CHAPTER III

PERFORMANCE OF INDIAN PLAYERS IN INTERNATIONAL GAMES: A PROFILE

An appraisal of performance of India’s players in international games competitions like Olympic Games, Commonwealth Games and Asian Games, which is the main thrust of this chapter, can better understood in terms of analyzing the conceptual aspects of utilization of participation in sports vis-à-vis society, brief appraisal of developments of sports in India, organizational set-up for promoting sports in the country and finally the performance of the Indian players in Olympic Games and Commonwealth Games.

Sports, Youth and Nation-Building

Youth plays immensely significant role in the task of nation-building because the future leadership is prone to come out from the youth. Emergence of good leadership is dependent on the education and character of the youth. Sports are helpful in building character of the youth. There exist foundational beliefs in modern society that physical, mental, and moral health go together. As Vivian Reding, European Commissioner for Education and Culture, observes:

One in every three Europeans regularly practices a sport. Yet more needs to be done to make sports an integral part of people’s education and life. . . . Next to the active support of appropriate projects, and school sport in particular, we intend [in 2004] to sensitize the awareness of European citizens for the values which sport effortlessly and naturally conveys and that are indispensable for a happy and fulfilling life in our community.¹

Likewise, in the United States these foundational beliefs are officially endorsed by the President’s Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, which views itself as a
"catalyst to promote, encourage and motivate Americans of all ages to become physically active and participate in sports." The Council declares:

We place a special emphasis on programs to help our nation's youth lay the foundation for active and fit lives. The . . . [Council] believes that physical activity and fitness offer important health benefits. And, just as important, we recognize the fact that sports and participating in sport activities help individuals develop character, discipline, confidence, self-esteem, and a sense of well-being.²

While these foundational propositions seem transparent to the 'sports participant' and to all 'sportsmen who year by year have contact with the playing of amateur sports,' the operation of the 'intertwined' and 'subtle' influences that make these propositions true is another matter. That the influences are not 'easy to analyze' points to a need for the tools of the social scientist, which have been improved upon considerably during the past two decades.

A huge segment of scholarship in the last two decades has taken a debunking approach to sports participation, aided in part by convenient straw men. It is not hard for debunkers to make headway against such targets as these: sports competition is an unalloyed good³; it leads automatically to good character traits⁴; these traits can't be learned in other activities.⁵ At the same time, it is not surprising that many of these debunkers nevertheless see in sports participation a potential for positive character formation. After all, sport is a human institution. Like religion, government, and formal education, surely its manifestations will exhibit the strengths and weaknesses of the people who establish and manage it. Well-organized by competent people who understand and prize sport's true aims, athletic competition can be a training ground for virtue⁶; badly run by ill-trained people who distort or corrupt sport's true aims, athletic competition can be a school for vice.⁷
The values and experiences, various writers have imputed to sports as the expected or desired effect of participation, the participant purportedly learns – or can learn – to:

- cooperate with teammates;
- display courage;
- play fair;
- be loyal to teammates;
- develop self-discipline and practice self-control;
- respect rules;
- express compassion;
- foster peace;
- exhibit sportsmanship;
- maintain integrity;
- be honest and civil;
- be aggressive;
- become competitive;
- persevere;
- subordinate self to group;
- show leadership;
- engage in hegemonic resistance;
- feel empathy;
- understand ethics;
- respect the environment;
- experience the team as moral community.
• develop perspective-taking;  
• reason at a more mature level morally;  
• become caring and considerate;  
• exercise critical thinking;  
• feel self-esteem.

Some of the traits enumerated in the above list seem intrinsic to sports participation – that is, they are the sorts of values and experiences sport conveys ‘effortlessly and naturally,’ in the words of European Commissioner Vivian Reding. To be good, an athlete needs to persevere, discipline himself to the rigours of training, and summon the pluck to go on even when his cause seems hopeless. All this is true whether the athlete runs track, competes in tennis, or plays soccer. In the last case, the athlete’s circumstance calls for more than perseverance, discipline, and pluck. Soccer is a game of positions and roles – a team cannot flourish unless the player subordinates himself to its demands and carries out his responsibilities.

Also internal to a sport – whether it is track, tennis, or soccer – is the idea of sportsmanship. In a vigorous contest under fair conditions, the losers should be gracious and the winners magnanimous. Players should play within the rules and respect their opponents. After all, what’s at stake is not victory sans qualification but victory within the limits imposed by the rules. The great NFL coach Vince Lombardi is famous for having insisted ‘winning isn’t everything, it’s the only thing.’ Fair play against evenly matched opponents is the essence of sport. Internal to competition is an ideal that has always picked out the boasting victor, the surly loser, and the cheat as bad sports. The good sport learns passionately to want victory while knowing that defeat may crown his efforts. He learns how to keep both
defeat and victory in perspective – to moderate his disappointment in defeat and check his elation of victory.\textsuperscript{35}

While sportsmanship, courage, and perseverance may ‘naturally’ emerge in the contexts of practice and play, several other items on the list above have no direct connection to sports. There is no obvious reason that sport play should be freighted with ‘learning outcomes’ so distant from its core. Organizing participation for youth so that it encourages self-discipline, pluck, teamwork, and a spirit of fair play would seem chore enough. Plenty of newsprint testifies to failings in youth sports – abusive coaches, violent spectators, over-demanding parents – that need attending to. What is wrong, then, with letting sport be sport?\textsuperscript{36}

