THE BEGINNING OF THE IAAF

A STUDY OF ITS BACKGROUND AND FOUNDATION

By Dr. Hans Bolling, (adviser: Prof. em. Jan Lindroth), Stockholm/Sweden 2007
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**Abbreviations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AAA</td>
<td>Amateur Athletic Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FSFI</td>
<td>Fedération Sportive Féminine Internationale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IAAF</td>
<td>International Amateur Athletic Federation, from 2001: International Association of Athletics Federations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOC</td>
<td>International Olympic Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAA</td>
<td>Swedish Athletic Association, Svenska idrottsförbundet, from 1949 Svenska Friidrottsförbundet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSC</td>
<td>Swedish Sports Confederation (Svenska gymnastik- och idrottsföreningarnas riksförbund - from 1947 Sveriges riksidrottsförbund)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RA</td>
<td>Riksarkivet (the National Archives)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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1. Introduction

Athletics is not only the jewel in the Olympic crown but also one of the most widely practiced sports with respect to time and place. It is easy to distinguish connections between the stadium of ancient Olympia and the stadium constructed for the World Championships in Osaka (2007). At a first glance many ingredients in today’s athletics seem to have a profound relationship to the athletics of ancient Greece. The first Olympic winner was Coroebus of Elis, a short distance runner (192.27 meters) in 776 BC. In the still older Iliad, a poetical work attributed to the disputed concept of Homer, competitions in running and throwing (discus as well as javelin) were described dramatically and somewhat in detail. These observations are easy to explain by referring to the natural movement pattern of human beings.

Modern athletics originated however in England around the middle of the 19th century. Although competitions for both professionals and amateurs in running, throwing and jumping were practised earlier, they were not introduced and systematised in British schools (especially the so-called public schools) until this time. Gradually special private clubs for athletics were created outside the schools.¹

For almost one hundred years global athletics has been supervised and administered by the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF), since 2001 the International Association of Athletics Federations.

The purpose of this study is to shed light on the process of creating this important organisation, which was formally founded in August 1913. Why was it established? Who were the supporters? Did opponents appear? Which results would be achieved by the new organisation?

The study considers the chronological aspect of the creation process but some thematic lines are also followed. Of course, the Congresses in Stockholm (1912), Berlin (1913) and Lyon (1914) are considered. (The Congress in Stockholm is normally referred to as an IAAF Congress, although the organisation had not been formally founded.) Aside from this, a few problem areas are dealt with separately. By way of introduction, some background perspectives will be presented. A comprehensive source material has been used, not least the archives of the IAAF itself.

The creation of the IAAF was an affair that only encompassed athletics for men. Before World War I, international athletics was a totally masculine phenomenon. A separate organisation for women, Fédération Sportive Féminine Internationale (FSFI), was founded in 1921. The IAAF however did not include female athletics until 1936. Nevertheless, from 1928 five athletics events, in spite of opposition from influential circles, had conquered their place on the Olympic program.2

2. Modern sports

During the decades around the year 1800, fundamental changes occurred in western society giving birth to modern man and society. On the intellectual level the Enlightenment provoked new lines of thinking, characterised by more rationalism at the cost of traditional beliefs. The industrial revolution meant not only more efficient physical communications but, above all, brought about a transformation from agriculture and countryside to industry and densely populated areas. These societal changes meant, in turn, new demands and expectations on citizens: for instance, specialisation and clear distinction between working time and leisure time. Competition grew between factories and in general where possible was measured in quantitative terms), whereas bourgeois virtues were praised more than ever before. Politically this period was marked by the French revolution; on the military level the Napoleonic wars emphasised the importance of physical strength and mental discipline.

This transitional period also affected sports and physical education. Two main streams distinguished themselves: modern competitive sports and rational gymnastics. In the first case the roots undoubtedly are to be found in England since the Middle Ages; in the second Germany (Turn gymnastics, Turnen) and Scandinavia (Ling gymnastics etc.) took the lead.3

In England traditional and more recently “invented” branches of sport were subjected to detailed rules, clear-cut borderlines being established between active participants and spectators. Local sports clubs were founded and increased in number during the latter half of the 19th century. National organisations, trying to establish common rules and procedures for all clubs and participants, were created slowly and not without great problems.

3 Lindroth, Jan, Idrottens våg till folkrörelse. Studier i svensk idrottsrörelse till 1915 (Uppsala, 1974), chapter 2.
Moreover, during the very last decade of the 19th century an Olympic movement with ideology, organisation and events of its own supplemented the new brave world of sport that was then making its way through conservative surroundings. Here, as is generally well known, the French baron Pierre de Coubertin was the great pioneer; the International Olympic Committee was started in 1894, the first games were held in 1896.4

Table 1 gives the years in which the most important early clubs and associations within 17 different branches of sport in Great Britain (the names are somewhat simplified) were founded. The compilation demonstrates that the bureaucratisation within sports in the pioneering region must be described as a lengthy process.

Table 1. Early sports organisations in Great Britain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Foundation year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Horseracing</td>
<td>Jockey Club</td>
<td>Circa 1750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf</td>
<td>Royal and Ancient Golf Club</td>
<td>1754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cricket</td>
<td>Marylebone Cricket Club</td>
<td>1788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountaineering</td>
<td>Alpine Club</td>
<td>1857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>Football Association</td>
<td>1863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>Amateur Athletic Club</td>
<td>1866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Amateur Athletic Association</td>
<td>1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>Amateur Metropolitan Swimming Association</td>
<td>1869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rugby</td>
<td>Rugby Football Union</td>
<td>1871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sailing</td>
<td>Yacht Racing Association</td>
<td>1875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>Bicyclist’s Union</td>
<td>1878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skating</td>
<td>National Skating Association</td>
<td>1879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rowing</td>
<td>Metropolitan Rowing Association</td>
<td>1879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing</td>
<td>Amateur Boxing Association</td>
<td>1884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field hockey</td>
<td>Hockey Association</td>
<td>1886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>Lawn Tennis Association</td>
<td>1888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Badminton</td>
<td>Badminton Association</td>
<td>1895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fencing</td>
<td>Amateur Fencing Association</td>
<td>1898</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


What then is typical of modern competitive sports compared to its predecessors? According to the American scholar Allen Guttmann the most characteristic elements can be summarised in seven criteria, which have met widespread acceptance:

1. Secularisation: religious considerations ceased to constitute a driving force behind sports activities.
2. Equality: nobody is a winner automatically due to social hierarchy, etc; all participants are competing on the same conditions.
3. Specialisation: a gradually growing number of sports (branches) attract participants which focus on one of them in order to optimise their results.
4. Rationalisation: rules and regulations governing the performances, including standardisation, science and research work.
5. Bureaucratisation: the contributions made by an organisational framework, leaders, trainers/coaches and others.
6. Quantification measuring results.
7. Records a logical consequence of the above criteria.\(^5\)

It is that athletics to the highest degree possible complies with these criteria, which are valid for competitive sports in general. In particular, athletics fulfils the two last ones and more so than most other branches of sport.

3. National and international sports organisations

During the end of the 19\(^{th}\) and the beginning of the 20\(^{th}\) century the Anglo-Saxon way of practising and organizing sports gradually conquered the westernised world. Organisations were created to lead the different branches of sport in various countries. Table 2 demonstrates the years in which national sports organisations for eight distinct sports were established in five countries.

