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THE EMERGENCE OF AMERICAN WOMEN IN

THE SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES

1900-1972

bу

Paula Dee Welch

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

Greensboro 1975

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APPROVAL PAGE

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November 25 1974

Date of Acceptance by Committee

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Welch, Paula Dee. The Emergence of American Women in the Summer Olympic Games: 1900-1972.
Directed by: Dr. Gail Hennis. Pp. 182.

The modern Olympic Games began in 1896 with the absence of women competitors. Baron Pierre de Coubertin, patriarch of the modern Olympic era, adamantly opposed the inclusion of women in Olympic sport. It was Coubertin's wish to revive the Games in light of the male Greek ideal. In spite of Coubertin's chauvinistic beliefs women gradually gained entry into Olympic competition.

American women made an unheralded appearance in the Paris Games of the second Olympiad. Sport events were overshadowed by the Paris Exposition of 1900 and little is reported regarding the successful golfers who won the first three places in women's golf competition. The second appearance of American women occurred during the St. Louis Olympics of 1904 when a few competitors entered archery, an unofficial event. The puritanical beliefs of James E. Sullivan, President of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States (AAU) and organizer of the American Olympic team of 1896, kept American women out of official Olympic competition. After Sullivan's death in 1914, the AAU assumed control of women's swimming and served as a primary influence in promoting sport for women. Additional opposition to women competing in Olumpic sport came from society in general. Furthermore, the conservative views toward competition by women physical educators during the 1920s curtailed intercollegiate and interscholastic sport until the 1960s. Most women have entered Olympic competition as a result of competitive experiences outside the context of educational institutions. The AAU has provided the majority of opportunities for women to train for Olympic competition. A few specialized sport organizations such as the American Canoe Association and the Amateur Fencers League of America have sponsored competition for women.

Since 1920, with the exception of the war years, American women have steadily increased their participation in the Olympic Games. In recent years women have been asked to serve as United States Olympic Committee members and chairpersons. Few women have served as Olympic coaches; however, women are gradually entering the Olympic organization as coaches.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The writing of this history was prompted by an interest in history and the realization that little attention has been devoted to the heritage of American women in the Olympic Games. Furthermore, the writer has been enthralled by the Olympic Games since high school days.

Initial encouragement for the undertaking of this study came from Dr. Gail Hennis while the writer was enrolled in a research course during the summer of 1971. An investigation of Olympic literature as part of a research assignment revealed the scarcity of information relating to women in Olympic sport. The writer was intrigued by the ancient Olympics and the enigma-like circumstances that led the American woman to pursue Olympic competition.

A brief study of modern woman's ancient Olympic counterpart served as an initial reference to woman's Olympic heritage. Women of the ancient era did not enjoy the privilege of Olympic competition and married women were strictly forbidden to view the contests. A number of writers suggest that all women were banned from entering the site of the ancient Olympic festival. Historian Ludwig Drees suggests that virgins were acceptable spectators at the ancient Olympic Games and that married women were denied entry into the Olympic festivities

April, 1896, p. 804; see also Lynn Poole and Gray Poole, History of Ancient Olympic Games (New York: Ivan Obolensky, 1963), p. 37.

because of a religious taboo. The ban on married women was presumably associated with

. . . the religious reform whereby the old fertility games of the sacred marriage [marriage of Zeus to Hera, the earth mother] were transformed into competitive games in honour of Olympian Zeus.

One of the results of this reform was that, in the strictly patriarchal climate of the new tribal system, the married woman was deprived of the religious pre-eminence which she had formerly enjoyed. As a mother it was the married woman who had symbolised fertility and not the young girl.²

The Priestess of Demeter Chamyne, however, was given the honor of being the only married woman who was permitted to watch the Olympic Games³ and take part in the ceremony of the victor. The priestess sat on an altar opposite the Hellanodicae or judges in the Olympic stadium.⁴

Violators of the spectator law imposed on women were to be put to death. The ancient Greeks threatened to cast women from a rock beyond the Alpheus River if they were seen at the Olympic celebration. Modern violators of Olympic ideals, though dealt with less severely than their ancient counterparts, receive a severe penalty in terms of today's standards. Athletes are banned from Olympic competition if they defy Olympic authority.

Early Greek athletic contests for women that paralleled the ancient Olympic Games were held in honor of the goddess Hera. Competitors,

²Ludwig Drees, <u>Olympia Gods</u>, <u>Artists and Athletes</u> (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1968), p. 56.

³Drees, p. 56.

⁴Drees, p. 27.

⁵Spyr P. Lambros, "The Olympic Games in Ancient Times," <u>Official</u> Report Olympic Games 776 B.C.-1896 A.D., First Quadrennial Report (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1896), p. 12.

judges, and other officials have been lost to time as have the actual dates of these contests. Ludwig Drees credits the sixteen oldest and most respected matrons of Elis with conducting these events that took place every four years. Historian H. A. Harris, through Pausanias, an ancient Greek author writes:

Once every four years the women of the Committee of Sixteen weave a robe for the statue of Hera, and they also arrange the Heraean festival. This consists of races for unmarried girls. They are not all of the same age; the youngest run first, then those of the second age group and finally the oldest girls. This is how they compete; their hair hangs loose, and they wear a tunic reaching to a little above the knee, with the right shoulder bare as far as the breast. Like the men, they have the Olympic stadium reserved to them for these Games, but the stade is shortened for their races by about a sixth. To the victors they give olive wreaths and a share of the beef statues of themselves with inscriptions. The attendants who help the Sixteen to run these Games are women. As with the Olympic festival, they trace back these girls' Games to antiquity, declaring that Hippodameia in gratitude to Hera for her marriage to Pelops established the Committee of Sixteen and with their help inaugurated the Heraean festival.

The Heraean festival, though less acclaimed than the Olympic Games, serves as a point of departure from ancient sport to modern sport for women.

The modern Olympics began with competition for men and neglected the distaff side. The United States and a few other nations were represented by women at Paris during the second Olympiad. Americans were the sole participants in women's archery, an unofficial event in the St. Louis Olympics of 1904. It was not until 1920 that the first

⁶Drees, p. 29.

⁷H. A. Harris, <u>Greek Athletes and Athletics</u> (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1960), p. 179, citing Pausanias V, xvi, I.

official representatives from the United States sailed for Antwerp to compete in women's swimming and diving. With the exception of the war years American women have steadily increased their participation in the Olympics.

Statement of the Problem

The study is concerned with the participation of American women in fourteen summer Olympiads of the modern era.

Purpose of the Study

American women made their Olympic debut in golf during the second Olympiad. Since their limited appearance in 1900 American women have steadily augmented their Olympic involvement. The purposes of this study are to:

- 1. Identify the factors that influenced the entry and increased involvement of American women in the Olympic Movement.
- 2. Explain why the American competitive thrust occurred later than that of foreign countries.
- Offer a more complete history of American women in the summer Olympics.
- 4. Compare the involvement of American women in Olympic sports during three time periods: 1900-1916, 1920-1944, and 1948-1972.
- 5. Ascertain the roles assumed by American women during fourteen summer Olympiads.

Need for the Study

There is a dearth of research which reveals the significance of woman's involvement in Olympic sport. Few people are aware of the American woman's Olympic accomplishments and contributions. There is a definite need for a comprehensive analysis of the events that led the American woman to pursue the epitome of international sport and to steadily increase her involvement.

In order to understand why American women have experienced success and failure in Olympic sport, students, physical educators, and coaches need information concerning the factors which affect involvement in international competition. American women have a fragmented sport identity partly due to an incomplete history of sport. The Olympic heritage of the American woman is a worthy endeavor and deserves recognition.

Related Research and Literature

Scholarly research relating to the history of American women in the Olympics is practically nonexistent. One dissertation dealing with the role of American women through fifteen Olympiads was completed in 1953 by Mary A. Price. The Price study treats the negative as well as positive factors influencing American women's Olympic involvement in a superficial manner. No attempt is made to describe the events that led to American women's increasing participation in specific sports on

⁸Mary A. Price, "The Role of the United States Women's Participation in the Modern Olympic Games" (Doctoral dissertation, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1953).

the Olympic program. Olympic literature devotes scarce attention to the woman and depicts a nebulous heritage.

Sources of Data

The sources of data for this study included:

- Newspaper articles. Newspaper accounts described the
 Olympic Games, athletes, and incidents associated with
 the Olympics. Newspapers containing relevant information
 included <u>The New York Times</u>, <u>The Los Angeles Times</u>, and
 The Cincinnati Enquirer.
- 2. Related literature. Related literature encompassed sources such as The Ladies Home Journal, The Literary Digest, The Outlook, The American Physical Education Review, and The Sportswoman. A number of Olympic athletes wrote articles that appeared in popular magazines during the 1920s and 1930s.
- Official reports and minutes. Information was derived from Official Reports of the United States Olympic Committee and Official Reports of the International Olympic Academy.

 Minutes of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States verified some of the factors that prevented women from entering Olympic sport as well as permitted them to seek Olympic competition.
- 4. <u>Interviews and questionnaires</u>. Interviews and correspondence with Amateur Athletic Union and Olympic officials served to verify as well as supply information about additional persons pertinent to the study. Questionnaires returned

from leading women physical educators explained the philosophy of the physical education profession regarding Olympic competition.

Historical Method

This study is a descriptive as well as theoretical form of historical research. The writer has attempted to interpret and synthesize the factors affecting American women and their participation in the Olympic Movement. Louis Gottschalk's classification of historians is beneficial in establishing a framework for research in sport history. He writes:

... Historians ... are said to fall into two groups. One may be called "descriptive historians;" they attempt to give an account of the event or situation under consideration in its own unique setting. The other may be called "theoretical historians;" they try to find in their subject matter a basis for comparison, classification, interpretation or generalization.

To understand the current status of the American woman who seeks Olympic competition her predecessors must be interpreted and understood. Insight into the competitive thrust established by physical educators in the United States, the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, and the United States Olympic Committee is essential if one wishes to understand the position occupied by women in the Olympic Movement.

Historians, then, to paraphrase Robert Berkhofer, Jr., do not recapture or reconstruct the past through an analysis of history; but

⁹Louis Gottschalk, ed., Generalizations in the Writing of History (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1963), p. v.

interpret situations according to surviving evidence. ¹⁰ The writer has attempted to analyze pertinent literature, interviews, newspaper articles, organization minutes, and questionnaires in an attempt to interpret the involvement of American women who have represented the United States in fourteen summer Olympiads.

Limitations of the Study

The study is limited to:

- 1. The fourteen Olympiads of the modern era in which American women have been involved.
- American women who have competed for the United States in the summer Olympic Games.
- Women who have served as chaperones, coaches, managers, and members of the United States Olympic Committee.
- 4. A brief reference to the ancient Olympic Games and the Heraen festival.

The Olympic Organization

The Olympic Games are governed by the International Olympic Committee (IOC). The IOC approves the sports that are included in the Games. Competition for women in 1972 was conducted in: archery, canoeing, fencing, gymnastics, swimming and diving, track and field, and volleyball. Women compete on an equal basis with men in equestrian

Robert R. Berkhofer, Jr., A Behavioral Approach to Historical Analysis (New York: The Free Press, 1969), p. 23.

sports, shooting, and yachting. ¹¹ American women have competed in all of these Olympic sports except shooting. The absence of American women in Olympic shooting is due in part to the domination of the sport by armed service personnel. In addition, few colleges and universities have offered shooting competition for women.

"The National Olympic Committee of a country which is recognized and approved by the International Olympic Committee . . . is the only organization which can enter competitors in . . . Olympic events." The United States Olympic Committee organizes teams that represent the United States in the Olympics. During the first seven Olympiads the Olympic organizing body in the United States was known as the American Olympic Committee. In 1921 the American Olympic Committee was renamed the American Olympic Association. In 1940 the Association was changed to the United States of America Sports Federation and in 1945 it became the United States, Olympic Association. Finally, in 1961 the United States Olympic Committee became the official name of the Olympic governing body in the United States. 13

In compliance with IOC regulations national sports governing bodies must be affiliated with the United States and International

^{11&}quot;The International Governing Body," The Olympic Games (New York: United States Olympic Committee, 1970), pp. 3-4.

^{12&}quot;The Role of National Olympic Committees," <u>The Olympic</u> Games (New York: United States Olympic Committee, 1970), p. 9.

^{13&}quot;U.S. Olympic Committee Background," The Olympic Games (New York: United States Olympic Committee, 1970), p. 11.

Olympic Committees as well as the International Amateur Athletic
Federation. 14 The American Canoe Association, for example, is affiliated with the United States Olympic Committee, the International
Canoe Federation, and the International Olympic Committee. In addition, the United States Olympic Committee designates specific sport committees to promote and organize Olympic sport in this country.

^{14&}quot;The Role of National Olympic Committees," p. 9.

CHAPTER II

EARLY PURSUIT FOR OLYMPIC LAURELS

Xenophanes of Kolophon offered the modern historian an eloquent appraisal of the ancient Greek world when he advised: "Truly the gods did not from the start reveal to us mortals everything, but in the course of time we seek and discover improvement." The observation of Xenophanes can be applied to modern times because much is unexplained about the entry of women into the modern Olympic Games. However, since the limited representation of women during the first six Olympiads improvement can be seen in performances, the number of events open to women, the increasing number of women participants, media coverage of women's competition, and the acceptance of women who participate in sport.

Women were excluded from the Olympic program of 1896. Eva Foldes, lecturer at the Fourth International Olympic Academy, reports that a Greek woman, Melpomene, trained secretly for three weeks and asked to enter the marathon. Despite denial from Olympic officials to enter the competition, Melpomene with followers on bicycles ran the distance from Marathon to Athens in four and a half hours. Later a Greek newspaper reprimanded Olympic officials for refusing the woman's

¹George of Hanover, <u>Olympia and the International Olympic</u> <u>Academy</u> (Athens: Michael Toubis, 1973), p. 1.

request.² Baron Pierre de Coubertin, patriarch of the modern Olympic Games, did not recognize women in his Olympic revival strategy. The events, designation of participants, competitive attire, and problems relating to amateurism in the Olympics were discussed only in light of male consideration. 3 Liselotte Diem believes that women were excluded from early Olympic competition because society did not accept women in sport and because Coubertin believed woman's place was in the home. 4 Apparently the only Olympic role which Coubertin endorsed for women was to crown victors. Diem, in the Revue Olympique, reports that Coubertin scoffed at women in the United States who played tennis, fenced, swam, and rode horseback. Coubertin predicted that "tommorrow there would probably be female runners or even football players." Monique Berlioux, Director of the International Olympic Committee Headquarters, reports that Coubertin was furious when women were later permitted to take part in the Olympic program. In spite of Coubertin's chauvinistic attitude women gained gradual entry into Olympic sport.

 $^{^2}$ Eva Foldes, "Women at the Olympics," <u>The International Olympic Academy</u>, Report of the Fourth Session (Athens: M. Pechlivandis, 1964), p. 108.

³Baron Pierre de Coubertin, "Why I Revived the Olympic Games," Fortnightly Review, July, 1908, pp. 111-15.

⁴Statement by Liselotte Diem, physical educator, in a personal interview, Olympia, Greece, July 16, 1973.

Liselotte Diem, "Olympic Sports for Women Evaluation of Declaration," The International Olympic Academy, Report of the Fourth Session (Athens: M. Pechlivandis, 1964), p. 117, citing Baron Pierre de Coubertin, Revue Olympique, July, 1912, p. 109.

⁶Statement by Monique Berlioux, personal interview, Olympia, Greece, July 24, 1973.

In America between 1880 and 1890, women engaged in the lawn games of croquet, tennis, and archery but according to Manchester "... there are few records of their participation in other sports."

Lawn tennis followed by golf became the first sports in which women engaged extensively in the United States. The early development of golf in this country may explain why America's first women Olympians were golfers. During the 1890s non-Olympic sports such as bicycling, bathing, and croquet were popular among women. By the turn of the century women were playing basketball in growing numbers.

In the MacArthur room at Olympic House, New York City, placques recognizing gold medalists adorn two walls. The first woman to achieve Olympic victory for the United States was Margaret Abbot. Abbot won the women's singles golf event of the second Olympiad in Paris. Olympic competition took place during the Paris Exposition of 1900 and apparently little recognition was given to the athletic endeavors. Some of the male delegation from the United States were unaware that they were competing in the Olympic Games until they received their medals. Janet Seagle identifies an international golf tournament held at Compiegne in connection with the Paris Exposition. Margaret Abbot of

⁷Herbert Manchester, <u>Four Centuries of Sport in America 1490-1890</u> (New York: Derrydale Press, 1931), p. 227.

⁸Manchester, p. 227.

⁹Harry S. Scott, <u>Competitive Sports in Schools and Colleges</u> (New York: Harper and Row, 1951), p. 443.

¹⁰ John Kieran and Arthur Daley, The Story of the Olympic Games 776 B.C. to 1972 (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1973), p. 29.

the Chicago Golf Club won the nine hole event with a score of 47, Miss P. Whittier and Mrs. J. Hager Pratt, also of the United States, placed second and third. The attention directed to the Paris Exposition accounts in part for the obscurity of the women's golf tournament. The second quadrennial report is not on file at Olympic House and according to some Olympic House officials was not compiled in this country.

The third Olympiad, coinciding with many events of the World's Fair in St. Louis during 1904, included archery competition but entries came only from the United States. 12 The archery competition was declared an unofficial or exhibition sport. Four women archers are honored at Olympic House in the MacArthur room. The four honorees include Mrs. M. C. Howell, Double National, Double Columbia, and Team Round Champion; the remaining Team Round winners were Mrs. H. C. Pollock, Miss L. Taylor, and Mrs. C. S. Woodruff.

The <u>St. Louis Post Dispatch</u> issued during the dates of the third Olympiad did not mention the women archers. Much of the news focused on the World's Fair, the Democratic National Convention, and official Olympic events. <u>The Cincinnati Enquirer</u> contained a brief narrative of the archery events that qualified archers for the St. Louis Games. ¹³ The Ohio Archery Association, using C. J. Strong's archery range, sponsored

¹¹Letter from Janet Seagle, Librarian and Museum Curator, Golf House, December 11, 1973.

 $^{^{12}\}text{E. G. Heath,}$ The Grey Goose Wing A History of Archery (Greenwich: New York Graphis Society, 1972), p. 207.

^{13&}quot;Archery," The Cincinnati Enquirer, August 14, 1904, Sec. I, p. 9, col. 2.

the tournament that sent qualifiers to "the national meeting on the World's Fair grounds at St. Louis." In a concise article appearing in The Cincinnati Enquirer, September 21, 1904, the caption announced "Cincinnati Women Won." Howell, Pollock, and Woodruff were credited with first, second, and third places in the ladies' American doubles round. The September 23, 1904, edition of The Cincinnati Enquirer gave credit to four women who took part in the Olympic archery program. The article summarized the final performances of four American women. Miss E. C. Cooke from Washington, not previously mentioned, was listed as the only competitor not from Cincinnati. The United States Olympic Report of 1956 lists seven women archers in the third Olympiad. 17

Appearing in two of the first three Olympiads, the American women's participation was not entirely national or international in scope nor was their participation extensive. Records of total American involvement in terms of participants, coaches, and managers of women's teams do not exist. Scant newspaper coverage of early Olympic participants dealt primarily with victors.

Although no women from the United States journeyed to London to compete in the Olympic Games of 1908, a few women from other nations

^{14&}quot;Archery," The Cincinnati Enquirer, August 28, 1904, Sec. I, p. 8, col. 9.

^{15&}quot;Cincinnati Women Won," <u>The Cincinnati Enquirer</u>, September 21, 1904, p. 4, col. 4.

^{16&}quot;Cincinnati Woman Won the Olympic Archery Contest at World's Fair," The Cincinnati Enquirer, September 23, 1904, p. 4, col. 3.

¹⁷ Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "All-Time U. S. Olympic Team Personnel," United States 1956 Olympic Book (New York: United States Olympic Assn., Inc., 1957), p. 405.

took part in a limited program of events. Some events were for display and others were competitive. The Olympic report issued by the British Olympic Association records lawn tennis and archery competitions and displays of foils and mass exercise or gymnastics for women at the London Games. ¹⁸

The fifth Olympiad marks the first official entry of women into Olympic sport. Prior to the Stockholm Games of 1912 no requests for women's sports were recorded in American Olympic reports. In June of 1910 at the Congress of the International Swimming Federation and again in May 1911, Great Britain requested that the International Olympic Committee open swimming and diving competition to ladies. The International Olympic Committee voted in favor of Great Britain's proposal and included swimming and diving events for women in the Stockholm Olympics. 19

The United States and France were the only countries that opposed women's swimming. Everett C. Brown of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States believed James E. Sullivan, organizer of the American Olympic Committee, was responsible for the negative vote cast by the United States at the international meetings. 20

¹⁸Theodore Andrea Cook, ed., "Foil Display," Games of the Fourth Olympiad Official Report of Organizing Committee (London: The British Olympic Association, 1908), pp. 170, 209, 412, 487.

¹⁹Erik Bergvall, ed., "General Programme," The Fifth Olympiad the Official Report of the Olympic Games of Stockholm (Stockholm: Wahstrom and Widstrand, 1912), p. 713.

²⁰ Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, Minutes of the November 17, 1914 Meeting (New York: Waldorf-Astoria Hotel), p. 31.

The July 1912 edition of <u>Outlook</u> succinctly describes the absence of competitive involvement by American women in Stockholm. ²¹
The program of the fifth Olympiad included swimming, diving, and lawn tennis for women. ²² There is an indication that some women in this country were interested in the diving events at Stockholm. Ida Schnall, captain of the New York Female Giants baseball club attacked James E. Sullivan for preventing her from entering the diving competition at Stockholm. ²³ The major obstacle to Olympic competition for women in this country was established by the puritanical beliefs of James E. Sullivan.

²¹"America at the Olympic Games," <u>Outlook</u>, July, 1912, p. 603.

²²Bergvall, p. 713.

 $^{^{23}}$ "Hot Shot for 'Jim' Sullivan," The New York Times, July 19, 1913, p. 5, col. 8.

CHAPTER III

AMATEUR ATHLETIC UNION ASSUMES CONTROL OF WOMEN'S SWIMMING

The Amateur Athletic Union of the United States was the first group to assume control of women's swimming in this country. The control of women's swimming did not take place without opposition. James E. Sullivan's antagonistic attitude toward women's swimming was revealed in a number of incidents reported in The New York Times. In a letter to E. C. Brennan of the American Life Saving Society, Sullivan, President of the AAU wrote:

... I notice in the papers ... that you are conducting schoolboy races in connection with women's events. I understand your excuse is ... that these are schoolboys.

Of course you know the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States does not permit women or girls to be registered in any of its associations, and does not sanction open races for women in connection with Amateur Athletic Union events.

The Board of Education and the Public School Athletic League are very pronounced in relation to open competition for girls in athletics. They have no desire to make girls public characters. I

Apparently Sullivan believed that sport was a morally questionable experience for women. Sullivan objected to all involvement regarding women and the AAU. Sullivan was instrumental in gathering the first all male team that represented the United States in Athens. He strongly adhered to Coubertin's male chauvinism.

^{1&}quot;Bar Mixed Athletics," The New York Times, July 13, 1913, Sec. IV, p. 2, col. 5.

Ida Schnall later wrote in <u>The New York Times</u>, attacking the opposition to women's athletic competition on the part of James E. Sullivan, former Amateur Athletic Union President:

. . . He is always objecting, and never doing anything to help the cause along for a girls' A.A.U. He objects to a mild game of ball or any kind of athletics for girls. He objects to girls wearing a comfortable bathing suit. He objects to so many things that it gives me a cause to think he must be very narrow minded and that we are in the last century.²

In an interview with Daniel Ferris, who served as Sullivan's secretary and has attended the Olympics since 1912, Sullivan's adamant opposition to the inclusion of women in sport was verified. Ferris said of Sullivan, "He was a powerful man and had a great influence."

In March of 1914, Sullivan was present at a meeting of the American Olympic Committee that recorded opposition "to women taking part in any event in which they could not wear long skirts." The American Olympic Committee obviously ruled out vigorous sport and certainly swimming and diving competition for women.

An incident at Rye Beach that year again brought the women's swimming issue under attack by Sullivan. The Rye Beach Swimming Club endangered its membership in the Metropolitan Association of the AAU when it conducted an exhibition fifty yard swim for women. In discussing

²"Hot Shot for 'Jim' Sullivan," The New York Times, July 19, 1913, p. 5, col. 8.

³Statement by Daniel Ferris, Secretary Emeritus of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, in a personal interview, New York, New York, March 13, 1973.

^{4&}quot;No Women Athletes for American Team," The New York Times, March 31, 1914, p. 9, col. 5.

the Rye Beach incident Sullivan said:

. . . if those daring to have swimming races for females in connection with a sanctioned A.A.U. swimming meeting will come to the annual meeting of the A.A.U. next November and have the rules changed to allow girls in, all is well and good. But so long as the rules are on our A.A.U. books I will insist that they be lived up to 5

Numerous requests for women's swimming events were refused by the Union during Sullivan's tenure. Ferris recalled that only after Sullivan's death in September 1914 did the AAU recognize and assume control of women's aquatics. Ferris reported that women's swimming came under AAU jurisdiction because Sullivan "wasn't there to oppose it."

When the possibility of AAU control of women's swimming was first suggested, the National Women's Life Saving League, with a membership of over fifteen hundred, requested affiliation with the Union. The request never came under consideration because the Union's control seemed remote.

Everett C. Brown of the AAU's Central Association region, after traveling in a number of states, presented a positive report of women's aquatic activities. At the November 17, 1914 meeting Brown appealed for special Union legislation that resulted in women's swimming coming under the jurisdiction of the AAU. Requests for women's swimming

^{5&}quot;Rye Beach Club in Bad," The New York Times, August 12, 1914, p. 7, col. 4.

⁶Ferris, interview, New York, New York, March 13, 1973.

^{7&}quot;Women Swimmers and A.A.U.," The New York Times, November 22, 1914, Sec. IV, p. 4, col. 8.

⁸Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, <u>Minutes of the</u> November 17, 1914 Meeting (New York: Waldorf-Astoria Hotel), p. 31.

events turned down by the Union prior to November 14, 1914 indicate interest in competitive swimming by large numbers of women in the New York City area.

There was no large scale move initiated by women to control or organize competitive sports for women in this country before the AAU entered the women's sport scene. An extensive national sport organization for women did not exist and there was no significant avenue from which to direct or develop leadership for programs. Furthermore, physical educators were concentrating on noncompetitive activities such as rhythms and calisthenics.

Recognition of women as serious swimming competitors resulted from the AAU's decision to control women's water sports in this country. The New York Times in December 1914 predicted that the inclusion of women's swimming would increase opportunities for women to participate in water activities. The Times based its prediction on the formation of the Women's Swimming Club of New York. The essential function of the club involved the promotion of competitive coaching and training, but free swimming and life saving instructions were also offered. 9

Women began to prepare for swimming in a more organized manner.

A year after the decision to include women in the swimming program, a number of AAU members discussed the women's swimming issue.

A motion to leave the sponsoring of championships up to the "discretion

^{9&}quot;Women's Swimming Club," The New York Times, December 9, 1914, p. 8., col. 8.

of the Championship Committee" was passed after considerable debate. 10 Despite problems during the early years of women's swimming, opportunities for competitive experiences increased.

War caused cancelation of the Olympic Games of 1916. Buck
Dawson, Executive Director of the International Swimming Hall of Fame,
Ft. Lauderdale, Florida, asked a committee of swimming historians and
former Olympic coaches to select swimmers who might have made the 1916
Olympic team. Times registered before, during, and after the sixth
Olympiad were used as a basis for team selection. Women selected to
represent the United States 1916 mythical Olympic team include:

One hundred meter freestyle

Olga Dorfner Marion Gibson Claire Galligan

Three hundred meter freestyle

Olga Dorfner Claire Galligan Thelma Darby

Four hundred meter freestyle relay

Olga Dorfner Thelma Darby Charlotte Boyle Gertrude Artelt¹¹

November 15, 1915 Meeting (New York: Waldorf-Astoria Hotel), pp. 97-98.

¹¹Buck Dawson, ed., "Hall of Fame Pick for Mythical U.S. Olympic Swimming Teams," International Swimming Hall of Fame Fifth Anniversary Yearbook 1965-1970 (Fort Lauderdale: International Swimming Hall of Fame, 1971), pp. 136-37.

Because of the AAU's decision to control women's swimming, women from the United States might have entered Olympic swimming competition prior to the seventh Olympiad had the Olympics not been canceled. The "mythical Olympic team of 1916" indicates that interest in competitive swimming among women in this country was growing during the second decade of this century.

Frederick Rubien, Metropolitan AAU President, pointed out that after two years of control AAU programs developed some outstanding swimmers. Rubien expressed concern for the apathy of women toward accepting leadership roles. Charlotte Epstein of the National Women's Life Saving League, reported that the League was interested in controlling women's swimming but after two years was satisfied with the work done by the AAU. 12

^{12&}quot;A.A.U. May Discard Women's Swimming," The New York Times, October 31, 1916, p. 10, col. 7.