The noted sports sociologist Jay Coakley recommends that children not begin seriously competitive play until about the age of 12, a recommendation others have endorsed.\textsuperscript{37} Indeed, one critic maintains that “we have a youth sports system that is wildly out of control.”\textsuperscript{38} His sentiment is echoed by a recent report that proclaims, “Youth sport has become a hotbed of chaos, violence, and mean-spiritedness.”\textsuperscript{39} Another critic, fed up with contemporary sports at all levels, recommends an alternative: music. Playing in a band or singing in a chorus requires of youth many of the same attributes as a team sport – perseverance, self-discipline, dedication, and the like. “When comparing music with our current elitist, win-at-all-costs youth, interscholastic, and intercollegiate sports programs,” he writes, the case for music wins hands down.\textsuperscript{40}

No doubt the proliferation of competitive youth sports has brought with it a train of abuses, but the picture drawn by the critics is largely hyperbole. First of all, the striking figure offered above by the sports psychologist has to be put in context.
That 75 percent of children drop out of organized sport by age 13 is not so astonishing if we recall the 35 percent annual attrition rate, and recall further that most of the sports-leavers quit because their interests have become focused on new endeavors, not because of negative experiences with sport. Moreover, the '75 percent' figure refers to all organized youth sports, the bulk of which remains recreational and low-key. Neighborhood kids who at six and seven years old join a baseball team for camaraderie and fun find in four or five years their interests as well as their physical development diverging. Some are well-coordinated and successful at throwing and hitting, and leave the practice field only when forced to by encroaching darkness. Others have put on weight or gotten gangly and find practice drills tedious and unrewarding.

They don’t get to play very much anymore, and are just as happy not to because they don’t want the spotlight to shine on their failure to catch an easy grounder or throw accurately to first base. They leave baseball for something else—a martial arts class, piano lessons, scouting, or some other activity they find rewarding. The kids that remain go on to play a more serious level of recreational baseball or join a travel team. The normal physical and emotional development of kids from age 5 or 6—when most start recreational sports—to age 12 or 13 provides a natural winnowing of participants even when coaches and parents are making sport the best it can be. Nor is win-at-all costs the dominant ethos in every sports club.

A cursory look at the nominal aims of youth sports clubs, leagues, national associations, and public recreation programmes reveals a widespread belief by organizers, officials, coaches, and parents that competition should not get out of
hand. Competition is a vehicle for youth development and enjoyment, thus subservient to broader goals.

Some of those critical of youth sports view competition as inevitably corrosive of good values, pitting team against team and athlete against athlete in a zero-sum contest. To avoid “fostering conflict” – as competition does – and to teach “humanistic” and “caring” values, it is better, the critics argue, to involve children in “cooperative” games where they must help one another to succeed. Yet the conclusion that sports competition is inevitably corrosive must be adduced from evidence, not deduced from the concept. Even the critics concede that athletic competition can be understood as a means – perhaps an indispensable means – to something else, namely what Craig Clifford and Randolph Feezell call a “mutual striving for excellence.”

The idea is this. In some kinds of games, there is a very tight conceptual link between competition and performance, in other kinds a looser link. For example, the solitary high jumper could simply strive to jump higher and higher, letting the height of the bar itself fix her motivation; or the solitary bowler could measure his success entirely by the number of pins he can knock down in a fixed number of bowls (in which case bowling would be like mountain climbing, a striving to overcome a barrier that is “just there”). By contrast, a solitary tennis player can’t strive for anything. There is no game of tennis without a competitor. The same is true of team sports like baseball and basketball.

More importantly, even when it is not built into the very idea of a particular performance, competition serves as a vital measure and spur. When a high jumper competes against another, the raising of the bar is not just a function of his own
success. It depends on the success of his competitor as well. He can't rest on a
dependence that's his best ever, not if the other jumper has matched and exceeded
it. He must either accept that his best is not good enough or summon up a
perfection of technique and effort that he didn't know he had. If he succeeds it is
because he has been pushed to succeed.

Self-overcoming is the elemental end around which sport is ordered. Seen in this
light, competition provides no incentive to cheat. Fair play is built into the process.
Your team hasn't really succeeded in its end if it wins not by raising its game to a
new level but by cheating. No one surpasses her best by breaking the rules.
However, incentives to break the rules can be supplied by other goals that intrude
on, and even trump, the elemental organizing principle of sports – external goals as
pedestrian as wanting the adulation of the crowd and as weighty as wanting wealth
beyond measure. Competition, then, is essential to athletics and when its proper role
is fully appreciated it provides no incentives for bad sportsmanship. Nevertheless,
not just the intrusion of external goals but commonplace emotional resistance to
defeat can – and frequently does – lead players to forget sportsmanship and throw
elbows, slide with cleats raised, make dangerous tackles, talk trash, and taunt
injured opponents. The spirit of sportsmanship is easily eroded and coaches,
parents, league officials, and other interested parties must be always vigilant to keep
its spirit predominant.

Mark Lopez and Kimberlee Moore, in "Participation in Sports and Civic
Engagement," the Fact Sheet that accompanies this critical survey, find a weak but
positive relationship between participation in high school sports and some desirable
civic behavior. The general upshot analyses of other recent studies are positive.
Sport participation seems beneficial, as measured against several desiderata. These studies differ, however, in their depictions of the particular causal mechanisms—those "intertwined and interwoven threads of influence, subtle and not always easily analyzed"—that yield positive results from sports participation. For McNeal and Marsh, being on a high school sports team makes players more attached to their school and its academic values.\textsuperscript{42}

For Hanson and Kraus, being on a school team inducts players into important networks, provides a source of status, and fosters character traits that prove valuable in academic work. Girls who perform in what was formerly a "male" domain—sports—are advantaged in performing in other "male" domains—science and math.\textsuperscript{43} Broh finds the good effects of sport working through two mechanisms. Sport does build character, in his opinion; that is, it promotes individual traits that pay off in academic achievement. Furthermore, it increases participants' "social capital" by enhancing their involvement in peer, family, and other valuable networks.\textsuperscript{44} Thus, sports are instrumental in inculcating character-building traits among the youth. It is this youth that becomes the reservoir of nation's future leadership that can look after the task of nation-building more appropriately and efficiently.

