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1979. — 141 p.
- Shaw A. The reestablishment of the Olympic Games // The review of reviews, December 1894. — No. 10. — P. 643 — 647.
- Shebel G. Olympia and its games (Translated from German). — Leipzig: Edicion, 1967. — 279 p.
- Shishigin M. The way to Olympus (In Russian). — M.:Fizkultura i sport, 1967. — 496 p.
- Shteinbach V.L. Olympic emblems (In Russian). — M.:Fizkultura i sport, 1978. — 188 p.
- Shteinbach V.L. From Athens to Moscow (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1979. — 263 p.
- Shteinbach V.L. Heroes of the Olympic fights (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1979. — 215 p.
- Simonid Keosky. Winners at the Olympic games // Olympic flame (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1980. — P.49 — 50.
- Simson V. The lords of the rings: power, money and drugs in the modern Olympics. — London: Simson and Schuster, 1992. — 289 p.
- Siperco A. Olympism. The Olympic movement. The Olympic Games. — Bucharest: Sport-turism, 1977. — 103 p.
- Sobolev P.A. Olympia, Athens, Rome (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1960. — 462 p.
- Sobolev P.A., Kalinin N. Olympic games (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1955. — 151 p.
- Sokolov G.I. Olympia (In Russian). — M.: Iskusstvo, 1980. — 206 p.
- Solakov A. (ed.) Topical problems of the Intentional Olympic Movement. — Sofia: Sofia Press, 1982. — 272 p.
- Solakov A. New climate in the Olympic movement. — Sofia: Sofia Press, 1974. — 103 p.
- Solakov A., Georgiyev N. The Spiritual inheritance of Piere Coubertin. — Sofia: Medicine and Fizkultura, 1983. — 190 p. (In Bulgarian).
- Spaeti K. Underground techniques // Olympic Message. The Olympic Museum. — 1993. — Sept. — No37. — 76 p.
- Spathari E. Mind and body. The revival of the Olympic Idea 19th-20th century // National Gallery and Alexander Soutzos Museum, 15 Maó 1989 — 15 January 1990, Athens, 1989. — 199 p.
- Spazari E. El espiritu Olimpico // Adam. Atenas, 1992. — 365 p.
- Special Congress // Olympic Review, Lausanne, 1973. — P. 321 — 388.
- Sport and Politics. The 1984 Olympic Congress // Proceedings, V.7. — Human Kinetics Publ., Champaign, Ill., 1986. — 214 p.
- Sports Marketing Europe. The Legal and Tax Aspects. — Kluwer Law and Taxation Publishers. Deventer, Boston, 1993. — P. 393 — 412.
- Sports stars: Reference book /Compiled by B.N.Khavin (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1979. — 429 p.
- Starodub A.E. See you in Moscow: everything or almost everything about Olympiad'80 (In Russian). — M.: Mosk.rabochyi, 1978. — 170 p.
- Stauble V.R. The impact of changing organizational and political perspectives: The Olympic Games Movement, 1976 — 1984: Doctoral Diss. — Clarement Graduate School. — 1981. — 185 p.
- Steinberg H. Olympic University // Olympic Congress of centenary, 1994. — P. 12 — 18.
- Stolbov V.V. The history of physical culture (In Russian). — M.:Prosveshcheniye, 1989. — 287p.
- Subjects raised in IOC sessions since 1941 // S. I.: s. n., 1972. — 24 p.
- Sun Byung Kee. Olympia and Politics, 1984.
- Sunic A.B. On the division into periods of the history of the modern Olympic movement (In Russian) // Theory and practice of physical culture. — 1983. — No8. — P.41 — 44.
- Sutcliffe P. W. The structure and political significance of sport in the German Democratic Republic: A socio-historical study of the development of sport in Germany prior to 1945 and its subsequent political instrumentalisation in the German Democratic Republic: Doctoral Diss. — University of Bradford (UK). — 1987. — 630 p.
- Swadding J. The ancient Olympic Games. — Austin: University of Texas Press, 1980. — 80 p.
- Szymiczek O. Olympic Movement, Olympic Games // IOA, Report of the Twenty-Fourth Session 1984. Lausanne (1985). — P. 149 — 159.
- Tait R. The politicization of the modern Olympic Games: Doctoral Diss. — University of Oregon. — 1984. — 314 p.
- Tarassouleas A.T.H. Olympic Games in Athenes // ATH. Tarassouleas, 1988. — 221 p.
- Taylor V. B. An historical review of Olympic terrorism: The terrorist threat to the 1984 Olympic Games and proposed security countermeasures: Masters Diss. — California State University, Long Beach. — 1982. — 188 p.