CHAPTER IV

THE SEVENTH OLYMPIAD: AQUATIC ALPHA FOR AMERICAN WOMEN

The Olympic debut of American women swimmers and divers came at the celebration of the seventh Olympiad. Aquatic sport was clearly in vogue among women in the United States by 1920. Writing for Collier's magazine in the spring of 1932, Aileen Riggin, a member of America's first Olympic aquatic delegation, suggested that the swimming and diving act performed on numerous American stages by Annette Kellerman, an Australian, did much to popularize women's aquatics in this country. To further explain the popularity of swimming Riggin suggested that:

. . . it may have been due to the sudden fad of health and the discovery that the sun was a real friend of good health instead of a blistering enemy. Doctors and physical-training experts advised staying out in the fresh air and becoming saturated with sun. Swimming and diving filled this need, and lakes and ocean resorts all over the country did a booming business. 1

Prior to the seventh Olympiad a number of swimming clubs organized and increased opportunities for women to gain skill in aquatic sport. In the fall of 1917 the Women's Swimming Association (WSA) of New York City organized. The development of competitive swimming was one of the major objectives of the WSA. The National Women's Lifesaving League joined the new association offering not only a seasoned program

l'Aileen Riggin, "Woman's Place," Collier's, May 14, 1932, p. 11.

but outstanding swimmers.² The WSA officers directed their efforts toward the expansion of international swimming competition for women in this country.

Upon arrival in Antwerp the women's team was accommodated in the Young Men's Christian Association Hostess Hotel. The cocky girls commented on the slow, cold water and wanted more "spring" in the diving boards. Belgian swimmers were impressed with the Americans' skill. Suggesting that women were not capable of skilled performances, "the Belgians said they swam like men." Further regard for the prowess

^{2&}quot;Women Swimmers Organize," The New York Times, October 21, 1917, p. 17, col. 4.

^{3&}quot;Olympic Athletes Sail for Antwerp," The New York Times, July 27, 1920, p. 15, col. 4.

^{4&}quot;Athletes Selected for Olympic Team," The New York Times, July 16, 1920, p. 14, col. 1.

^{5&}quot;U.S. Athletes in Olympic Quarters," The New York Times, August 9, 1920, p. 11, col. 1.

of American women was disclosed by <u>The Literary Digest</u> when it reported "that . . . all the foreign entrants withdrew [from fancy diving] after seeing Uncle Sam's . . . performers practice. They felt they had no chance." The 1920 Olympic report lists no foreign competitors in fancy diving (one and three meter boards). However, with the exception of fancy diving, all events in the 1920 Olympic report include names of competitors from other countries. No doubt withdrawal of the fancy diving opposition inflated the egos of the girl divers.

The United States first Olympic swimming gold medalist was Ethelda Bleibtrey. Bleibtrey placed first in all three women's Olympic swimming events. She won both the one hundred meter freestyle and the three hundred meter freestyle events and anchored the championship four hundred meter relay team.

Dawson reports that Bleibtrey may have "participated in the first athletic sit-in when . . . Norman Ross organized the Olympic team to sit it out on the beach . . . until the United States Olympic" officials supplied a more suitable vessel for the return voyage.

Aileen Riggin was the darling of the 1920 American Olympic team.

At fourteen Riggin was the youngest and tiniest Olympic performer. On

^{6&}quot;Will American Girls Decide the 1924 Olympics?" The Literary Digest, April, 1924, p. 62.

^{7&}quot;Swimming (Women)," Report of the American Olympic Committee Seventh Olympic Games Antwerp, Belgium, 1920 (Greenwich: Conde Nast Press, 1920), p. 322.

Buck Dawson, ed., "Ethelda Bleibtrey--Honor Swimmer," Swimming Hall of Fame 1968 Yearbook (Fort Lauderdale: Swimming Hall of Fame, 1968), p. 30.

August 29, 1920, six days after Ethelda Bleibtrey inaugurated her pursuit for Olympic gold, Aileen Riggin became the first American woman to claim the Olympic fancy diving crown. In her later book, Modern Swimming and Diving, Riggin revealed the intensive Olympic diving practices when she disclosed that "all the girls had black-and-blue marks on their foreheads--and our hands grew so sore that we padded them with sponges. . . ."10 Two years after the 1920 Olympics Aileen Riggin took part in the first underwater, slow motion swimming and diving films directed by Grantland Rice. 11 Olympic notoriety not only provided Olympians with opportunities to continue amateur swimming but also brought them into the public eye through professional swimming and diving shows.

Payne took the bronze laurel in the fancy diving event. Other medalists of the seventh Olympiad were Irene Guest and Frances Schroth who placed second and third in the one hundred meter freestyle competition. Completing the three hundred meter freestyle sweep led by Bleibtrey were second place Margaret Woodbridge and third place Frances Schroth. The championship four hundred meter relay in addition to anchor Ethelda Bleibtrey included Frances Schroth, Margaret Woodbridge, and Irene Guest. 12

⁹Dawson, ed., "Aileen Riggin-Honor Diver and Swimmer," p. 33.

¹⁰ Aileen Riggin, Modern Swimming and Diving (New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1931), pp. 146-47.

¹¹Pat Besford, Encyclopaedia of Swimming (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1971), p. 140.

^{12&}quot;Swimming (Women)," Report of the American Olympic Committee, 1920, pp. 320-22.

The United States first women's Olympic swimming and diving team won four out of five events. The only event in which they did not place in the top three positions was plain diving (four and eight meter boards). Triple sweeps by the Americans in fancy diving and the hundred and three hundred meter freestyle events established unprecedented success.

Louis de Breda Handley was the first women's Olympic aquatic coach. Buck Dawson, Executive Director of the International Swimming Hall of Fame, rates Louis Handley as the father of women's swimming in the United States. Handley presented an impressive set of credentials. He served as a swimming journalist, wrote several swimming books and is credited with developing the progressive beat of the flutter kick. 13 Handley was also coach of the Women's Swimming Association of New York City.

In summarizing America's performances at Antwerp, Coach Handley wrote:

. . . undoubtedly the selection of an American team of girls to represent the United States at the Olympic Games at Antwerp . . . and their subsequent victories established amateur swimming for women as a sport for women in this country. Shunning the sensational and conducting themselves with a demeanor that one would expect in daily life, these girls earned for themselves and established for their successors a respect which is universally accorded women swimmers quite as much for their personality as for their ability. 14

¹³Buck Dawson, ed., "L. deB Handley-Honor Coach," <u>International</u>
Swimming Hall of Fame Fifth Anniversary Yearbook 1965-1970 (Fort
Lauderdale: International Swimming Hall of Fame, 1971), p. 49.

¹⁴L. deB Handley, <u>Swimming for Women</u> (New York: American Sports Publishing Co., 1925), p. 7.

Charlotte Epstein of the WSA, a leading promoter of women's swimming in the United States, was appointed manager of the women's aquatic team. The American Olympic Committee was impressed with the services of Epstein. ¹⁵ She is the first reported female manager of an American women's Olympic team. Epstein did not issue a report of her managerial responsibilities and may have assumed duties more closely aligned to those of a chaperone. Women first entered Olympic administration as chaperones.

Prior to the Antwerp Olympics the United States Lawn Tennis
Association showed little interest in Olympic tennis except for a man's entry in the St. Louis Games of 1904 and endorsement of T. R. Pell's entry in the 1912 Olympics. Pell actually entered the 1912 Games on his own. 16 The United States Lawn Tennis Association included women in its membership and scheduled women's tournaments for a number of years before the seventh Olympiad. 17

The Olympics of 1920 marked the beginning of dissension between the United States Lawn Tennis Association (USLTA) and Olympic officials. In November 1919, the USLTA accepted the American Olympic Committee's invitation to take part in the Antwerp Games. Not long after the USLTA accepted the Olympic invitation the dates for the Antwerp competition were announced. Because the Olympic competition coincided with the

¹⁵ Report of the American Olympic Committee Seventh Olympic Games Antwerp, Belguim, 1920 (Greenwich: The Conde Nast Press, 1920), p. 259.

 $^{^{16}{\}rm S}$. Wallis Merrihew, ed., "Lawn Tennis at the Olympic Games," American Lawn Tennis, October 15, 1920, p. 480.

¹⁷ Joanna Davenport, "The History and Interpretation of Amateurism in the United States Lawn Tennis Association" (Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1966), pp. 41-42.

United States National Championships, the USLTA requested that Olympic authorities change the dates of the competition in Antwerp. Olympic officials were unable to make the change because the tennis courts were not scheduled for completion until mid-August 1920 and later dates did not coincide with Olympic competition. America's Lawn Tennis Association withdrew from the Antwerp Olympics because the dates for Olympic tennis were not altered. Thirteen nations entered Olympic tennis open to men and women in Antwerp. 18

It appears that the obstinate behavior of the USLTA regarding the scheduling of events kept both men and women from representing the United States in Olympic tennis. It seems that the USLTA was in a better position to change an annual national tournament rather than to expect Olympic officials to change quadrennial competition involving thirteen nations.

^{18&}lt;sub>Merrihew</sub>, p. 480.

CHAPTER V

AMERICA ESTABLISHED AS A SWIMMING AND DIVING POWER

The second swimming and diving appearance by American women at the Paris Olympics of 1924 established America as a swimming and diving power. The United States women captured five out of six first places in swimming events and both diving crowns. One-two-three sweeps occurred in the one hundred meter freestyle, four hundred meter freestyle, and fancy diving events. Gertrude Ederle led the U.S. women in number of medals won, acquiring a gold medal in the four hundred meter relay and bronze medals in the one hundred and four hundred meter freestyle events. Ethel Lackie achieved two first place victories in the one hundred meter freestyle and four hundred meter relay. Other multiple medalists included Mariechen Wehselau, member of the championship four hundred meter relay team and second place finisher in the one hundred meter freestyle event. Elizabeth Becker's first Olympic diving appearance resulted in a first in fancy diving and a second in high diving. Aileen Riggin, making her second Olympic appearance, was the only member of the U.S. squad to medal in swimming and diving. Riggin's efforts produced a silver medal in fancy diving and a bronze medal in the backstroke. 1

¹Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "All Time U.S. Olympic Team Personnel,"

<u>United States 1956 Olympic Book</u> (New York: United States Olympic Assn.,

<u>Inc., 1957</u>), p. 419.

Ethel Lackie set an Olympic record in her one hundred meter freestyle victory and anchored the four hundred meter relay team which also set an Olympic record. Lackie was swimming by the time she was three years of age and continued the sport after the 1924 Olympics. She set a one hundred yard freestyle record after the Paris Games but never made a second Olympic appearance.

Gertrude Ederle was a member of the championship four hundred meter relay team and won bronze medals in the one hundred meter and four hundred meter freestyle events in Paris. Before turning professional in 1925, Ederle broke nine world swimming events. Two years after the Paris Olympics Gertrude Ederle became the first woman to swim the English Channel.

Aileen Riggin's third place in the one hundred meter backstroke and second place in fancy diving produced the only wins in women's swimming and diving by the same competitor in the same Olympics. Riggin, charter member of the WSA, was high point woman in swimming and diving in the National AAU Championships. Two years after the 1924 Olympics, Riggin turned professional. Her lengthy professional career included organizing and starring in Billy Rose's Aquacade. Riggin became an

²Buck Dawson, ed., "Ethel Lackie," <u>International Swimming Hall of Fame 1970 Yearbook</u> (Fort Lauderdale: <u>International Swimming Hall of Fame, 1970)</u>, p. 13.

³Pat Besford, Encyclopaedia of Swimming (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1971), p. 140.

author who wrote articles for magazines such as <u>Collier's</u> and <u>Good</u> Housekeeping.⁴

Helen Wainwright was the other member of the 1924 Olympic who competed in the Antwerp Games four years earlier. Wainwright's silver medal in the 1924 four hundred meter freestyle competition and silver medal in the 1920 springboard diving event represent the only double achievement of its kind. A number of former Olympians, such as Helen Wainwright, Aileen Riggin, and Gertrude Ederle, performed at the Hippodrome and toured the states performing in a portable tank. 5

Sybil Bauer, a champion backstroker, became the first woman to break an international record held by a man. Bauer expressed interest in entering the "regular events" of the Olympics in order to compete against men.⁶ She did not compete against men in the Olympics but gold medaled in the women's one hundred meter backstroke competition. Bauer's supremacy as a backstroker was established by six consecutive one hundred yard dorsal crowns beginning in 1921 just one year before breaking Stubby Kruger's four hundred forty yard record. In addition, Bauer at one time held all women's backstroke records and owned eight national

⁴Buck Dawson, ed., "Aileen Riggin-Honor Diver and Swimmer," Swimming Hall of Fame Dedication Year 1968 (Swimming Hall of Fame, 1968), p. 33.

⁵Buck Dawson, ed., "Helen Wainwright Honor Swimmer/Diver," International Swimming Hall of Fame 1973 Yearbook (Fort Lauderdale: Press Time, Inc., 1972), p. 20.

^{6&}quot;Greeks, Girls, and 1944," The Nation, February 1924, p. 222.

and world records. At the age of twenty-two Sybil Bauer's swimming career was halted by cancer.

Elizabeth Becker, 1924 Olympic diving entry, placed first in fancy diving and second in high diving. Becker began her aquatic involvement upon recommendation by her physician after recovering from diphtheria. Elizabeth Becker joined the Philadelphia Turngemeinde Club and entered swimming and diving competition. At the age of fifteen she won the Middle Atlantic States Championship. There was no three meter board in Philadelphia so Becker went to Atlantic City and joined the Ambassador Swim Club in order to engage in daily diving practice. 8

In discussing her 1924 Olympic experiences, Elizabeth Becker recalls the thrill of making the team, meeting her future husband, and "hearing the National Anthem for me--in another country."

Martha Norelius, born in Sweden but raised in the United States, was coached by her father who had previously competed for Sweden. She won the four hundred meter freestyle in the 1924 Games. Norelius "... was considered to be the first woman to swim like the men, her front

⁷Buck Dawson, ed., "Sybil Bauer-Honor Swimmer," <u>International Swimming Hall of Fame Fifth Anniversary Yearbook 1965-1970</u>, (Fort Lauderdale: International Swimming Hall of Fame, 1971), p. 16.

⁸Dawson, ed., "Betty Becker Pinkston-Honor Diver," <u>1965-1970</u> Yearbook, p. 87.

⁹Statement by Elizabeth Becker Pinkston, personal interview, Fort Lauderdale, Florida, December 29, 1973.

crawl style was similar to Johnny Weissmuller's, with a high head position, arched back and a heavy six-beat leg kick." 10

Louis Handley, upon recommendation of the AAU, was selected to coach the Olympic naiads for the second time. A leading promoter of swimming, the volunteer worker was considered one of the leading swimming authorities of his day. 11

In his coaches' report Handley had little good to say about the women's housing, transportation, or food at the Olympic Games.

Travel to and from Rocquencourt, on the opposite side of Paris, where the swimmers were housed, to the Olympic pool at the Porte de Lilas involved five to six hours of riding in crowded cars. Handley attributed Gertrude Ederle's failure to win the one hundred and four hundred meter freestyle events to the inconvenient accommodations. Meals were served on a regimented schedule and no exceptions were made if athletes arrived late. The girls stayed in comfortable brick cottages but were near a heavily traveled highway. The noise from the traffic kept many swimmers from sleeping. Isolated Rocquencourt had no recreation facilities and evenings were rather boring. Handley concluded his report with a number of suggestions and without commenting on the successful performances of the team.

¹⁰Besford, p. 123.

¹¹ Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, <u>Minutes of the</u> November 20, 1923 Meeting (Detroit: Statler Hotel), p. 180.

¹²L. de B. Handley, "Report of Women's Coach," Report of the American Olympic Association 1924 (Paris: Comite Olympique Français, 1925), pp. 46-49.

Charlotte Epstein was appointed chaperone of the women's swimming team but served as the manager because John T. Taylor, official manager, was housed at Colombes. On both trips to and from the United States Epstein reported good accommodations on the <u>S. S. America</u>. She reiterated the problems described by Handley and pointed out that the girls met inconveniences without complaints. ¹³ Marie Dean also served as a chaperone and in her concise report mentioned housing difficulties. Dean, like Epstein, was proud to serve as chaperone and praised the swimmers' performances. ¹⁴

The USLTA voted to accept an invitation to the 1924 Olympics. ¹⁵ In all six American women journeyed to Paris for Olympic tennis. The Olympic tennis delegation from America was organized by the USLTA under the direction of the American Olympic Association. The USLTA assumed the financial responsibilities of the team. ¹⁶ American women exhibited an outstanding display of tennis. Helen Wills won ladies singles and

¹³Charlotte Epstein, "Report of Chaperone of Women's Swimming Team, Miss Charlotte Epstein," Report of the American Olympic Association 1924 (Paris: Comite Olympique Français, 1925), pp. 50-51.

¹⁴ Marie Dean, "Report of Chaperone of Women's Swimming Team, Mrs. Dean," Report of the American Olympic Association 1924 (Paris: Comite Olympique Francais, 1925), p. 51.

¹⁵Joanna Davenport, "The History and Interpretation of Amateurism in the United States Lawn Tennis Association" (Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1966), p. 116.

¹⁶ Julian S. Myrick, "Report of Manager of Olympic Tennis Team,"

Report of the American Olympic Association 1924 (Paris: Comite Olympique Français, 1925), p. 94.

teamed with Hazel Wightman to capture the gold medal in doubles. 17

Recalling Olympic tennis Helen Wills wrote:

. . . in May, just before the final examinations at college, I had word from the United States Lawn Tennis Association that I had been chosen to be a member of the Olympic tennis team. . . . It would have been difficult for me to keep my mind on the college examinations, had I not been so concerned about them. I worried about all of them, but especially about zoology. When I heard I had "A" on my zoology paper, I felt I could face Olympic tennis with a clear conscience. 18

Most of the tennis courts had not been laid when Helen Wills first viewed the Olympic grounds at Colombes, a manufacturing district near Paris. Mounds of red clay and sand were piled in a field. Despite the last minute arrangements, the courts proved to be very good. The dressing facilities according to Wills were rather poor. The large shed in which the women dressed was covered by a tin roof and had one shower that supplied only a trickle of water. The ball boys provided by Olympic officials were frequently under the grandstands eating lemons. ¹⁹ The last minute preparations, inadequate dressing facilities, and the sometimes inattentive ball boys did not hamper the performances of the Americans.

In addition to winning ladies singles and doubles, both American mixed doubles teams met in the finals resulting in a one-two

^{17&}quot;American Youth Vindicated at Colombes," <u>The Literary Digest</u>, August 9, 1924, p. 8.

¹⁸Helen Wills, <u>Fifteen-Thirty</u> (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937), p. 30.

¹⁹Wills, pp. 44-47.

finish. The distaff side of the mixed doubles team included first place Hazel Wightman and second place Marion Jessup. 20

Tennis was excluded from the Olympic program following the Paris Olympics. Disturbances had occurred throughout the Olympic tournament and centered on the USLTA's belief "that the tennis events should be run by the tennis people and not by the Olympic Committee." The International Lawn Tennis Federation (ILTF) criticized the conduct of the tennis events in Paris and demanded more Olympic representation by tennis officials. The International Olympic Committee refused to comply with the ILTF's demands and the International Lawn Tennis Federation withdrew from the 1928 Olympic competition. 22

Women's Olympic fencing was included for the first time at the Paris Games. The Amateur Fencer's League of America served as the Olympic selection organization for America's unheralded entry into Olympic fencing. Adeline Gehrig and Irma Hopper were both eliminated in the first round of the individual foils competition. In spite of

²⁰Myrick, p. 95.

²¹Davenport, p. 116.

 $^{$^{22}\}mbox{\tiny{II}}$$ Tennis Bodies Withdraw from Olympic Competition," The Olympic, June 1927, p. 17.

 $^{^{23}}$ Helen V. McLoughlin, "Fencing in Philadelphia," <u>The Sportswoman</u>, February 1930, p. 9.

²⁴ Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "All Time U.S. Olympic Team Personnel," United States 1956 Olympic Book (New York: United States Olympic Assn., Inc., 1957), p. 417.

America's dismal debut in Olympic fencing, the inclusion of women's fencing as an Olympic sport stimulated interest in the sport in this country. ²⁵

Americans' Olympic success in tennis and swimming can be attributed in part to the fact that these sports were well established in this country by 1924. Fencing, on the other hand, was popular in only isolated areas in this country and had not reached the popularity level of tennis and swimming by the eighth Olympiad.

²⁵McLoughlin, p. 9.

CHAPTER VI

AMERICANS ENTER TRACK AND FIELD

The efforts of Madame Alice Milliat of France set in motion the circumstances that eventually led to the involvement of women in Olympic track and field. Milliat founded the Federation Feminine Sportive de France which developed into the Federation Sportive Feminine Internationale, world governing body of women's track and field. In 1919, two years after its founding, the Federation Feminine Sportive de France asked the International Olympic governing body to include track and field events for women. Olympic officials rejected the Federation's request so the women established their own international competition.² The Monte Carlo Games and the Paris Women's Olympic Games became the foundation for women's international track and field. The title "Women's World Games" was substituted for "Olympics" because of objections raised by the International Amateur Athletic Federation and the International Olympic Committee. Despite the general lack of encouragement from the male sports world, international track and field competition for women thrived. Successful competitive experiences, capable women

 $^{^{1}\}text{F.}$ A. M. Webster, <u>Athletics of To-Day for Women</u> (London: Frederick Warne and Co., Ltd., 1930), p. 11.

²George Pallett, <u>Women's Athletics</u> (London: The Normal Press, Ltd., 1955), p. 19.

³Pallett, p. 26.

leaders, and an international organization had a profound effect on the inclusion of women's track and field in the Olympics.

In August 1926 Mr. Sigfrid Edstrom, President of the International Olympic Committee, spoke in favor of the proposal to admit women's track and field athletics to the Olympics. Murray Hulbert, representing the United States, supported Edstrom and cited the successful American Women's Championships initiated in 1925 as well as the increasing interest in women's track and field in the United States. The Congress voted in favor of the proposal twelve votes to five. 4

After the international Olympic governing body opened track and field to women, the AAU of the United States added the eight hundred meter run to its events. The Union was desirous of adequately preparing participants for the ninth Olympiad. The following year, in November 1927, the AAU voted to include the eight hundred meter run as an optional event in the national outdoor championships. 6

In forecasting the results of women's track and field at the ninth Olympiad in Amsterdam, Fred Steers, a track coach, suggested that our women would face strong competition when they met the well trained, experienced Europeans. Women track and field performers in this country, occasionally derided, were "a subject of horror among physicians and

⁴Webster, pp. 99-101.

Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, Minutes of the November 15, 1926 Meeting (Baltimore: Hotel Emerson), pp. 70-71.

⁶Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, <u>Minutes of the November 21, 1927 Meeting (Cincinnati: Hotel Sinton)</u>, p. 166.

reformers, and an object of lifted eyebrows in the best circles . . ."⁷ but were looked on in a more favorable way as a result of their inclusion in Olympic competition.

Writing for <u>The Ladies Home Journal</u> just prior to the Amsterdam Olympics, W. O. McGeehan regarded the women's Olympic track and field trials at Newark City Stadium on July the Fourth "as a feminist Independence Day." McGeehan viewed track and field as an emerging sport for women in the United States. He believed the impetus offered by Olympic track and field would cause the sport to grow rapidly in this country and that performances would improve as had other established sports in this country.

Leading the United States during the 1928 opening ceremonies were the standard bearers and Olympic officials headed by General Douglas MacArthur. Next marched the women's track and field team, aquatic team, and fencing team. ¹⁰ American women entered all competitive events open to their sex with the exception of team gymnastics. ¹¹ According to Daniel Ferris, the United States did not enter calisthenics

 $^{^{7}}$ Fred L. Steers, "Women and the 1928 Olympiad," <u>The Olympic</u>, July 1927, pp. 28, 29, 34.

⁸W. O. McGeehan, "Glorified Tomboys," <u>The Ladies Home Journal</u>, July 1928, p. 25.

⁹ McGeehan, pp. 25, 72.

^{10&}quot;Olympic Officials Face Ticket Scandal," The New York Times, July 24, 1928, p. 15, col. 1, 2.

^{11&}quot;General Rules Applicable to the Celebration of the Olympic Games," Report of the American Olympic Committee (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), pp. 20-25, 32, 33.

or team gymnastics because American women were not prepared for that type of gymnastics. 12

The first women's track and field team from the United States was victorious in only one event, the one hundred meter dash. Silver medals were won in the discus throw and the four hundred meter relay. One bronze medal was won in the high jump. None of the United States competitors placed in the metric half mile. Fred Steers, manager of the women's track and field team, reported satisfactory travel and housing accommodations. 13

The lone American track gold medal went to Betty Robinson.

Robinson's victory was heralded "with wild college yells and America's community cheering, while the Stars and Stripes went up . . . the bands blared out the American National Anthem to celebrate the first woman's . . ." track victory of the modern Olympic era. 14

Betty Robinson at sixteen became the first woman from the United States to win a gold medal in track and field. The one hundred meter dash winner had begun training by running through the school corridors with the boy's track team. The coach encouraged Robinson, but neither the principal nor the boys were entirely supportive. Robinson recalls that women track and field competitors "weren't completely

¹²Letter from Daniel Ferris, Secretary Emeritus, Amateur Athletic Union, July 9, 1974.

¹³Fred L. Steers, "Report of Manager of Women's Track and Field Team," Report of the American Olympic Committee (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), p. 154.

¹⁴Webster, p. 110.

accepted" 15 at their first Olympic encounter. Robinson's gold medal, however, elevated her to heroine status and when she returned home the principal even shook her hand. 16

The second place four hundred meter relay team consisted of Robinson, Jessie Cross, Loretta McNeil, and Mary Washburn. Lillian Copeland was America's first silver medalist discus thrower. The bronze medal went to high jumper Mildred Wiley. ¹⁷ Considering the strong European opposition the Americans did well in that they placed in four of the five track and field events open to them.

The preliminaries of the eight hundred meter run resulted in no ill effects; 18 however, the exhausted state of the finalists produced a furor that disturbed women physical educators in this country.

Coach Melvin Sheppard did not comment on the athletic performances of the participants but thought future team selection should be based on AAU and college championships rather than Olympic tryouts at the end of the season. 19

Women's track and field chaperone, Aileen Allen, criticized Olympic officials for transporting athletes on a slow boat. The

¹⁵ Andy Rosenblatt, "She Recalls '28 Olympics--Gold Medal," The Miami Herald, March 28, 1974, p. 26A, col. 1.

 $^{^{16}}$ Rosenblatt, p. 26A, col. 1.

¹⁷Steers, p. 154.

¹⁸Pallett, p. 39.

¹⁹ Melvin W. Sheppard, "Report of Coach Women's Track and Field Team" (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), p. 156.

athletes lived on board the <u>President Roosevelt</u> during the Olympics and did not have to change diets. However, the distance to the competing areas was inconvenient. ²⁰

Joseph A. Reilly, assistant to the Olympic Committee president, recognized women as managers of Olympic teams in terms of less sophisticated duties such as deciding on transportation, housing, practice, and recreation. Reilly suggested that managers have Olympic experience to better "understand the needs of their charges." Fortunately, women were found to be capable of more than the menial tasks recommended by Reilly. Women slowly entered phases other than managerial positions in the Olympic organization.

The eight hundred meter run was dropped from the women's Olympic events after the 1928 Games. The AAU followed suit and also discontinued the event. Fred Steers, Chairman of the Women's Athletic Committee of the AAU reported that the Union had not received evidence of physical detriment to its eight hundred meter runners but on the other hand, related that:

... the effort and fatigue of competitors does not conform to the American ideals of womanly dignity and conduct. It does not lead to the promotion of the sport, but on the contrary, because of its effect upon the spectators, is detrimental. 22

²⁰Aileen Allen, "Report of Chaperone, Women's Track and Field Team" (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), pp. 157, 159.

²¹Joseph A. Reilly, "Report of Assistant to President" (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), p. 67.

²²Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, Minutes of the November 18-20, 1928 Meeting (New York: Waldorf-Astoria).

Interestingly, American society did not appear to accept women who perspired on the track but saw no objection to perspiration acquired in factories or kitchens.

The British did not enter women in the 1928 Olympics but according to Lady Mary Heath, Vice President of the Feminine Sportive Federation Internationale, her country, after seeing the American women perform and observing their organization, decided to enter women in the tenth Olympiad. ²³

Writer John R. Tunis, like a number of sportswriters of his day, opposed the involvement of women in the Olympics. In <u>Harper's Magazine</u>, Tunis criticized the inclusion of new Olympic events that did not adhere to the Greek ideals of manly physical development. Regarding swimming, Tunis charged, "Surely the acme of absurdity was reached with the inclusion of women's teams from several nations in the various swimming events." 24

In spite of Tunis, and others like him, America's third entry in women's Olympic swimming and diving collected five gold medals out of a possible seven. A one-two-three sweep in fancy diving occurred while one-two victories were decided by Americans in high diving and the one hundred meter freestyle events. First and third places were captured in the four hundred meter freestyle contest. The four

^{23&}quot;Supports Women's Sports," The New York Times, January 5, 1929, p. 17, col. 8.