**Sports in Ancient India**

Equal emphasis on individual's physical and mental well-being was laid in ancient India. Physical culture in ancient India was fed by a powerful fuel—religious rites. There were some well-defined values like the mantra in the Atharva-Veda, saying, "Duty is in my right hand and the fruits of victory in my left." In terms of an ideal, these words hold the same sentiments as the traditional Olympic oath: "...For the Honour of my Country and the Glory of Sport."\textsuperscript{45} Many sports are said to have
originated in ancient India references about which are found in the Vedas and Indus Valley Civilization. Archaeological excavations of Mohenjodaro and Harappa reveal that people indulged in some sort of physical activities and also played a variety of games using marbles, balls and dice. Hunting, swimming, boating and boxing were some of the sports played and nurtured in India in ancient times.

In the area of recreation and sports India had evolved a number of games like, Chess, Snakes and Ladders, Playing Cards, Polo, the martial arts of Judo and Karate had originated in India and it was from here that these games were transmitted to foreign countries, where they were further developed. At times the changes made in the original nature of the Indian sport-forms were so many and so fundamental that the game lost all similarity with its original form in India. Some Indian games were not transmitted abroad and remained confined to India. For instance we have Kabbadi, Kho-Kho, AtiyaPatiya, Malkhamb, Gulk-danda, etc., which are being played today exclusively in India. It is noteworthy that some of these games like Chess and Lido (Snakes and Ladders), the martial art of Karate, and Playing cards had existed in India for the past 2000 years and in some cases the indigenous form of the game became totally extinct erasing the fact that the game had ever been played in India.46

A game very similar to modern Chess and Lido was played in ancient India. In this game there used to be four participants due to which it was named Chaturanga meaning 'four bodies'. This four-bodied game was played with counters and a dice (aksha). Another name for this game was Astapada meaning 'eight steps'. This game was perhaps the progenitor of both modern day games of Chess and Lido. Allusions to the game of chess in the Mahabharata epic show that this game was known in
India nearly 3000 years ago. It is the view of some historians that this game was also used in the allocation of land among different members of a clan when a new settlement was being established.

The Indian origin of the game of chess is supported even by the Encyclopedia Britannica according to which, about 1783-89 Sir. William Jones, in an essay published in the second Volume of Asiatic Researches, argued that Hindustan was the cradle of chess, the game having been known there from time immemorial by the name Chaturanga, that is, the four angas, or members of an army, which are said in the Amarakosha (an ancient Indian Dictionary) to be elephants, horses, chariots and foot soldiers. As applicable to real armies, the term Chaturanga is frequently used by the epic poets of India. Sir William Jones’ essay is substantially a translation of the Bhawishya Purana, in which is given a description of a four-handed game of chess played with dice.

Sir William, however, grounds his opinions as to the Hindu origin of chess upon the testimony of the Persians and not upon the above manuscript, “He lays it down that chess, under the Sanskrit name Chaturanga was exported from India into Persia in the 6th century of our era; that by a natural corruption, the old Persians changed the name into chatrang, but when their country was soon afterwards taken possession of by the Arabs, who had neither the initial nor the final letter of the word in their alphabet, they altered it further into Shatranj, which name found its way presently into modern Persian and ultimately into the dialects of India.”

H.J.R. Murray in his monumental work, A History of Chess, comes to the conclusion that chess is a descendant of an Indian game played in the 7th century. According to the Encyclopedia Britannica, it was from India that the ancient Persians
are said to have learnt this game, and from them it was transmitted to the Greco-Roman world. The evidence of the Persians having borrowed this game from India is seen in the name the Persians gave to it. The Persian word for chess is Chattrang, which was later changed by the Arabs to Shatranj.48

The finest exponents of Karate and Judo come from China, Korea and Japan where schools like Shaolin and Ninja have nurtured these arts. But in the distant corner of India a dying martial art exists which comes significantly close to Karate. This art from is called Kalaripayate. The practitioners of Kalaripayate have to develop acrobatic capabilities and use swords or knives to attack an opponent. This art form is said to have travelled from India to the countries of the Far-East along with the Buddhist religion. Buddhists monks who travelled barefoot and unarmed to spread the gospel of Buddha seem to have accepted this art with alterations suitable to the philosophy of nonviolence. Such a technique of defence would have been necessary for them as they travelled individually or in small groups in foreign lands during which they were exposed to dangers from bandits and fanatics from other religions. Buddhist monks seem to have tempered the originally violent character of this art. The violent and exterminative nature of Kalaripayate is evident from the daggers and knives that are used. Unlike Kalaripayate, Judo and Karate do not allow the use of lethal weapons.

The oath that every student of these disciplines has to take is evidence of this. A teacher of Judo or Karate traditionally commands deep respect of students and a lesson always starts with a bow of the students to the teacher. The teacher here is not looked upon only as a coach as in western martial arts like boxing and fencing. This relationship between a teacher and student in Judo and Karate could have its
roots in the Guru-Shishya tradition of India. Thus it is quite possible that these
martial art forms originated in southern India and were transmitted to China, Korea
and Japan by Buddhist monks. But it has to be conceded that they were neglected in
India where like Buddhism they atrophied and today the world considers them to be
a legacy bequeathed by the countries of the Far-East.49

Thus, sports and physical activities received adequate attention in ancient India
where games like archery, boating, horse-riding, swordsmanship, chess and other
sports were very popular. In the wake of Muslim invasion of India from the seventh
century onwards and subsequent establishment of the Muslim rule in the medieval
India, some of the Id sporting events were maintained and new games were also
introduced.