Table 2. Foundation years for national sports associations in Canada, Sweden, Germany, the USA, and England

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Canada</th>
<th>Sweden</th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>USA</th>
<th>England</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>1880</td>
<td>1904</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>1894</td>
<td>1904</td>
<td>1887</td>
<td>1878</td>
<td>1869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>1880</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td>1884</td>
<td>1880</td>
<td>1878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rowing</td>
<td>1880</td>
<td>1904</td>
<td>1883</td>
<td>1872</td>
<td>1879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skating</td>
<td>1878</td>
<td>1904</td>
<td>1883</td>
<td>1872</td>
<td>1879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>1884</td>
<td>1895</td>
<td>1898</td>
<td>1888</td>
<td>1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>1894</td>
<td>1906</td>
<td>1902</td>
<td>1881</td>
<td>1886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skiing</td>
<td>1921</td>
<td>1908</td>
<td>1904</td>
<td>1904</td>
<td>1903</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It is obvious that the USA was number one in adopting “the British illness”, as gymnastic leaders tended to call modern competitive sports. Canada also was fairly rapid in accepting the new forms of organised physical exercises, whereas Sweden and Germany, where rational gymnastics had a stronghold, experienced a slower start. The very creation of national associations increased the interest and possibilities for competition between different countries. Inevitably, this gave way to competitive exchange between countries (teams and individuals) on an international level. The international exchanges, in turn, lead to the creation of international sports federations. Table 3 presents an overview of the foundation years for the most important federations.

Table 3. Foundation years for 28 international sports federations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
<td>1881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shooting</td>
<td>1887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rowing</td>
<td>1892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skating</td>
<td>1892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>1900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>1904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sailing</td>
<td>1907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>1908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ice hockey</td>
<td>1908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrestling</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What conclusions can be drawn from these chronological facts? One has to do with the connection to the public sector (civilian and military authorities); sports having such connections tended to be organised earlier than others. Secondly, we can distinguish sports built on specific materials. Last but not least, sports that were easier to perform were organised on the international level. It is obvious, then, that development has passed the three relevant steps: from local through national to international. Not until this development was fulfilled, could international exchanges take off on a larger scale.

4. The need for an international athletic association

Leading up to the Olympic Games in London 1908, Swedish sports leaders made a proposal to create an international organisation for athletics. The English hosts however, regarded themselves as exclusively committed to carrying out the Olympic event which left no time for endeavours outside their main concern. At the same time, this event clearly proved the need for common international rules. In fact a lively and easy-going athletic exchange between
various countries and continuity within this sphere perforce required a set of rules recognised by all the countries involved. The athletic competitions in London were characterised by bitter and widely observed controversies between British and American athletes and their leaders/supporters. In the history of sports this has been known as “The Battle at Shepherd’s Bush”. The American troupe represented an anti-English attitude, frequently protesting -- not often successfully. 

At the Olympic Games in Stockholm 1912 the absence of complete, generally accepted rules for athletics became very problematic for the organizing subcommittee. The official report from these games stated that this fact created “a very great disadvantage” to the hosts. Although the organisers had tried to produce a program which considered all requirements from the various participating nations, it proved impossible to satisfy all -- a statement that seems quite natural. Thus, the program had been exposed to criticism and insinuations that “Swedish interests had been unduly favored”. When studying the factual program it seems reasonable to distinguish two ingredients which could justify such an allegation: the specific Scandinavian singularity to include both right and left hand when throwing the javelin, discus and putting the shot, and the pentathlon/decathlon. In both cases the specific form of Gymnastics created in Sweden by Per Henrik Ling in the beginning of the 19th century – the so called Ling or Swedish gymnastics -- played an ideological role by urging that the human body should be exercised harmoniously and all-round.

A closer look at the results proved, according to the organisers, that these athletic competitions had not favored Swedish interests. However, in order to “avoid unnecessary discussions” it was evidently desirable to construct for the future a standardised program for the Olympic Games. Such a program could achieve “complete equality allowing all nations to prepare for those branches of athletics that are integral parts of the games”.

The program (branches of sport) was one thing; the rules for the various events another. As to the competitive rules, uniformity became a goal for the future. At earlier Olympic Games, the rules of the host country had been followed. The subcommittee for athletics in Stockholm did not sympathise with that procedure, substituting it with an amalgamation of rules based on ingredients from some ten countries. In this way the rules in 1912, according to the official re-

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7 The organising committee of the Olympic Games in Stockholm 1912. The Olympic Games in Stockholm 1912’s archives, A1:1–2, RA. The subcommittee for athletics. The Olympic Games in Stockholm 1912’s archives, Ö II a:2, RA.


port, became “a selection of the very best included in the various countries’ competition rules”. The organisers were completely convinced that with these rules as the base, it was definitely possible to formulate “entirely satisfactory standard rules for the Olympic Games”.10

In the subcommittee for athletics some of Sweden’s most influential and well-informed leaders took part. The Chairman was no less an important person than old-timer Viktor Balck, by far the most outstanding Swedish (and Scandinavian) pioneer within the growing sports movement, and a member of the IOC from the beginning in 1894, etc.11 He was surrounded by a group of younger colleagues with different personal specialities: Gustaf G:son Uggla (vice-chairman), Leopold Englund (first secretary), Kristian Hellström (second secretary), Nore Thisell, Bruno Söderström, Edvin Sandborg, Elis Juhlin, Sune Smedmark, Otto Ahnström, Oscar Löwenadler, S. Carlson, Per Henrik Hedenblad and Wilhelm Friberg.12 Some of them would play leading roles in the foundation of the IAAF. Their experiences and thoughts constituted a decisive driving force.

5. State of research

It has been demonstrated that English sports circles were not very much involved when international associations were being established. On the contrary, the English tended to be satisfied with their own national organisations, arguing that they could also be responsible for the leadership that the various sports needed in order to function well on an international level. Instead, initiatives for purely international organisations came from other nations, not least from France. In previous research, this fact has been clearly pointed out. “While the French lagged behind the British in the invention and diffusion of modern sports, they were unquestionably the leaders when it came to the creation of international sports organisations.”13

In spite of the fact that organisations have always been one of the favorite study objects of sport historians, the foundation of the IAAF forms a vacuum on the researchers’ map. Thus, the IAAF has been placed in the shadow of national organisations and other sports such as baseball, cricket and king football.14 The foundation of the IAAF has, however, been described in jubilee books published by the IAAF itself. As is usually the case in that type of writings, the scholarly ambitions were limited.15

12 Svensk Idrott 1910 (Stockholm, 1911), p. 95.
Relevant source materials are nevertheless available offering excellent opportunities for in-depth research. Most important are the three comprehensive archive volumes forming part of the IAAF archives now kept outside Monaco. They contain material from the period between 1910 and 1915. In 2000 parts of this material was transferred from the archives of the Swedish Athletic Association (SAA), kept in the National Archives (Riksarkivet (RA), Stockholm), to Monaco. The Swedish press has offered complementary information, whereas the archives of the SAA have not retained much original information that would be of use to this study.