²⁴John R. Tunis, "The Olympic Games," <u>Harper's Magazine</u>, August 1928, p. 323.

hundred meter relay team was victorious; however, Americans failed to qualify for Olympic laurels in the one hundred meter backstroke or the two hundred meter breaststroke. ²⁵

Robert Kiphuth, according to Dr. Francois D'Eliscu, assistant swimming team manager, was a very capable coach. In his Olympic report, D'Eliscu wrote of Kiphuth:

. . . he had the full respect of all swimmers and officials. A leader with personality, ability and whose sole interest was to make a good showing at the Games. Always in the background and not interested in himself, Mr. Kiphuth, personified in my estimation the finer things that make sports and athletics as it is to-day. A gentleman with everybody, a good coach, . . . whose extensive travels around the worldhave made him the outstanding educator both in physical education and . . . swimming. 26

Kiphuth of Yale University was pleased with the accolades accorded the aquatic entry. Kiphuth's concise report mentioned the lack of organization regarding pre-Olympic practices at Amsterdam, medical supervision and diet. The quality, however, of medical assistance and food was excellent according to Kiphuth. 27

The first official managerial position assumed by a woman was claimed by Doris O'Mara, assistant manager of the swimming team. In her report to the American Olympic officials, O'Mara suggested that future

^{25&}quot;Olympic Swimming Championships-Women," Report of the American Olympic Committee (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), pp. 307, 309.

²⁶Francois D'Eliscu, "Report of Assistant Manager, Swimming Team," Report of the American Olympic Committee (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), p. 287.

²⁷Robert Kiphuth, "Report of Coach, Women's Swimming Team,"

Report of the American Olympic Committee (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), p. 294.

athletes specialize to meet the rapidly improving European competition. American swimming techniques displayed in the Olympics were adapted by other nations. O'Mara encouraged national championships to maintain supremacy in some strokes and to develop strength in the backstroke and breaststroke. ²⁸

Martha Norelius was the first American woman to win gold medals in two different Olympiads. Norelius' second consecutive Olympic appearance produced a gold medal in the four hundred meter freestyle and four hundred meter relay. In 1929 Norelius became a professional "after the AAU suspended her for giving a Miami exhibition in the same pool with professionals." Martha Norelius won the ten thousand dollar ten mile Wrigley Marathon in Toronto. She met Joe Wright at the marathon and married the Canadian rowing champion. 30

The championship four hundred meter relay team consisted of Elinor Garatti, Albina Osipowich, Martha Norelius, and Adelaide Lambert. Osipowich also won a gold medal in the one hundred meter freestyle competition while Garatti placed second in the event. The only bronze medal for swimming went to Josephine McKim. 31

²⁸Doris O'Mara, "Report of Assistant Manager, Swimming Team," Report of the American Olympic Committee (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), p. 292.

²⁹Buck Dawson, ed., "Martha Norelius-Honor Swimmer," <u>Swimming Hall of Fame Dedication Year 1968</u> (Fort Lauderdale: Swimming Hall of Fame, 1968), p. 31.

³⁰Dawson, p. 31.

^{31&}quot;Olympic Swimming Championships-Women," pp. 307, 309.

Helen Meany won seventeen National AAU diving championships; however, the zenith of her career came with a gold medal in high diving in her third Olympic appearance at Amsterdam. An exciting experience for Meany came when she was invited to participate in a Tokyo meet honoring Prince Chichibus' wedding. The 1928 Olympic winners also invited to participate included Johnny Weismuller, Wally Laufer, and Arne Borg. 32 Meany was the only woman invited.

Elizabeth Becker married Clarence Pinkston, Olympic diving champion and when their twins were over a year old Mrs. Pinkston decided she needed a rest and tried out for the 1928 Olympic team. ³³ Pinkston's second gold medal was in high diving and her Olympic win occurred on the second birthday of her twins. ³⁴

Olympic officials directed criticism toward some members of the women's swimming team when it was learned that they left by train for a shopping tour in Paris at the expense of the American Olympic Association. According to a New York Times writer, the team members considered themselves unbeatable and thought a trip after the Games would not be possible before the President Roosevelt sailed for the United States.

³²Buck Dawson, ed., "Helen Meany-Honor Diver," 1972 International Swimming Hall of Fame Yearbook (Fort Lauderdale: Press Time, 1972), p. 16.

³³Statement by Elizabeth Becker Pinkston, personal interview, Fort Lauderdale, Florida, December 29, 1973.

³⁴Buck Dawson, ed., "Betty Becker Pinkston-Honor Diver,"

International Swimming Hall of Fame Fifth Anniversary Yearbook 19651970 (Fort Lauderdale: International Swimming Hall of Fame, 1971),
p. 87.

Divers Helen Meany, Georgia Coleman, and Dorothy Poynton opted to stay because they apparently thought there was enough to keep them busy at the swimming stadium. They spent a day diving before a gallery of swimmers. 35

In 1927, prior to America's second women's Olympic fencing appearance, a Women's Committee of the Amateur Fencer's League was organized. The rapid growth of women's fencing was attributed to the work of that committee. The committee planned numerous tournaments to stimulate interest and train women for Olympic fencing. For the first time, a National Women's Team Championship was conducted in 1928.

Mrs. Charles H. Hopper and Marion Lloyd were selected to represent the United States in the 1928 Olympic fencing competition. ³⁶ Lloyd was the National Champion while Hopper placed second. Lloyd, in Olympic competition, outfenced eventual champion Elena Meyer of Germany in a preliminary round but lost to the German in the semi finals competition. Marion Lloyd was the first American woman to advance beyond the preliminaries in Olympic fencing. ³⁷ George Santelli, fencing coach, was complimentary of Lloyd's performance. ³⁸ Team captain Colonel Henry

^{35&}quot;U.S. Women Swimmers Leave on Paris Trip Despite Criticism," The New York Times, July 25, 1928, p. 19, col. 1.

³⁶"1928 Fencing," The Sportswoman, June 1928, p. 239.

 $^{^{37}}$ Catherine De Bernard, "The Foils," <u>The Sportswoman</u>, October 1928, p. 15.

³⁸George Santelli, "Report of Fencing Team Coach," Report of the American Olympic Committee (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), p. 202.

Breckinridge reported that Marion Lloyd missed the finals by only two touches. 39

Following the ninth Olympiad in October 1928, Baron Pierre de Coubertin expressed his opinion of women in the Olympics. He declared:

... as to the admission of women to the Games, I remain strongly against it. It was against my will that they were admitted to a growing number of competitions. 40

³⁹Henry Breckinridge, "Report of Captain, Fencing Team,"

Report of the American Olympic Committee (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), p. 202.

⁴⁰ Alice Allene Sefton, The Women's Division National Amateur Athletic Federation (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1941), p. 56.

CHAPTER VII

THE OLYMPIC PROTEST

The international track and field competition in Paris, France was in all likelihood a major contributor to the events that ultimately led to the Olympic protest by women physical educators in this country. Dr. Harry E. Stewart, Chairman of the Women's National Track Committee, was responsible for gathering the American team that competed in the Paris meet. Dr. Stewart hoped the meet would contribute to his crusade for women's track and field in the 1924 Olympics. 2

The Committee on Athletics for Women of the American Physical Education Association objected to sending a team to Paris because track and field for women was new and loosely organized. The committee did not believe that the status of track and field in America could result in a properly chosen or representative team.

Many women physical educators in the United States similarly opposed the participation of American women in the Paris track and field

Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, Minutes of the November 20-21, 1922 Meeting (New York: Hotel McAlpin), p. 194.

²"Women Athletic Tryouts Arranged," <u>The New York Times</u>, April 16, 1922, p. 27, col. 3.

³"Report of the Business Meeting of the American Physical Education Association," <u>American Physical Education Review</u>, September, 1922, p. 334.

events.⁴ The Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association, whose formation was announced in the <u>American</u> Physical Education Review's May 1922 issue,

. . . received protests from societies and individuals against taking the women's athletic team to Europe. . . sent them to Dr. Stewart who stated that he was obligated . . . to carry through the athletic meet. 5

Despite opposition the American women's track and field team sailed for France August 1, 1922. The team was accompanied by Dr. and Mrs. Harry Stewart and mothers of two of the team members.

"It was the first occasion that a complete team of American women athletes had seen Europe and the youthful representatives created an excellent impression . . . earning generous . . ." praise for their performances. For this, its international debut, the American women's track and field team produced sufficient points to place second. The more experienced British team acquired first place honors.

The August 23, 1922 New York Times cast doubt on the value of the Paris competition by disclosing that

. . . certain spectators concluded from the severe exhaustion shown by some of the participants after their victories, and

⁴Sarah Addington, "The Athletic Limitations of Women," The Ladies Home Journal, June, 1923, p. 38; see also Alice W. Frymir, Track and Field for Women (New York: A. S. Barnes, 1930), p. 12 and "Women's Athletic Committee Report," American Physical Education Review, January, 1923, p. 68.

^{5&}quot;Women's Athletic Committee Report," American Physical, p. 68.

^{6&}quot;Girl Athletes Depart," The New York Times, August 2, 1922, p. 14, col. 3.

⁷Emanuel Haug, "Athletics," Mind and Body, December, 1922, p. 329.

especially after their defeats, that such "games" were not proper for women, or at any rate, not for girls--that they might be seriously and even permanently affected by the strains to which in the excitement of competition they subjected their heart and other muscles. 8

The Recreation Congress joined the campaign to repress international competition for women. Specific objection to sending an American team to Paris was expressed during the Atlantic City meetings in October of 1922. Organizations opposing highly structured competition shared two major apprehensions: 1) the unknown effects of strenuous exercise on women and 2) limited opportunities for a few skilled participants.

The AAU's activities are also significant in interpreting the events that led to the Olympic protest. Consider that the AAU, in addition to being prompted by requests for women's track and field events, recognized that women physical educators were slow in determining distances for women to run and weight of track and field equipment. ¹⁰ The AAU was not anxious to assume additional responsibilities but was aware that women's track and field lacked supervision and direction in this country. ¹¹

^{8&}quot;Effects of Athletics on Women," The New York Times, August 23, 1922, p. 12, col. 4.

^{9&}quot;Women's Athletic Committee Report," American Physical Education Review, p. 69.

^{10&}quot;A.A.U. May Control Women's Athletics," The New York Times, April 9, 1922, p. 26, col. 8.

¹¹ Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, Minutes of the November 20-21, 1922 Meeting (New York: Hotel McAlpin), pp. 25-26.

William C. Prout, President of the AAU, announced at an April 1922 AAU meeting that the Union had received numerous requests for women's track and field competition in the United States. Furthermore, Mr. Prout expressed an interest in the competitive opportunities that women in other countries experienced. He asked if there were objections to athletic competition for females. Nita Sheffield of New York Teacher's College, although not opposed to girls' athletics, stressed the importance of obtaining support from the medical profession. In reply Prout cited Harvard University physical educator, Dr. Dudley A. Sargent's favorable view toward competition and the regulation of track and field for girls. Sargent's opinion was based on his training as a medical doctor. Charlotte Epstein, representative of the Women's Swimming Association of New York, also voiced approval of AAU involvement in women's sports. Epstein pointed out that the Union's assistance was more significant for the less organized non-intercollegiate sport programs such as track and field. Frederick W. Rubien, Secretary-Treasurer of the AAU, offered a resolution that urged "the adoption of track and field events for women" and requested "the cooperation of athletic groups with a view of popularizing amateur sports for girls."12

On November 22, 1922 The New York Times tersely announced the AAU's "unanimous decision to assume control and jurisdiction over women's competitive athletics." The action taken by the Union was

^{12&}quot;A.A.U. to Control Girls' Athletics," New York Herald, April 9, 1922.

^{13&}quot;Prout Again Chosen As Head of A.A.U.," The New York Times, November 22, 1922, p. 25, col. 2.

not well received by conservative sportswomen. The Women's Committee on Athletics of the American Physical Education Association announced opposition to the affiliation of the AAU with women's sports. Objections were based on the premise that the women's organization was more properly trained to conduct athletics and meet the unique needs of the female competitor. 14

A Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation was organized largely through the persuasive efforts of the men's organization, the National Amateur Athletic Federation (NAAF). At the request of the NAAF, Mrs. Herbert Hoover, honorary vice president of the NAAF, called together in April 1923 about two hundred men and women leaders in health and physical education. The Washington, D.C. conference was called to combat the negative aspects of men's athletics such as exploitation of athletes and to promote constructive athletic activities for girls and women. Mrs. Hoover's concerns for girls and women's athletics focused on three factors: 1) lack of medical supervision, 2) exploitation of athletes, and 3) the trend to duplicate the practices of boys' athletics resulting in an over emphasis on records and champions. 15 An additional concern of women physical educators during the early 1920s was Dr. Harry Stewart's track committee and its promotion of international track and field competition. The committee, in December 1922, became the National Women's Track Athletic Association

^{14&}quot;Report of the Business Meeting," American Physical Education Review, p. 334.

¹⁵ Agnes Wayman, "Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation," <u>Journal of Health and Physical Education</u>, March, 1932, p. 3.

whose purpose was "to control all interscholastic and intercollegiate sports for girls and women." 16

The direction that athletics for girls and women would take was largely determined by the resolutions approved at the 1923 conference. A conservative element in girls' and women's competition prevailed for over four decades after the 1923 conference. In essence the resolutions sanctioned: the provision of properly conducted sport programs by qualified women, concern for the welfare of the participant, the utilitarian belief that sport was for large numbers, and emphasis on enjoyment rather than winning championships. There was no place for Olympic competition in the philosophy of the Women's Division. The highly skilled woman athlete interested in the challenges of international sport had little to gain from the "playday philosophy" which stressed socialization rather than competition. Playday teams consisted of players representing several schools on each team.

International track and field for women continued to grow through the 1920s. Women's track gained significant endorsement when the International Olympic Committee permitted women to enter the ninth Olympiad in 1928. The eight hundred meter run of the 1928 Olympics, in which several contestants collapsed, resulted in strong opposition to women's competition and may have been a major factor in provoking

^{16&}quot;National Women's Track Body Formed," The New York Times, December 3, 1922, p. 2, col. 8.

¹⁷Wayman, pp. 7, 53.

¹⁸Helen N. Smith, "Evils of Sports for Women," <u>Journal of</u> Health and Physical Education, January, 1931, p. 9.

antagonism toward the Olympic Games. Sportswriter John R. Tunis' adamant opposition to women in the Olympics intensified when he viewed the contestants in the metric half mile. Tunis contributed to the antifeminine move with the following account:

. . . below us on the cinder path were eleven wretched women five of whom dropped out before the finish, while five collapsed after reaching the tape. I was informed later that the remaining starter fainted in the dressing room shortly afterward. 19

Tunis was a strong supporter of the Women's Division's ideals. In summary, his objections to women in the Olympics were founded on the limited number of participants, exploitation of athletes, and the trend toward masculine influences in women's athletics. In contrast, Gustavus T. Kirby, Chairman of the Committee on Olympic Games, American Olympic Association, did "not believe that any contestant was physically injured, mentally upset or morally offended by her presence in competition" in Amsterdam.

Both Olympic and AAU officials favored the inclusion of women in the Olympics. Kirby was an outspoken advocate of competitive opportunities for women. Frederick W. Rubien, Secretary of the American Olympic Association, also voiced approval. According to Murray Hulbert, President of the Amateur Athletic Union and the American representative to the International Amateur Athletic Federation, "Participation of women in athletics is recognized by all international sports governing bodies."²¹

¹⁹ John R. Tunis, "Women and the Sport Business," <u>Harper's</u> Monthly Magazine, July, 1929, p. 213.

 $^{^{20}}$ Gustavus T. Kirby, "The 1928 Olympics," <u>The Playground</u>, March, 1929, p. 718.

^{21&}quot;Discount Effect of Protest," The New York Times, January 4, 1929, p. 17, col. 2.

Hulbert reported the AAU's acknowledgement of women's interest in sport and its provision of competitive opportunities with limitations for feminine participants.²²

Physical educators Jesse Williams and William Leonard asserted that the Women's Division's opposition to feminine Olympic participation was

. . . probably against the majority judgment of teachers and directors in the field. In their complete opposition to the participation of women athletes in the 1932 Olympics the National Amateur Athletic Federation may have missed the opportunity to give leadership to the proper kind and amount of athletics for women.²³

Dr. Godfrey Dewey, committee leader of the third winter Olympiad, favored Olympic competition for women but questioned the inclusion of endurance events.²⁴

In January of 1929, the Women's Division, National Amateur

Athletic Federation, inaugurated a campaign to oppose the participation
of women in the tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles in 1932. The theme of
its fifth annual meeting focused on the challenge: "Competition for
Girls, More Rather than Less but of the Right Kind." Three hundred
sixty persons attended the New York City meeting held at the Hotel
Pennsylvania. 25 The chairman of the organization's executive committee,

^{22&}quot;Discount Effect of Protest," p. 17, col. 2.

²³Jesse Feiring Williams and William Leonard Hughes, Athletics in Education (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders, Co., 1930), p. 46.

²⁴"Dr. Dewey Wants Women's Games in Olympics, but Opposes Events Where Endurance Enters," <u>The New York Times</u>, July 6, 1930, Sec. X, p. 1, col. 6.

^{25&}quot;Fifth Annual Meeting, Women's Division, National Amateur Athletic Federation," American Physical Education Review, April, 1929, p. 241.

Ethel Perrin, announced three considerations for the anti-Olympic movement: first, an extensive crusade to eliminate Olympic competition for women, second, involvement in the organization of women's Olympic events in an attempt to carry out policies of the Women's Division, and third, promotion of an educational campaign to discourage girls of school and college age from training for Olympic selection. Perrin based her Olympic recommendations on opposition to: specialized training for limited numbers of participants, exploitation of athletes for the sake of winning, and over emphasis on establishing records.

Among the other speakers only Helen Bunting of Stanford University opposed the anti-Olympic movement. She favored offering the organizational services of the Women's Division to the 1932 Olympics. She believed the Federation could make a contribution to international friendship through proper organization and conduct of the women's events. Although Bunting attracted a few followers, the pro-Olympic campaign proved ineffective.

Agnes R. Wayman, chairman of Barnard College's physical education department, presided at a session that received additional objections to highly competitive experiences for girls and women. Helen McKinstry discussed the events reported to her relating to the strain experienced by women athletes at the Amsterdam Olympics. McKinstry, director of the Central School of Hygiene and Physical Education in New York City, intimated that persons abroad were outraged by the physical condition of the performers upon completion of competition. ²⁶

^{26&}quot;Move to Bar Women from Olympic Games Is Launched Here," The New York Times, January 4, 1929, p. 17, col. 1.

The Women's Divison voted unanimously in favor of moderating the intensity of women's athletics.

Three reasons were given for the adoption of the clause opposing women in the Olympic Games. The competition, according to the reasons, involves specialized training for the few, opportunity for the exploitation of the athletes and possible overstrain during the Games.²⁷

The conservative approach to competition by the Women's Division and physical educators of the 1920s was based in part on the medical profession's views toward exercise. In an October 27, 1972 communication to the writer, Helen Manley, former Physical Education Supervisor for the St. Louis Public Schools, remarked that the medical profession was very cautious about recommending physical activity and "excused girls from activities at the drop of a hat."

In summary, the January 1929 meeting of the Women's Division resulted in resolutions to:

- 1. disapprove Olympic competition for girls
- host and entertain foreign women participants at the Los Angeles Olympics
- 3. promote the playday
- substitute for Olympic competition a festival of singing, dancing, music, mass sports and games, and banquets
- 5. campaign extensively for properly conducted sports programs emphasizing participation rather than winning.²⁹

²⁷"Non-Olympic Rule Adopted by Women," <u>The New York Times</u>, January 6, 1929, sec. XII, p. 1, col. 4.

²⁸Questionnaire from Helen Manley, retired Physical Education Supervisor for the St. Louis Public Schools, October 27, 1972.

²⁹Agnes Wayman, "Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation," Journal of Health and Physical Education, March, 1932, pp. 4-5.

In April 1930 the Executive Committee of the Women's Division requested that the International Olympic Committee and the International Amateur Athletic Federation eliminate track and field events for women in the 1932 Olympic Games. 30

In addition, the Women's Division requested that the following organizations

... pass resolutions against the participation of women in Olympic Games: International Council of Women, Vienna, Austria, May 5-10, 1930; Women's Pan-Pacific Conference, Honolulu, Hawaii, August 8-19, 1930; Sixth Pan-American Congress on the Child, Lima, Peru, July 23-30, 1930; Comite d Entente of Great International Associations, Paris, France, May, 1930; National Council of Women of the United States, Inc., New York City, April 23, 1930. 31

In the March 1929 issue of the American Physical Education

Review, the Women's Athletic Section of the American Physical Education Association voiced objection to the inclusion of Olympic swimming and track and field competition for women. The section offered its assistance to other agencies combating the Olympic issue. 32 Two months later it submitted a list of resolutions reiterating the anti-Olympic position of the Women's Division. 33

³⁰ Alice Allene Sefton, The Women's Division National Amateur Athletic Federation (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1941), p. 55.

³¹ Sefton, p. 55.

^{32&}quot;News of Girls' and Women's Athletics Conducted by the Women's Athletic Section, American Physical Education Association and the Women's Division, National Amateur Athletic Federation," American Physical Education Review, March, 1929, p. 167.

^{33&}quot;Resolutions of the Section on Women's Athletics of the American Physical Education Association," American Physical Education Review, May, 1929, p. 310.

Frederick Rand Rogers of the New York State Education Department argued that Olympic Games "tend to destroy girls' physical and psychic charm and adaptability for motherhood." Rogers saw value in recreational sports and games but was unyielding in his opposition to women participating in the Olympics. 35

Additional organizations supporting the Women's Division's Olympic protest included: the United States Bureau of Education, ³⁶ the National Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women, ³⁷ the General Conference of the College of Education of the University of Cincinnati, ³⁸ and the Young Women's Christian Association. ³⁹

The Olympic Congress of May 1930 devoted nearly a day to deliberating the effects of highly competitive experiences on feminine participants. Basing their position on research, the Germans presented a strong case supporting women's competitive involvement. German

³⁴Frederick Rand Rogers, "Olympics for Girls?" School and Society, August 10, 1929, p. 194.

³⁵Frederick Rand Rogers, "Competition for Girls," American Physical Education Review, March, 1929, p. 168.

³⁶"Athletics for Women," <u>School and Society</u>, January 17, 1925, p. 83.

^{37&}quot;Conference of Directors of Physical Education for College Women," <u>Journal of Health and Physical Education</u>, September, 1932, p. 50.

³⁸L. A. Pechstein, "A Conference on Girls' Athletics at the University of Cincinnati," <u>School and Society</u>, December 26, 1925, p. 820.

³⁹Margaret Chase Locke, "A Bibliographical Study of Agnes Rebecca Wayman: Her Life and Contributions to the Field of Health, Physical Education and Recreation" (Doctoral dissertation, Springfield College, 1959).

statistics revealed no deleterious effects to child bearing. In general, the Germans were convinced that athletics were beneficial to females. 40 In spite of German research findings, however, the controversial eight hundred meter run of the Amsterdam Olympics was eliminated. The Congress did approve six events for the tenth Olympiad: one hundred meter run, eighty meter hurdles, four hundred meter relay, high jump, discus, and javelin. The eighty meter hurdles and the javelin throw replaced the eight hundred meter run. 41 It was an American, Murray Hulbert, who proposed the motion to eliminate the eight hundred meter run for women. 42

The International Olympic Congress resolved a most mooted issue when it unanimously rejected a motion to limit women to gymnastics, tennis, swimming, and skating. A New York Times writer credited the efforts of the American delegates to the International Congress, led by Gustavus T. Kirby, with the outcome of this vote. American influence appeared to be a significant factor in the decisions at the 1930 International Olympic Congress.

⁴⁰ Gustavus T. Kirby, "The 1928 Olympics," The Playground, March, 1929, 718.

 $^{^{41}}$ "Olympic Program for Women Fixed," The New York Times, June 29, 1931, p. 25, col. 3.

^{42&}quot;Discount Effect of Protest," p. 17, col. 2.

^{43&}quot;Women to Compete in Olympic Track," The New York Times, May 30, 1930, p. 14, col. 7.

^{44&}quot;Women to Remain in Olympic Games," The New York Times, May 25, 1930, sec. XI, p. 9, col. 5.

The petition sent by the Women's Division apparently had little effect on the Berlin meeting. In a letter to the writer on April 19, 1972, Daniel Ferris, Secretary Emeritus of the AAU of the United States wrote:

I was present at the meeting in Berlin in May, 1930. As I recall there was very little support for the proposal made by the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation, that track and field athletics for women [not be] included on the Olympic program for the Games at Los Angeles in 1932.

The anti-Olympic campaign of the Women's Division probably influenced a decline of women's intercollegiate competition. In 1923, Mabel Lee of the University of Nebraska had studied intercollegiate competition for women in colleges and universities. During the summer of 1930, the Women's Division requested that Lee repeat her investigation. The later study revealed that only twelve percent of the colleges and universities conducted intercollegiate competition for women as compared to twenty-two percent in 1923. The 1923 investigation included twenty-three states while the 1930 study involved thirty-seven states. 46

The panacea for the problems produced by Olympic competition and other forms of highly competitive athletics was thought to be the playday. 47 It seemed to exemplify the reigning "ideal of the Women's Division--a team for every girl and every girl on the team." 48 The

⁴⁵Letter from Daniel Ferris, Secretary Emeritus of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, April 19, 1972.

⁴⁶Mabel Lee, "The Case for and Against Intercollegiate Athletics for Women and the Situation Since 1923," Research Quarterly, May, 1931, pp. 97, 122.

⁴⁷Smith, p. 50.

⁴⁸Blanche M. Trilling, "The Playtime of a Million Girls or an Olympic Victory--Which?" Nations Schools, August, 1929, p. 54.

playday spread like an epidemic and was viewed as the zenith of the competitive experience for women. This conservative view of women's competition prevailed until the 1960s.

Perhaps because of the Olympic protest and an antipathy toward intercollegiate athletics a belief emerged that the Women's Division opposed competition altogether. Agnes Wayman and others attempted to dispel this view. Speaking at the Fifth Annual Meeting of the Women's Division, Wayman said,

. . . We believe in competition, not intense intergroup competition but competition with proper safeguards. We must build sports and games which are adapted to the American girl's condition 49

In response to a questionnaire designed by the writer, Mabel Lee, who was present at the "Olympic protest meeting" in New York City wrote that the protest "failed to produce the result it hoped to produce for lack of backing from the male world that was blind to what we women were trying to achieve." The efforts to promote educational sport programs by women physical educators during the years following the organization of the Women's Division were not recognized by the male sports world. Large numbers of men were more intent on producing championship teams by any means rather than considering the welfare of individual participants.

^{49&}quot;Fifth Annual Meeting of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation," The Playground, March, 1929, p. 716.

⁵⁰ Questionnaire from Mabel Lee, former Director of Women's Physical Education Department, University of Nebraska, October 16, 1972.

CHAPTER VIII

BABE DIDRIKSON, REMARKABLE ATHLETE

Following "the collapse of the stock market in the autumn of 1929 . . . came the Great Depression which lasted, with varying severity, for ten years" in America. For the second time a city in the United States was awarded the celebration of the Olympic Games. Los Angeles was the site of the tenth modern Olympiad. Advance preparations prior to 1929 enabled the organizers of the 1932 Games to present an exciting panorama of sport.

Over a year before the 1932 Olympics were to be held, preparations for team selections began. Olympic officials were not only concerned about team tryouts but opposed "the use of nicknames to describe women athletes. . . ." Avery Brundage, AAU President, objected to using nicknames in Olympic promotional material:

"We should avoid the use of such names," Brundage said.
"They are undignified and they are prohibited by the rules."
Brundage thought the rule providing athletes must not compete under assumed names applied. Such names as Babe, Sunshine and Doll were cited as undesirable examples.³

Men outnumbered women competitors at the tenth Olympiad but the women received equal consideration in housing, training, and

¹John Kenneth Galbraith, <u>The Great Crash 1929</u> (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955), pp. 173-74.

²"Olympic Tryouts Are Planned Here," <u>The New York Times</u>, November 17, 1931, p. 35, col. 2.