Sports in Medieval India

The caste system reigned supreme in the ancient and early medieval periods of
the Indian history. The stratification of the contemporary Indian society was
facilitated into four castes - Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas and Sudras. This social
stratification confined every member of the society to the status he or she inherited
at birth. The caste into which an individual was born determined his occupational,
social and educational opportunities. The Brahmins enjoyed monopoly over learning,
dissemination of knowledge and priesthood. The Kshatriyas were the ruling elite who
performed military and administrative functions. Vaisyas dominated trade and
commerce. Sudras were assigned the menial jobs. The educational system in
contemporary Indian society was designed to produce the type of citizens their caste
system and religious philosophy ordained. Under this system, physical education and
sports activities were also pursued on caste lines and monopolized by the elite segments of the society.

The society in medieval India was compartmentalized on strict caste lines. The ruling and upper classes were leading luxurious and carefree lifestyles. The concept of physical culture was almost at its lowest ebb. The Rajput kings, who dominated the ruling elite, were fond of horse-riding, javelin, wrestling, hunting, mace-fighting and above all archery. The objective of the foreign Muslim invaders was to loot and plunder the wealth of India with the help of brute force and they had no time to look after the well-being of their subjects. Under these circumstances, no proper attention could be paid to promotion of sports and physical education.

The popular game of playing cards, known as Krida-patram, was also one of the favorite pastimes of Indians in ancient times. This game was patronized especially by the royalty and nobility. This game was known as Ganjifa in medieval India and Ganjifa cards were played in practically all royal courts. This game is recorded to have been played in Rajputana, Kashyapa Meru (Kashmir), Utkala (Orissa) the Deccan and even in Nepal. The Mughals also patronized this game, but the Mughal card-sets differ from those of the ancient Indian royal courts. Some scholars are of the opinion that this game was in fact introduced into India by the Mughals. But according to Abul Fazal author of the Ain-e-Akbari, the game of cards was of Indian origin and that it was a very popular pastime in the Indian (Hindu) courts when the Muslims came into India.  

According to Abul Fazal's description of the game, the following cards were used. The first was Ashvapat which means 'lord of horses'. Another set of cards had the Gajapat (lord of elephants) which represented the king whose power lay in the
number of elephants. The other eleven cards in this pack represented the Senapati and ten others with a soldier astride an elephant. Another pack has the Narpati, a king whose power lies in his infantry. We also had other cards known as the Dhanpati, the lord of treasures, Dalpati the lord of the squadron, Navapat, the lord of the navy, Surapat, the lord of divinities, Asrapati, lord of genii, Vanapat, the king of the forest and Ahipat, lord of snakes, etc.52

Muslims in the medieval India used to take pride in hand-to-hand combats, in the use of the bow and the gun, in riding and wrestling, in the use of mudghurs, or dumb - bells and lathis or clubs, and in practices with the sword, the lance, and the scimitar. The game of Chaugan, which was the favourite pastime of Akbar on sultry evenings under the shade of his fortress at Agra or Fathepur-Sikri, is the modern polo carried to Europe from India.53

The early Muslim immigrants in India from the North-West from Balkh and Badakhshan, from Ghazni and Samarkand, from Bokhara and Bagdad were stalwart, ruddy and stern, and their chief delights in life, next to fighting, were in taking physical exercises in all forms, in hunting and shooting, in riding and walking and swimming. Babar and his comrades were keen sportsmen, and they swam every river that blocked their progress during their thirty years’ campaigning. Akbar was one of the best equestrians that the world has ever seen, and his Omrahs not only vied with him in riding long distances, but in organizing hunting excursions, whenever they found respite, however short, from the more arduous duties of consolidating the Empire.54

During the Mughal rule in India, sports like swimming, hunting, polo, horse-riding, chess, cards and chaupar had become popular especially among the ruling
elite. In Maharashtra, the Marathas had risen against the oppressive rule of Aurangzeb. Marathas patronized physical education and laid emphasis on physical fitness through games. A concomitant development was the rise of the Khalsa cult under Guru Gobind Singh, which turned the Sikhs into a martial race in Punjab. The Khalsa cult provided impetus to popularize physical activities like horse riding, sword fighting and other war-like games to keep the people fit. Unlike north India, south India had comparatively remained safe from alien invasions. The south Indians retained some of the old physical activities like wrestling, hunting, dancing, fencing, swimming and other water sports.

**Sports Under the British Rule**

The physical education and sports had reportedly started receiving attention in India during the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century. After having visited Britain and other European countries, the Princes of native Indian states were drawn to European games like cricket, badminton, tennis, football etc. They patronized these games after their return to India. The British officers also evinced interest in these sorts and games. Hockey and wrestling also became popular.\(^5\) The Indian Education Commission in its report in 1882 recommended introduction of physical training in all the schools and different games, gymnastic activities and drills to be included in the programmes based on the needs and interests of the students in schools. Though the government had planned in 1894 to make physical education compulsory at the school level but no concrete action was taken in this regard.\(^56\) The establishment of Y.M.C.A College of Physical Education at Madras in 1920 by the pioneering efforts of Harry Crow Buck was a notable step in the field of imparting professional training to teachers in physical education.
The pre-independence period of the saw emergence of rulers of some princely states who were themselves outstanding sports persons. Maharaja of Nava Naguram, Ranjit Singhji, Dalip Singhji, Maharaja of Patiala, Lala Amarnath, C.K. Naidu, C.S. Naidu, in cricket, Gama in wrestling, Dhyan Chand and Roop Singh in Hockey, Ghaus Mohammed and Sawhney in tennis and Salim Manna in football were the exceptional names who did India proud in sports in pre-independent days. The maharajas of Jaipur and Cooch Bihar gave their patronage to the polo game and themselves participated in and out of India in polo matches with distinction.\textsuperscript{57}

**Sports in Independent India**

Government of India’s policy initiatives between 1947 and 2001 with regard to promoting sports in the country have been examined in second chapter. This chapter makes an attempt to analyze India's performance in the Asian Games, Commonwealth Games and Olympic Games in order to analyze India's standing in sports vis-à-vis other countries. Before examining that aspect, it is appropriate to briefly describe Indian Olympic Association (IOA) and Sports Authority of India (SAI), two organizations related intimately with sports in the country.