6. Preludes

The fact that Sweden/Stockholm, at the Olympic Congress in 1909, was elected host of the 1912 Olympic Games stimulated the SAA to begin working for the creation of an international athletic federation. In January 1910, the SAA-board applied for funding to arrange a Congress in 1912, where the question would be discussed. The application was directed to the organising committee of the 1912 Olympic Games. In order not to repeat the failure experienced in the preceding Games, the applicants underlined that such a Congress should be held in direct connection with the Olympic Games of 1912. One argument was that the foreign representatives taking part in such a Congress “must be our guests”. The most important reason for an international federation was, according to the SAA, that athletics formed the jewel in the Olympic crown. Once again, the disputes between English and American representatives in 1908 played a part [as a repellent example].

Unfortunately, the application did not meet with approval. The reason has to do with the intricate bureaucracy that already surrounded Swedish sports during this time. Obviously, the application did not fit into the ambitions and obligations of the Olympic organisers. Instead, the Swedish Sports Confederation (SSC), the mighty top organisation for all clubs and associations, was considered the correct authority to deal with such a matter.


16 Committee minutes, 16 January 1910, § 41. SAA’s archives, A2:2, RA.

In a letter to the SSC dated 9 December, the SAA asked for a grant in order to arrange a meeting in Sweden or cover the costs for three Swedish representatives travelling to London or some other meeting place.\textsuperscript{18} Shortly before its annual meeting in 1910, the SAA had decided to arrange a Congress in the summer of 1911. Provided with a general consensus, the intention was to take the next step by discussing specific rules in considerable detail and thereafter formally found an international organisation after the Olympic Games in Stockholm.\textsuperscript{19}

In April 1911, 13 countries had agreed to the general idea.\textsuperscript{20} Undoubtedly, this appeared to be a positive result. It led the SAA to the conclusion that a constituent Congress could be held in connection with the Olympic Games in 1912 without first holding a preliminary meeting in 1911: \textit{We have also come to the resolution that this first Congress shall restrict its labours to the constituting of the Federation and to any allied questions, and that, later in the course of 1912, a new meeting shall be held for the purpose of settling the amateur question, rules and regulations for competitions.}\textsuperscript{21}

In May 1911, the SAA sent out invitations to a Congress to be held in Stockholm on 16 July 1912, just after the athletic competitions were completed. According to the invitation, the international organisation would be responsible for three main tasks:

- To establish generally accepted rules for international exchange.
- To register all records (international, national and Olympic) and administer these at a head office.
- To define the amateur concept appropriate for international competitions.

Furthermore, it was emphasised that the intended organisation, already called International Amateur Athletic Federation, in no way considered entering the territory of the IOC.\textsuperscript{22} The annual report of the SAA affirmed, with a not very well concealed satisfaction, that the Swedish initiative “had been received with greatest sympathy by all nations”\textsuperscript{23} (probably a slight overstatement).

\textsuperscript{18} Letter from the SAA to the SSC, 9 December 1910. General Administration 1913–1914, General Administration 1913–1914.
\textsuperscript{19} \textit{Svensk Idrott 1911} (Stockholm, 1912), p. 77.
\textsuperscript{20} Committee minutes, 22 April 1911, § 44. SAA’s archives, A2:2, RA.
\textsuperscript{21} Letter from SAA to the national athletic federations, 11 May 1911. IAAF’s archives, General Administration 1913–1914.
\textsuperscript{22} Invitation from SAA, May 1911. IAAF’s archives, General Administration 1913–1914.
\textsuperscript{23} Report of the committee, 1911. SAA’s archives, A2:1, RA.
7. Stockholm 1912

On 16 May 1912 Sigfrid Edström (a leading personality within the SSC) together with the Crown Prince Gustaf Adolf (vice-chairman of the organising committee of the Olympic Games) received a letter from the English Amateur Athletic Association (AAA). It declared that the AAA accepted to take a positive part in the Congress on the condition that the agenda resented was followed. The AAA did not intend to support an organisation which possibly would be offensive to the IOC or in any way intrude into its territory.24

In June 1912, the SAA sent out the final invitation. The date was changed to 17 July (three days after the athletic competitions had been completed). The Parliament Building was chosen as the venue for the Congress and the Crown Prince would serve as the “protector”. The agenda remained unchanged. The strategy was prepared by Edström, who had consulted the Crown Prince (they formed a most influential pair within the Swedish sports movement).25

The first IAAF Congress was carried through according to plan. Present were 37 delegates from 17 nations: Australasia (Australia and New Zealand), Austria, Belgium, Canada, Chile, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, Norway, Russia, Sweden and the USA (see enclosure 1). No less than eleven delegates represented the host nation.

The president of the SAA, Leopold Englund, wished the delegates welcome. He emphasised what the Crown Prince had previously stressed, namely that the interests of the IOC must be respected, wishing: *that a strong Board may now be formed and that the object of the Board should be, to draw up and agree to rules and regulations for International Athletics, to register all World, Olympic and National records, and also to draw up an amateur definition for international competitions. Our work should, therefore, be confined to these points, as the organisation of the Olympic Games is in the hands of the International Olympic Committee.*26

24 Letter from P. L. Fisher to Sigfrid Edström, 16 May 1912. IAAF’s archives, Members Correspondence 1911–1914.
25 Invitation from SAA to take part in the foundation of an international athletics federation, June 1912. IAAF’s archives, General Administration 1913–1914.
26 *Svensk Idrott* 1912 (Stockholm, 1913), pp. 248–249.
Edström was elected chairman of the Congress, Kristian Hellström secretary (the latter was also the general secretary of the Olympic organizing committee). At last, time to talk in favor of or against the proposed organisation had come. There is reason to give an overview of the discussion and its participants. Who were supportive, who were sceptical, who opposed the idea?

Carl Diem (Germany) supported the formal establishment of a federation immediately, convinced that a new organisation would fill a well-known gap in the international world of sport. In fact, Diem stands out as the most dedicated and active spokesman for a positive solution on the spot. The idea, he argued, had met with widespread approval from several nations and all concerned parties were acquainted with it. If some nations did not want to join at once, they could wait, for example, until the next Congress.

Diem gained support from some delegates. Among them we find Maximo Kähni (Chile) and Hans Pfeiffer (Austria). The latter pointed out that no opposition on principle had been brought up and his country was ready to apply for membership at once. However, delegates having a positive attitude demonstrated less activity than did the sceptics and opponents.

It is an interesting observation that the Anglo-Saxon (English-speaking) delegates represented the more or less negative position related to establishing a federation at once. Joseph B. Maccabe, representing the USA, did not accept a federation for the time being. However, he did sympathise with a new organisation as a general idea, appreciating the Swedish initiative. The matter, he added, must be dealt with by his national association. From the side of Australasia and Great Britain as well as France, the same type of argument was noticed.

The delegate from Greece, Ioannis Chryssafis, maintained that he liked the idea of a new organisation but asked about the relations to the IOC. He pointed out that Coubertin was preparing an international Olympic Congress in Paris in 1914, where rules, regulations, a standard program, amateur definitions, etc were on the agenda. Here again, we see how important the Olympic movement, as an older and prestigious organisation, was in the preparations for the IAAF.