^{3&}quot;Olympic Tryouts Are Planned Here," The New York Times, November 17, 1931, p. 35, col. 2.

entertainment. The Organizing Committee decided against housing women at the men's housing facilities in Olympic Village. The organizers believed feminine needs could be more adequately met at a more permanent residence. The Chapman Park Hotel reserved its entire space for women athletes during the Olympic Games. The hotel management provided laundry facilities for the athletes "and the ordinarily deserted basement became a center of activity and industry." Enthusiastic spirit permeated the Chapman Park Hotel. In the evenings Olympic champions of the day were applauded when they entered the dining room. ⁵

In arranging for entertainment for the women athletes, and in assisting them in entertaining themselves, the most difficult problem was that of choosing things to do. Literally hundreds of invitations of all kinds poured into the manager's office, only a small percentage of which could be accepted. An official entertainment at the hotel was ordinarily offered daily in the dining room after dinner. This consisted of a variety of music and dancing, and on one occasion a birthday party was held for all guests whose birthdays occurred during their absence from home. Motion picture stars were frequent guests. On one evening, those who cared to go were taken to Wrigley Field to a night baseball game, and on another they were taken to the Hollywood Bowl to hear a symphony concert.

American women again entered Olympic fencing, track and field, and swimming. Women's gymnastics was not part of the 1932 Olympic program. Representing the United States in fencing were Dorothy Locke,

⁴F. G. Browne, ed., "Women's Housing," The Games of Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932 (Los Angeles: Wolfer Printing Co., Inc., 1932), pp. 292, 296.

⁵Browne, p. 296.

⁶Browne, pp. 295-96.

⁷Letter from Daniel Ferris, Secretary Emeritus, Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, July 9, 1974.

1932 National Champion; Muriel Guggolz, 1932 runner-up in the National Championship tournament; and former National Champion and Olympic fencer, Marion Lloyd. ⁸ Lloyd remained in the competition longer than her teammates. She advanced to the final round and finished ninth. ⁹

The United States won an amazing five out of six track and field events. In three events Americans won both first and second places. Most amazingly, Mildred "Babe" Didrikson went to the victor's stand for the javelin throw and eighty meter hurdles, and placed second in the high jump. Jean Shiley won the high jump while Lillian Copeland placed first in the discus throw. The fifth gold medal went to the four hundred meter relay team. ¹⁰ Running the four hundred meter relay in world record time were Mary Carew, Evelyn Furtisch, Annette Rogers, and anchor Wilhelmina Von Bremen. Von Bremen crossed the finish line about a foot in front of her challenger. ¹¹ Other medalists included Ruth Osburn, silver medal in the discus; Evelyne Hall, silver medal in the eighty meter hurdles, and Wilhelmina Von Bremen, bronze medal in the hundred meter dash. ¹²

⁸Ruth Brylowski Knight, "The Path to the Olympics," <u>The Sports</u>woman, December, 1932, p. 19.

⁹F. Barnard O'Conner, "Report of the Olympic Games Fencing Committee," The Games of the Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932 (Los Angeles: Wolfer Printing Co., Inc., 1932), p. 151.

^{10&}quot;Heavy Assault on World's Records Featured Olympic Track and Field Games," The New York Times, August 9, 1932, p. 15, col. 1.

of the Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932 (Los Angeles: Wolfer Printing Co., Inc., 1932), p. 462.

¹² Asa S. Bushnell, "All-Time U.S. Olympic Team Personnel," <u>United States 1956 Olympic Book</u> (New York: United States Olympic Association, Inc., 1957), p. 424.

Mildred Didrikson had begun thinking about the Olympics in the summer of 1928, after her father read about the Olympic athletes in the newspapers. She became excited about the stories and decided to try hurdling and jumping. ¹³ In her autobiography Didrikson recalled early hurdling practice:

There were hedges in the yards along our block--seven of them between our house and the corner grocery. I used those hedges to practice hurdling. But there was one of them that was higher than the others. I couldn't get over it. That sort of messed up my practicing. So I went to the people who lived in that house. I asked Mr. King if he'd mind cutting his hedge down to where the rest of them were, and he did it.

You're supposed to put your leg out straight when you hurdle. But a regular hurdle is just half an inch or three quarters of an inch thick. These hedges were about two feet across. So I had to crook my left knee . . . or I'd scratch myself. . . . When I did get to the Olympics they tried to have me change, but I wouldn't do it. 14

Babe Didrikson qualified for the Olympic team by winning the National AAU Track and Field Championship. She entered the competition as a one woman team. 15

The women's track and field team was transported to Los Angeles by train. Babe Didrikson continued training for the Olympics by jogging the length of the train several times a day. 16

After her javelin victory, Didrikson remarked that the throw was a mistake. Describing her technique to newspaper writer Muriel

¹³Babe Didrikson Zaharias, This Life I've Led (New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1955), p. 28.

¹⁴Zaharias, p. 29.

^{15&}quot;Five First Places to Miss Didrikson," The New York Times, July 17, 1932, sec. III, p. 1, col. 8.

¹⁶Zaharias, p. 52.

Babcock, she recalled, "My hand slipped when I picked up the pole. It slid along about six inches and then I got a good grip again. And then I threw it and it just went." Confident Didrikson lamented over the fact that Olympic officials permitted her to enter only three events. After Didrikson won her second gold medal Babcock described the Texan as

. . . a pretty good sort of a 19-year-old youngster. She's an awfully good athlete and she knows it. But her conceit, once you recover from the first shock of it, is not bombastic cockiness, but merely matter-of-fact confidence. She's no shrinking violet, but as yet she hasn't boasted she would do a single thing but what she's done. 19

Preceding the high jump finals Didrikson broke four world's records in the javelin, two in the eighty meter hurdles, and one in the high jump. The high jump finals were between Babe Didrikson and Jean Shiley. Both contentants cleared the bar at five feet five inches and set a new world record. Shiley and Didrikson missed clearing the bar at the new height of five feet five and three fourths inches. 20

The bar was moved back to 5 ft. 5 1/4 in. Miss Shiley cleared easily at this new mark. So did Miss Didrikson. But suddenly the presiding judge ruled that the Texas violated the rule against diving across.

¹⁷Muriel Babcock, "'Gee, My Hand Slipped, Wails Babe in Smashing Record by Eleven Feet," Los Angeles Times, August 1, 1932, sec. I, p. 9, col. 5.

¹⁸ Braven Dyer, "Mighty Tolan in Wild Burst of Speed Shatters Olympic Record for 200-Meter Sprint," Los Angeles Times, August 4, 1932, p. 12, col. 4.

¹⁹Muriel Babcock, "Private Life of Babe, Texas Record Buster," Los Angeles Times, August 7, 1932, sec. VI, p. a6, col. 4.

²⁰Grantland Rice, "Suddent Rule Defeats Babe," <u>Los Angeles Times</u>, August 8, 1932, sec. I, p. 13, col. 4.

The rule demands that the head follow the hands and feet across the bar. Miss Didrikson had been jumping with a whirl and a flip that sent her head downward after clearing the bar. Up to this point no warning had been issued and as far as anyone could see she had not changed her style in the slightest. 21

Sportswriter Grantland Rice talked with Didrikson after the high jump competition. Babe Didrikson's reaction to her second place in the high jump finals depicts the magnitude of her character. Reacting to the outcome of her final Olympic event Didrikson said, "I have kept the same style through an AAU Championship. I know I never changed today, but I have no kick to make. It is okeh with me. Miss Shiley is a great high jumper." 22

Before leaving Los Angeles Didrikson broke another record. She became the first woman to receive a watch from the Hollywood Stadium American Legion. The legion honored those who exemplified "athletic valor in the Hollywood ring." ²³

Lillian Copeland, after winning a silver medal in the discus at the 1928 Olympics, had decided to attempt a second Olympic appearance in 1932. She qualified for the discus and entered the 1932 competition. During the competition Copeland thought of an old Irishman, Patrick O'Callaghan. She recalled,

He didn't get going until the very last. I can do it, if he could, I kept thinking. I've been told there's no Irish

²¹Rice, "Sudden Rule," <u>Los Angeles Times</u>, August 8, 1932, sec. I, p. 13, col. 4.

²²Rice, "Sudden Rule," <u>Los Angeles Times</u>, August 8, 1932, sec. I, p. 13, col. 5.

^{23&}quot;Babe Didrikson to Be Honored in the Legion Ring," <u>Los Angeles</u> <u>Times</u>, August 7, 1932, sec. VI-a, p. 6, col. 2.

in my blood and perhaps there isn't, but all the time I was throwing I knew there had to be Irish in me! 24

The University of Southern California law student won a gold medal on her final discus throw.

Tears streaming down her face, Lillian Copeland . . . walked from the field . . . the great ambition of her life fulfilled. "I had to do it," she said. "I said before I went into the Olympics that this would be my last appearance in competitive sport." 25

Muriel Babcock described Copeland as "not a typical athletic girl, more serious and intellectual than the usual run, a quiet, purposeful woman. . . ."²⁶ Describing women athletes as Babcock did presented the public with a view that women Olympians were intellectually inferior and in general contributed to the stigma attached to women who pursued sport.

While in high school Jean Shiley acquired the nickname "Lindy" the first time she jumped five feet. Shiley's jump occurred "the day Colonel Lindbergh flew to Paris in a single hop." Her first Olympic appearance in 1928 had netted only a fourth place in the high jump but she looked to the 1932 competition in hopes of winning a second Olympic opportunity. Six months prior to that event Shiley was told that an

²⁴Muriel Babcock, "Lillian Copeland Closes Athletic Career in Glory," Los Angeles Times, August 3, 1932, sec. I, p. 12, col. 1.

²⁵Babcock, "Lillian Copeland," <u>Los Angeles Times</u>, August 3, 1932, sec. I, p. 12, col. 1.

²⁶Babcock, "Lillian Copeland," <u>Los Angeles Times</u>, August 3, 1932, sec. I, p. 12, col. 1.

²⁷"Girl Jumper Star Known as 'Lindy,'" <u>Los Angeles Times</u>, August 9, 1932, sec. I, p. 12, col. 5.

²⁸Muriel Babcock, "All Hail--She Beat Mighty Babe!" <u>Los Angeles</u> <u>Times</u>, August 8, 1932, p. 14, col. 6.

appendectomy might end her athletic career. 29 She was determined to continue high jump competition despite the warning from physicians and the lack of encouragement from Temple University in Philadelphia where she was a physical education student. Typical of most colleges and universities, Temple frowned on competitive sports for women and discouraged her from competing in the Olympics. She was forced to practice away from the university campus.

Jean Shiley was serious about competition. In Los Angeles she stayed away from other Olympic events and parties in order to train and rest, although she volunteered some of her time to take care of Olympic Committee member Fred Steer's son while the child's mother was in the hospital. 30

George Vreeland, long associated with women's athletics and secretary-treasurer of the New Jersey AAU, coached the 1928 Olympic track and field team. Fred Steers, the 1928 Olympic manager again served as manager and was assisted by Martin A. Klein. 31

Charlotte Epstein was appointed to the Olympic Swimming Committee in January of 1931. Epstein may have been the first woman to serve as a committee member. The Swimming Committee met in February 1931 and began preparing for the Olympic competition. Women's swimming

²⁹"Family of Girl Star Jubilant," <u>Los Angeles Times</u>, August 9, 1932, sec. I, p. 10, col. 7.

 $^{^{30}}$ Babcock, "All Hail," <u>Los Angeles Times</u>, August 8, 1932, p. 14, col. 6.

 $^{31\}mbox{\sc New York Times}$ July 28, 1931, p. 24, col. 6.

and diving tryouts were at Jones' Beach, Long Island, and attracted fifty thousand spectators a day.

The 1932 Olympic swimming program included four individual events, one relay race, and two diving events. The United States won six of the seven events! Coach of the women's swimming team, Robert J. H. Kiphuth, was assisted by Charlotte Epstein, assistant manager. 32

had won all freestyle distances in the United States Women's Nationals in 1930, 1931, and 1932. She was the first woman to swim the one hundred yard freestyle in one minute. In the 1932 Olympics, Madison won gold medals in the four hundred meter relay, four hundred meter freestyle, and the one hundred meter freestyle. In the one hundred meter race she pulled a body length ahead of her nearest competitor, Den Ouden of the Netherlands, at the seventy-five meter mark.

It looked as though the American was going to run away with the race, but now Miss Madison, in her feverish haste, lost her bearings and to the dismay of the fans, swerved over against the rope on the right side of the lane. She slowed up perceptibly and the fair-haired girl from the Netherlands was coming at a scintillating pace.

With the crowd cheering madly, the two girls thrashed through the last twenty meters almost neck and neck. Miss Madison regaining the middle of the lane and putting everything she had into her powerful crawl, had just the bit more in reserve and a great shout went up from the stands as she was seen to grab the finish mark a second before Miss Den Ouden. . . . 34

³²Frank W. Blankley, "Report of Manager of the American Olympic Swimming Team," The Games of the Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932 (Los Angeles: Wolfer Printing Co., Inc., 1932), pp. 192-49.

³³Buck Dawson, ed., "Helene Madison-Honor Swimmer," <u>International</u> Swimming Hall of Fame Fifth Anniversary Yearbook 1965-1970 (Fort Lauderdale: International Swimming Hall of Fame, 1971), p. 74.

^{34&}quot;Miss Madison Takes Free Style Swim Title and Galitzen Wins Dive at Olympics," The New York Times, August 9, 1932, p. 14, col. 1.

Helene Madison retired undefeated after the 1932 Olympics. Her United States records remained unbroken for a number of years: the one hundred meter freestyle for fifteen years, the two hundred twenty yard freestyle for six years, the five hundred yard freestyle for twenty years, and the eight hundred eighty yard freestyle record lasted five years. 35

Eleanor Holm had been the fifteen year old baby of the Olympic team, in 1928, when she tied for fifth in the one hundred meter backstroke. Holm was an outstanding backstroker. In 1932 the champion swimmer was more concerned about her appearance than winning swimming honors. In an interview with sportswriter Muriel Babcock, Holm remarked about her aquatic experiences:

... its great fun to swim, and a great thrill to compete in the Olympics, but the moment I find my swimming is making me "athletic looking," giving me big, bulky muscles, making me look like an Amazon rather than a woman, I'll toss it to one side. 36

Holm's idea that competitive sports caused women to look like

Amazons is a misconception that still exists to some extent in the 1970s.

Empirical evidence disputes the misconception that all women develop an over abundance of muscle tissue as a result of participating in sport.

In the one hundred meter backstroke in Los Angeles, Eleanor
Holm carried off first place honors. The championship four hundred
meter relay team, in addition to Helene Madison, included Helen Johns,

³⁵ Dawson, ed., "Helene Madison," <u>Yearbook 1965-1970</u>, p. 74.

³⁶Muriel Babcock, "Good Looks Come First," <u>Los Angeles Times</u>, August 10, 1932, sec. I, p. 15, col. 4, 5.

Eleanor Saville, and Josephine McKim. The remaining swimming medals went to Lenore Kight, silver medal in the four hundred meter freestyle and Eleanor Saville, bronze medal in the one hundred meter freestyle. 37

The United States continued its dominance in the diving events by winning all six Olympic medals. A gold medal in springboard diving went to Georgia Coleman. Katherine Rawls and Jane Fauntz won the next two places. Dorothy Poynton won the high diving championship followed by Georgia Coleman and Marion Roper.

Georgia Coleman was the first woman to execute a two and a half somersault in competition. Coleman had been diving six months when she made her first Olympic appearance in 1928.³⁹ In her second Olympic appearance Coleman said of her championship:

I didn't feel a bit like I thought I would. I wanted to yell, to whoop, but I found all my sounds choked up inside me. They were sort of smothered.

The first thing I wanted to do, of course was to telephone my mother and dad. No, they weren't in the stadium. They

³⁷Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "All-Time," <u>1956 Olympic Book</u>, p. 427.

³⁸Bob Ray, "Crabbe Annexes Swim Thriller By Inches," <u>Los Angeles</u> Times, August 11, 1932, sec. I, p. 14, col. 1.

³⁹Bob Dawson, ed., "Georgia Coleman," Swimming Hall of Fame Annual Water Spectacular (Fort Lauderdale: Swimming Hall of Fame, 1966), p. 29.

never come to see me dive in a major event. Mother, of course, just dies from the strain. 40

While living at the Chapman Park Hotel, Georgia Coleman became known as "Whispering Coleman." Coleman acquired the name because of her incessant talking. Next to diving Georgia Coleman enjoyed giving speeches. She spoke before community gatherings and at high schools in Los Angeles. The climax of her diving career came when she won the Olympic springboard diving championship and placed second in the high diving event. 42

Dorothy Poynton at thirteen became a silver medalist in spring-board diving at the 1928 Olympics. 43 Poynton's second Olympic effort took her to the finals of the high diving platform where twelve thousand spectators saw her win the title.

Miss Poynton won the high diving despite the fact that she had seriously sprained her back in practice . . . and competed with her body strapped heavily with adhesive tape. 44

Although most press releases were complimentary of women swimmers and divers, writers continued to compare women to men. Bob Ray, for example, in describing diver Katherine Rawls wrote: "Little Miss

⁴⁰ Muriel Babcock, "How Does It Feel to Win? Vocal Chords Just Won't Function A-Tall," Los Angeles Times, August 11, 1932, sec. I, p. 15, col. 4.

⁴¹ Babcock, "How Does It Feel to Win?" Los Angeles Times, sec. I, p. 15, col. 5.

⁴² Dawson, ed., "Georgia Coleman," Swimming Spectacular, p. 29.

⁴³Pat Besford, Encyclopaedia of Swimming (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1971), p. 136.

^{44&}quot;Miss Poynton Wins High Diving Crown," The New York Times, August 13, 1932, p. 10, col. 1.

Rawls wears her hair in a boyish bob, and she looks like a boy when she stands up there on the springboard."⁴⁵ Consider the reaction if Ray had described a male diver with long flowing hair who looked like a girl standing on the diving board.

Skeptics who had thought the Games of 1932 were doomed to failure because of the world-wide economic depression were proven wrong. "Record weather, record crowds, record performances in all fields of sport and record receipts in the treasury . . ." because of the Olympic atmosphere in 1932 and surely must have been a respite from the gloom brought forth by economic disaster.

⁴⁵Ray, "Crabbe Annexes," Los Angeles Times, August 11, 1932, sec. I, p. 14, col. 1, 2.

⁴⁶ John Kieran and Arthur Daley, The Story of the Olympic Games 776 B.C. to 1972 (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1973), p. 129.

CHAPTER IX

THE CONTROVERSIAL ELEANOR HOLM

Much of the excitement of the eleventh modern Olympiad was dampened by Adolph Hitler's discrimination against Jews. Opposition to the Berlin Olympics "gathered momentum in this country scarcely a year after the 1932 Olympics." The world of sport was shocked by the barring of Jewish athletes from participation in sport clubs. Assaults by Nazi supporters on Jewish women and orphanages, in addition to the intolerance of Jewish athletes hung an atmosphere of racial discrimination on the Games of 1936. The AAU and the American Olympic Association battled fiercely over the discrimination issue and a proposed boycott of the Olympic Games. In spite of opposition from the AAU, the American Olympic Association headed by Avery Brundage voted to prepare a team for the 1936 Olympics.

Plans for the Berlin Games included naming Dee Boeckman coach of the women's track and field team. Boeckman is apparently the first woman named to an Olympic coaching position. She served a dual position as coach-chaperone. Boeckman had competed unsuccessfully in the 1928

^{1&}quot;Olympic Fund Problems," The Literary Digest, April 18, 1936, p. 44.

²"Olympic Games Boycott Urged," <u>The Literary Digest</u>, August 10, 1935, p. 16.

^{3&}quot;Olympic Problems," <u>The Literary Digest</u>, April 18, 1936, p. 44.

eight hundred meter run at the Amsterdam Olympics. She later served as head of the women's track and field division of the AAU.

The discrimination issue hindered the Olympic fund raising campaign as did the Depression. Financial difficulties were further complicated when meet expenses for the Olympic trials exceeded gate receipts. It was doubtful that all members of the women's track and field team would be able to sail for Berlin. The team was reduced to four in an attempt to ease financial burdens. Several of coach Boeckman's team members, however, raised funds on their own. 6

Boeckman made a last-minute plea for funds and gave a promise to Miss Alice Arden of the Dragon Club of Brooklyn, twice national high jumping champion and second in the tryouts, that if Miss Arden were to raise the required \$500 she would be permitted to join the team.

Admiral Richmond P. Hobson, chairman of the New York Olympic Committee, came to the rescue yesterday of the woman who, failing to raise the money to take her to Berlin, started hitchhiking back to St. Louis. Admiral Hobson pledged the required \$500, deposited a certified check for it in the bank and then had the wires humming in an effort to locate her.⁷

Because of financial difficulties some of the Olympic qualifiers were virtually stranded in New York City and on the brink of hunger. 8

⁴Maribel Y. Vinson, "Women in Sports," <u>The New York Times</u>, July 12, 1936, sec. V, p. 6, col. 5, 6.

⁵Vinson, "Women Sports," <u>The New York Times</u>, July 12, 1936, sec. V, p. 6, col. 6.

^{6&}quot;Five Women Added to U.S. Track Team," The New York Times, July 10, 1936, p. 23, col. 4.

^{7&}quot;Five Women Added to U.S. Track Team," The New York Times, July 10, 1936, p. 23, col. 4.

^{8&}quot;Women Cut Rations While Waiting to Sail," The New York Times, July 10, 1936, p. 23, col. 4.

Last minute attempts to gather funds from towns, clubs, friends, relatives, and athletes caused difficulties. Some contributors felt they had direct control over athletes and some athletes who helped finance themselves assumed an air of independence which set them apart from the rest of the team. 9

The last minute notification that all competitors were sailing and the ill feelings resulting from the scramble to collect funds no doubt detracted from team unity and the excitement of competing in the Olympic Games.

Training facilities aboard ship were adequate. A two hundred yard straightaway track was available for workouts. 10 Upon arrival in Berlin the women athletes were transported to a dormitory, the Frederick Friesen Haus, located in the Reichssportfeld. An Olympic Village was designated as housing quarters for male athletes. Commenting on the women's housing Leon M. Schoonmaker, Chairman of Housing, said:

as at the Olympic Village and it was necessary to make numerous requests before undesirable conditions could be changed. The food was not up to the Olympic Village standard either in quality or quantity. For a long time there was no heat in the building and there were several other minor complaints. However, by following up our requests for improved conditions continuously we managed to secure the changes desired and I believe the women athletes of the American team were satisfied that everything had been done to secure for them the best possible living conditions. Mrs. Ada Taylor Sackett was placed in charge of the housing

⁹Fred L. Steers, "Track and Field Athletics," Report of the American Olympic Committee, ed. Frederick W. Rubien (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1936), p. 151.

¹⁰ Vinson, "Women Sports," The New York Times, July 12, 1936, sec. V, p. 6, col. 6.

arrangements at the Women's Domitory and her energetic and active cooperation was greatly appreciated. 11

The United States track and field team failed for the first time in Olympic competition to win a field event. Americans succeeded in winning two track events. Helen Stephens placed first in the one hundred meter dash and she with Harriet Bland, Annette Rogers, and Betty Robinson won the four hundred meter relay event. 12

Helen Stephens, as a Fulton, Missouri farm girl, developed her running ability by chasing rabbits. She once told her mother at the age of ten that she was going to run in the Olympic Games. Stephen's speed was discovered by Fulton High School coach Burt Moore during a physical education class. After timing the fifty yard dash Coach Moore recalled: "I looked at my watch and my eyes almost popped out of my head. Why, the watch read 5.8, which happens to be the record for the distance held by Elizabeth Robinson." Coach Moore was concerned about giving his fifteen-year-old discovery intensive competition with older runners and kept her out of the limelight. 15

Moore continued coaching Helen Stephens when she entered William Woods College in Fulton. Stephens' first real competitive

¹¹Leon M. Schoonmaker, "Report of Chairman of Housing Committee," Report of the American Olympic Committee, ed. Frederick W. Rubien (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1936), p. 72.

¹²Steers, p. 151.

^{13&}quot;Modern 'Atalantas' at XI Olympiad," The Literary Digest, August 15, 1936, p. 32.

¹⁴Quentin Reynolds, "Galloping Gal," Collier's, July 25, 1936,
p. 22.

¹⁵Reynolds, p. 22.

experience occurred when Moore entered her in the 1935 National AAU meet in St. Louis. She established herself as a great runner by out-distancing "Stella Walsh, the 'Polish Flyer,' champion of champions, and the greatest woman runner in the world." At the Olympic Games "Miss Helen Stephens, in a blistering burst of speed, eclipsed the listed Olympic and world's record to take the 100 Meters Championship." 17

In the finals of the four hundred meter relay, lead off Harriet Bland passed to the second runner, Annette Rogers. Elizabeth Robinson ran the third leg while Helen Stephens anchored the championship relay team. ¹⁸ The highly rated German team dropped the baton on the last exchange and the United States won the event by an eight yard margin over Great Britain. ¹⁹

Betty Robinson had sustained serious injuries in a plane crash in 1931 and doctors thought she would never run again. Robinson's determination to run and devotion to a rigorous training schedule enabled her to return to Olympic competition. Because her starts were too slow after the accident, Robinson dropped the one hundred meter dash event and qualified for the relay team. 21

¹⁶Reynolds, p. 22.

¹⁷Steers, p. 155.

¹⁸Steers, p. 159.

¹⁹ George Pallett, Women's Athletics (London: Normal Press, 1955), p. 54.

 $^{^{20}}$ Betty Robinson Training Again for Anticipated Olympic Honors," The Amateur Athlete, May, 1932, p. 5.

²¹Andy Rosenblatt, "She Recalls '28 Olympics--Gold Medal," The Miami Herald, March 28, 1974, p. 26A, col. 1.

Sufficient funds to send the 1936 swimming and diving team to Berlin had not been raised by the tryout dates. Aquatic trials took place at the same time as the track and field tryouts, and they were located so close together that the swimming meet suffered from poor attendance, resulting in financial failure. Anxiety and discontent spread among the swimmers and divers when they learned that the team would have to be reduced if funds were not received. Not until forty-eight hours before sailing time did all swimmers and divers learn that they could go to Berlin. Team morale was dampened by the uncertain atmosphere. ²²

Meanwhile, Eleanor Holm Jarrett boasted that "she trained on champagne and caviar. . ."²³ The fun-loving backstroker later got into difficulty with Olympic officials at an all night party aboard ship, which resulted in a warning of probation. ²⁴ Another party and a last promenade along the deck, where she met chaperone Ada Taylor Sackett, brought the champion backstroker even greater trouble. ²⁵ The American Olympic Association decided to withdraw her from the Berlin competition "while the Manhattan was warping into the pier at the end

²²Herbert D. Holm, "Report of Manager of Women's Swimming Committee," Report of the American Olympic Committee, ed. Frederick W. Rubien (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1936), p. 277.

²³"Eleanor Holm Jarrett Dropped from Olympic Team for Breaking Training," The New York Times, July 24, 1936, p. 21, col. 1.

^{24&}quot;Eleanor Dropped," The New York Times, July 24, 1936, p. 21, col. 2.

²⁵"Mrs. Jarrett's Plea Denied, But She Is in Berlin Hopeful of Another Chance," The New York Times, July 25, 1936, p. 7, col. 1.

Mrs. Jarrett was the 1932 Olympic backstroke recordholder and the leading contender for the 1936 Olympic championship. Her dismissal marked the first time an Olympic athlete was dropped from competition on an ocean voyage. The Olympic Association arranged for her return to the United States. In the meantime she was housed in a hotel and separated from the team. ²⁸

German newspapers, no doubt to the chagrin of American Olympic officials, headlined the Jarrett dismissal. ²⁹ Jarrett appealed her dismissal to a subcommittee chaired by Dr. Joseph Raycroft of Princeton. She explained to Raycroft that for the last three years she had been drinking and partying and doing as she pleased. In addition, she said:

The night before the final tryouts I was up all night partying with my husband (Art Jarrett, singer and actor), but I won my race the next day.

Nobody ever told me I was all wrong, but it was my fault that I didn't realize that circumstances were different on an Olympic trip. 30

²⁶"Eleanor Dropped," <u>The New York Times</u>, July 24, 1936, p. 21, col. 1.

²⁷"Eleanor Dropped," <u>The New York Times</u>, July 24, 1936, p. 21, col. 1.

²⁸"Eleanor Dropped," <u>The New York Times</u>, July 24, 1936, p. 21, col. 1.

²⁹"Reich Press Back U.S. Body's Action," <u>The New York Times</u>, July 25, 1936, p. 7, col. 4.

^{30&}quot;Mrs. Jarrett's Plea Denied," The New York Times, July 25, 1936, p. 7, col. 1.

Despite a promise to train and to abstain from alcohol the appeal was rejected. Two hundred twenty coaches and athletes rallied to aid the dismissed swimmer, sending a petition to Avery Brundage.

Brundage refused to alter the American Olympic Association's decision:

"We had no alternative in the circumstances," he said. "None regrets the necessity for such drastic action more than I and my associates, who considered all possible grounds for leniency and found none on the basis of the reports from the chaperone, team managers and physicians. Mrs. Jarrett forced our hand and I don't see how we could have escaped censure if we acted otherwise." 31

Eleanor Jarrett then issued a statement to the press:

Since the American Olympic Committee apparently has definitely decided that my behavior during the trip to Germany was such they won't alter the decision to keep me from competing in the event which I won at the last Olympics, and for which I qualified as the No. 1 American in the final tryouts, I feel now that my friends as well as the committee are entitled to have a statement of the facts from me.