(a) **Indian Olympic Association (IOA)**

Indian Olympic association (IOA) consists of the representatives of the state Olympic associations and national sports federations/associations affiliated to the IOA. The Olympic association of India is an apex organization engaged in the popularization of the Olympic movement in India. When a contingent of six Indian athletes participated in the VII Olympic Games in 1920, there was no Indian Olympic association in existence. The participation of the Indian contingent in the VII
Olympic games was facilitated by the YMCA. Subsequently, the Olympic movement caught the imagination of the Indians, which culminated in holding of first Indian Olympic Games in 1923. The year 1924 witnessed India sponsoring a contingent of eight athletes to the VIII Olympic games at Paris. Subsequently, in 1927 the Indian Olympic association came into being with the efforts of Dr. AG Noahren, and Henry Crow Buck who had been instrumental in the establishment of college of physical education at Madras. Since then there has been no looking back for the IOA which has surged its way ahead in the realm of sports.

The Indian Olympic Association is affiliated to the international Olympic committee; hence the objectives of the IOA are in consonance with the Olympic Charter. The objectives *inter alia* include:

(i) To develop and protect Olympic movement and amateur sports;
(ii) To promote and encourage physical, moral and cultural education of youth of the nation for the development of character, good health and good citizenship;
(iii) To enforce all rules and regulations of the international Olympic committee;
(iv) To enforce and defend the exclusive right of the Association to the use of Olympic insignia, concerning their use and as far as possible, that of the worlds, "Olympic and Olympiad" to efforts concerning the Olympic games;
(v) To be an official organization with complete and sole charge of all Olympic matters in the country;
(vi) To educate the public of the country as to the value of amateurish sports;
(vii) To maintain the highest ideals of amateurism and to promote interest particularly in connection with the Olympic games and other games under the patronage of the IOC. 

Besides, the IOA wields full and complete control cover all the matters pertaining to the participation of India in Olympic Games under the patronage of the IOA. The IOA, in cooperation with national sports federations / associations is authorized to organize and control the teams which represent India in the Olympic games and other games under the patronage of the IOC. It also looks after financing,
management, training, transportation, maintenance and welfare of teams from India participating in the Olympic games. The IOA is also authorized to certify the amateur status of competitors from India for such international competitions, which require such certification.

The IOA acts as the channel of communication between national sports federations and the government of India for welfare or other assistance to the federations. It also facilitates the formation of state Olympic associations for the development of sports and games in the states. It is also instrumental in the formation of national amateur sports federations with a view to promote sports and games in accordance with Olympic programme. The state-level Olympic associations and national amateur sorts federations are require to submit their annual reports and audited statement of accounts to the IOA for information. It an initiate disciplinary action against any federation for misbehaviour or any other undesirable activity which could bring discredit to the country. The IOA is also empowered to do all other things that may be necessary or expeditions to promote the development of amateur sports and games in the county and for the conduct of its business.

There is an executive council to manage affairs of the IOA. This council comprises a president, seven vice-presidents, a secretary-general, two joint secretaries, one honorary treasurer, five members elected from amongst the representatives of state Olympic associations and nine members from amongst the representatives of national federations / associations / services / sports control boards. There have been frequent allegations of political interference in the functioning of the IOA.
The Indian Olympic association is enjoined upon by the international Olympic committee to facilitate organization of various sports and games in the country. After independence, the Indian Olympic Association organized sports and games on a few occasions but had to be discontinued due to certain unavoidable circumstances. It was in November 1985 that the practice was revived when national games were held in Delhi under the aegis of the IOA and it was decided to hold national games regularly every two years. The IOA facilitates the organization of national games with the concurrence of the Government of India and with the active cooperation of the state governments, the state Olympic associations and national sports federations.

As National Sports Federations / Associations are also members of the Indian Olympic association, hence a brief description of these federations is also desirable. Broadly speaking, national sports federations are voluntary organizations having their roots in the block and district levels. In other words, there are district level units, state units and national level bodies. The entire hierarchy of these sports organizations draws inspiration from the Olympic movement to promote their respective sports/games among the masses. The national sports federations are affiliated to the IOA as well as to their respective international organizations. Within the framework of national sports policy and the Olympic spirit, these national federations are free to formulate their action plans to develop their sports/games. These national bides exert control over their constituent state units in the realm of organization of state and national championships and other allied subjects.

These national federations have the sole authority on the technical aspects of the respective sports subject to the condition that they are not in contravention of
the provisions of the international rules and regulations. Following are some of the well known national federations / associations:

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<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Name of Federation/Association</th>
<th>Year of establishment</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Indian Hockey Federation</td>
<td>1925</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>All India Football Federation</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>Swimming Federation of India</td>
<td>1948</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Amateur Athletic Association of India</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Wrestling Federation of India</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Volleyball Federation of India</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>Basketball Federation of India</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>Gymnastic Federation of India</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Indian Amateur Boxing Federation</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>National Cyclist Federation of India</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Board of Control for Cricket in India</td>
<td>1927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Lawn Tennis Association</td>
<td>1921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Table Tennis Federation of India</td>
<td>1938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>All India Badminton Association</td>
<td>1934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Handball Association of India</td>
<td>1969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Archery Association of India</td>
<td>1971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Kabaddi Federation of India</td>
<td>1952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Kho-Kho Federation of India</td>
<td>N. A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Yatching Association of India</td>
<td>1960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Services Sports Control Board</td>
<td>1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>School Games Federation of India</td>
<td>1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Association of Indian Universities Sports Board</td>
<td>1941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Railways Sports Control Board</td>
<td>1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Indian Police Sports Control Board</td>
<td>1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Equestrian Federation of India</td>
<td>1967</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Compiled by the author from Delhi-based offices/headquarters of sports bodies.