- The administration of an Olympic Games (Submitted at the request of the IOC by Sandy Duncan, Marcello Garroni, Jukiaki Iwata), 1966 — 1969. — 115 p.
- The Equestrian. Games of the XVIth Olympiad. — Stockholm, 1956. — 270 p.
- The Fourth Olympiad being the official report of the Olympic Games of 1908 // The British Olympic Association, London S.W., 1908. — 794 p.
- The Games of the Xth Olympiad. Los Angeles 1932. Official Report // Xth Olympiad Committee of the games of Los-Angeles, U.S.A., 1932. LTD., 1933. — 815 p.
- The Games of the XVIII Olympiad Tokyo 1964: The official Report of the Organizing Committee. — Tokyo, 1964. — 720 p.
- The Guinness Book of Sports Records 1993 // M. Young (ed.), Facts on File. — New — York, 1993.
- The official report of the Organizing Committee for the Games of the XVI Olympiad Melbourne 1956 // W. M. Houston, Government Printer, Melbourne, Australia, 1958. — 760 p.
- The official report of the Organizing Committee for the XIV Olympiad // The Organizing Committee for the XIV Olympiad, London 1948. — 579 p.
- The Olympic Games in ancient Greece // Ekdotike Athenon, 1976. — 302 p.
- The Olympic movement. — Lausanne, IOC, 1993. — 110 p.
- The Olympic movement and the mass media: past, present and future issues // International Conference proceedings, Calgary, Canada, Febr. 15 — 19, 1987. — Calgary, Alberta: Harford, 1989. — V. 1. — 111 p.
- The Speeches of President Avery Brundage. 1952 to 1968. — CIO, Lausanne, 1968. — 102 p.
- The USSR team at the XI Winter Olympic games. Sapporo 1972 (In Russian). — M.: Fizkultura i sport, 1972. — 141 p.
- The XI Olympic Winter Games. — Japan, Sapporo, 1972. — 493 p.
- Titov Y.E. Ascent. Gymnastics at the Olympic games (In Russian). — M.: Sov. Russia, 1978. — 192 p.
- Tan O. A history of the ancient Olympic games. — Manila: Chinese Sports Publishing, 1952. — 181 p.
- Treasures A. Candidate cities for the 2000 Olympic Games // Bertelsmann, U.F.A., Lausanne, 1993. — 179 p.
- Umminger W. Die Olympischen Spiele der Neuzeit // Munchen, 1969. — 396 S.
- United States 1960 Olympic book. Quadrennial report of the United States Olympic Committee // United States Olympic Association. — New-York, 1960. — 408 p.
- Ulrich K. Olympische Spiele. Die Spiele, Problems und Tendenzen, Documentation. — Berlin: Sportverlag, 1978. — 319 S.
- Vaitsekhovsky S.M. The system of sports preparation of swimmers to the Olympic games: Masters Diss. (In Russian). — M., 1985. — 52p.
- Vakhilid. Epiniky (Pindar Vakhilid: Odes. Fragments) (In Russian). — M., 1980.
- Van Looy H. Olimpia: politica y cultura. Centre cultural de la fundacion "La Caixa". — Barcelona, 1992. — P. 136 — 140.
- Vanden Eede A. Les comites nationaux Olympiques et le marketing // Message Olympique, 1989. — No. 24. — P. 23 31
- Vanhove D. El gimnasio. El deporte en la Grecia antigua // Centre cultural de la fundacion "La Caixa". — Barcelona, 1992. — P. 57 — 77.
- Vanhove D. Le sport dans la Grece Antique // Universiteit Cent., Palais des Beaux Arts. — Bruxelles, 1992. — 424 p.
- Vanhove D. Olympics in antiquity // Olympic magazine, 1994. — No.1. — P.18 — 21.
- Vanhove D. El gimnasio. El deporte en la Grecia antigua // Centre cultural de la fundacion "La Caixa". — Barcelona, 1992. — P.57 — 77.
- Vanners Hyllning till J. Sigfrid Edstrom pa sjuttioarsdagen den 21 November 1940. — Stockholm: MCMXL, 1940. — 604 S.
- Varela A. M. Pierre de Coubertin // Edicions 62, Barcelona 1992. — 152 p.
- Veberhorst H. Von Athen bis Munchen (2nd ed.). — Berlin, 1971. — 324 S.
- Vergilius. Bukoliks. Georgics. Aeneid (In Russian). — M., 1979.
- VII Olympic Winter Games // Comitato Olimpico Nazionale Italiano, Cortina d'Ampezzo, 1956. — 779 p.
- Villalba P. i Varneda. Olimpia jocs i esperit. — Barcelona: Enciclopedia Catalana, 1992.
- Vinokur M. B. The politics of sports: A comparison of how governments use sports to advance political integration: Doctoral Diss. — The American University. — 1983. — 270 p.
- Voider Kluge. — Berlin: Sportverlag, 1981. — 414 S.
- Vos Strache C. (Ed.) Purposes, principles and contradictions of the Olympic movement. — N.Y., USOC, 1983. — 255 p.
- Voy R. Drugs, sport and politics. — Champaign: Leisure press, 1991. — 254 p.
- Usher H. L. The Games in Los Angeles: a new approach to the organizational tasks // Olympic Review. — 175. — Maó 1982. — P. 257 — 260.
- Wallechinsky D. The complete book of the Winter Olympics // Little, Brown and Company. Boston, New York, Toronto, London. — 1994. — 205 p.
- Wandler I., Hainline B. L'athlete et le Dopage // Droques et medicaments. — Vigot, 1993. — 390 p.
- Warning K. M. A political history of the modern summer Olympic Games: Masters Diss. — Cal State at Long Beach. — 1980. — 98 p.