Obviously, there existed some doubts as to whether the Congress was meant formally to found a new organisation or only to discuss such a step. Several nations were not prepared to endorse the creation of a federation. They lacked the full authorisation from their respective countries. On the other hand, it seems reasonable to wonder why they were not better prepared,
since the proposal had been well-known for a long time. It should be added that decisive opponents, totally rejecting the idea, did not appear.

A voting procedure followed the discussion. The result can be summarised into three categories of votes with reference to the question as to whether a foundation should be carried through at once or not:
- Nine positive votes: Austria, Chile, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Norway, Russia, and Sweden.
- Three negative: Belgium, Egypt and France.
- Five indecisive: Australasia, Canada, Great Britain, Greece and the USA.

Because the Congress wanted complete unanimity, it decided to regard the voting as provisional and postpone the final foundation of the proposed entity to the next Congress, which would be arranged the following summer in Berlin. By that time the undecided nations would have had the opportunity to consider the question still more and to formalise their position. However, the Congress achieved more than discussion and provisional voting. A temporary (ad interim) Council was appointed. Edström became chairman, Hellström Secretary. Moreover, the Congress decided that five more countries should be represented in the new Council: France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary and the USA (Austria gave up their originally attributed place, since the delegate from Hungary expressed his wish to become a member). The following national representatives were elected: Pierre Roy (France), Carl Diem (Germany), P. L. Fisher (Great Britain/England), Szilárd Stankovits (Hungary), James E. Sullivan (USA).27

To sum up, it stands out quite clearly that the need for a special international organisation dedicated to athletics was not denied by any country. Many were ready to establish one at once, whereas some did not feel any imperative need to move forward immediately and wanted more detailed preparatory work before making a final decision. Probably, all realised that time worked in favor of a positive result. International federations already existed, administering sports such as skating, football, cycling, shooting, swimming and sailing.

8. Berlin 1913

Some problems arose before the second Congress in Berlin. A Swedish newspaper highlighted one of them in March 1913 under the headline “Will England cause difficulties?”. According to the paper, indications intimated disagreements. The English opinion had shifted over, so it was said, to scepticism due to influences from the president of the IOC. This organisation (Coubertin) wished to have its leading position sanctioned, a strategy of supremacy that it had demanded and carried through several times before.

27 Ibid., pp. 249–254.
(Coubertin) wished to have its leading position sanctioned, a strategy of supremacy that it had demanded and carried through several times before. The obviously well informed paper added that the Congress delegates appointed by the SAA under no conditions should agree to any compromise aimed at diminishing the strength and authority of the new international federation. The SAA was encouraged to neglect nations creating difficulties in connection with the process of creating the new entity; sooner or later they would come back asking for admission into the organisation.

It is interesting to notice how this press opinion, which probably was shared by many other papers and sports leaders, reacted against two traditionally strong forces within international sports: the English and the IOC. Both were expected to withdraw. It was emphasised that England had lost its leading position; associations between countries should/must replace the English organisations in the leading roles.28

Another problem, more practical but nevertheless important, was linked to the very days when the Congress should take place. In Stockholm, July or August was the time agreed upon. The Germans, however, wanted to arrange the Congress at the beginning of June, because a new stadium was to be inaugurated on 8 June. As the Emperor would be present, and coinciding with jubilee procedures connected with his 25 years in power, the German hosts wanted as many representative sports leaders as possible to take part.

At the beginning, Edström and Hellström demonstrated sympathy with such a change of the timetable. Later on, in March, they felt forced to choose August as the Congress month, mainly because the American intercollegiate championships in athletics were scheduled for June. The two Swedes at the helm of the temporary council of the new organisation preferred to have the USA securely represented. The German Emperor became a secondary consideration.

However, an influential sports leader from the USA, James E. Sullivan, presented an alternative to Edström: namely, a meeting in connection with the IOC Congress in Paris 1914. This meant postponing the final and formal founding of the IAAF until at least July 1914.29 This alternative was rejected. Instead, the IAAF was founded during a Congress held in August 1913. Twenty-seven representatives from 16 countries (national associations, see enclosure 1) took part. The results of all proposals, considerations and discussions became the very base of athletics on the

28 Svenska Dagbladet, 20 March 1913, p. 10.
29 Letter from James E. Sullivan to Sigfrid Edström, 15 March 1913. IAAF’s archives, Members Correspondence 1911–1914.
broadest possible international level (see enclosure 2). When the IAAF thereafter, through the
above-mentioned James E. Sullivan and the American Publishing Company, edited protocols
and accepted rules, it was said that the Berlin Congress undoubtedly formed the most important
legislative meeting in the history of athletics.30

The Swedish attitude is well mirrored by the instructions that the Swedish delegates brought
with them to Berlin. They can be summarised as follows:

1. The federation ought to be founded irrespective of which countries and how many were
   willing to associate.
2. The federation must not be dependent upon any other sports authority.
3. That a new Congress should be held on the demand of at least three countries.
4. There must be, at least initially, an annual Congress
5. If the program of the Olympic Games in Berlin was discussed, the Swedish delegates were
   instructed to work for repeating the program of 1912.31

The most obvious conclusion from these instructions seems to be that the Swedish leaders
demanded a new international organisation for athletics to be established at any price. They
were indeed dedicated to their original vision. From the French side an additional proposal was
put forward, namely to include professional athletics within the IAAF. Such an inclusion could
prevent newspapers or other private parties from arranging professional championships.

According to one of the French leaders, Franz Reichel, the IAAF would have the opportunity to
control when, where and how such championships were arranged. All other countries were
opposed to this proposal, because they thought that the relations between amateur and
professional sports should be decided on a national level. Reichel withdrew his proposal.32

The founding decision was supplemented by rules and regulations for international
competitions, registration of world records and amateur definitions (see enclosure 3).

Moreover, a standard program for Olympic athletics was accepted (see enclosure 4).33 From a
Swedish point of view the Olympic program included one disappointment. As stated above, the
Ling gymnastic ideology to some degree prevailed in Swedish sports, prescribing all-round
capability. This brought about throwing competitions where both hands should be used (one
after the other), the result of both hands being added together. But the opposition against such a
procedure (as a contrast to the best hand throw) became too strong.34

30 IAAF, Minutes and proposed rules adopted by the International Amateur Athletic Federation, held at Berlin
Germany, Aug. 20–23, 1913 (New York, n.d.), p. 3.
31 Committee minutes, 5 April 1913, § 42. SAA’s archives, A2:2, RA. Meeting with the executive committee, 30
July 1913, § 88. SAA’s archives, A2:2, RA.
32 IAAF, n.d., p. 11.
33 Ibid., pp. 29–30.
34 Aftonbladet, August 15 1913, p. 8.
The amateur question resulted, not unexpectedly, in a number of special rules. For instance, the Congress decided that an amateur had to accept engraved prizes and the value of a single prize could not exceed ten pounds. If anybody wanted to donate a more expensive prize, the national association had the right to permit such an excess. An amateur competing outside his place of residence (home) was permitted to receive compensation for travel costs (1st class) and accommodation not exceeding one pound. The compensation would be forwarded to the national association or club. Compensation for the loss of salary was not allowed.