**N.B.** NA stands for not available.

It can be discerned from table 3.1 that of the 26 sports federations/associations, six are such that their date of establishment is not available. Of the remaining 20 federations/associations, nine were formed prior to the country attained its independence. Indian hockey federation (IHF) and board of control for cricket in India (BCCI) have the distinction of being the oldest sports organizations having been established in the year 1928. The 1934 saw the founding of all India badminton Association. In the year 1937 four sports federations were established to be followed by formation of swimming federation in 1940 and amateur athletic association in 1944.

It is further revealed from table 3.1 that 11 sports federations/associations have been established in the post-independence period of these, 8 were established during the decade of 1950s. Yatching association of India was formed in 1960 while the handball association was established in 1969-70. The year 1974 saw coming into being of the archery association of India. These federations/associations are also affiliated, apart from Indian Olympic association in India, to their respective international sports organizations. They frame rules and regulations for the respective sorts and games and carry out their activities within the broader framework of national sports policy. These federations/associations submit their annual report and statement of audited accounts to the IOA.
(b) **Sports Authority of India (SAI)**

Successful organization of the IX Asian Games in New Delhi during November / December 1982 provided a strong incentive for the establishment of sports authority of India (SAI) which came into being on 25 January 1984. India's hosting of IX Asian Games demonstrated its ability in organizing major international sports events as well as capabilities to provide sports facilities and related infrastructure of international standards. The IX Asian Games was not only a spectacular achievement in the realm of conducting games but was also an exemplary evidence of anxiety and interest shown by the general public in games and sports. The enthusiasm generated in the aftermath of spectacular Asiad 1982 was to be translated into action as a means to promote sports and games in the country. Thus, with a view to consolidate the gains of the IX Asia games and to perpetuate resurgence in people's interest sorts and games, the sports authority of India (SAI) was established in 1984, as the apex national body for sports promotion in the country.

Among the salient objectives of the SAI, *inter alia*, following are included:

(i) To promote and develop sports and activities relating and incidental thereto, and draw up and implement plans for the promotion of sports, improvement of standards in the country for in sports and games in keeping with the Sports Policy of the Government of India;

(ii) To implement and carry out the existing schemes for the promotion of sports and of improvement of standards in country in sports and games as may be entrusted to it by the Government of India from time to time;

(iii) To initiate, undertake, sponsor, stimulate and encourage research and development in sports and games and the related medicine, bio-mechanics, psychology and other allied sciences;

(iv) To plan, develop, construct, acquire, takeover, manage, maintain, and utilize sports infrastructure, sports facilities, ancillary buildings, play fields, lands etc., in Delhi and other parts of the country;

(v) To hold, sponsor, organize, manage and arrange on its own, and to offer facilities for tournaments, coaching camps, exhibition matches and other
sports activities and purpose including activities in the interest of sports or benefit of sportspersons or otherwise in furtherance of these objectives;

(vi) To establish, run, manage and administer institutions existing or new and to perform the activities and functions of such institutions wholly or partially;

(vii) To constitute or cause to be constituted centres at convenient places in India to promote sports.\(^59\)

Apart from these, the SAI was also called upon to initiate, sponsor and encourage research in sports equipment in the country, including but limited to the manufacture of standard sports equipment. Providing technical and other assistance, sports equipment, sports facilities and expert guidance to organizers for the organization and conduct of national and international tournaments held in India, also fell under the purview of the SAI. It was entrusted the task of providing for education, training facilities for imparting advanced coaching in various sports and games. It also fell within the ambit of the SAI to initiate steps for the welfare of sportspersons, sports officials and the like and to run benevolent schemes for veteran, active as well as retired sportspersons or officials, including coaches. It was also to coordinate and cooperate with state governments, state sports councils, Indian Olympic Association, or National Sports Federations or other similar national or international associations or bodies in matters relating to sports and other allied subjects.\(^60\)

The Sports Authority of India could also render consultancy services in India and abroad for the planning and development of sports facilities and in the organization and conduct of international championships. It is also within the jurisdiction of the SAI to render advice to the Government of India, state governments and Union Territories and ministries, on all matters relating to promotion of sports and games and improvement of sports standards, which could be referred to it by the
Government of India and other authorities. The SAI is competent to make recommendations of its own on other matters related to sports to the Government of India and the other such authorities. It could be instrumental in organizing seminars, conferences etc., as well as to undertake, sponsor and encourage publication of journals and literature relating to sports and games.\(^61\)

Keeping in consonance with its objectives, the SAI enjoys the authority to grant prizes, awards, scholarships and stipends. It can also accept and collect donations, grants, and gifts. It enjoys the power to undertake management of any endowment of trust fund and to make donations, grants and gifts for the attainment of its objectives. It lies within the power of the SAI to borrow and raise money with or without security or on security of moveable and immovable properties relating to the authority provided that prior approval of the Government of India is obtained on that behalf.\(^62\)