I've never made any secret of the fact that I like a good time, particularly champagne. Everyone knows that, including the committee. The newspapers published my statements on that subject during the final tryouts at New York.

Why then, if they felt so strongly on the subject, didn't all the American Olympic Committee keep me off the team right away? Why did they have to wait until we were in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean before suddenly deciding that my conduct was too unbearable to permit my remaining on the team, or that I was such a bad influence on the rest of the boys and girls? 32

Moreover, Mrs. Jarrett pointed out that at least one hundred other athletes stayed up after the curfew. She explained that she was not condemning other athletes but considered them as innocent as she.

^{31&}quot;Mrs. Jarrett's Plea Denied," The New York Times, July 25, 1936, p. 7, col. 2.

^{32&}quot;Text of Mrs. Jarrett's Statement," The New York Times, July 26, 1936, sec. V, p. 2, col. 5.

Bars were open both day and night in two sections where athletes were given accommodations. 33

Mrs. Jarrett went on:

. . . the fact remains that officers accompanying the team, who were presumed to be setting a good example for all on board, failed to do so. Cocktail parties were a nightly occurrence. Not only was the social activity such on the upper decks that the athletes as a whole received scant attention from committeemen, but officer-members of the Olympic party disgraced themselves during a performance given for the benefit of the athletes.

I refer to the mock marriage and mock trial ostensibly given as an entertainment feature but so shocking that many athletes walked out of the social hall.

The trial was presided over by Gustavus T. Kirby, who so handled the dialogue having to do with marital situations that it was open to questionable interpretations and altogether unsuitable for youthful ears.

The reaction to the whole show was such that it was the talk of the boat for days afterward. 34

Kirby, a New York lawyer and American Olympic Association treasurer, issued an indignant denial after learning of Mrs. Jarrett's criticisms of his behavior. "All I have to say is that only an evil mind could see anything improper" in the mock trial and marriage.

Mrs. Jarrett's statement had no effect on Avery Brundage.

"It was necessary to convene two special meetings of the American Olympic committee aboard the Manhattan," he said, "to consider Mrs. Jarrett's condition and behavior in public."

We were severely criticized by passengers and members of the Olympic party for not taking drastic action at once in view of the serious offense. At the second meeting more than an hour was devoted to ascertaining the facts as to reports that Mrs.

^{33&}quot;Text," The New York Times, July 26, 1936, sec. V, p. 2, col. 5, 7.

^{34&}quot;Text," The New York Times, July 26, 1936, sec. V, p. 2, col. 6, 7.

^{35&}quot;Kirby Makes A Denial," The New York Times, July 26, 1936, p. 2, col. 7.

Jarrett, occupying a room with two young swimmers, could not be aroused by the team physician and the ship's doctor.

This team of nearly 400 athletes was the best behaved squad ever sent abroad and it is most unfortunate that this unpleasant affair should arise to mar an otherwise, admirable journey.

The American Olympic Committee will have no further statement to make. 36

Eleanor Jarrett received long distance telephone calls and cablegrams from many parts of the world offering advice and criticism. She received a number of job opportunities including one to become a newspaper writer and another to take part in a British film. The When she decided to remain in Berlin for the Olympic Games, Dr. Raycroft informed her that the American Olympic Association would no longer pay her expenses. Passage to the United States would be provided for Mrs. Jarrett but she would not be able to return with the athletes.

Eleanor Jarrett's stay in Berlin was brightened when she met former Crown Prince Frederick Wilhelm. He recognized the famous swimmer on the street and invited her to the Netherlands Palace.

"Gee," she exclaimed, "I just can't grasp that I'm in a palace talking to royalty. Why Prince, you're so human--just like we other folks. I never thought you looked so young or could act so natural. I came into this room trembling all over. You made me feel right at home immediately."

"Won't I high-hat those other Olympic girls! I'll tell 'em, you just go on and do your swimming. You can win the gold medals--I'm meanwhile being received by royalty." 39

³⁶"Mrs. Jarrett Blasts Conduct of Olympic Officials," <u>The New York Times</u>, July 26, 1936, sec. V, p. 1, col. 8.

^{37&}quot;Mrs. Jarrett Blasts Conduct of Olympic Officials," The New York Times, July 26, 1936, sec. V, p. 2, col. 5, 6.

³⁸"Mrs. Jarrett Will See the Olympics; 'Keep Your Chin Up' Mates Advise," The New York Times, July 27, 1936, p. 11, col. 6.

³⁹"Ex-Crown Prince, Acting 'Natural,' Thrills Mrs. Jarrett on Meeting," The New York Times, July 29, 1936, p. 15, col. 7.

The prince was amused by Mrs. Jarrett's reaction to their meeting. He pointed out that she looked on the bright side. The prince also remarked that he would feel badly about losing a team position. "Well, there's no denying I am sorry I can't bring home that Olympic medal," she replied. "But now I'm here . . . and I quite forget all about the Olympics." 40

Mrs. Jarrett's husband joined her in Berlin. They discussed possible legal action but decided the AAU was too powerful to overcome. Eleanor Holm Jarrett shook the athletic world with her shenanigans enroute to the Olympic Games. The controversial, fun loving swimmer caused a furor unknown and unthinkable to Olympic officials prior to the 1936 Games.

After the Olympic team returned to the United States the Jarrett dismissal was still receiving news coverage. In Europe Avery Brundage received much criticism from Jarrett sympathizers. It was not until after the Olympic team returned to this country that Avery Brundage disclosed that he did not take part in the voting when it was decided to expel Eleanor Jarrett from the swimming team. Joesph Sheehan, writing for The New York Times, reported that Eleanor Jarrett and all

^{40&}quot;Ex-Crown Prince," The New York Times, July 29, 1936, p. 15, col. 7.

^{41&}quot;Jarrett in Berlin to Appeal Dismissal," The New York Times, August 5, 1936, p. 27, col. 4.

^{42&}quot;Mrs. Jarrett, Back, Does Not Plan Any Legal Action Against A.A.U.," The New York Times, August 21, 1936, p. 21, col. 2.

Olympic team members signed a statement relating to maintaining training rules established by the Olympic Committee. 43

Ray Daughters coached the women's aquatic team and Herbert Holm served as manager. 44 The United States continued its diving supremacy by placing first and second in platform diving and sweeping the first three springboard places. Not a single gold medal was won in the swimming events, moreover, the United States lost the four hundred meter relay for the first time since the Americans started to compete in Olympic swimming at the Antwerp Games of 1920.

Americans did manage three third places in swimming events.

Alice Bridges placed third in the one hundred meter backstroke.

Lenore Kight Wingard won a bronze medal in the four hundred meter freestyle. She had won a silver medal in the same event in Los Angeles.

The third place four hundred meter relay was comprised of Mavis Freeman, Bernice Lapp, Olive McKean, and Katherine Rawls.

The platform diving event was won by Dorothy Poynton Hill.

Velma Dunn placed second. Marjorie Gestring won the gold medal for her springboard efforts. The next two places were won by Katherine Rawls and Dorothy Poynton Hill. Rawls had also placed second in springboard diving at Los Angeles. 45

⁴³ Joseph M. Sheehan, "Brundage, Back, Defends Action By Committee in Jarrett Case," <u>The New York Times</u>, September 25, 1936, p. 27, col. 2.

⁴⁴ Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "All-Time U.S. Olympic Team Personnel," United States 1956 Olympic Book (New York: United States Olympic Association, Inc., 1957), p. 432.

⁴⁵Holm, pp. 278-79, 281, 283, 285.

Thirteen-year-old Marjorie Gestring became the youngest springboard gold medalist when she won the event at the Berlin Olympics. 46 Gestring was nicknamed "Minnow" because she executed dives and entered the water "with the silent agility that seemingly could be expected from a fish." 47 Gestring's final dive insured her title:

It was a one-and-a-half backward somersault that brought her whirling head-over-heals down to the very surface of the pool before she suddenly let the water close over her. Up she came, laughing, and the crowd laughed with her for the very joy of living on so gay a morning. 48

Dorothy Poynton Hill, in her third Olympic appearance, became the first woman to win the platform diving championship in two consecutive Olympiads. After retiring from Olympic competition, Hill began teaching swimming and diving at her own aquatic club in Los Angeles.

Women gained another opportunity to assist in Olympic coaching when Mrs. Stuyvesant Fish was appointed "noncompeting lieutenant" to help train the women's fencing team. ⁴⁹ The team consisted of Joanna S. de Tuscan, Dorothy Locke, and Marion Lloyd. Locke was appearing in the Olympics a second time and Lloyd was making a third

⁴⁶Pat Besford, Encyclopaedia of Swimming (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1971), p. 140.

⁴⁷Ross Albion, "Women Divers of U.S. Score Olympic Sweep; Medica Takes 400-Meter Free Style," <u>The New York Times</u>, August 13, 1936, p. 13, col. 1, 2.

⁴⁸Albion, "Women Divers," The New York Times, August 13, 1936, p. 13, col. 2.

^{49&}quot;Women's Squad Picked," The New York Times, September 27, 1935, p. 29, col. 6.

appearance. Carol Alessandroni was an alternate. 50

Another woman, Mrs. John Howard Hanway, was asked to head the Olympic Fencing Fund. Under Mrs. Hanway's leadership four-fifths of the Olympic funds were raised, but in this case too the remainder was not available until two days before sailing time. Anxiety caused by the uncertainty of sufficient funds and having to make personal contributions detracted somewhat from the honor of making the Olympic team. 51

For the fourth consecutive Olympiad since the inclusion of fencing, American women failed to medal in fencing. Joanna S. de Tuscan was eliminated in the first round of individual foil competition, and both Dorothy Brown and Marion Lloyd in the semi-finals. 52

America's first women's Olympic gymnastic entry involved a dispute that nearly resulted in a withdrawal from the Games. The dispute developed when Judge Eugene C. Bonniwell, representing the Philadelphia Turngemeinde "charged that chances for the American team's success in the Olympic Games at Berlin . . . would be jeopardized if selection of the squad were conducted on an individual rather than a team basis." The Philadelphia organization attempted to represent the United States in Berlin. Olympic officials, on the other hand,

⁵⁰ Leon M. Schoonmaker, "Report of Chairman of Fencing Committee," Report of the American Olympic Committee, ed. Frederick W. Rubien (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1936), p. 205.

⁵¹Schoonmaker, p. 205.

⁵²Bushnell, p. 430.

⁵³"Olympic Gym Head Defends His Stand," The New York Times, April 10, 1936, p. 32, col. 5.

asserted that the selection of a women's gymnastic team would be determined by a national meet.

G. H. Heineman, director of the Philadelphia Turngemeinde's gymnastic team said the organization was willing to pay Olympic expenses if his team were selected as a group. Heineman thought his offer would solve the team's financial problems. Olympic officials, however, interpreted the offer as an attempt to "buy" places on the Olympic team. Heineman considered the charges made by Olympic officials too ridiculous to warrant a refutation. 54

An arbitration committee was appointed by Avery Brundage to settle the dispute. The committee decided that the Philadelphia Turner organization could represent the United States only if "its point total exceeded the total points compiled by the leading eight contestants" by who were not affiliated with the Turngemeinde. Three Philadelphia Turngemeinde members were among the eight finalists at the Olympic trials.

Unfortunately America's first women gymnasts were required to pay their own Olympic expenses. Because some qualifiers were unable to meet these costs, less qualified gymnasts took their places. The team was further handicapped because the final competitors were not assembled for training until ten days before the sailing date. 57

^{54&}quot;Olympic Gym Head," The New York Times, April 10, 1936, p. 32, col. 5.

^{55&}quot;Olympic Gym Head," <u>The New York Times</u>, April 10, 1936, p. 32, col. 5.

⁵⁶ Roy E. Moore, "Gymnastics-Women," Report of the American Olympic Committee, ed. Frederick W. Rubien (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1936), p. 228.

⁵⁷Moore, p. 227.

Dr. Margaret C. Brown was given a new Olympic role for women when she was named manager-trainer of the women's gymnastics team. Coaching duties were assigned to George Miele. The International Federation of Gymnastics for Women was responsible for conducting the first gymnastics team competition for women at the 1936 Olympics. Awards were presented to teams rather than individuals. The United States placed fifth out of eight in the competition. The Olympic gymnastics events included the parallel bars, balance beam, vaulting horse, and all-around competition in these events by individuals for team points. 60

The North American Yacht Racing Union selected the 1936 Olympic yachting delegation for the Berlin Games. 61 Women from this country first appeared on the Olympic yachting roster in 1936, although the U.S. Olympic Reports did not mention that fact. It appears that the first American women on the Olympic yachting roster were listed because of family ties. Two of the three women reserves had the same last names as men named to the yachting team. Virginia Adams, Althea David, and Barbara McCartney were listed as reserves. Antonia Churchill was a crew member. The Angelita placed tenth out of ten in Olympic competition. 62

⁵⁸Bushnell, p. 431.

⁵⁹Moore, pp. 227, 229.

⁶⁰Bushnell, p. 431.

^{61&}quot;U.S. Olympic Team Named for Yachting," The New York Times, March 8, 1936, sec. V, p. 8, col. 2.

⁶²Bushnell, p. 432.

By 1936 more women were becoming involved in Olympic committee work. The 1936 women's track and field committee included three women in its membership ranks. The women's swimming committee included five women, one of whom served as secretary. 63

A. C. Gilbert, Chairman of the Administration Committee, recognized the necessity of having women managers for women's teams. Because men were not allowed to live where the women were housed, "it was impossible for them to give the same supervision or function managerially in any such efficient manner as those teams managed by me in the Olympic Village . . ."⁶⁴ explained Gilbert. Women gained recognition in noncompetitive roles as Olympic officials learned that certain duties could be performed by women in a more feasible manner.

⁶³Frederick W. Rubien, ed., Report of the American Olympic Committee (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1936), pp. 17-18.

⁶⁴A. C. Gilbert, "Report of Chairman of Administration Committee," Report of the American Olympic Committee, ed. Frederick W. Rubien (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1936), p. 66.

CHAPTER X

WAR CAUSES CANCELLATION OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES

In July 1938, Dee Boeckman, Chairman of the Women's Olympic Committee, announced plans to raise funds for women Olympians. Boeckman was attempting to avoid the financial difficulties experienced by 1936 teams. In midsummer of 1938 the Japanese who were to host the 1940 Olympics were so involved in conflict with China that they returned the Olympic celebration to the International Olympic Committee. Helsinki, Finland was awarded the 1940 Olympic Games. American plans for the 1940 Olympic Games continued and in November 1938, The New York Times announced that Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt had accepted the honorary Chairmanship of the Women's Olympic Track and Field Committee. Olympic plans ceased when the President of the International Olympic Committee, Count Baillet-Latour, announced in December 1939 the cancellation of the 1940 Olympic Games because of Russia's invasion of Finland. 'Nothing kills sporting instincts more violently than war, which is man's most unsportmanlike activity," aid Kieran and Daley.

 $^{^{1}}$ "Plan \$20,000 Women's Fund," The New York Times, July 3, 1938, sec. V, p. 7, col. 5.

²John Kieran and Arthur Daley, <u>The Story of the Olympic Games</u> 776 B.C. to 1972 (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1973), pp. 183-84.

³"Olympic Games Listed for 1940 Canceled, Count Baillet-Latour Reveals in Brussels," <u>The New York Times</u>, December 3, 1939, sec. V, p. 1, col. 4.

⁴Kieran and Daley, p. 184.

United States Olympic officials held tryouts to recognize the membership of the "theoretical 1940 American Olympic team. . . ."

The seven sports comprising the theoretical team included: canoeing, equestrian, fencing, marathon, rowing, women's swimming, and weightlifting. Certificates were awarded to athletes selected for the team. Women named to the team included:

Helena Mroczkowska, Women's Foil Fencing Mildred Stewart, Women's Foil Fencing Patty Aspinall, Two Hundred Meter Breaststroke Beverly Beck, Springboard Diving Doris Brennan, Four Hundred Meter Freestyle Gloria Callen, One Hundred Meter Backstroke Helen Crlenkovich, Springboard Diving Shirley Condit, Platform Diving Claudia Eckert, One Hundred Meter Freestyle* Marion Falconer, One Hundred Meter Backstroke Marjorie Gestring, Springboard and Platform Diving Ann Hardin, Four Hundred Meter Freestyle Brenda Helser, One Hundred Meter Freestyle** Fujike Katsutani, Two Hundred Meter Breaststroke Dorothy Leonard, One Hundred Meter Freestyle** Joyce Macrae, One Hundred Meter Freestyle* Helen Perry, One Hundred Meter Backstroke Margaret Reinhold, Platform Diving Mary M. Ryan, Four Hundred Meter Freestyle Marilyn Sahner, One Hundred Meter Freestyle*

*Four Hundred Meter Relay
**Four Hundred Meter Freestyle and Relay⁶

In the spring of 1942 the National Association of Physical Education for College Women voted to survey women's sports in this country. A questionnaire was sent to three hundred fifty three colleges and universities. Regarding intercollegiate sport, it asked of the

⁵Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "All-Time U.S. Olympic Team Personnel," United States 1960 Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), p. 369.

⁶Lentz, pp. 369-70.

women physical educators: "Would you be in favor of organized district, state or national tournaments for women in any sport?" Sixty-four percent of the questionnaires were returned, with a two to one vote against organized tournaments for women. Women who voted in favor of the tournaments stipulated competition in individual sports.

The most frequently mentioned reasons disapproving national tournaments included:

- 1. Too much time was required of faculty and students
- 2. The likelihood of developing the same problems present in men's athletic programs, i.e., illegal recruiting practices and exploiting athletes in order to win contests
- 3. There is no need for intercollegiate sport of national tournaments⁸

Olympic sport did not appeal to the philosophy of women physical educators during the 1940s. The prevailing attitude among most women in physical education was to stress enjoyment and suppress the competitive aspects of sport.

The Olympic Games of 1944, though never celebrated, were technically awarded to London. Awarding the Games to London placed the British in a prime position to pursue the celebration of the thirteenth Olympiad in 1948. "Hardly had the last shot gone echoing down the halls of time before the International Olympic Committee met in London in

⁷M. Gladys Scott, "Competition for Women in American Colleges and Universities," Research Quarterly, March, 1945, p. 68.

⁸Scott, p. 69.

August of 1945 . . ." 9 and officially awarded the 1948 Olympics to London.

⁹Kiernan and Daley, p. 184.

CHAPTER XI

THE POST-WAR OLYMPICS

In planning the program for the celebration of the fourteenth modern Olympiad, members of the International Olympic Committee explained, "the idea is to get the Olympics started again, but not to make the first post-war games top heavy with events." With the exception of yachting American women entered the same sports open to them in the Games of the eleventh Olympiad: swimming, track and field, fencing, and gymnastics.

Olympic canoeing was first opened to women in 1948 but there were no American entries. There were a few women paddlers in some parts of the country but their performances were not of Olympic caliber. Lack of an organized canoeing program for women in America between 1948 and 1956 explains the absence of American women in Olympic canoeing. ²

More women were heading and serving on committees for the four-teenth Olympiad. The 1948 swimming committee was chaired by Elsie V.

Jennings, and two of her six colleagues were women. The committee elected Ray Daughters coach of the women's swimming team. Fred Cady was appointed women's diving coach and Elsie Jennings was elected manager.

^{1&}quot;Baseball Refused Place in Olympics," The New York Times, September 7, 1946, p. 10, col. 2.

Letter from L. M. Schindel, Executive Secretary, American Canoe Association, July 15, 1974.

The Swimming Committee had difficulty raising all of the money needed, and Lou Wilkie, Chairman of the Olympic Basketball Committee, contributed funds to women's swimming from his group. Olympic officials Fred Matthaei and Doug Roby were instrumental in obtaining the remaining funds from the United States Olympic Association.³

The team sailed to London on the America. While on board the America, Daughters simulated long distance swims by having the swimmers wear belts to hold them in place in the pool. Coach Cady supervised exercises for divers to maintain physical fitness. Swimmer Ann Curtis told The London Star in a ship-to-shore telephone interview that swimming practices were drastically reduced. "There are so many of us each swimmer is allowed only twenty minutes a day in the pool. The rest of the time we spend watching others work out."

Team nurse Dorothy Whitley felt the unpleasant Eleanor Holm episode filtered through the ship. Whitley thought "everyone bent over backward to deflect criticism" and exemplify proper behavior.

Two nights before docking the athletes staged a talent show.

The women's swimming team presented a style show. Tall Ann Curtis wore

³Elsie V. Jennings, "Women's Swimming Report of Committee Chairman and Team Manager," Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948 Games, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), pp. 132-33.

⁴Jennings, p. 133.

⁵The New York Times, July 20, 1948, p. 17, col. 3.

⁶Dorothy L. Whitley, "Olympic Log Who, When, Where, How, and Why," Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948 Games, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), p. 65.

the smallest Olympic parade uniform while tiny Victoria Draves modeled the largest outfit. 7

Upon arrival in England the American women were housed in dormitories at Southlands College, Wimbledon, about ten miles from the center of London. Post-war London was unable to furnish complete supplies of food so the United States team depended on auxiliary food from the States. Lack of refrigeration caused much of the food to spoil. The difficulties imposed on London as a result of war were handled admirably by British Olympic officials. The British attempted to make accommodations as pleasing as possible. 10

The United States won three out of five swimming events and both diving events. Ann Curtis placed first in the four hundred meter freestyle competition, anchored the championship four hundred meter relay team, and won a silver medal in the one hundred yard freestyle. In addition to Curtis, the four hundred meter relay team included Marie Corridon, Brenda Helser, and Thelma Kalama. Suzanne Zimmerman contributed to America's Olympic swimming quest by placing second in the one hundred meter backstroke.

⁷Whitley, p. 65.

⁸Frank G. McCormick, "Housing Committee Report of the Chairman," Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948 Games, ed., Asa. S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), p. 273.

⁹Jennings, p. 133.

¹⁰Catherine D. Meyer, "Women's Track and Field Report of Committee Chairman," Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948 Games, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), p. 107.

Americans staged a one-two-three sweep in springboard diving and took the first two medals in high diving. Victoria Manalo Draves went to the top level of the victory platform twice to accept gold medals in diving events. Zoe Ann Olsen was the silver medal winner in the springboard event. Patricia Elsener added to the diving sweep by placing third in the springboard competition and second in the high diving event. 11

Olympian Victoria Manalo Draves was a twin, born in San Francisco of a Filipino father and an English mother. Her Filipino name had caused her difficulties prior to the second World War. Her diving club demanded that she use her mother's maiden name instead of her father's surname of Manalo. After the war she married her coach Lyle Draves. Victoria Draves made the United States Olympic team but did not place first in the trials. However, she made Olympic history at the 1948 Games when she won both the springboard and high diving championships. Prior to 1948 no other woman had accomplished such a feat. 13

Ann Curtis, star freestyler, won four indoor and five outdoor
National AAU titles from 1944 through 1948. Curtis was National AAU
High Point Trophy winner an unprecedented seven times. In 1944 she was
presented with the James E. Sullivan Trophy, given once a year to the

¹¹Jennings, pp. 132-35, 137-38, 140, and 142.

¹²Buck Dawson, ed., "Vickie Draves," <u>International Swimming</u>
Hall of Fame 1970 Year Book (Fort Lauderdale: <u>International Swimming</u>
Hall of Fame, 1970), p. 9.

¹³ Testing Conditions for Olympic Athletes," The London Times, August 7, 1948, p. 2, col. 2.

The Women's Olympic Track and Field Committee chaired by
Catherine D. Meyer included three additional women out of a total
membership of seven. It was reported for the first time that United
States Olympic officials requested qualifying standards or minimum
performances for athletes participating in sports that relied on measuring or timing events. Qualifying standards for the 1948 Games were
based on the eighth place performance of the 1936 Olympics.

Few, if any, sport committees adhered to the request regarding minimum standards. Catherine Meyer pointed out that many committees which did not set standards sent full teams in all events. This would have been impossible, she believed, had standards been set. It was Meyer's contention that standards should be adopted for all sports or eliminated altogether.

¹⁴Buck Dawson, ed., "Ann Curtis-Honor Swimmer," International Swimming Hall of Fame Fifth Anniversary Yearbook 1965-1970 (Fort Lauderdale: International Swimming Hall of Fame, 1971), p. 31.

¹⁵⁰¹¹an C. Cassell and Jesse R. Lipscomb, eds., "Sullivan Trophy Winners," Official AAU Track and Field Handbook (Indianapolis: Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, 1971), p. 24.

^{16&}quot;Testing Conditions," The London Times, August 7, 1948, p. 2, col. 2.

Catherine Meyer coached the 1948 women's Olympic track and field team and Harry Hainsworth was the manager. The women's track and field fund was supplemented by funds from the Men's Track and Field and Basketball Committees. It was observed by Catherine Meyer that fund raising problems could be alleviated with more AAU support.

Ten contestants met the qualifying standards at the Olympic trials on July 12, 1948. The United States Olympic Committee directed the Women's Track and Field Committee to take the winner in each event regardless of standards. Twelve entries were accordingly listed on the 1948 track and field roster. Based on Olympic tryout performances, ten of the twelve women were entered in multiple events. Three new events were added to the women's track and field program for the 1948 Olympic competition, the two hundred meter dash, the shot, and the standing broad jump.

On July 14, just two days after the Olympic trials, the track and field team sailed for Lendon. Availability of a small gymnasium and good weather enabled the team to practice during the trip.

Audrey Patterson won the only bronze medal by placing third in the two hundred meter dash. The only other medal won by an American was the gold medal in the high jump competition, won by Alice Coachman. Thousands watched the lengthy high jump duel between Coachman and Dorothy Tyler of Great Britain. Coachman won the event by a western roll over the bar at five feet six and one eighth inches on a first attempt. Tyler needed two tries and scissored over the bar to share

¹⁷Meyer, pp. 106-113.

the Olympic record. Because of two misses Tyler was awarded the silver medal. The high jump finals provided the most excitement of the women's track and field events. 18

Maria Cerra, Helena Dow, and Janice-Lee York represented the United States in the 1948 Olympic fencing competition. ¹⁹ The fencers sailed for London two days after most of the Olympic team departed. The <u>Queen Elizabeth</u> was used for the overflow made up of fencers and yachtsmen. ²⁰ Fencers conditioned an hour each morning and evening on board ship. ²¹

Olympic fencing for women was still limited to the individual foil competition. Three women from each country were eligible for this event. 22 Maria Cerra placed fourth in the 1948 competition, "the highest place an American woman has ever gained in the Olympics" since American women began Olympic fencing in 1924, Helena Dow and Janice-Lee York advanced to the semi-final round and barely missed the

¹⁸George Pallett, Women's Athletics (London: Normal Press, Ltd., 1955), pp. 66-67.

¹⁹ Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "Olympic Fencing Championships,"
Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948 (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), p. 176.

²⁰Asa S. Bushnell, "Transportation Committee Report of the Chairman," Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), p. 262.

²¹Warren A. Dow, "Fencing Report of Team Captain," Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), p. 174.

²²Salvatore P. Giambra, "Fencing Report of Team Manager,"
Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948, ed. Asa S. Bushnell
(New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), p. 173.

 $^{^{23}}$ Dow, p. 174.

finals. The three Americans were Olympic novices and performed well against more seasoned competition.²⁴

No separate gymnastic committee for women was organized by the United States Olympic Association for the fourteenth Olympiad.

Only one woman, Roberta Bonniwell, served in an administrative capacity. Bonniwell was assigned to the position of leader of the women's gymnastics team. George Miele and Joseph Salzman were elected co-coaches of the team.

Olympic gymnastics tryouts took place in May 1948, well in advance of the London departure date. Unlike some of the other women's teams, the gymnastics team assembled in New York City in July for final training prior to departure. They continued training on board ship, working out on apparatus and mats.

George Gulack, gymnastics team manager, reported that women's gymnastics judging was chaotic. Some of the judges were nationalistic and judged in favor of their own country. A number of protests were issued because of the inferior quality of some judges.

The United States placed third in team competition. 26 Contributing to the team honors were Ladislava A. Bakanic, Marion T.

²⁴Giambra, p. 173.

²⁵Roy E. Moore, "Gymnastics Report of Committee Chairman," Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), p. 183.

Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker Rackliff Co., 1948), pp. 187-88, 190.

Barone, Clara M. Schroth, Dorothy C. Dalton, Meta Elste, Consetta C. Long, Helen Schifano, and Anita A. Simonis. 27

Near the end of Olympic competition King George VI received representatives of competing countries. The size of the team determined the number of representatives. The United States, having the largest number of competitors, sent ten athletes to the reception, two of them women. Ann Curtis represented the swimmers and Helena M. Dow represented the fencers. 28

At the conclusion of the 1948 Olympic Games it was again recommended that the USOA assign women to administrative committees if men and women were housed far apart at the Olympic Games. Some teams were inconvenienced when they were unable to contact administrative personnel as changes were made. ²⁹

²⁷Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "United States Official Party at London," Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948 (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), p. 55.