Both Edström and Hellström were re-elected by acclamation as chairman and secretary for a period of four years. The latter, however, informed his colleagues that he probably would have to leave his position as secretary prematurely, since his business engagements almost certainly would force him to leave Sweden. In addition to Edström and Hellström, Frantz Reichel (France), Carl Diem (Germany), P. L. Fisher (Great Britain), Szilárd Stankovits (Hungary) and James E. Sullivan (USA) were elected to the Council for a period of one year.

The Congress also decided that the IAAF -- Sullivan being the mediating representative -- should ask a manufacturer of sports equipment, A.G. Spalding & Bros, to produce standard implements for athletics to be demonstrated at the 1914 Congress for approval. Every member country would receive one set of all such implements and have the right to produce them locally under appropriate control.

9. Lyon 1914

In January 1914 the IAAF board notified member countries that the 1914 Congress would be held in Lyon during the summer, not in Paris a few days before the IOC meeting as had been initially decided in Berlin. According to correspondence between Swedish leaders the reason, once again, had to do with the delicate relations between the IAAF and the IOC. Edström did not want to give Coubertin an opportunity to arrange the IOC Congress in such a time period that a collision with the IAAF Congress became inescapable.35 In the end, the meeting in Lyon was held on 9–10 June and was attended by 28 delegates from 15 countries (enclosure 1). The Olympic Congress took place in Paris between 13 and 23 June.

At the Congress standard implements were presented and approved in accordance with the Berlin decision. Only one exception to general approval occurred. The javelin of A.G. Spalding & Bros was ruled out in favor of a Finnish prototype. The dealing with athletic implements became the object of still more regulations. For instance, implements without a mark indicating approval by the authorised association could not be used as far as records were concerned. Furthermore, the detailed rules prescribed what material (metals) had to be used for the implements utilised in throwing the hammer, etc. Rules for competitions and amateurism were valid from 1 January 1915. A register covering world records was enacted. To demonstrate appreciation of the pioneer manufacturer from the USA, the IAAF also resolved: that in view of the work they have done in producing the standard implements and the consequent expense entailed, Messrs. A.G. Spalding & Bros will be given the opportunity of tendering bids for supplies of implements required by members of the Federation and for which purpose an official stamp shall be supplied to them for each country in which they have establishments.36

The Congress re-elected the Council. However, even before Lyons there had been a change as Hellström had been replaced by another Swede, Hilding Kjellman, as the secretary of the IAAF. Kjellman, president of the National Association for Student Sports, was an eminent scholar and later became a professor of Romance philology. He had been co-opted by Edström, who, in turn, had been instructed in Berlin to personally choose a successor to Hellström.

The IAAF was eager to establish a complete standard program for the Olympic athletic competitions before the IOC Congress did so. The aim of the IOC Congress primarily focused exactly on the general program question. Among specific items to be discussed and resolved, we can distinguish the following: Which sports would be compulsory at Olympic Games? Women’s participation? An age limit for participation? Permission or not for representing more than one country? The amateur rules a never-ending problem area.37 In order to consolidate its position the IAAF wrote to Coubertin during the IOC Congress: On behalf of the IAAF, which is composed of the active controlling body of each country, we beg to ask you that the IOC will approve of the unanimous decision of the Federation at Berlin, August 1913, confirmed at the meeting at Lyon, 1914, by which the IAAF recommends that at future Olympic Games each competing country shall be entitled to enter 12 and start 6 competitors in each event.38

38 Letter from the IAAF to Pierre de Coubertin, 22 June 1914. IAAF’s archives, General Administration 1913–1914.
At a board meeting with the IAAF, just after the end of the IOC Congress in Paris, Edströöm informed his colleagues Diem, Reichel, Stankovits and Sullivan that the IOC had accepted the IAAF’s rules as the official ones for athletics at future Olympic Games. The amateur rules and set of events (branches within athletics) had also been accepted. Moreover, the IAAF was entitled to arrange for a jury at the athletic competitions. As jury for the Olympic Games in Berlin in 1916, the IAAF board elected itself. The board also expressed its opinion that referees ought to be selected internationally, whereas starters, timing officials and all other officials should preferably come from the host country. The IAAF was prepared to select the referees, guaranteeing that they fulfilled their duties impartially.39

10. Divergent opinions and other problems

It has already been demonstrated that Coubertin took a sceptical or reluctant position towards a new international organisation for athletics. Additional official and private correspondence sheds some more light on this important matter. It must be emphasised that the Olympic movement had played a pioneering role, which made it difficult to create rival or supplementary organisations.

In a letter to Coubertin in February 1911, the president of the SAA, Leopold Englund, informed Coubertin, who had previously and in an irritable manner contacted Englund, that serious misunderstandings circulated concerning a new organisation for athletics. Englund stressed that from a Swedish point of view, no intentions whatsoever existed to neglect the IOC and try to take over management of the Olympic Games and underlined: ... that we have not in any way violated the laws of courtesy, for it has never occurred to us to think that the IOC would bestow any effort on these purely technical sporting questions or that the IOC could object to having uniformity introduced in all countries regarding the practical exercise of sport. You will thus see, that we have not tried to conceal any thing from you, but we were of the opinion that this question did not concern you directly as being outside your immediate sphere of interest.40

39 Council meeting of the IAAF, 24 June 1914. IAAF’s archives, General Administration 1913–1914.
40 Letter from Leopold Englund to Pierre de Coubertin, 28 February 1911. IAAF’s archives, General Administration 1913–1914.
Coubertin answered, somewhat milder in tone, that Englund and his friends possibly did not mean anything bad but “hell is paved with good intentions”.\(^{41}\) Coubertin looked for and found arguments by referring to the situation in some other sports. He meant that all international associations for specific sports were detrimental. This was, for example, the case in football, which had been divided into two fractions, one belonging to the international association and another outside. The same situation prevailed in swimming according to the Olympic pioneer. Thus, he warned against a similar development in athletics. His opinion was, however, a private one, not the official voice of the IOC.\(^{42}\)

The attitude on the Swedish side was to calm down the question and Coubertin. The conviction was strong that an association should be created in any case.\(^{43}\)

A supplementary aspect is revealed in a letter from Viktor Balck to Englund. Balck had received reactions from colleagues in Austria, England, France and the USA indicating one and the same thing: a new association threatened to be a rival to the IOC. Balck, in practice the Swedish sports minister for foreign affairs, felt disturbed and lamented that he had to do a lot of letter writing in order to explain the Swedish initiatives and intentions.\(^{44}\) On the other hand, many leaders agreed on the general need for common rules and methods for their interpretation. In this spirit Sullivan pointed out that it is of greatest importance indeed to have all international competition, Olympic Games, in fact all international games conducted under a positive set of rules. There is no doubt whatever but the point made by you is absolutely a sound one.\(^{45}\)

Another relevant problem referred to general diplomatic considerations concerning autonomous and dependent countries. In the beginning of 1913 a Finnish newspaper regarded the ongoing process of creating an association as a failure insofar as Austria, Germany and Hungary had succeeded in excluding Bohemia. This happened although Bohemia had initially been invited.\(^{46}\) The affair focused on a general problem during the formative years of international sports exchange: the difference between an autonomous and a dependent country on the one hand and its status as a distinguished sporting nation on the other.