The administrative and organizational structure of the Sports Authority of India comprises a President, who is nominated by the Union Government, or Vice President who is generally the Union Minister in-charge of sports is also the ex-officio Chairman of the Governing Body of the SAI. The 11-member Governing Body of the Sports Authority of India comprises, apart from its ex-officio Chairman, Director-General of the SAI, one Member-Finance of the SAI, one representative each from Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FICCI), National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), Association of Indian Universities (AIU), Joint Secretary, Department of Sports, Government of India; Director, Netaji Subhash National Institute of Sports, Patiala and Secretary of the SAI.
The organizational structure of the SAI is divided into eight directorates - directorate of sports, directorate of tournaments, directorate of policy planning and coordination, directorate of stadia administration, directorate of public relations, directorate of stores and directorate of finance. These directorates carry out their functions in accordance with the provisions as contained in the objectives of the SAI. The directorate of stadia administration looks after the administration, maintenance and supervision of Jawaharlal Nehru Stadium, national Stadium, Hauz Khas Tennis Stadium, Talkatora Swimming Pool, Yamuna Velodrome, Indira Gandhi Stadium and Tughlakabad Shooting Ranges, all located in Delhi.

As an autonomous body responsible for coordinating the functioning of various organizations, the SAI also looks after the fieldwork of the Department of Sports. By 1995, the SAI had established six regional centres at Bangalore, Gandhi Nagar, Kolkata, Chandigarh, Delhi and Imphal. It has been instrumental in developing sports sciences and sports medicine facilities at Delhi, Patiala, Bangalore and Kolkata. Under the aegis of the SAI, two academic wings relating to sports academics have been established. One is for training in coaching and research and development (R&D) in sports at the Netaji Subhas National Institute, Patiala, and other for Physical Education and R&D at Laxamibai National College of Physical Education (LNCPPE), Gwalior and Thiruvananthapuram.63

Lamenting that the sports administrators, particularly most of the officials of the Sports Authority of India, had no sports background, the Parliamentary Standing Committee in its Report on India's Performance in International Sports recommended:
In future, all the key positions (starting from Group A and Group B) should be filled up by outstanding sports persons so that sports could be promoted in a professional way. It should not be difficult for them to learn the basic tenets of administration by undergoing training in one of the renowned Institute of Management. It should not be difficult to arrange crash course/training programmes of the duration of six to nine months to such sports persons in a recognized administrative training institute in the country like Indian Institute of Public Administration. SAI should arrange sports management courses at the earliest for its own officers and officers of the State Governments and officials of the federations.⁶⁴

The Committee recommended to the Government of India to consider asking one or two universities to start under-graduate and post-graduate sports management courses.

Expressing its dissatisfaction about the structure and functioning of the SAI, the Committee Report states that such a bureaucratic functioning was proving to be a major obstacle in the free and smooth functioning of the SAI’s regional centres. It was suggested that the Central Region, then located in Delhi, should be shifted to Lucknow, and the North-Eastern region, comprising 8 states, inclusive of Sikkim, should have two centres, one located in Imphal and the other at Guwahati/Shillong. The Committee Report wanted each one of the region centres to be headed by a Regional Director with almost full powers. While opposing the appointment of the Director-General of the SAI, the Committee Report recommended that a full-time chairman-cum-managing director with good sports background or interests in sports be appointed by the Government.⁶⁵

Restructuring of the composition of the Governing Body as well as General Council of the Sports Authority of India was suggested by the Committee Report. According to this suggestion, the Governing body of the SAI could consist of the chairman-cum-managing director (CMD) two executive directors, financial adviser,
and four members to be elected by the General Council from among themselves. The General Council of the SAI, headed by the Minister of Human Resource Development, could comprise the Minister of Sports, the CMD of the SAI, two executive directors and seven regional directors, financial adviser, sports, joint secretary (sports), directors of SAI sub-regional centres, representatives of the state sports authorities, Arjuna Awardees/Olympians, three coaches, Secretary-general of the IOA, five representatives of national sports federations, representatives of sports control boards of various government and public sector organizations and five sports experts such as journalists, commentators etc., and three Members of Parliament.  

**India's Performance in International Games**

There are three main international sports meets- a) Olympic Games, b) Commonwealth Games; and c) Asian Games - in which India has been participating. An appraisal of India’s performance in international games is facilitated here under two subheads: 1) Performance in Olympic Games; and ii) Performance in Commonwealth Games. Since India’s performance in Asian Games has been analyzed separately in the subsequent Chapter IV, hence an appraisal of India’s performance in the Asian Games is excluded from the analysis of this chapter.

**(i) India's Performance in Olympic Games**

The Olympic Games were held in ancient Greece every four years between 776 BC and 393 AD, until forbidden by the Roman Emperor Theodosius I in 393 AD. The subsequent period marked by the ravages of foreign invaders, earthquakes and floods proved instrumental in obliterating the site of Olympia. The world forgot the glory that once Olympic was. Revival of interest in ancient Greece was discernible
during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries but without any noticeable development taking place. Early part of the seventeenth century witnessed inauguration of the Cotsworld Olympic Games in Britain. In Germany at the end of the eighteenth century, the renowned founder of modern gymnastics, Johann Guts Muths, had mooted the idea of the revival of the Olympic ideal. In 1852, Ernst Curtius reiterated the idea in a lecture delivered in Berlin.\textsuperscript{67}

In Greece, major Evangelis Zappas organized a Pan-Hellenic sports festival in 1859, which attracted a great deal of public support and which was revived at intervals for the ensuing three decades. Baron Pierre de Coubertin of France is credited for having revived the modern Olympic Games. In 1883 he tried hard to revive the Olympic Games as a means to develop peace and honour among the youth of France. In 1889, the French government had constituted a commission to study physical culture methods. Dr. Brookes played a vital role in convening an international conference in June 1894 in Paris in which 12 countries were represented and another 21 sent messages of support. The outcome of the conference was an agreement to hold sports competitions along the lines of the Ancient Olympics to be held every fourth year. Consequently, at an international meeting of amateur athletic associations in Paris in 1894, Coubertin succeeded in setting up the Modern Olympics and nurtured its growth as its first president of the newly created international Olympic Committee (IOC). The first modern Olympic Games were held in Athens in 1896 and from then onward the Olympics grew in scope and popularity to become the event that it is today.\textsuperscript{68}