²⁸Gustavus T. Kirby, "Report of the Chef De Mission," Report of the United States Olympic Committee 1948, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1948), p. 244.

²⁹Jennings, p. 354.

CHAPTER XII

THE OLYMPIC TEAM FLIES FOR THE FIRST TIME

In mid-April of 1949, Avery Brundage, President of the United States Olympic Association, went to the International Olympic Committee (IOC) with a plan to recommend drastic reductions in the Olympic Program. Brundage contended that it was almost impossible to complete the Olympic competition within the prescribed two week period. He chaired a committee that proposed reductions in "women's track and field, rowing, walking, gymnastics, and basketball." Brundage was aware that representatives of affected sports would meet him at the IOC meeting in Rome "with blood in their eyes." The IOC voted against eliminating any events from the 1952 Olympic program.

The United States Field Hockey Association (USFHA), governing body of women's field hockey, voiced disapproval of a possible move to include women's field hockey in the 1952 Olympics. The USFHA "felt the present international tournament, [in their sport] held every three years, should not be scrapped for Olympic competition." 4

^{1&}quot;Brundage Leaves for Rome Talks, Ready for Battle on Olympic Cuts," The New York Times, April 15, 1949, p. 35, col. 7.

²"Brundage Leaves," <u>The New York Times</u>, April 15, 1949, p. 35, col. 7.

³"International Group to Nominate One U.S. City for Olympic Host," The New York Times, April 27, 1949, p. 35, col. 6.

^{4&}quot;Olympic Field Hockey Hit," The New York Times, April 17, 1950, p. 28, col. 2.

Furthermore, the USFHA did not think that its players would be eligible for Olympic competition because most players were field hockey coaches and would not be considered amateurs as required by the IOC. The International Federation of Women's Hockey Association (IFWHA) thought it hopeless to pursue the inclusion of Olympic hockey for women because of continued efforts to reduce the Olympic program. The IFWHA will present its Olympic position again in September 1974.

Nevertheless, with the move to eliminate some of their events thwarted, American women entered more Olympic events in 1952 than ever before. The distaff side of the Olympic team competed in swimming, track and field, fencing, gymnastics, yachting, and equestrian events.

For the first time the United States Olympic team traveled exclusively by air. The conservative Averý Brundage observed that air travel did not afford the many units of the Olympic team opportunity to develop unity. ⁶ But, flying reduced travel time drastically and enabled the athletes quickly to resume training schedules.

Upon arrival in Helsinki, the American women athletes took up quarters at the Women's Nursing School. Catherine D. Meyer, assisting Charles L. Ornstein in food and housing arrangements, considered the accommodations almost ideal. She reported that the electric iron and the telephone for incoming calls were received with much enthusiasm. 7

⁵Letter from Betty Shellenberger, Executive Secretary, United States Field Hockey Association, July 24, 1974.

Olympic Book, ed. Asa A. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), p. 28.

⁷Charles L. Ornstein, "Food and Housing Report of Committee Chairman," <u>United States 1952 Olympic Book</u>, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), pp. 267-68.

The "Women's Olympic Village" was also equipped with a gymnasium, lounge, post office, souvenir shop, cafe, and a clinic. "Entertainments were conducted in the auditorium in the form of movies and concerts and church services were held each morning."

The Women's Swimming Committee of the fifteenth Olympiad was chaired by J. Edwin Aspinall. The remaining five members were women. Elsie Viets Jennings was chosen team manager and Aspinall co-manager. Dick Papenguth of Purdue University was elected swimming coach, and he became diving coach as well when Walter Schlueter was unable to serve because of illness.

Unlike the situation in previous years, donations and gate receipts from the Olympic trials yielded most of the finances required to send the team to Helsinki.

Practice time at Helsinki was limited because there was only one fifty meter pool in the city. Both men's and women's swimming teams were allotted one hour of pool time each day. Ten swimmers were assigned to each of the four lanes in the pool.

The United States won a third of the possible medals in the 1952 Olympic swimming and diving competition. Evelyn Kawamoto placed third in the four hundred meter freestyle event. Kawamoto, along with Jackie Lavine, Marilee Stepan, and Jody Alderson placed third in the four hundred meter relay.

⁸Ornstein, p. 268.

⁹J. Edwin Aspinall, "Women's Swimming Report of Committee Chairman and Team Co-Manager," <u>United States 1952 Olympic Book</u>, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), pp. 139, 141.

The United States swept the highboard diving finals. Pat McCormick led the sweep followed by Paula Myers and Juno Stover Irwin. Pat McCormick also took the springboard title while Zoe Ann Olsen won the bronze honor. McCormick and Jensen "cried on the victory stand as their national anthem was played." 11

In 1947 Pat McCormick (then Pat Keller) had placed second in the United States National Platform diving event. She went to the 1948 Olympic trials but missed the team by less than one point. In 1951 she achieved an unprecedented chain of national diving titles by winning both indoor and all three outdoor events. McCormick's diving credentials also included a victory in high diving and a second place in springboard at the 1951 Pan American Games in Buenos Aires, Argentina. 12

The women's 1948 track and field team was selected on the basis of predetermined standards. Winning an event but failing to meet Olympic standards disqualified the competitor from Olympic competition.

Janet Dicks won both the shot put and discus events but did not meet the standards prescribed by U.S. Olympic officials. The Women's Track

¹⁰Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "Olympic Women's Swimming and Diving Championships," <u>United States 1952 Olympic Book</u> (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), pp. 145-46.

¹¹Allison Danzig, "Miss McCormick Wins Dive, but U.S. Suffers First Swim Loss in 2 Olympics," The New York Times, July 31, 1952, p. 15, col. 1.

¹²Buck Dawson, ed., "Pat McCormick," Swimming Hall of Fame Pool Dedication Souvenir Program (Fort Lauderdale: Swimming Hall of Fame, 1965), p. 26.

and Field Committee nevertheless recommended Dicks for the Olympic squad and the United States Olympic Association approved the exception. 13

The United States went to the finals of the four hundred meter relay event. The favored Australians led in the finals until the last exchange when they dropped the baton. "The accident let in Catherine Hardy of the U.S.A. to an inches victory over Marge Peterson of Germany." America's foursome shared the world and Olympic records with the Germans, who were identically clocked. Hardy was assisted by Mae Faggs, Barbara Jones, and Janet Moreau. 15

America's lone medal in the four hundred meter relay event may have caused Lucile Wilson, Manager-Coach of the 1952 women's track and field team, to criticize track and field opportunities in the United States:

A well organized track program is offered to any boy interested from grade school through college. In many cases, the boy may start in the last year of elementary school. Any semblance of a track program is generally ignored in high school and college for girls who may be interested. The only opportunity girls or women have to receive training is in the few private athletic clubs, and in a few playground departments. The educational institutions are depriving the girls and women of the chance to receive a proper and healthy program in track and field. Other nations provide for this activity for their girls and women!

¹³Lucile Wilson, "Women's Track and Field Report of Team Manager-Coach," <u>United States 1952 Olympic Book</u>, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), p. 113.

¹⁴George Pallett, <u>Women's Athletics</u> (London: Normal Press, 1955), pp. 89-90.

^{15&}lt;sub>Wilson</sub>, p. 115.

¹⁶Wilson, p. 113.

Evelyne R. Hall, Chairman of the 1952 Women's Track and Field Committee, one of the first all-women Olympic committees, called women's track and field the "stepchild of American sports." She called for an AAU study and a "promotional plan . . . to stimulate interest in schools and colleges. Lacking this, women's participation in track and field should be eliminated from the U.S. Olympic program." 18

American women won ten out of a possible thirty-five track and field titles in Olympic competition from 1928 through 1952. The Netherlands captured the next highest number of titles by winning four events during the same time period. Even though track and field programs for women in the United States were inadequate for Olympic preparation, over-all Olympic performances did not warrant the withdrawal of American women from Olympic track and field.

The three Olympic fencers were Californians. Maxine Mitchell, mother of four, had recently won the 1952 national title. Janice-Lee York, winner of the national fencing tournament in 1950 and 1951, placed second. Polly Craus, third in the national tournament, earned the remaining Olympic berth. ²⁰

¹⁷Evelyne R. Hall, "Women's Track and Field Report of Committee Chairman," <u>United States 1952 Olympic Book</u>, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), p. 112.

¹⁸Hall, p. 112.

¹⁹ John Kieran and Arthur Daley, The Story of the Olympic Games 776 B.C. to 1972 (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1973), pp. 494-96.

^{20&}quot;Mrs. Mitchell Triumphs," The New York Times, June 16, 1952, p. 22, col. 8.

In London, Janice-Lee York placed fourth, to equal the best United States performance set by Marcia Cerra Tishman in 1948. Maxine Mitchell finished in sixth place and Polly Craus was eliminated in the semi-final round. ²¹

The all-women Women's Gymnastic Committee was chaired by Roberta Bonniwell. At a joint meeting of the Men's and Women's Gymnastic Committees on September 30, 1951, it was decided to combine the Olympic tryouts and the Men's and Women's National AAU Championships. The gigantic meet took place at Pennsylvania State College on April 25-26, 1952. Subsequently the Women's Gymnastic Committee named Roberta Bonniwell coach-manager. 22

The women's gymnastics team began practicing in mid-May and conducted a number of exhibitions to increase the Olympic fund. Once in Helsinki, it continued training at the Women's Nursing School gymnasium. Observation of practicing European teams revealed "a new type of interpretive rythmic gymnastics, widely divergent from our American system. . ."²³ The Europeans incorporated movements and choregraphy of dance with emphasis on beauty and grace. Their trend was away from strength, power, and sustained movements. The United States failed to place in the top three either in individual or team competition.²⁴

²¹ Miguel A. de Capriles, "Fencing Report of Chairman and Captain," <u>United States 1952 Olympic Book</u>, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), p. 180.

²²Roberta R. Bonniwell, "Women's Gymnastics Report of Committee Chairman and Team Manager," <u>United States 1952 Olympic Book</u>, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), pp. 194-95.

²³Bonniwell, p. 195.

²⁴Bonniwell, pp. 196 and 198.

The United States was represented by Army equestrian teams in the Olympic Games from 1912 to 1948. The elimination of Army horse units after 1948 resulted in the formation of the United States Equestrian Team in 1950. The new organization began selecting and training teams for Olympic and other competitions. The first team selected for competition in the United States and Canada in 1950 consisted of one man and two women. The withdrawal of Army control of U.S. equestrian representation in the Olympics provided American women with another opportunity for Olympic competition.

The entry of American women into Olympic equestrian events was marred by the announcement that Carol Durand was barred as a woman from the Helsinki competition. Durand won her position in the October 1951 competition at Fort Riley, Kansas. 27 She was named to the Prix de Nations event, but the International Equestrian rules barred women from that phase of Olympic competition at that time.

In April 1952 it was announced that costume designer Marjorie Haines was named to the Olympic dressage team. Haines became the first woman to represent the United States in an Olympic equestrian event. 28

²⁵ John W. Wofford, "Equestrian Report of Team Manager," United States 1952 Olympic Book, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), p. 178.

²⁶Guy V. Henry, "Equestrian Report of Committee Chairman," United States 1952 Olympic Book, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), p. 174.

 $^{^{27}}$ 'Mrs. Durand Ineligible," <u>The New York Times</u>, December 5, 1951, p. 50, col. 2.

^{28&}quot;Women Will Ride for First Time With American Team in Olympics," The New York Times, April 2, 1952, p. 46, col. 2, 3.

Haines placed seventeenth out of twenty-seven.²⁹

Women reappeared in the 1952 Olympic yachting competition after a lapse of one Olympiad. The 1952 Olympic yachting report simply lists Millie Kurz Horton as manager; Joyce Horton, crew Dragon class; and E. L. Whiton, six meter crew alternate. The yachting crew of which women were a part finished eleventh out of seventeen. 30

²⁹Wofford, p. 179.

³⁰⁰wen P. Churchill, "Yachting Report of Team Captain," United States 1952 Olympic Book, ed. Asa S. Bushnell (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1952), pp. 239-40, 243.

CHAPTER XIII

WOMEN ARE HOUSED IN OLYMPIC VILLAGE

The United States Olympic team traveled farther than ever before to participate in the Games of the sixteenth Olympiad. The flight from Los Angeles to Melbourne, Australia was approximately eleven thousand miles.

Another male bastion crumpled when women, for the first time, were housed in Olympic Village which had formerly been open only to men. Olympic Village was the site of housing designated for athletes during the Olympic Games. One section of the village was now fenced in for women at Melbourne. The village was designed with the idea to convert the bungalows and flats into low-cost housing after the Games ended. 1

Women held two of the four offices on the Women's Olympic
Swimming Committee. Beth S. Kaufman served as secretary and Mrs.
Arthur C. Toner, Jr. was the United States Olympic Association representative. Three of the remaining four committee members were women.
The committee elected the team administration for the Melbourne Games.
Mrs. Toner was manager-chaperone of the team, Stanley D. Tinkham
coached the swimmers while Glenn P. McCormick, husband of Olympian
Pat McCormick, coached the divers.

¹J. Edwin Aspinal, "Swimming Women Report by Chairman," <u>United</u> States 1956 Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1957), p. 221.

²Aspinal, p. 179.

The United States Olympic Swimming Committee voted to require minimum times and diving standards for the tryouts. The butterfly stroke was added to the 1956 Olympic program.³ The team was selected August 7-10, 1956 and assembled for training October 15 at Los Angeles.⁴

The 1956 fund raising campaign flourished. In addition to the financially successful Olympic trials, assistance came from the AAU, "country clubs, athletic associations, private clubs, companies of sporting equipment and personal donations. . . ."⁵

Special training arrangements were necessary as many of the swimmers had to give up a semester of school because the Games began November 22, 1956. The girls did not have the same opportunity to train in school as did the boys and the Women's Olympic Swimming Committee worked out a practice plan to accommodate the naiads. Swimmers and divers were sent to various practice locations throughout the country until the team assembled in Los Angeles. Arrangements were made there for girls to stay with friends, fellow team members, or at other quarters offering reduced rates.

In Melbourne the swimmers resumed training with two one-hour sessions each day. "The divers were at the Olympic Pool all day with the thought of fitting in any practice time which was available--any time! any hour!"6

³Mrs. Arthur Toner, "Report by Manager-Chaperone," <u>United</u>
<u>States 1956 Olympic Book</u> (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1957),
p. 183.

⁴Aspinal, pp. 179-80.

⁵Toner, pp. 183-84.

⁶Toner, p. 184.

American women won three aquatic titles at Melbourne and swept the top three places in two of the three events in which they won titles. Pat McCormick led the platform sweep followed by Juno Irwin and Paula Myers. Shelley Mann led the butterfly sweep. Mann, on top of the victory platform, was flanked by second place Nancy Ramey and third place Mary Jane Sears.

Pat McCormick added another gold medal to Uncle Sam's collection of awards by winning the springboard title. Jeanne Stunyo placed second in the springboard competition. Sylvia Ruuska won the bronze medal in the four hundred meter freestyle event and also contributed to the second place finish of the four hundred meter relay team. The remainder of that team consisted of Shelley Mann, Nancy Simons, and Joan Rosazza. Carin Cone placed second in the one hundred meter backstroke.

Pat McCormick's double diving titles in the 1952 and 1956 Olympic Games distinguished her as "the only person, man or woman, in diving history ever to score a 'double-double' in Olympic competition." The James E. Sullivan trophy was presented to Pat McCormick in 1956. She also became the first woman diver to be honored by the International Swimming Hall of Fame in Fort Lauderdale, Florida. 9

Shelley Mann was a non-swimmer at ten and began competitive training at age twelve. She became a national champion at fifteen and

⁷Toner, p. 188.

⁸Buck Dawson, ed., "Pat McCormick," Swimming Hall of Fame Pool Dedication Souvenir Program (Fort Lauderdale: Swimming Hall of Fame, 1965), p. 26.

⁹Dawson, p. 26.

an Olympic gold medalist at seventeen. Mann was the premier four stroke swimmer, establishing and maintaining records in the four hundred yard individual medley. She captured twenty-four national titles individually or as a member of the highly regarded Walter Reed Swim Club. 10

In May 1956 J. Lyman Bingham, Executive Director of the United States Olympic Association, lamented over the status of women's track and field in this country which had not changed significantly since the 1952 Olympics.

"We just don't have the means for developing women's teams," Bingham told The Associated Press. "High schools and colleges don't go in for women's track. Women's sports are available mostly in industrial plants."11

Bingham predicted that the American women would lose Olympic diadems to the well trained Soviets in the forthcoming 1956 Games. The United States Olympic Association executive contended that a team fielded from factories and industrial plants would do extremely well in international competition. Bingham was convinced that promotion of women's track and field by factories would strengthen Olympic teams. 12

The Women's Track and Field Committee consisting of six women and one man, was chaired by Roxanne Anderson. It appointed her manager-chaperone; Nell C. Jackson, track coach; and A. Richmond Morcom, field

¹⁰ Buck Dawson, ed., "Shelley Mann-Honor Swimmer," International Swimming Hall of Fame Fifth Anniversary Yearbook 1965-1970 (Fort Lauderdale: International Swimming Hall of Fame, 1971), p. 76.

^{11&}quot;Factories Are Held Title Team Source," The New York Times, May 11, 1956, p. 31, col. 4.

^{12&}quot;Factories Are Held," The New York Times, May 11, 1956, p. 31, col. 4.

coach. The Olympic trials on August 25, 1956 were financially successful and contributions for the 1956 team exceeded those of previous Olympiads. 13

gathered for pre-Olympic training. It met in Los Angeles on October 15, 1956, and had access to track and field facilities at the University of Southern California and the Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum. The services of trainer Celeste Hayden were available for the Los Angeles training and Melbourne competition. ¹⁴ Hayden was the first reported woman Olympic trainer. Earlier women's Olympic teams competed without the services of a trainer or were assigned a male trainer.

Before the Olympic competition in Melbourne, Willie White, a broad jumper, taught the Russians to dance American style.

Undaunted by the earlier failure of her male teammates to get the Russian girls to rock, Willie went to work on some of the Russian men in the Olympic village recreation hall. . . . They took to jive readily and graduated to rock 'n' roll with a will. 15

In exchange the Russian athletes offered to teach Willie White one of their folk dances. 16

¹³Roxanne E. Andersen, "Athletics Women Report by Chairman," United States 1956 Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1957), p. 87.

¹⁴ Roxanne Andersen, "Report by the Manager-Chaperone," United States 1956 Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1957), p. 88.

^{15&}quot;Russians Rock 'n' Roll As U.S. Girl Shows Way," The New York Times, November 13, 1956, p. 47, col. 6.

^{16&}quot;Russians Rock," The New York Times, November 13, 1956, p. 47, col. 6.

Mae Faggs, Margaret Mathews, Wilma Rudolph, and Isabelle Daniels placed third in the four hundred meter relay event. Willie White placed second in the running broad jump. Mildred McDaniel's high jump efforts resulted in new world and Olympic records. Over a hundred thousand people cheered "the greatest woman high jumper in the world."

Roxanne Andersen compared Russia and Australia's track and field programs with those in the United States. Andersen explained that educators in Russia and Australia encourage and develop "female athletic talent in schools, factories and clubs. In sharp contrast, the USA has only a handful of clubs and two women's colleges . . ."18 that promote women's track and field. She declared that "the American girl is still fighting the battle of mid-Victorian prejudice against participation by women in competitive sport" in the 1950s.

The 1956 Olympic fencers included Judy Kay Goodrich, Maxine Mitchell, and Janice-Lee York Romary. Goodrich was eliminated in the first round and Mitchell advanced to the semi-finals but dropped out of the competition because of an elbow injury. Janice-Lee Romary repeated her fourth place finish of the previous Helsinki Olympics. 20

Erna Wachtel chaired the Women's Olympic Gymnastic Committee, which consisted of five women and one man. Wachtel was elected

¹⁷Andersen, p. 89.

¹⁸ Andersen, p. 89.

¹⁹Andersen, p. 89.

²⁰ Jose R. de Capriles, "Report by Team Captain," <u>United States</u> 1956 Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker Rackliff Co., 1957), p. 126.

coach-manager of the 1956 Olympic gymnastics team. Tryouts for Olympic berths took place in April 1956.²¹

A legal complication almost kept German-born gymnasts Doris and Ingeborg Fuchs from competing in the Olympic Games. The Fuchs family came to the United States in 1951.²² The New York Times disclosed that the sisters served four and a half years in a concentration camp before coming to the United States.²³ Final citizenship papers could be processed only after five continuous years of residence, in their case after August 8, 1956. Normally there would have been ample time to complete the Fuch's citizenship requirements for the Olympic team, but because of a Federal law prohibiting naturalization processes ninety days before the election date on November 6, 1956, the Olympic trip looked doubtful for the Fuchs. The Rochester, New York naturalization court was not scheduled to meet until December, too late for the Fuchs' competition.

The family went for assistance to Walter H. Wickens, clerk of the court. Wickens discovered that the naturalization court in Buffalo, New York, was scheduled for November 8, 1956 and made arrangements for the family to complete their citizenship requirements. ²⁴ Doris Fuchs

²¹Erna Wachtel, "Gymnastics Women Report by Chairman," <u>United</u> States 1956 Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1957), p. 139.

²²"Citizenship Problem Is Solved for Girl So She Can Be on U. S. Olympic Team," <u>The New York Times</u>, May 4, 1956, p. 31, col. 5.

²³"Fuchs Sisters Citizens," <u>The New York Times</u>, August 29, 1956, p. 37, col. 2.

^{24&}quot;Citizenship Problem," The New York Times, May 4, 1956, p. 31, col. 5.

was named to the Olympic squad as a competitor and Ingeborg Fuchs as a reserve. ²⁵

Several training sessions were held in various locations and on October 20, 1956 the team assembled in Chicago for final practice. From Chicago the team flew to Melbourne.

The friendly Australians, excellent food, and a daily supply of flowers for the rooms contributed to the pleasant atmosphere at Olympic Village. The gymnasts were transported to practice areas outside the Village. These areas had no heat but plenty of hot tea was available. The team practiced two and a half to three hours each day.

The gymnasts did not reach any of the top three places in team or individual competition. When the Olympic competition was over, Coach Wachtel concluded that the United States could improve Olympic performances if schools and colleges throughout the country incorporated gymnastics in their curricula. ²⁶

Because of an Australian law requiring a quarantine period of six months for horses entering that country, ²⁷ Stockholm, Sweden was chosen as the site for the equestrian events. ²⁸ Shirley Watt was

^{25&}quot;Fuchs Sisters," The New York Times, August 29, 1956, p. 37, col. 2.

²⁶Wachtel, pp. 139-41, 145.

 $^{^{27}}$ "Equestrian Tests Out of '56 Olympics," The New York Times, August 2, 1953, sec. V, p. 4, col. 8.

²⁸"Olympic Group Picks Stockholm to State 1956 Equestrian Events," The New York Times, May 14, 1954, p. 28, col. 3.

the only distaff competitor from the United States to enter the Stockholm competition. She entered the Grand Prix de Dressage but did not score high enough to win a medal in her event.²⁹

^{29&}quot;Personnel 1956 United States Equestrian Olympic Team at Stockholm, Sweden," <u>United States 1956 Olympic Book</u>, eds. Asa S. Bushnell and Arthur G. Lentz (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1957), p. 449.

CHAPTER XIV

WILMA RUDOLPH, PREMIER SPRINTER

In the summer of 1958 a joint committee made up of representatives of the National Association for Physical Education of College Women, and the Division for Girls and Women's Sports of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation reported on extramural sport competition for college women. The committee found that sport programs were not "conducted on a level of skill sufficiently high to meet the sport interests and needs of . . . college women."

It proposed that the three organizations "initiate a program . . . to extend the benefits of desirable extramural sports experience to a greater number of college women."

By the late 1950s women's sports were assuming an increasingly important place in the changing culture of the United States.

At last the conservative women physical educators formally recognized the need to provide sport for the highly skilled within the context of educational institutions.

Prior to the joint committee report Dr. Nelson Metcalf of the United States Olympic Association Executive Committee suggested that the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports (NSGWS) request Olympic

¹Sara Staff Jernigan, "Women and the Olympics," <u>Journal of</u> Health, Physical Education and Recreation, April, 1962, p. 26.

²Jernigan, p. 26.

³Jernigan, p. 26.

representation through its parent organization, the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER). The NSGWS represented a merger by the Women's Division, National Amateur Athletic Federation and the Women's Athletic Committee. Later the NSGWS became the Division for Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS).

Dr. Rachel Bryant of the DGWS met with Olympic officials in 1957. Dr. Bryant and Dr. Carl A. Troester, Jr., AAHPER representative to the United States Olympic Association (USOA), attended the Olympic Association's meeting early in December 1957. Bryant and Troester requested that the USOA include DGWS representatives on Olympic Sports Committees governing women's activities. Kenneth Wilson, President of the United States Olympic Association, spoke in favor of the request and the request was unanimously accepted by the Olympic Association.

In September 1958 the USOA formulated the Women's Advisory
Board for the U.S. Olympic Development Committee. The latter committee
aimed "to expand, improve, and coordinate programs involving Olympic
activities" in an effort to enrich women's Olympic ventures. In
1961 Olympic and AAHPER officials appointed Thelma Bishop, past Chairman, DGWS; Janet Bachna, 1960 coach of the women's gymnastic team;
Ann Patterson, San Francisco State College; and Sara Staff Jernigan,
Chairman, DGWS, to the Women's Advisory Board.

⁴Jernigan, pp. 25-26.

⁵Jernigan, p. 25.

⁶Jernigan, p. 26.

Sara Staff Jernigan viewed the DGWS and Olympic alignment as an opportunity for the DGWS to meet the changing needs of girls and women in sport, to serve on the Olympic Games Committees, strengthen the relationship with the AAHPER and the USOA, encourage the Olympic Committee to accept DGWS standards, improve the nation's physical fitness, expand the search for highly skilled girls, recruit more physical education and recreation personnel, and encourage physical educators to include Olympic sports in their programs. Jernigan's expectations were worthy but challenging endeavors.

The word "Advisory" was dropped from the Women's Board title and in 1963 the group came under the auspices of the U.S. Olympic Development Committee. Representatives of the DGWS and the Women's Board met in Washington, D.C. in March 1963 to discuss plans for a National Institute on Girls Sports. The Institute was conceived by the Women's Board and co-sponsored by the DGWS in an attempt: "(1) to increase the depth of experience and expand opportunities for girl's and women's sports, and (2) to resolve in a forceful way the nationwide needs of girl's and women's sports." 10

⁷Jernigan, p. 25.

^{8&}quot;Sponsoring Organizations," Proceedings Third National Institute on Girls Sports (Washington, D.C.: A.A.H.P.E.R., 1966), p. vi.

⁹Sara Staff Jernigan and Marguerite A. Clifton, "Introduction," Proceedings First National Institute on Girls Sports (Washington, D.C.: A.A.H.P.E.R., 1965).

¹⁰Sara Staff Jernigan, "Two New Institutes on Girls Sports," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, September, 1965, p. 40.

The National Institute on Girls Sports was the first attempt

. . . in the history of the United States to emphasize improvement of sports skills of all girls, regardless of their level of ability, and to help establish a broader base for a varied sports program in public schools and colleges and in city recreation departments. 11

Each state sent representatives to the Institute and they in turn were obligated to conduct sports workshops in their respective states for physical educators and recreation personnel. 12 Five institutes were held from 1963 to 1969. They concentrated on diving, fencing, gymnastics, canoeing, kayaking, track and field, skiing, figure skating, 13 basketball, and volleyball. 14 All of these are Olympic sports with the exception of basketball. Basketball is to become an Olympic sport for women at the 1976 Games.

The impact of the Institutes on the development of Olympic athletes has not been realized. Most women have entered Olympic competition as a result of competitive experiences outside the context of educational institutions. The Amateur Athletic Union of the United States has provided the majority of opportunities for women to train for Olympic competition. A few specialized sport organizations such as the American Canoe Association and the Amateur Fencers League of America have sponsored competition for women.

¹¹ Jernigan, p. 40.

^{12&}lt;sub>Jernigan</sub>, p. 40.

¹³Sara Staff Jernigan, "Fresh Winds Are Stirring," <u>Journal</u> of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, March, 1967, p. 27.

¹⁴Sara Staff Jernigan, "Highlights of the Fifth National Institute on Girls Sports," <u>Journal of Health</u>, Physical Education and Recreation, April, 1969, p. 81.

The 1960 Olympic Committee roster included women representatives on three sport committees, swimming, track and field, and gymnastics.

Frances T. Kaszubski chaired the Women's Track and Field Committee,

Sandra Young served as secretary of that committee, Martha Gable was secretary of the Women's Gymnastic Committee, and Betty Baldwin was secretary of the Women's Swimming Committee. The Supplies and Equipment Committee included three women who assisted in the 1960 Olympics. He by 1960 women had not gained committee representation on fencing, equestrian events, yachting, and the latest sport open to women-canoeing.