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\(^{41}\) Letter from Pierre de Coubertin to Leopold Englund, 9 March 1911. IAAF’s archives, Members Correspondence 1911–1914.

\(^{42}\) Letters from Pierre de Coubertin to Leopold Englund, 28 February and 9 March 1911. IAAF’s archives, Members Correspondence 1911–1914.

\(^{43}\) Letter from Leopold Englund to Carl Diem, 6 May 1911. IAAF’s archives, Members Correspondence 1910–1915. Letter from the organizing committee for the Olympic Games in Stockholm to Pierre de Coubertin, 19 December 1911. IAAF’s archives, General Administration 1913–1914.

\(^{44}\) Letter from Viktor Balck to Leopold Englund, 3 March 1911. IAAF’s archives, General Administration 1913–1914.

\(^{45}\) Letter from James E. Sullivan to Leopold Englund, 24 March 1911. IAAF’s archives, Members Correspondence 1911–1914.

\(^{46}\) *Huvudstadsbladet*, 20 January 1913. The Swedes were always straightforward about why the Bohemians were forced to withdraw from the IAAF. Germany, Austria and Hungary refused to join a federation which regarded Bohemia as a separate nation. Committee minutes, 21 April 1912, § 76. SAA’s archives, A2:2, RA. Letter from the SAA to the Bohemian sport federation, 2 May 1912. IAAF’s archives, Members Correspondence 1910–1915. Moreover the SAA had concluded an agreement with the Austrian sports federation in 1909 in which it was agreed that the sports clubs in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia were subordinate to the Austrian federation. Committee minutes, 27 June 1909, § 106. SAA’s archives, A2:2, RA.
A concrete example took place in 1914, when the British IAAF Council member, P. L. Fisher, wrote to the Austrian national athletic association announcing the participation of a Czech pole-vaulter, Jindrich Jisak, in an English competition. The Austrian leadership reacted at once. To begin with Jisak was forbidden to compete. Moreover, all representatives from the Ceska Athleticka Amaterska Unie were boycotted. The Austrian leadership argued that this nationalistic association wanted to liberate itself from the Österreichischer Leichtathletik-Verband: “Especially you may know that the clubs SLAVIA and SPARTA at Prague are strictly boycotted by us.”

The Bohemian question became all the more complicated because Bohemia in fact was represented at the Olympic Games and occupied a seat in the IOC. Fisher also contacted Edström who raised the question to a general level. He recalled the intricate relations between the English authorities and Irish athletes competing in the USA without permission from leading British organisations. Edström also drew a parallel between Bohemians and Finns, fearing that one day when athletics had reached a higher level in Russia, they would oppose Finnish membership in the IAAF. At the time Edström did not know whether a Russian national association for athletics existed at all; his worry only referred to the future.

As to the Austrian-Czech question Edström considered it impossible to include the Czechs in the IAAF. At the same time he understood their participation in Olympic Games and the IOC referring to the opinion that they participated in the Olympic movement as Austrians: “We had a fearful diplomatic event about this matter before the Games of Stockholm.”

11. Summary

The most important reason for creating an international athletic federation was the simple fact that there was a need for common rules. Ever-growing international competition exchanges had clearly demonstrated the number of problems caused by the absence of consistent rules. Moreover, a supreme authority was needed for continuous central administration as well.

47 Letter from Österreichischer Leichtathletik-Verband, 17 April 1914. IAAF’s archives, Members Correspondence 1910–1915.
The initiative to create the IAAF came from the national Swedish organisation for athletics, the SAA (Svenska idrottsförbundet founded in 1895). However, sports leaders from many countries participated in the creation process. If some key persons should be mentioned, two Swedes and one colleague from the USA stand out as most indispensable. Their contributions followed one after the other in a logical manner. Leopold Englund, the president of the SAA, played the role of initiator and host for the starting point, namely the Congress in Stockholm just after the Olympic Games in 1912. The strong hands of Sigfrid Edström made sure that the initiative was carried through, making the Congresses successful, although not without problems which had to be solved. The foremost leader from the USA, James E.Sullivan, had the delicate task of being responsible for giving the final shape to the detailed rules, a task which culminated the process of creating the IAAF.

Only one really serious and persistent opposition has been noticed, represented by one single person: Pierre de Coubertin. It is difficult to say to what extent his organisation, the IOC, supported his reluctant attitude. It seems, however, that he acted privately or possibly semi-officially. He feared that a new organisation would contribute to a breach within the organised world of sport. His concern was exclusively linked to the IOC and the most important competition, the Olympic Games. Obviously, he did not like any other international organisations for specific sports. The fathers of the IAAF, therefore, continuously emphasised that the new organisation did not intend to compete with the IOC.

Once the decision had been made to establish the IAAF, it rapidly achieved significant results. However the procedures connected with the creation process 1912–1914 are interpreted, it must be concluded that the original three goals put forward by the Swedish leaders were fulfilled, namely:
1. The creation of a new organisation and agreement on common rules.
2. Registration of records.
3. A definition of the concept of amateurism.

Moreover, a standard program for future Olympic athletics (for men) was developed and accepted by the IOC at the same time as the IOC also accepted the IAAF as the supreme authority governing athletics. All together, the creation of the IAAF must be considered an obvious success.

The Swedish leaders did not succeed in one respect, namely in securing the acceptance by the other countries of the principles of Ling gymnastics, that is to say the harmonious physical development as the predominant goal. Instead, the IAAF promoted an extremely specialised sport (exception: pentathlon and decathlon). This direction is in line with the seven criteria that Guttmann has presented as typical for the evolution of sports during modern times: secularisation, equality, specialisation, rationalisation, bureaucratisation, quantification and records. In other words, the creation of the IAAF was perfectly compatible with the general development of modern sports.
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ENCLOSURES

Enclosure 1. Delegates present and federations represented at IAAF’s Congresses 1912, 1913 and 1914

*Delegates present at Stockholm 1912:*

- Vicary Horniman
- E. S. Marks
- Ignaz Abeles
- Robert Deutsch
- Hans Pfeiffer
- M. Bezaux
- Baron de Laveleye
- F. Meyers
- James G. Merrick
- Maximo Kähni
- Arne Højme
- S. Langkjaer
- Brulé
- Leopold Englund
- Pierre Roy
- Carl Diem
- Justus W. Meyerhof
- Joh. Runge
- W. A. Brommage
- R. S. de Courcy Laffan
- S. G. Moss
- Ioannis Chryssafis
- Szilárd Stankovits
- O. T. Klingenberg
- O. R. Kolderup
- F. Henning
- Otto Ahnström
- Nils Djurberg

Australasia
Australasia
Austria
Austria
Austria
Belgium
Belgium
Belgium
Canada
Chile
Denmark
Denmark
Egypt
Finland (by proxy)
France
Germany
Germany
Great Britain
Great Britain
Great Britain
Greece
Hungary
Norway
Norway
Russia
Sweden
Sweden
J. Sigfrid Edström  Sweden  
Leopold Englund  Sweden  
P. Hedenblad  Sweden  
Kristian Hellström  Sweden  
Hugo Levin  Sweden  
Sven Låftman  Sweden  
C. O. Löwenadler  Sweden  
Gustaf G:son Uggla  Sweden  
Crown Prince Gustaf Adolf  Sweden  
Joseph B. Maccabe  United States of America