- Webster F.A.M.* Olympic cavalcade // Hutchinson & C. Ltd., London, New York, Melbourne, Sydney, Cape Town, 1937. — 247 p.
- Weeber E.-W.* Die Unheiliger Spiele // Artemis and Winkler, 1991. — 220 S.
- Weinberg H.* Olympic University // Olympic Congress of centenary, 1994. — P.12 — 18.
- Weyanda A. M.* The Olympic Pageant // The MacMillan Co., 1952. — No 9. — 347 p.
- Wiehl J. V.* Olimpische Spiele wozu? // Munchen: Schneekluth, 1972. — 124 S.
- Wiggins D. K.* Berlin Olympic Games of 1936: the response of the Black press // North American Society for Sport History proceedings and newsletter, 1982. — 40 p.
- Winniczuk L.* Ludzie, zwyczaje, obyczaje starożytnej Grecji i Rzymu. — Warszawa: Państwowe wydawnictwo naukowe, 1983. — 496 s.
- Wischmann B.* The spirit of the modern Olympic Movement in earlier years and today // Intern. J. Phys. Educ., 1992. — V. 29. — N 2. — P. 24 — 32.
- Xenofont.* Socratic works (In Russian). — M. — L., 1935.
- XV Olympic Winter Games: Official Report // Canadian Olympic Association. — Calgary, 1988. — 713 p.
- Yalouris N.* Origin and history of the Games // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 82 — 87.
- Yalouris N.* The importance and prestige of the Games // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 77 — 81.
- Yalouris N.* The sanctuary of Olympia // The Olympic Games in ancient Greece, Ekdotike Athenon S. A., 1976. — P. 88 — 103.
- Young D.* The Olympic myth of Greek Amateur Athletics. — Chicago: ARES Publ., 1984. — 202 p.
- Yuangeng Z.* Professionalism and the Olympics // China Sports, 1989. — V. 21. — No 5. — P. 40 — 41.
- Zornow G.* Report of the President's Commission on Olympic sports, 1975 — 1977. — Washington, D. C.: US Government Printing Office, 1977. — 214 p.

Photographs used in the book have been obtained from:

Archives of the Olympic Museum (Lausanne, Switzerland)

Archives of the Olympic Academy (Spain)

Archives of CDSTI FIS (Moscow, Russia)

Archives of TASS (Moscow, Russia)

Archives of Ukrinform (Kiev, Ukraine)

Archives of the Museum of Sports Glory of USUPES (Kiev, Ukraine)

Private archives of photographers Leyko P.I., Bochok N.A.

Advertising production of different companies concerning
the Olympic Games