In mid-August 1960, five chartered planes carrying the United States Olympic delegation departed from New York City for the celebration of the seventeenth Olympiad in Rome. ¹⁷ For the second time women athletes lived in Olympic Village. A fenced-in section of Rome's Olympic Village was designated for women, with Ethel M. Fisher in charge of the women's quarters. Designed for permanent housing, the facility was comfortable and pleasant. ¹⁸ Countess Brenda Helser de Morelos of Meudon, France,

¹⁵ Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "Membership of 1960 USOC Game Committees," 1960 United States Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), pp. 8-9.

¹⁶Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "Membership of Special U.S. Olympic Committees," 1960 United States Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), p. 12.

¹⁷ Daniel J. Ferris, "Transportation of U.S. Athletes Complicated by Unavoidable Change in Assembly Procedures," 1960 United States Olympic Book, ed. Arthur Lentz (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), p. 43.

¹⁸Charles Ornstein, "Feeding and Housing Athletes Huge Task but Committee 'Know-How' Gets Job Done," 1960 United States Olympic Book, ed. Arthur G. Lentz (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), p. 45.

a member of the United States 1948 championship four hundred meter freestyle relay team, served as the first activities director. She coordinated requests for sight-seeing tours, church services, and entertainment for American athletes during their stay in Rome. 19

George Haines was swimming coach of the 1960 women's Olympic team and Dr. Sammy Lee coached the divers. Betty L. Baldwin was team manager. The aquatic delegation also included swimmer Chris Von Saltza's good luck frog and diver Paula Myers Pope's wool octopus. 21

Some of the blond swimmers' hair turned green after swimming in one of the practice pools. No one seemed concerned. A purification substance caused the change in hair color. 22

The United States girls took five out of nine Olympic aquatic titles in Rome. Leading swimming medalist of the Rome Games was Christine Von Saltza, who anchored the gold medal four hundred meter medley relay and four hundred meter freestyle teams. She won the four hundred meter freestyle and placed second in the one hundred meter

¹⁹Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "Appointment of Attache and Activities Director Aided U.S. Rome Operation," 1960 United States Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), p. 54.

²⁰Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "All-Time U.S. Olympic Team Personnel," 1960 United States Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), p. 390.

²¹ Arthur Daley, "Sports of the Times-In Praise of Greeks," The New York Times, September 9, 1960, p. 20, col. 4.

²²Allison Danzig, "U.S. Men's Diving Coach Says Rome Competition Will be Stiff," The New York Times, August 20, 1960, p. 15, col. 3.

freestyle.²³ The remaining threesome of the four hundred meter medley relay team included Lynn E. Burke, Patty Kempner, and Carolyn J.

Schuler. Burke won the one hundred meter backstroke in world record-breaking time while Schuler took the one hundred meter butterfly title. In addition to Von Saltza the four hundred meter freestyle relay team consisted of Joan Spillane, Shirley Stobs, and Carolyn Wood.²⁴ Both relay teams set world records. The four hundred meter freestyle relay victory was a fitting climax for the United States women's swimming team and for Carolyn Wood. Fourteen-year-old Wood thereby made up for the disappointing one hundred meter butterfly in which she swallowed water on the turn, dropped out of the race, and ran from the pool in tears.²⁵

Ingrid Kramer of Germany ended America's Olympic springboard diving monopoly which began with the 1920 Games in Antwerp. Kramer also halted the United States domination of platform diving which began with the Paris Olympics of 1924. However, three-time Olympian Paula Meyers Pope placed second in both diving events. 26

The triumph of the aquatic team was credited largely to the AAU's age-group swimming program. Coach Haines attributed the success of the squad to "the entire team's desire to win, team cooperation, and

²³Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "American Girls' Performance Sensational in Swimming Triumph; 3 Golds for von Saltza," <u>1960 United</u> States Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., <u>1961</u>), p. 162.

²⁴Lentz, "All-Time," p. 390.

²⁵Kenneth Rudeen, "Dangerous When Wet," <u>Sports Illustrated</u>, September 12, 1960, p. 71.

²⁶Lentz, "American Girls," p. 162.

the superior condition of each individual swimmer over the other swimmers of the world. 27

Christine Von Saltza was the first champion to emerge from the AAU's age-group swimming program and she was the first American girl to swim the four hundred meter freestyle under five minutes. 28 She won five gold medals at the 1959 Pan American Games by placing first in the one hundred, two hundred, and four hundred meter freestyle events and the four hundred meter freestyle and medley relays. Von Saltza broke approximately seventy-five American records in varying distances in the backstroke, freestyle, and the individual medley relay. 29 Chris Von Saltza retired from swimming in 1961. She entered Stanford University and majored in Asian history. Taking a leave of absence during the 1963-64 school year Von Saltza served as a coach-consultant in Asia through a State Department grant. 30

America's runners, throwers, and jumpers of the seventeenth Olympiad were coached by Edward S. Temple and Francis G. Welch. 31

The women's track and field team was selected at Abilene Christian

College Stadium in Texas, July 15-16, 1960. Eighteen competitors

were sent to Rome despite stringent standards required by the International

²⁷Lentz, "American Girls," p. 162.

²⁸Buck Dawson, ed., "Chris Von Saltza-Honor Swimmer," <u>International Swimming Hall of Fame Fifth Anniversary Yearbook 1965-1970</u>
(Fort Lauderdale: International Swimming Hall of Fame, 1971), p. 108.

²⁹Pat Besford, Encyclopaedia of Swimming (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1971), p. 144.

³⁰Dawson, p. 108.

³¹Lentz, "All-Time," p. 387.

Amateur Athletic Federation. Pre-Olympic practice was conducted at Kansas State Teacher's College, Emporia.

America's Earlene Brown took the bronze medal after her final heave of the shot put. Spectacular Wilma Rudolph dashed to victories in the one hundred and two hundred meter races and anchored the gold medal four hundred meter relay team. She set a new Olympic record in the two hundred meter dash; however, an Olympic record was disallowed in the one hundred meter dash because the wind speed exceeded the allowed maximum. Rudolph was the first American to win the two hundred meter dash. The four hundred meter relay team set a world record during a preliminary heat. In addition to anchor Rudolph, the relay team was led by Martha Hudson, followed by Lucinda Williams and Barbara Jones.

Americans did not medal in the once-controversial eight hundred meter run which appeared in the 1960 program after a lapse of five celebrated Olympiads. Likewise the eighty meter hurdle victory ceremony did not include Americans. Not a single American was included in the awards ceremony of the broad jump, javelin, high jump, or discus events. 32

"Television and Wilma Rudolph brought the true drama and glamour of competitive athletics (track and field) to girl's homes, schools, and colleges throughout the world in 1960." Wilma Rudolph did much

³²Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "Triple Gold Medal Triumpa by U.S.A.'s Wilma Rudolph Rated Best Ever in Women's Track," 1960 United States Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), pp. 86-87, 89-90.

³³Frances Kaszubski, "A Rediscovery," Olympic Sports (New York: U.S. Olympic Committee, no date), p. 28.

to popularize track and field in the United States and dispel the idea that superb athletic performances are achieved by mesomorphic women with massive musculature.

Track superlative Wilma Rudolph grew up in a family of eleven children in Clarksville, Tennessee. At the age of four she contracted pneumonia and scarlet fever. Rulolph lost the use of one leg as a result of polio and for two years rode the bus with her mother to a Nashville clinic for treatment. Slowly she regained the use of her leg. When she was eleven one of her brothers set a basketball goal in the yard. "'After that it was basketball, basketball, basketball,' said Mrs. Rudolph. . . . 'Whenever I'd call her in to eat or clean up around the house, Wilma would be out in the yard having a big time.'"³⁴

While in high school, Wilma Rudolph became an outstanding basketball player under the direction of C. C. Gray at Burt High School in Clarksville. Edward Temple, women's track and field coach at Tennessee State University in Nashville, discovered her at a state basketball tournament in 1955. Temple asked coach Gray to start a girls' track team at Burt High School to develop Wilma Rudolph's sprinting talent. The summer, Gray drove Miss Rudolph to the Nashville College every day to work out with Temple. Wilma Rudolph entered Tennessee State

^{34&}quot;World Speed Queen Wilma Glodean Rudolph," The New York Times, September 9, 1960, p. 20, col. 2.

^{35&}quot;World Speed Queen," The New York Times, September 9, 1960, p. 20, cols. 2, 3.

^{36&}quot;World Speed Queen," The New York Times, September 9, 1960, p. 20, col. 3.

University in 1957 to study elementary education. She practiced running two hours a day and worked four hours a day in a university office. 37

In December 1960, Wilma Rudolph was awarded the United Press
International Athlete of the Year honor by the European press. Rudolph was the first woman to receive the United Press International's award since its inception shortly after the second World War. 38 The James
E. Sullivan trophy was presented to Wilma Rudolph in 1961 for her outstanding sprinting ability. 39

The Olympic fencers of 1960 did not perform as well as American women in other sports. The three individual foil fencers, Harriet King, Evelyn Terhune, and Olympic veteran Janice-Lee Romary were eliminated in the first round of competition.

Team competition in women's foils was included for the first time in the 1960 Olympic fencing program. The distaff fencers were also eliminated in the first round of team competition.⁴⁰

The gymnasts competed

. . . in the historic Caracalla Baths, constructed in 217 A.D. by Antonius Caracalla. An arena seating 5,000 was built

^{37&}quot;World Speed Queen," The New York Times, September 9, 1960, p. 20, col. 3.

^{38&}quot;Wilma Rudolph Victor in Voting," The New York Times, December 25, 1960, sec. V, p. 3, col. 7.

³⁹Ollan C. Cassell and Jesse R. Lipscomb, eds., "Sullivan Trophy Winners," Official AAU Track and Field Handbook (Indianapolis: Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, 1971), p. 24.

⁴⁰Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "Albert Axelrod's Bronze Medal In Foils Best for U.S.A. Fencers; Sabre Team Was Fourth," 1960 United States Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), p. 121.

within the centuries-old arches, vaults and columns of the huge monument in the heart of Rome. $^{4\dot{1}}$

The Americans placed ninth among seventeen nations in team competition and did not medal in individual competition. Coach-manager of the 1960 Olympic gymnastics team was Janet R. Bachna. 42

American equestriennes also did not fare well in the Rome Olympics.

Patricia Galvin, Pan American champion, placed sixth in the seventeen

dressage entries while Jessica Newberry placed twelfth in dressage. 43

The emergence of American women in Olympic canoeing took place at the Rome Games. Organized canoeing programs for women in America began in 1957 and by 1960 women were ready to embark on another Olympic challenge. Fund raising campaigns were successful and Olympic expenses for both men and women were provided. 44 Two canoeing events were open to women at the Rome Olympics, the five hundred meter kayak pairs and the five hundred meter kayak singles. Gloriane Perrier entered the kayak singles event. Mary Ann Du Chai and Dianne Jerome competed in the kayak pairs event. The girls were eliminated early in the competition. 45

⁴¹Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "All But One of 16 Medals Awarded Russia in Women's Gymnastics; Improved U.S.A. Ninth," 1960 United States Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), p. 132.

⁴²Lentz, "All But One," p. 132.

⁴³Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "United States Jumping Team Placed Second In Its Event; Australia Led All Nations," 1960 United States Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), p. 117.

⁴⁴Letter from L. M. Schindel, Executive Secretary, American Canoe Association, July 15, 1974.

⁴⁵Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "All Canoeing Records Broken, U.S.A. Entries Unplaced But Improved Over 1956 Showing," 1960 United States Olympic Book (New Haven: Walker-Rackliff Co., 1961), p. 101.

CHAPTER XV

THE FIRST OLYMPIC TEAM SPORT FOR WOMEN

The International Olympic Committee approved the 1964 Olympic program in June 1961. Japanese organizers presented a proposal to drop canoeing and the modern pentathlon, replacing them with judo and volleyball. European and South American countries opposed the proposal. International Olympic Committee members were given the opportunity to vote against any of the twenty-two recognized Olympic sports which they did not desire for Tokyo. A majority of them deleted archery and handball. Canoeing and the pentathlon remained in the Olympic program and judo and volleyball were added to the 1964 events. 1

In the fall of 1963 Sports Illustrated reiterated the woes of women's track and field in the United States. There were very few coaches to teach or encourage girls and women to participate in track and field. The 1928 Olympics were again blamed for causing women physical educators to oppose interscholastic and intercollegiate track and field. In addition, the dismal performances of the American women in the 1962 U.S.A.-U.S.S.R. track and field meet may have over-shadowed Wilma Rudolph's positive effect. Interest in track and field was declining, according to Sports Illustrated. Furthermore, track uniforms

^{1&}quot;Olympic Amateur Code Altered; Judo, Volleyball Join Program," The New York Times, June 22, 1961, p. 38, cols. 5, 6.

were blamed for detracting from the sport in that the attire appeared "as chic as the daring bathing outfits of the early '20's."

Sports Illustrated analyzed the support for women's track and field, which came from such notable personalities as exercise specialist Bonnie Pruden and Helen Gurley Brown in her Sex and the Single Girl. Coaches such as Edward Temple of Tennessee State University and Roxanne Anderson of San Francisco's Laurel Club were doing a great deal in support of the sport. The National Institutes on Girls' Sports were a positive attempt to improve opportunities and instruction for women. 3

In 1959 the International Olympic Committee declared Tokyo, largest city in the world, as the site of the 1964 summer Olympic Games. An entire area of the metropolis was transformed into a marvelous park for sports. Olympic Village was within a fifteen minute walk from the competition arenas.⁴

The 1964 Olympic naiads from the United States claimed seven out of ten swimming and diving titles in Tokyo. Virginia Duenkel, Marilyn Ramenofsky, and Terri Stickles swept the four hundred meter freestyle event as did countrywomen Donna de Varona, Sharon Finneran, and Martha Randall in the four hundred meter individual medley. The United States dominated both relay events. Swimming a world record in the four hundred meter freestyle were Sharon Stouder, Donna de Varona, Lillian

²"Why Can't We Beat This Girl?" <u>Sports Illustrated</u>, September 30, 1963, p. 54.

^{3&}quot;Why Can't We Beat This Girl?" p. 54.

⁴Harald Lechenperg, ed., "Tokyo," <u>Olympic Games 1964</u> (New York: A. S. Barnes, 1964), pp. 137-38.

Watson, and Kathleen Ellis. The four hundred meter medley relay team also lowered the world record as a result of performances by Cathy Ferguson, Cynthia Goyette, Sharon Stouder, and Kathleen Ellis. Cathy Ferguson and Virginia Duenkel placed first and third in the one hundred meter backstroke as did Sharon Stouder and Kathleen Ellis in the one hundred meter butterfly. Claudia Kolb won the silver medal in the two hundred meter breaststroke. Kolb was the first American to place in the two hundred meter breaststroke. The event was first included in the 1924 Olympic program. Sharon Stouder and Kathleen Ellis placed two-three in the one hundred meter freestyle event.

Diver Lesley Bush went to the top of the victory platform for the high diving diadem. Jeanne Collier and Patricia Willard received the silver and bronze medals for their springboard diving performances.⁵

In preparation for the 1964 Olympics Sharon Stouder swam the butterfly leg of America's championship four hundred meter medley relay team at the 1963 Pan American Games in Sao Paulo. In addition, she was the one hundred meter freestyle, one hundred meter butterfly, and two hundred meter butterfly titlist at the United States Outdoor Championships in August 1964.

Sharon Stouder's three gold medals and silver medal at the Tokyo Olympics were an accomplishment achieved by no other woman swimmer in a single Olympic appearance. Stouder was the second girl

⁵Harald Lechenperg, ed., "Women's Swimming," <u>Olympic Games</u> 1964 (New York: A. S. Barnes, 1964), pp. 169-76.

⁶Pat Besford, Encyclopaedia of Swimming (New York: A. S. Barnes, 1971), pp. 156-57.

in history to swim the one hundred meter freestyle under one minute. Australian Dawn Fraser was the first. After the Tokyo Olympic Games Sharon Stouder was named World Woman Swimmer of the year by Sports Illustrated, Swimming World, and the American Broadcasting Company. In 1973 Stouder was inducted into the International Swimming Hall of Fame.

Donna de Varona's most outstanding swimming achievement extended over a five year period beginning with the 1960 Olympics and ending after the Tokyo Games. She won thirty-seven individual national championship medals and three national high point awards. Donna de Varona dominated the individual medley and set world times in three of the four strokes included in the event. She repeatedly lowered times in the backstroke, butterfly, and freestyle.

Following the Tokyo Olympics Donna de Varona was voted America's Outstanding Woman Athlete, Outstanding American Female Swimmer, San Francisco's Outstanding American Female Swimmer, and was presented with the National Academy Sports Award. She was one of the most photographed women athletes, appearing on the covers of Sports Illustrated, Saturday Evening Post, Life Magazine, and Time Magazine. The versatile swimmer was recognized as the Queen of Swimming by the International Swimming Hall of Fame at its first international meet in 1965.

⁷Buck Dawson, ed., "Sharon Stouder-Honor Swimmer," <u>International</u> Swimming Hall of Fame 1973 Yearbook (Fort Lauderdale: Press Time, Inc., 1972), p. 19.

⁸Buck Dawson, ed., "Donna de Varona," <u>International Swimming</u>
Hall of Fame 1970 Year Book (Fort Lauderdale: <u>International Swimming</u>
Hall of Fame, 1970), p. 8.

Edward Temple, coach of the 1964 women's Olympic track team illustrated in part the gains made by women in track and field at the U.S.A.-U.S.S.R. international meet in Los Angeles just prior to the Tokyo Olympics. Temple remarked that women track and field athletes were referred to as "the girls" but when they started beating the Russians at the U.S.A.-U.S.S.R. meet the announcer regarded them as "our girls!" Wilma Rudolph's unrivaled performance at the Rome Olympics was indeed a challenge for the 1964 Olympians. Temple and fellow coach John T. Griffin no doubt were disappointed that their delegation received only four medals out of a possible thirty-one. Willye White, Wyomia Tyus, Marilyn White, and Edith McGuire placed second in the four hundred meter relay. Tyus won the one hundred meter dash and McGuire established an Olympic record in the two hundred meter event. Edith McGuire won the silver medal in the one hundred meter dash. Americans failed in their attempts to win either of the two new events, the four hundred meter run or the pentathlon. The eight hundred meter run, high jump, broad jump, discus throw, javelin throw, and shot put awards all went to foreign competitors. 10

Preceding the eighteenth Olympiad Edith McGuire placed second in the one hundred meter dash at the 1963 United States vs. Russia meet. In the 1964 meet McGuire shut the Russians out of the one and two hundred meter dashes. She also anchored the winning four hundred meter

⁹Tom C. Brody, "At Last the Girls Are Ours," <u>Sports Illustrated</u>, August 17, 1964, p. 68.

¹⁰Harald Lechenperg, ed., "The Track and Field Sports," Olympic Games 1964 (New York: A. S. Barnes Co., 1964), p. 239.

relay team. McGuire's teammate Wyomia Tyus placed second in the one hundred meter dash at the 1964 meet and ran the third leg of the four hundred meter relay event. The 1964 eleven point margin between the United States and the Soviet women was the narrowest victory for the Russians since the inception of the meet in 1958. 11

For the nineteenth Olympiad the national anthem of the United States signifying victory for America was not played for an American entry in the team competition. Harriet King remained in the competition longer than her teammates but did not advance beyond the third round. 12

The distaff gymnasts did not fare any better than the fencers at Tokyo. Not a single American medaled in the individual gymnastics competition involving the floor exercises, horse vault, uneven parallel bars, or the balance beam. The all-around competition consisting of the four individual events included no Americans in the top three positions. Likewise, the team competition was without Americans in the medal places. 13

Americans were successful in the 1964 Olympic canoeing competition. Marcia Jones, first American woman to medal in Olympic canoeing competition won the bronze medal award in women's singles. Jones' canoeing interest developed as a result of seeing the sport for the

¹¹Tom Mickle, ed., <u>USA-USSR International Track and Field</u>
Meet (Chapel Hill: Creative Printers, 1974), pp. 97 and 99.

¹²Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "Fencing," <u>United States Olympic Book</u>
Games of the XVIII Olympiad, Tokyo (Providence: Riverhouse Publishing
Co., 1964), p. 158.

¹³Harald Lechenperg, ed., "Gymnastics," Olympic Games 1964 (New York: A. S. Barnes Co., 1964), pp. 335-36.

first time as a tourist at the Rome Olympics. 14 She raced less than a dozen times before her first international canoeing competition, the 1964 Olympic race. 15

In the doubles competition Francine Fox and Gloriane Perrier finished second for the silver award. Fox and Perrier were barely over two seconds behind the victorious Germans. 16

 $\hbox{American women did not appear on the Olympic yachting roster}$ of the eighteenth Olympiad.

In Tokyo, American women entered volleyball, the first team sport open to women in Olympic competition. The United States entry came about when Brazil withdrew because of financial difficulties. Substitution by the United States was made upon the recommendation of the International Volleyball Federation. ¹⁸ (Brazil had qualified for the Olympic Games by winning the 1963 Pan American volleyball title with the United States as runner-up.) ¹⁹ Six teams entered the

¹⁴ Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "Canoeing," <u>United States Olympic Book Games of the XVIII Olympiad, Tokyo</u> (Providence: Riverhouse Publishing Co., 1964), p. 147.

¹⁵Sperry Rademaker and Jerry L. Welbourn, "Canoeing," <u>Journal</u> of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, September, 1972, p. 44.

¹⁶Bushnell, "Canoeing," p. 147.

¹⁷Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "Official Summaries-Yachting-1964 Olympic Games," 1964 United States Olympic Book (Providence: Riverhouse Publishing Co., 1964), pp. 116-20.

^{18&}quot;U.S. in Volleyball Event," The New York Times, May 7, 1964, p. 48, col. 7.

¹⁹ Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "Pan American Games," 1964 United States Olympic Book (Providence: Riverhouse Publishing Co., 1964), p. 301.

Olympic volleyball competition for women. The United States team managed only one triumphant match and finished fifth in the women's division. 20

²⁰Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "Official Summaries-Volleyball-Men and Women-1964 Olympic Games," <u>1964 United States Olympic Book</u> (Providence: Riverhouse Publishing Co., 1964), p. 106.

CHAPTER XVI

A WOMAN FLAG BEARER

For the first time in the history of the Olympic Games the youth of the world were summoned to compete in a Latin American city. Mexico City hosted sixteen days of colorful and exciting competition that began with the parade of athletes and Olympic officials into Estadio Olimpico. 1

Janice-Lee York Romary making her sixth Olympic fencing appearance, was the first woman to carry the American flag and lead the United States contingent during the opening ceremonies. Apparently Olympic officials thought it was time for a women to be honored with the responsibility of carrying the American flag because women were assuming other Olympic roles. United States Olympic officials considered giving hammer thrower Harold Connolly the honor of carrying the flag. Connolly indicated that he would dip the flag before the Tribune of Honor where Mexican and Olympic dignitaries sat thereby breaking the American tradition established at the Olympic Games of 1908. Some of America's athletic delegation to the London Games of 1908 were a group of Irish-born Americans nicknamed "The Whales" because of their enormous size. The night before the opening

¹Frederick Fliegner, ed., "Mexico '68," <u>1968 United States</u> Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1969), p. 274.

²"U.S. Picks Mrs. Romary to Carry Flag at Games," <u>The New York</u> <u>Times</u>, October 11, 1968, p. 58, col. 8.

ceremonies they gathered for a beer drinking festival.

The more they drank the deeper grew their indignation at the perfidies that the English had perpetrated on the Irish over the centuries. The prospect of dipping the American flag before His Majesty, King George V, was even more than they could bear.

"Our flag bows to no earthly king," growled Martin Sheridan. They issued orders to Ralph Rose, the flag bearer. As the Americans paraded past the King the flag did not dip.³

The women's swimming and diving team was coached by an all-male staff. Sherman Chavoor, head swimming coach, was assisted by Frank Elm. Hobert Billingsley coached the divers. Eighteen of the thirty-five swimmers and divers accounted for thirty swimming medals awarded in Mexico City. Americans claimed an astonishing twelve out of sixteen swimming and diving diadems. The United States swept the one and two hundred meter freestyle events and the two hundred meter individual medley.

Deborah Meyer led the American collection of gold medals by setting Olympic records in the two, four, and eight hundred meter freestyle events. Claudia Kolb won both the two and four hundred meter individual medley events. Jan Margo Henne took the one hundred meter freestyle title and the silver medal in the two hundred meter freestyle competition. Breaststroker Sharon Wichman won the two hundred meter event and received the bronze medal in the one hundred meter breaststroke finals. Kaye Hall swam to a world record in the one hundred meter backstroke and placed third in the two hundred meter backstroke. Lillian Watson claimed the two hundred meter backstroke championship.

³Arthur Daley, "With Matchless Pageantry," <u>The New York Times</u>, August 27, 1972, sec. V, p. 2, col. 6.

Additional silver medalists included Sue Pedersen, one hundred meter freestyle and two hundred meter individual medley; Linda Gustavson, four hundred meter freestyle; Pam Kruse, eight hundred meter freestyle; Ellie Daniel, one hundred meter butterfly; and Lynn Vidali, four hundred meter individual medley. The remaining bronze swimming awards went to Linda Gustavson, one hundred meter freestyle; Jane Barkman, two hundred meter freestyle; Jane Swaggerty, one hundred meter backstroke; Susan Shield, one hundred meter butterfly; Ellie Daniel, two hundred meter butterfly, and Jan Henne, two hundred meter individual medley.

The relay teams claimed Olympic records in both the four hundred meter freestyle and the four hundred meter medley relay. Olympic freestyle relay champions included Jane Barkman, Linda Gustavson, Sue Pedersen, and Jan Henne. The four hundred meter medley relay team consisted of Kaye Hall, Catherine Ball, Ellie Daniel, and Sue Pedersen.

Americans won fifty percent of the diving awards. Sue Gossick and Keala O'Sullivan placed one-two in springboard diving while Ann Peterson placed third in the platform event.⁴

Illness plagued two of the swimmers during the Olympics. It was even feared that Deborah Meyer would have to drop out of the swimming competition but she managed to continue. Catherine Ball was forced to drop out of the two hundred meter breaststroke finals because of illness.

⁴Frederick Fliegner, ed., "Swimming and Diving-Women," <u>1968</u> <u>United States Olympic Book</u> (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, <u>1969</u>), pp. 294-96.

^{5&}quot;Miss Meyer Fights Off Illness to Take Olympic 200-Meter Free-Style Final," The New York Times, October 23, 1968, p. 50, col. 1.

⁶Fliegner, "Swimming and Diving-Women," p. 295.

Olympian Deborah Meyer set fifteen freestyle world records between July 9, 1967 and August 17, 1969. The distances ranged from two hundred to fifteen hundred meters. Meyer's swimming accolades include the four and eight hundred meter freestyle championships at the 1967 Pan American Games. She was named 1967 Woman Athlete of the Year by the Tass News Agency⁷ and the following year was awarded the AAU's James E. Sullivan trophy. Deborah Meyer was the fourth woman to receive the Sullivan award since its first presentation in 1930. She tied Sharon Stouder's 1964 gold medal achievement by winning three golds in a single Olympic appearance in Mexico City.

Claudia Kolb held the United States record in the two hundred meter breaststroke in 1964 and tied with Cynthia Goyette in 1965. From 1965 to 1968 Kolb held the United States record in the two hundred meter individual medley and in 1966 and 1967 added the record in the four hundred meter individual medley. Kolb established the first world record in the two hundred meter individual medley in 1966. She lowered the four hundred meter individual medley four times from July 1967 to August 1968.

Neither Jan Henne nor Lillian Watson held national titles in the Olympic events in which they medaled. Henne did not experience great success with the breaststroke and switched to the freestyle. She

⁷Pat Besford, Encyclopaedia of Swimming (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1971), p. 114.

⁸Ollan C. Cassell and Jesse R. Lipscomb, eds., "Sullivan Trophy Winners," Official AAU Track and Field Handbook (Indianapolis: Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, 1971), p. 24.

⁹Besford, pp. 168-69.

was a surprise victor in the 1968 one hundred meter Olympic finals and the first American to win the event since 1932. Lillian Watson claimed the 1965 and 1966 United States one hundred meter freestyle records and the 1967 two hundred meter freestyle record. In 1967 she placed third in the one hundred meter freestyle at the Pan American Games. She too was a surprise winner when she was the first to finish in the two hundred meter backstroke event. 10

Swimming observers noted that many girl swimmers of the 1960s did not continue swimming beyond age sixteen or seventeen. Sherman Chavoor attributed the early retirement of girls from competitive swimming to the lack of swimming opportunities at the college level. He also pointed out that most of the leading girl swimmers were from California because of the abundance of swimming pools in the state. 11

The 1968 women's Olympic track and field team, coached by Conrad A. Ford and Sandor Ferenczy, met stiff opposition in Mexico City. Nine of the women's Olympic track and field records were broken. The United States women won three titles. 12 Wyomia Tyus made Olympic history and added another first to the achievements of American women in Olympic competition by successfully defending her one hundred meter dash title. She also anchored the four hundred meter relay team,

^{10&}lt;sub>Besford</sub>, pp. 87, 166, 178.