_Federations represented at Stockholm 1912:_

Australasia  The Amateur Athletic Union of Australasia  
Austria  Österreichischer Leicht-Athletik-Verband  
Belgium  Union Belge des Sociétés de Sports Athlétiques  
Canada  Amateur Athletic Union of Canada  
Chile  Federacion Sportiva Nacional de Chile  
Denmark  Dansk Idraetsförbund  
Egypt  Union Internationale des Sociétés Sportives Egyptiennes  
Finland  Finlands Gymnastik- och Idrottsförbund  
France  Union des Sociétés Francaises de Sports Athlétiques  
Germany  Deutsche Sport-Behörde für Athletik  
Great Britain  Amateur Athletic Association  
Greece  Union des Sociétés Helléniques d’Athlétisme et de Gymnastique  
Hungary  Magyar Athletikai Szövetség  
Norway  Norges Turn- og Idraetsförbund  
Russia  Russischer Landesverband für leichte Athletik  
Sweden  Svenska Idrottsförbundet  
United States of America  Amateur Athletic Union of the United States

_The Council of the IAAF 1912:_

Sigfrid Edström  Sweden  president,  
Kristian Hellström  Sweden  secretary,  
Pierre Roy  France  
Carl Diem  Germany  
P. L. Fisher  Great Britain  
Szilárd Stankovits  Hungary  
James E. Sullivan  USA.
Delegates present at Berlin 1913:

W. M. Barnard     Australasia (by proxy)
Robert Deutsch    Austria
Herman Wraschtil   Austria
J. M. Willig      Belgium (by proxy)
Arne Hojme        Denmark
S. Langkjaer      Denmark
Frantz Reichel    Egypt (by proxy)
Joh. Fr. Blomqvist Finland
Lauri Pihkala     Finland
Frantz Reichel    France
J. M. Willig      France
F. Burger         Germany
V. Malessa        Germany
J. Runge          Germany
J. W. Meyerhof    Germany
W. M. Barnard     Great Britain
S. G. Moss        Great Britain
G. V. A. Schofield Great Britain
Szilárd Stankovits Hungary
Eugen von Szerelemhegyi Hungary
Trygve Lie        Norway
W. Wetherell      South Africa
J. Sigfrid. Edström Sweden
Leopold Englund   Sweden
Kristian Hellström Sweden
W. Glenck         Switzerland
Gustavus T. Kirby USA
Joseph B. Maccabe USA
James E. Sullivan USA
Robert M. Thompson USA

Federations represented at Berlin 1913:

Australasia      Amateur Athletic Union of Australasia
Austria          Österreichischer Leichtathletik-Verband
Belgium          Ligue Belge d’Athlétisme
Canada           Amateur Athletic Union of Canada
Denmark          Dansk Athletik-Forbund
Egypt            Union Internationale des Sociétés Sportives d’Egypte
Finland          Finlands Gymnastik- och Idrottsförbund
France           Union des Sociétés Françaises de Sports Athlétiques
Germany          Deutsche Sport Behörde für Athletik
Great Britain    Amateur Athletic Association
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<th>National athletic federations recognised by the Berlin Congress 1913:</th>
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<td>United States of America</td>
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The Council of the IAAF 1913:

Sigfrid Edström Sweden President
Kristian Hellström Sweden Secretary
Frantz Reichel France
Carl Diem Germany
P. L. Fisher Great Britain
Szilárd Stankovits Hungary
James E. Sullivan USA.

Delegates present at Lyon 1914:

R.M. Kidston Australasia
Hans Pfeiffer Austria
Hermann Wraschtil Austria
Maurice Debruyne Belgium
J. G. Merrick Canada
S. Langkjaer Denmark
Lauri Pihkala Finland
Marlior France
Frantz Reichel France
Vieux France
M. Berner Germany
F. Burger Germany
Carl Diem Germany
W. A. Brommage Great Britain
S. G. Moss Great Britain
G. V. A. Schofield Great Britain
Szilárd Stankovits Hungary
Eugen von Szerelemhegyi Hungary
C. Frölich-Hanssen Norway
W. Wetherell South Africa
Hilding Kjellman Sweden
Gustaf G:son Uggla Sweden
A. Rysler Switzerland
Jul. Wagner Switzerland
Everett C. Brown United States of America
Alfred J. Lill jr. United States of America
Joseph B. Maccabe United States of America
James E. Sullivan United States of America
The Council of the IAAF 1914:

Sigfrid Edström  Sweden  President
Hilding Kjellman  Sweden  Secretary
Frantz Reichel  France
Carl Diem  Germany
P. L. Fisher  Great Britain
Szilárd Stankovits,  Hungary
James E. Sullivan  USA
RULE 1.

TITLE

The International Amateur Athletic Federation embraces the governing Athletic Associations of the various nations that accept the rules and regulations of the International Amateur Athletic Federation. Only one Association may represent a nation.

Note. – In these rules such Athletic Association is termed “member of the Federation.”

RULE 2.

OBJECTS OF THE FEDERATION

The objects of the Federation should be:
(a) To compile and subscribe to the rules and regulations of the Federation governing international competition in amateur field and track athletics.
(b) To pass upon and register World’s amateur records in field and track athletics
(c) To establish a definition of the term amateur, applicable to international competition in field and track athletics.

RULE 3.

CONGRESSES.

Each member of the Federation may be represented by not more than five (5) delegates. Each Association shall have one (1) vote only.

A member of the Federation can only be represented by its delegates. The same delegate may only represent one member of the Federation. A delegate must be a citizen of the nation he represents.

The Congress shall convene biennially, after the year 1914, and the President of the Federation shall preside at all meetings.

The Congress only shall have power to amend and draft rules and regulations.

The President, Honorary Secretary and Members of the Council shall serve until their successors are elected and inducted to office.

RULE 4.

REPORTS AND FINANCES.

The President, Honorary Secretary and Council shall submit a report and balance sheet to the Congress on the condition and finances of the Federation, and the Congress shall pass on and audit said report and balance sheet, and also devise ways and means for the adoption and passing of the budget.
RULE 5.
COUNCIL.
The Council, which shall be chosen by the Congress, shall consist of the President, the Honorary Secretary and five other members elected from different nations.

The President and Honorary Secretary shall be elected for a term of four years; they shall reside in the same country. The five members of the Council shall be elected for terms of two years after 1914.

In case of a vacancy occurring in the Council, said vacancy shall be filled by the member of the Federation with which retiring member of Council was identified.

The Council shall administer the affairs of the Federation, inform the members of all penalties imposed by any member, shall register all records, settle all urgent affairs of general interest, and prepare and summon the Congress, the venue and time of which have been decided by the preceding Congress.

All records and communications shall be written or printed in the three official languages: English, German, and France.

The Council may summon special Congresses provided five members give notice in writing to the Honorary Secretary that they desire such Congress, and stating their reasons for same. On receiving such notice, the Honorary Secretary must summon the Congress to meet within three months after receipt of the said notice.

In case of great importance, requiring immediate settlement, the Council shall have power to summon an Extraordinary Congress of the Federation.

RULE 6.
MEMBERSHIP AND ELIGIBILITY.
The governing Athletic Associations in each of the following nations shall be eligible for membership in the Federation:
Applications for membership in the Federation shall be submitted to the Council who, after investigation, shall submit same to the Congress for election.

Any new member may be admitted by a majority vote of the members represented at the Congress.

During the interim between sessions of the Congress the Council is empowered to elect provisionally such ruling bodies as they may deem fit.

RULE 7.
RECOGNITION.
Associations affiliated with the Federation shall acknowledge each other as the only legislative authorities for Athletics in the respective countries, and as the only organisations authorised to regulate international agreements in athletics.

RULE 8.
DISQUALIFICATION.
A disqualification adjudged in proper form by a member of the Federation shall also be binding on all the other countries represented in the Federation, and shall have power by a simple information by the member in question.

(The members of the Federation representing the United States, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Canada, Australasia, and South Africa are exempted from rules 7 and 8.
until the Congress of 1916. They are bound, however, to recognise in the other countries the Associations which are members of this Federation.)

RULE 9.
INTERNATIONAL FIELD AND TRACK MEETINGS.

An international field and track meeting is either arranged between two or more members of the Federation or arranged by or with the sanction of one member only provided other members of the Federation of clubs belonging to such members are invited to take part in the meeting.

A national championship open to all amateur athletes is not an international meeting.

At all international meetings the rules and regulations of the Federation shall apply. The right to arrange or sanction international meetings is exclusively reserved to the members of the Federation.

No athlete of any nation shall be permitted to represent his nation in any meeting other than those sanctioned or arranged by a member of this Federation.

Any athlete desirous of competing in any foreign country must make application to this governing body for a permit to compete, and no member of the Federation shall allow any foreign athlete to compete unless he presents a letter signed by the proper official of the members of the Association of his country, certifying that he is an amateur and eligible to compete. (This provision shall not be applicable to the relations between the members of this Federation representing the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland on the one hand and the United States of America on the other, and this provision shall hold good until the Congress of 1916.)

At international competitions, a member of this Federation may be represented only by a native born or naturalised subject of the nation which the member in question represents.

RULE 10.
CHAMPIONSHIPS OF THE WORLD

The competitions of the Olympic Games only shall be regarded as Championships of the World in the respective branches of field and track sports.

No other Championships of the World may be held in addition to these, whether under the title of Championships of the World, European Championships, American or Asiatic Championships or any other name of the kind. The Committee, however, may decide on and grant exceptions to this rule.
Every member of the Federation shall have the right to hold its national championships according to its own rules and regulations.

RULE 11.
SUBSCRIPTION.
The annual subscription shall be £5 for each National Association.
Enclosure 3. Amateur Statutes (established at Berlin 1913)

Amateur status:

1. An amateur is one who competes only for the love of sport.

2. Competing for money of any other pecuniary reward in any sport makes the competitor a professional in all sports.

3. In track and field athletic sports one who knowingly competes with, or against, a professional, thereby becomes a professional.

4. In the event of an amateur competing with, or against, a professional in sports other than track and field athletics, not for money and other pecuniary reward, then the member of the Federation to which the athlete belongs shall be the judge of such competitor’s status according to its own rules, and its certificate as to the competitor’s status shall be accepted by all other members of the Federation.

5. One who teaches, trains, or coaches in any sport for money or other pecuniary considerations is a professional, except however, that so far as competition in his own country, and there only, is concerned, an employee or representative of the state or school or other educational institution, who teaches, trains, or coaches as an incident to his main vocation or employment, may, or may not, be a professional, as the member of the Federation of the country of such a person shall decide.

As an interpretation of the above fundamental rules and to be considered as part thereof, the following regulations are set down, and any athlete who violates any thereof shall, thereby, become a professional:

A. An amateur cannot wager, or be interested in a wager of money bet, or stake made in connection with the athletic competition in which he is to participate.

B. An amateur must not compete for any prize of token which cannot be suitably inscribed with some words or letters commemorative of the competition. Prizes must not be of a character which cannot be possessed or retained for a period of, at least, the life of the recipient.
C. An amateur cannot compete for a prize or token of a value of more than ten pounds, except by consent of the member of the Federation of his country.

D. An amateur may not sell, pawn or give his prizes, and shall hold the same subject at all times to the inspection of the member of the Federation of his country.

E. An amateur cannot enter or compete in any contest under a name other than his own or one assumed permanently by him for purposes of competition and registered by him with a member of the Federation of his country.

F. An amateur cannot issue a challenge or in any manner evidence his intention of competing with, or against, a professional, or for money or its equivalent. “An amateur cannot sign a contract, agreeing to take a professional position in athletics, or to take part in any athletic sports for money.”

G. An amateur cannot accept or in any manner receive any money or other pecuniary gain in going to, attending, or returning from an athletic meeting, other than his actual outlay for railroad, steamship, sleeping-car fare, and for meals and lodging. Under no circumstances shall amount paid for expense money exceed the cost of one first class railway or steamship accommodation, one first class sleeping accommodation and one pound or the equivalent per day for meals and lodging.

H. Any expense money must be paid, not to the athlete, but to the member of the Federation of the athlete’s country.

I. An amateur cannot accept traveling expenses or payment of any kind for a trainer, rubber, masseur, friend or relative. (Note. This rule does not mean that traveling expenses of trainer and the like cannot be paid, but that such expenses cannot be demanded by, or paid to, the athlete.)

J. An amateur cannot directly or indirectly, accept payment for loss of time or wages in attending, or training for, any athletic competition. “An amateur cannot use the goods or apparatus of any firm, manufacturer or agent for making any compensation; or shall not allow his name to be used as a means of advertising of recommending the goods of any firm or manufacturer.”

K. An amateur cannot, directly or indirectly, receive any reward for becoming, or continuing as a member of any club or any other athletic organisation.
L. An amateur cannot compete for or from an athletic organisation in whose employ he is, or who for compensation renders personal services of any kind to such organisation.

In all questions as to the athlete’s amateur status other than those in which the member of the Federation of the country of the athlete has been made the sole arbitrator, the statement of any member as to an athlete’s status is subject to the revue and decision of the Federation.
Enclosure 4. Proposed standard program for amateur track and field at future Olympic Games (established at Berlin 1913)

Running: 100, 200, 400, 800, 1 500, 5 000 and 10 000 meters flat and marathon (40 200 meters), 3 000 meters steeplechase, 110 and 400 meters hurdle race.

Walking: 3 000 and 10 000 meters.

Running high jump, long jump and hop, step and jump, and pole jump.

Throwing the javelin, discus and weight (56 lbs) with the best hand.
Putting the shot, with the best hand.
Throwing the hammer.

Pentathlon: long jump, throwing the javelin, 200 meters flat, throwing the discus and 1 500 meters flat.

Decathlon: 100 meters flat, running board jump, putting the weight, running high jump, 400 meters flat, 110 meters hurdle race, throwing the discus, pole jump, throwing the javelin and 1 500 meters flat.

Relay races: 4x100 and 4x400 meters.

Team races, 3 000 meters, five to run, three to count. Tug-of-war: teams of eight.

Cross-country race 10 000 meters, individual and team race.

Modern pentathlon.