 $^{^{11}}$ Richard Rollins, "The Only Year of Their Lives," Sports Illustrated, August 12, 1968, pp. 19-20.

¹²Frederick Fliegner, ed., "Athletics (Track and Field)
Women," 1968 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1969), pp. 183-84.

sprinting to a five yard margin of victory. Barbara Ferrell was one tenth of a second behind Tyus in the one hundred meter dash and received the bronze award. In addition to Tyus and Ferrell, Margaret Bailes and Mildrette Netter completed the four hundred meter relay quartet. Madeline Manning broke the Olympic record and the world record in the eight hundred meter run. She came down the final stretch of the race nearly twenty yards in front of her nearest rival. 13 Manning was the first American to win the eight hundred meter run which was usually dominated by Europeans. 14

Americans failed in attempts to place one, two, or three in the two and four hundred meter run and eighty meter hurdles. The field events, including the high jump, long jump, shot put, discus, and javelin throws, were not strongly contested by Americans in Mexico City. Likewise the pentathlon laurels were claimed by foreign competitors. 15

Sprinters Tommie Smith and John Carlos demonstrated their discontent with white America by a display of defiance while being honored with the first and third place Olympic medals. The United States Olympic Committee expelled Smith and Carlos from the team. 16

¹³Frederick Fliegner, ed., "Results," 1968 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1969), pp. 355-57.

¹⁴Fliegner, "Athletics," p. 283.

¹⁵ Fliegner, "Athletics," p. 283-84.

¹⁶John Kieran and Arthur Daley, The Story of the Olympic Games 776 B.C. to 1972 (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1973), pp. 429-31, 434.

Black power also emerged from the women's track and field team.

Wyomia Tyus, spokeswoman for the four hundred meter relay team,

proclaimed at a news conference, "I would like to say that we dedicate our relay win to John Carlos and Tommie Smith." 17

Before the Mexico City Olympic Games, Wyomia Tyus had set world and American records in the one hundred yard dash and the one hundred meter dash in 1965. She claimed the national fifty yard indoor record a year later. ¹⁸ The 1965 U.S.A.-U.S.S.R. track and field meet was dominated by Wyomia Tyus and Edith McGuire in the sprints. Tyus won the one hundred meter dash and McGuire placed second. The two sprinters reversed finish places in the two hundred meter dash. ¹⁹ The U.S.A.-U.S.S.R. meet was not conducted in 1966 because of Russia's protest against America's involvement in the Vietnam War. ²⁰

For the tenth consecutive Olympiad American women failed to medal in fencing competition. Both individual and team entries were eliminated in early rounds of competition. 21

^{17&}quot;U.S. Women Dedicate Victory to Smith, Carlos," The New York Times, October 21, 1968, p. 60, col. 3.

¹⁸Cassell, pp. 209, 211-12.

¹⁹Tom Mickle, ed., "Glossary," <u>U.S.A.-U.S.S.R. International</u>
<u>Track and Field Meet</u> (Chapel Hill: Creative Printers, 1974),
p. 97.

²⁰ Tom Mickle, ed., "The Little Olympics," U.S.A.-U.S.S.R. International Track and Field Meet (Chapel Hill: Creative Printers, 1974), p. 20.

²¹Frederick Fliegner, ed., "Fencing (Men and Women)," <u>1968</u> <u>United States Olympic Book</u> (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, <u>1969</u>), pp. 288-89.

The 1968 women gymnasts, coached by Muriel Grossfeld, improved on the 1964 Olympic performances. The total team score was not high enough for any of the top three awards, although Linda Metheny advanced to the finals of the individual balance beam competition. 22 Metheny's performance was the best individual ranking by an American since individual gymnastics competition was initiated in 1948.

The equestrienne performers did not medal in individual or team dressage in Mexico City. 23 The women canoeists also failed to reach the top three positions in kayak singles or doubles. 24 American women did not make a 1968 Olympic appearance in yachting. 25

The hopes for improvement in Olympic volleyball diminished as the American women continually met strong opposition throughout the competition. The United States finished last in an eight team entry. 26

²²Frederick Fliegner, ed., "Gymnastics-Women," 1968 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1969), p. 290.

²³Frederick Fliegner, ed., "Equestrian," 1968 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1969), p. 288.

²⁴Frederick Fliegner, ed., "Canoeing and Kayaking (Men and Women)," <u>1968 United States Olympic Book</u> (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1969), p. 286.

²⁵Frederick Fliegner, ed., "Personnel of United States Delegation at Games of the XIX Olympiad-Mexico City-1968," <u>1968 United States</u> Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1969), p. 277.

²⁶Frederick Fliegner, ed., "Volleyball-Women," 1968 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1969), p. 296.

CHAPTER XVII

THE FIRST EQUESTRIAN MEDAL AND THE SECOND ARCHERY APPEARANCE

In May 1969, the United States Olympic Committee invited two women to join its board of directors. Physical educators Dr. Leona Holbrook and Dr. Nell Jackson were the first women to be named to the United States Olympic Committee board. 1

The United States Olympic Committee charged the 1972 Olympians with the responsibility of electing their own flagbearer for the twentieth Olympiad in Munich. A number of male chauvinists unsuccessfully campaigned for a strong male image to lead the team in the opening ceremonies. Olga Connolly, wife of hammer thrower Harold Connolly, was elected by a slim margin. United States Olympic officials regarded Olga Connolly "as a boatrocker and a rebel" and some were concerned about the action she might take while carrying the flag.

Olga Connolly composed a petition requesting President
Richard M. Nixon to halt the Vietnam conflict during the Olympic
Games. She explained that war ceased during the ancient Greek

^{1&}quot;Olympic Board Picks 2 Negroes In Naming At-Large Members,"
The New York Times, May 22, 1969, p. 63, col. 1.

²Pat Putnam, "Olympic Overture: Flags and Flak," <u>Sports</u> Illustrated, September 4, 1972, p. 19.

³Arthur Daley, "With Matchless Pageantry," <u>The New York</u> Times, August 27, 1972, sec. V, p. 2, col. 6.

Olympics. The petition was posted in the Olympic Village and stolen. Mrs. Connolly replaced the petition but her plan to hold the Vietnam conflict in abeyance had no effect. Olga Fikotova Connolly had met her husband at the Melbourne Games. She renounced her Czechoslovakian citizenship and began competing as a discus thrower for the United States at the Rome Olympics.

During the opening ceremonies in Mexico City

Olga marched with head high and purposeful stride at the front of the huge American delegation. As she crossed before the Tribute of Honor, her outstretched hand holding the flagpole seemed to rise even higher. It was almost as if she didn't want anyone to accuse her of dipping the flag.⁵

Olga Connolly had never participated in an Olympic opening ceremony before the Munich Games. She accounted for her absence for what she termed trivial reasons—the necessity of competing in the discus the next day, and ill-fitting shoes which might have caused blisters. Reflecting on her flag-carrying honor Olga Connolly considered her election as a mark of support for her peace mission.

She later wrote for The New York Times:

We started to march. We entered the stadium, and I made a philosophical decision that it was going to be peace and brother-hood that would prevail in the United States. For that, . . . the American flag had to be carried very high.

I carried it as high as I could. At that moment, I caught a glimpse of the Soviet flag bearer who was a very large man . . . and I saw other flag bearers who were large men.

I thought that in order to make the flag of the United States as beautiful as I wanted to see it, we needed not only strong men

⁴Putnam, p. 19.

⁵Daley, sec. V, p. 2, col. 6.

but also strong women. So I gripped the flag in one hand, just like the men. . . 6

The splendor of the opening ceremonies and the excitement of competition were dimmed by an incomprehensible attack on the quarters of the Israeli athletes. Palestinian terrorists broke into Olympic Village and brought murder and massacre into the arena of Olympic sport. Two Israelis were murdered during the predawn attack. Within twenty-four hours nine Israeli hostages and a West German policeman were killed in a shootout at an airport twenty miles from where the attack began. Five terrorists were killed and three were captured. For a time the celebration of the Olympic Games turned into a ceremony of mourning for a senseless attack on innocent people.

Retired Olympian Deborah Meyer assisted Coach Sherman Chavoor during pre-Olympic swimming competition. Chavoor was named 1972 women's Olympic swimming coach. Meyer predicted that the American girls would give Shane Gould, the outstanding Australian swimmer, "a run for her money."

Although the 1972 swimming Olympians kept Shane Gould from winning all events in which she entered, they won only seven of the

⁶Olga Connolly, "Olga Connolly's Story: A Dream About Peace," The New York Times, August 27, 1972, sec. V, p. 1, cols. 1-5.

⁷Rudolf Hagelstange, "Black September 5," 1972 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1972), p. 231.

⁸John Kieran and Arthur Daley, <u>The Story of the Olympic Games</u> 776 B.C. to 1972 (Philadelphia: J. B. <u>Lippincott</u>, 1973), p. 431.

⁹Jerry Kirshenbaum, "Mark of Excellence," <u>Sports Illustrated</u>, August 15, 1972, p. 20.

sixteen aquatic events as compared to twelve in Mexico City. Melissa Belote led the Americans by acquiring two gold medals in the one and two hundred meter backstroke and a gold medal for swimming a leg of the four hundred meter medley relay team. Other gold medalists included Sandra Neilson, one hundred meter freestyle; Kenna Rothhammer, eight hundred meter freestyle; and Karen Moe, who led the only American sweep, which occurred in the two hundred meter butterfly. Micki King won the springboard diving title and was the only American woman diving medalist in Munich.

Silver medals went to Shirley Babashoff, one hundred meter freestyle and two hundred meter freestyle; Susie Atwood, two hundred meter backstroke; and Lynn Colella, two hundred meter butterfly.

Bronze awards went to Kenna Rothhammer, two hundred meter freestyle; Susie Atwood, one hundred meter backstroke; Ellie Daniel, two hundred meter butterfly, and Lynn Vidali, two hundred meter individual medley.

For the fourth consecutive Olympiad American girls won both the four hundred meter freestyle relay and the four hundred meter medley relay. The world record four hundred meter freestyle relay team consisted of Sandra Neilson, Jenny Kemp, Jane Barkman, and Shirley Babashoff. Swimming to lower another world record were the members of the four hundred meter medley relay team which included Melissa Belote, Cathy Carr, Deena Deardruff, and Sandra Neilson. 10

¹⁰C. Robert Paul, Jr., "Swimming-Women," <u>U.S.O.C. Newsletter</u>, October, 1972, p. 7.

In 1971 Melissa Belote had placed fourth in the Amateur Athletic Union backstroke competition. She was well prepared for the Olympic trials and defeated Susie Atwood in both backstroke events. She went on to Munich, setting an Olympic record in the one hundred meter backstroke event and a world record at the two hundred meter distance. Melissa Belote tied Sharon Stouder's and Debbie Meyer's single Olympic collection of gold by winning three events in Munich.

For the first time

... the results of the Olympic trials produced the same three women for both diving events. Even though our trio of girls had proved themselves in competition with their peers, the mental and physical strain was almost too much to expect higher performance in the Olympic Games. 12

Captain Micki King of the United States Air Force, a leading contender for a gold medal in Mexico City, lost her chance when she hit the diving board and broke her left forearm. She had only two dives to execute when the accident occurred. King was second in the 1972 Olympic trials and led the springboard competition from the start in Munich. ¹³ In August 1972 Micki King was named Southern California Athlete of the Month by the United States Helms Athletic Foundation. ¹⁴

¹¹C. Robert Paul, Jr., "U.S.A. Men Swimmers Outscore All Other Nations Combined--Mark Spitz, Shane Gould and Melissa Belote Prove Standouts," U.S.O.C. Newsletter, October, 1972, p. 6.

¹²Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "Diving," 1972 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1972), p. 337.

¹³Neil Amdur, "Miss King Gets Diving Medal at Olympics," The New York Times, August 29, 1972, p. 25, col. 5.

^{14&}quot;Personalities: Littler Sets Up Golf Comeback," The New York Times, September 27, 1972, p. 57, col. 1.

Head track and field coach of the 1972 distaff Olympians was Dr. Nell Jackson. They failed to win a single gold medal in the women's track and field events, the first time this had happened since they were admitted to Olympic track and field in 1928.

The bronze award in the javelin, however, went to Kathy Schmidt, 16 who was only the second American to medal in the javelin throw since Mildred Didrickson's gold medal throw in 1932. Kathy Hammond ran to a third place finish in the four hundred meter race and anchored the silver medal sixteen hundred meter relay team. Hammond was joined by Mable Furgerson, Madeline Manning, and Cheryl Toussaint. The sixteen hundred meter relay and the fifteen hundred meter run were new Olympic events. 17

C. Robert Paul, Jr., Assistant Communications Director at Olympic House, U.S.O.C. headquarters, interpreted the American women's performances at Munich:

No excuses can be made for the lack of success of the USA in track and field. A comparison of performances in the Olympic Trials indicates, for the most part, the athletes performed up to their potential but they are not in the same class with the Europeans who captured most of the medals. 18

¹⁵Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "Athletics-Women," 1972 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1972), p. 332.

¹⁶C. Robert Paul, Jr., "East Germany Dominates Women's Track Meet; U.S.A. Wins 1 Silver and 2 Bronze Medals," U.S.O.C. Newsletter, October, 1972, p. 12.

¹⁷Lentz, "Athletics-Women," p. 331.

¹⁸paul, "East Germany," p. 8.

Medals again eluded the women fencers¹⁹ and canoeists²⁰ in Olympic competition. Woman gymnasts from the United States missed third place in team competition by less than three points. The American gymnasts performed well in individual and all around competition but the Russians and East Germans dominated most of the top three positions.²¹ American women were not represented in yachting at the Munich Games.²²

Kathryn Kusner, acquiring the most points in Grand Prix team jumping, led the United States to a second place finish. America's entry did not finish among the top three places in individual jumping, team dressage, or individual dressage. Kathryn Kusner was the first American woman to medal in Olympic equestrian competition.

Women briefly entered Olympic archery in the St. Louis Olympics of 1904. The event was readmitted to the 1972 Olympic program. Doreen Wilbur of the United States won the gold medal.²⁴

¹⁹Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "Fencing," 1972 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1972), p. 338.

²⁰Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "Canoeing and Kayaking," 1972 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1972), pp. 336-36.

²¹C. Robert Paul, Jr., ed., "U.S.S.R. Sets Pace for Women, Japan Still Tops Among Men," <u>U.S.O.C. Newsletter</u>, October, 1972, p. 14.

²²Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "United States Delegation at Games of XX Olympiad," 1972 United States Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1972), p. 325.

²³Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "Equestrian," 1972 United States
Olympic Book (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1972), p. 338.

²⁴C. Robert Paul, Jr., ed., "Williams and Wilbur Capture Archery Gold As U.S.A. Paces Field," <u>U.S.O.C. Newsletter</u>, October, 1972, p. 16.

CHAPTER XVIII

A COMPARISON: 1900-1916, 1920-1944, 1948-1972

The comparative framework for three periods of Olympic competition includes media coverage, reports issued by United States
Olympic officials, athletic club affiliation, administration, general performances, and the over-all program of events.

The first period of Olympic competition in which American women were involved encompasses only two Olympic celebrations—the Games of 1900 and 1904. The involvement of American women in early Olympic competition is characterized by scant newspaper and magazine coverage. A limited program of events was pursued by early women Olympians. The chauvinistic James E. Sullivan served as secretary of the American Olympic Committee from 1900 until his death in 1914 and openly opposed the inclusion of women in sport.

Olympic officials are uncertain as to how the first women participants became involved in Olympic golf. Nonetheless the American golfers of 1900 journeyed to Paris. The three golfers were all affiliated with athletic clubs in the United States. American records of the 1900 competition involving women's golf do not exist and there may have been other golfers. The 1904 Olympic archery competition

¹Arthur G. Lentz, ed., "United States Olympic Officers Through the Years," U.S.O.C. Newsletter, October, 1973, p. 8.

 $^{^2}$ Letter from Janet Seagle, Librarian and Museum Curator, Golf House, December 11, 1973.

was considered an unofficial event and was made up of archers from only the United States. American Olympic records indicate that four of the seven competitors were affiliated with the Cincinnati Athletic Club. Apparently the primary route to Olympic competition was through membership in athletic clubs.

As in 1900 no women were listed in administrative capacities for the 1904 Olympic competition. For the purpose of this study administrative personnel refers to chaperones, managers, coaches, trainers, and committee members.

Because of the Amateur Athletic Union's decision to assume control of women's swimming in 1914, a women's aquatic delegation might have gone to the 1916 Olympic Games if war had not interfered with the celebration. During ancient Olympic celebrations the Games brought forth a truce among warring Greek city-states. Unfortunately in modern times war had caused cancellation of the Olympics.

The performances of early American women Olympians were commendable in that the first American sweep occurred in the 1900 golf competition; however, Olympic officials do not know how many competitors entered the 1900 competition or the level of competition. The archery competition of 1904 was strictly national and performers cannot be compared to foreign opposition.

The second period of American women's involvement in Olympic competition began in 1920 and continued uninterrupted until war again

³Asa S. Bushnell, ed., "All-Time U.S. Olympic Team Personnel," United States 1956 Olympic Book (New York: United States Olympic Association, Inc., 1957), p. 405.

halted the celebration of the 1940 Games. The second period of Olympic competition began with an appearance in swimming and diving. The chart on page 182 indicates the sports that American women have entered and the consistency of their appearances.

Newspapers and popular magazines devoted increased coverage to women Olympians during the second period of competition. A few books included brief mention of the performances of women in the Olympics.

The inclusion of women's performances and preparations in official Olympic reports were included on a regular basis during the 1920-1944 period. The first administrative involvement by a woman was reported in 1920. Charlotte Epstein served as manager of the 1920 swimming and diving team.⁴ In 1928, Doris O'Mara claimed to be the first woman to assume a managerial position when she was appointed assistant manager of the women's swimming team.⁵ Charlotte Epstein, in 1931, was appointed to the Olympic swimming committee and was probably the first woman to serve on a committee.⁶ The first woman coach was not named until 1936 when Dee Boeckman assumed the title of coach-chaperone of the track and field team.⁷

Although the first American sweep took place in ladies singles golf in 1900, there is no American record of medals having been

⁴Bushnell, "All-Time Personnel," p. 414.

Doris O'Mara, "Report of Assistant Manager, Swimming Team,"

Report of the American Olympic Committee (New York: American Olympic Committee, 1928), p. 292.

⁶Frank W. Blankley, "Report of Manager of the American Olympic Swimming Team," The Games of the Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932 (Los Angeles: Wolfer Printing Co., Inc., 1932), pp. 192-94.

⁷Bushnell, "All-Time Personnel," p. 429.

awarded to the golfers. The official accumulation of medals began at the 1920 Games when American women swept two swimming events and one diving event. During the five Olympiads between 1920 and 1936 Americans swept four swimming events and six diving events. Successful Olympic swimming performances can be attributed to the fact that women's swimming and diving received the benefits of Amateur Athletic Union control and organization during the formative years of the sport. The chart on page 182 indicates medals acquired in Olympic competition.

In general, the sports in which Americans have won few or no medals have not been popular throughout the country and were usually not included in physical education programs. Olympic track and field performers, though not as successful as swimmers, managed to accumulate fifteen medals between their initial appearance in 1928 and the Games of 1936. Again the Amateur Athletic Union can be credited with providing opportunities for women to participate in track and field when no one was willing to assume the responsibility of organizing the sport for women in the United States.

United States Olympic reports indicate that virtually all women entering Olympic competition between 1920 and 1936 were affiliated with athletic clubs. Absence of educational institutions from Olympic preparation reflects the conservative competitive philosophy of women physical educators during this era.

The third period of American women's Olympic competition,
1948-1972, is characterized by increased media coverage. In addition
to newspaper, magazine, and book coverage, television came into vogue.
Olympic officials devoted more attention to women's performances and

preparations in quadrennial reports issued since the 1920-1936 period.

More women served on committees and as chairpersons during this latter period.

Women continued to enter Olympic competition as affiliates with athletic clubs. An exception to this Olympic preparation began in 1950 when Tennessee State University's assistant track coach, Edward Temple, became involved in training women track and field athletes.

As head coach in 1953, Temple started a summer clinic for high school girls possessing potential in track and field. The participants were not obligated to attend Tennessee State but many did and each summer's graduates of the clinics have strengthened Tennessee State's track and field teams. From 1953 until the present, Edward Temple's "Tigerbelles" of Tennessee State have dominated National Amateur Athletic Union competition. Between 1956 and 1972 the "Tigerbelles" accounted for over half of the nineteen track and field medals won in Olympic competition.

The advent of Amateur Athletic Union age-group swimming competition in 1951 and its national implementation in 1952 significantly improved women's swimming in the United States. By 1964 every swimmer on the women's Olympic team competed in age-group programs. 10

⁸Vivian Bernice Adkins, "The Development of Negro Female Olympic Talent" (Doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, 1967), pp. 33-34, 38.

⁹Adkins, pp. 34-37, see also Frederick Fleigner, ed., "Athletics (Track and Field) Women," <u>1968 United States Olympic Book</u> (Stuttgart: International Olympic Editions, 1969), pp. 283-84.

¹⁰Buck Dawson, ed., "Beth Kaufman-Outstanding Contributor," <u>International Swimming Hall of Fame Fifth Anniversary Yearbook 1965-1970</u>
(Fort Lauderdale: International Swimming Hall of Fame, 1971), p. 59.

Prior to 1948 only one woman was listed as an Olympic coach.

Between 1948 and 1972 eleven women were listed as Olympic coaches.

During this period of Olympic competition women have assumed coaching roles in three sports, namely track and field, gymnastics, and canoeing. Absence of women in Olympic coaching until recently is due largely to the lack of opportunities to receive instruction in coaching and competitive opportunities in institutions of higher education. Because women were not prepared to coach, Olympic officials have traditionally asked men to assume coaching roles.

A change in the competitive atmosphere of women's intercollegiate sport is occurring. In the mid-1960s, the NAPECW and the
ARFCW voted to dissolve the Joint Committee established to study
extramural competition for college women. The DGWS, recognizing a
need for an organization to direct women's intercollegiate athletic
programs, established the Commission for Intercollegiate Athletics for
Women (CIAW) which began functioning in 1967. In 1969 the CIAW sponsored
national championships in gymnastics and track and field. Since then
other national championships have emerged and others are in the offing.

The CIAW became the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women
(AIAW) and the first officers assumed responsibilities in July 1972.

Programs affiliated with the AIAW have an opportunity to produce more
skilled sportswomen and women who can contribute to the coaching of
highly skilled women athletes.

¹¹Lucille Magnusson, "The Development of Programs," Women's Athletics, ed. Barbara J. Hoepner (Oakland: D.G.W.S. Publications, 1974), pp. 56-57.

Throughout the fourteen Olympiads in which American women have appeared in Olympic competition, many gold, silver, and bronze medals have been won. Too often success is measured in terms of medals won. The increasing number of American women who are qualifying for Olympic competition is a measure of excellence. An analysis of competition and methods of preparation might serve better as a means of explaining performances.

The Olympic creed may help to measure success in terms other than a materialistic accounting of medals:

The most important thing in the Olympic Games is not to win but to take part, just as the most important thing in life is not the triumph but the struggle. The essential thing is not to have conquered but to have fought well.--Baron Pierre de Coubertin. 12

^{12&}quot;The International Governing Body," <u>The Olympic Games</u> (New York: United States Olympic Committee, 1970), p. 3.

Recommendations

As a consequence of having conducted the foregoing investigation the researcher offers the following recommendations for further research:

- A study of the emergence of American women in the winter Olympic Games including factors that brought about the involvement of Americans in specific Olympic events.
- 2. An analysis of American society and the relationship to Olympic participation during three periods of Olympic competition: 1900-1916, 1920-1944, and 1948-1972.
- 3. An analysis of the women's Olympic program and factors that altered events within sports.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

WOMEN ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL DURING OLYMPIC COMPETITION

	1920	1924	1928	1932	1936	1948	1952	1956	1960	1964	1968	1972
Canoeing											Со	Со
Fencing				С		С						
Gymnastics					M-T*	С	M-Co,C	M-C	M-Co	M	Со	Co,M
Swimming	М	2C	2C	M,C	3C	M,C	М	M-C	М	М	М	М
Track & Field			С	С	Co-C,C	Co,C	M-Co	Co,M-C	М	М	М	Со
Volleyball										М	М	

C - Chaperone

Co - Coach

M - Manager

T - Trainer

* I person assumed dual responsibility

Total number of coaches - 11

Sports in which women have assumed Olympic coaching responsibilities: canoeing, gymnastics, and track and field

APPENDIX B SUMMARY OF AMERICAN WOMEN'S OLYMPIC PARTICIPATION

DADIS 1000	ST 10015 1001	ACTUEDD 1020	D1015 1024	AMCTEDINAM 1070	106 ANCEL SE 1012	DEDI IN 1016
PARIS 1900	ST. LOUIS 1904	ANTWERP 1920	PARIS 1924	AMSTERDAM 1928	LOS ANGELES 1932	BERLIN 1936
Golf (3)	Archesy (7)	Swimming and Diving (15) Silver 2 1 Bronze 2 1 Skeeps: 100 Meter Freestyle 300 Meter Freestyle Springboard Diving	Swinming and Diving (24) Tennis (6) Fencing (2) Solution of the service of the s	Swimming and Diving (18) Fencing (2) Track and Field (19) *S*D Gold 3 2 Silver 1 2 Bronze 1 1 *Sweeps: Fancy Diving *T*F Gold 1 Silver 1 1 Bronze 1	Swimming and Diving (20) Fencing (3) Track and Field (17) 'S *D Gold 4 2 Silver 1 2 Bronze 1 3 'Sweeps: Springboard Diving High Diving 'T *F Gold 2 3 Silver 1 2 Bronze 1	Swimming and Diving (17) Fencing (3) Frack and Field (16) Feam Gym- nastics (8) Yachting (4) *S*D Gold 2 Silver 2 Bronze 3 1 *Swceps: Springboard Diving *T*P Gold 2 Silver Bronze
		**Cold 4 Silver 3 Bronze 3	**Gold 9 Silver 6 Bronze 4	**Gold 6 Silver 5 Bronze 3	**Gold 11 Silver 6 Bronze 5	* Gold 4 Silver 2 Bronze 4
LONDON 1948	HELSTNKI 1952	MELBOURNE 1956	ROME 1960	TOKYO 1964	MEXICO CITY 1968	MUNICH 1972
Swimming and Diving (17) Fencing (3) Track and Field (12) Team Gym- nastics (8) Show Show Show Show Show Show Show Show	Swimming and Diving (19) Fencing (3) Track and Field (10) Ind. and feam Gymnastics (8) Yachting (2) Equestrian (1) S*D Gold 2 Silver 1 Bronze 2 2 *Sweeps: High Diving T*F Gold 1 Silver Bronze	Swimming and Diving (18) Feneing (3) Track and Field (19) Ind. and Team Gymnastics (7) Equestrian (1) "S *D Gold 1 2 Silver 3 2 Bronze 2 1 *Sweeps: 100 Meter Butterfly Platform Diving "T *F Gold 1 Silver 1 Bronze 1	Swimming and Diving (17) Ind. and Team Fencing (5) Track and Field (19) Ind. and Team Gymnastics (7) Equestrian (2) Canoeing (3) *S *D* Gold 5 Silver 1 2 Bronze *Sweeps: 0 *T *F Gold 3 Silver Bronze 1	Swimming and Diving (28) Ind. and Team Fencing (5) Track and Field (20) Ind. and Team Gymnastics (7) Equestrian (6) Canoeing (3) Volleyball (12) *S*D Gold 5 1 Silver 2 1 Bronze 3 1 *Sweeps: 400 Meter Individual Medley *T*F Gold 2 Silver 2 Bronze Canoeing Silver Dubles	Swimming and Diving (35) Ind. and Team Fencing (5) Track and Field (26) Ind. and Team Gymnastics (6) Equestrian (3) Canoning (4) Volleyball (12) *S*D Gold 11 1 Silver 7 1 Bronte 8 1 *Sweeps: 100 Meter Freestyle 200 Meter Individual Medley *T*F Gold 3 Silver 3	Svimming and Diving (30) Ind. and Team Fencing (5) Track and Field (14) Ind. and Team Gynnastics (7) Equestrian (3) Canceing (4) Archery (3)
**Gold 5	**Gold 3	**Gold 4	**Gold 8	Silver Doubles Bronze Singles	Silver 1 Bronze	Archery Gold 1 **Gold 9
Silver 4 Bronze 5	Silver 1 Bronze 4	Silver 6 Bronze 4	Silver 3 Bronze 1	Silver 6 Bronze 5	Silver 9 Bronze 9	Silver 8 Bronze 6

^{*}S - Swimming
*D - Diving
*T - Track
*F - Field
*Sweeps - Placing first, second, and third in an event
**Total medals won during each Olympiad
() - Total number of names listed on team roster including alternates and reserves