India's participation in Olympic Games dates back to 1928 when Indian Olympic Association (IOA) came into being. The IX Olympic Games were held in Amsterdam
(Holland) from 17 May to 14 August 1928. In all, 2724 participants from 46 countries, including India, took part in the IX Olympic Games. India managed to win one gold medal in hockey. Los Angeles (USA) hosted the X Olympic Games from 30 July to 14 August 1932 in which 251 participants from 37 countries, including India, took part in it. India again won single gold medal in hockey at the X Olympic Games. Berlin in Germany became the venue for the XI Olympic Games held from 1 to 16 August 1936 in which 3738 participants from 49 countries, including India, had taken part in it. Repeating its previous performance in past two Olympic Games, India succeeded in securing one gold medal.69

Following the outbreak of the Second World War (1939-1945), the XII Olympic Games scheduled to be held in Tokyo (Japan) in 1940 and XIII Olympic Games scheduled to be held in London (UK) in 1944 could not be held due to the ongoing war and therefore were cancelled. In the immediate aftermath of the conclusion of the Second World War, many countries were engaged in the task of national reconstruction. It was in 1948 that the XIV Olympic Games were held in London (UK) in which India also participated as an independent country. Following Table 3.2 presents data about India's performance in Olympic Games from 1948 to 2000.

**TABLE 3.2**

**INDIA'S PERFORMANCE IN OLYMPIC GAMES (1948-2000)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Venue and Date</th>
<th>Number of countries participated</th>
<th>Total number of participants</th>
<th>Medals Won by India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XIV</td>
<td>London (UK) 29 July - 14 August, 1948</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>4099</td>
<td>Gold: 1 Silver: - Bronze: - Total: 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XV</td>
<td>Helsinki (Finland) 19 July- 3 August, 1952</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4925</td>
<td>Gold: 1 Silver: - Bronze: 1 Total: 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVI</td>
<td>Melbourne (Australia) 22 Nov.-8 Dec. 1956</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>3342</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVII</td>
<td>Rome (Italy) 25 August-11 September, 1960</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>5348</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVIII</td>
<td>Tokyo (Japan) 10-24 October, 1964</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>5140</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIX</td>
<td>Mexico City (Mexico) 12-27 October, 1968</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>5531</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XX</td>
<td>Munich (Germany) 26 Aug.-10 Sept., 1972</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>7147</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXI</td>
<td>Montreal (Canada) 17 July-1 August, 1976</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>6085</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXII</td>
<td>Moscow (USSR) 19 July 3 August, 1980</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>5313</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIII</td>
<td>Los Angeles (USA) 28 July-12 August, 1984</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>7078</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIV</td>
<td>Seoul (South Korea) 17 Sep.-2 Oct. 1988</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>9,421</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXV</td>
<td>Barcelona (Spain) 25 July-9 August, 1992</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>10,563</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXVI</td>
<td>Atlanta (USA) 20 July-4 August, 1996</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>10,744</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXVII</td>
<td>Sydney (Australia) 16 Sep-1 October, 2000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It is observed from Table 3.2 that XIV Olympic Games were held in London (UK) from 29 July to 14 August 1948, in which 4099 participants from 59 countries, including participants from India, had taken part. India, which had attained independence in August 1947, participated in the XIV Olympic Games as an independent country. The United States topped the medal tally by winning 84 gold
medals, followed by Sweden, which won 44 total medals. India managed to secure one gold medal in the hockey. Helsinki (Sweden) hosted the XV Olympic Games which were held from 19 July to 3 August 1952. A total number of 4925 participants from 69 countries, including India, had taken part in it. There was an increase in the number of participants as well as total number of participating countries in the XV Olympic Games as compared to the previous one. The United States once again topped the medal tally by winning 76 total number of medals, followed by Soviet Union, which had won 72 medals in all. India had to remain satisfied singular gold medal.

Australia played a host to the XVI Olympic Games, which were held at Melbourne from 22 November to 8 December 1956. A total number of 3342 participants from 67 countries, including India, took part in the XVI Olympic Games. It is worth mentioning here that number of participants at the XVI Olympic Games was lesser not only in comparison to 1952 Olympic Games but even to the XIV Olympic Games that were held in 1948. It is interesting to note that at the XVI Olympic Games, Soviet Union topped the medal tally by winning a total number of 98 medals followed by the United States, which could win a total number of 74 medals. Thus, Soviet Union had replaced the United States at the top by winning the highest number of medals at the XVI Olympic Games. However, India won single gold medal in all at the XVI Olympic Games.

The XVII Olympic Games, held from 25 August to 11 September 1960, were hosted by Rome, the capital of Italy. A total number of 5348 participants from 83 countries had taken part in it. It is noteworthy that there had been a phenomenal growth in the total number of participating countries at the XVII Olympic Games a
compared to the past, which showed growing popularity of the Olympic spirit of the sports. At the XVII Olympic Games, Soviet Union retained its top slot by topping the medal tally by winning a total number of 03 medals in all. It was followed by the United States, which had won 61 medals in all. India could win one silver medal at the XVII Olympic Games.

Tokyo, the capital of Japan, served as the venue of XVIII Olympic Games, which were held here from 10 to 24 October 1964. A total number of 5140 players from 93 countries participated in it. It is interesting to note that there was augmentation in the number of participating countries, while there was diminution in the number of total participants as compared to XVII Olympic Games. A notable feature of the XVIII Olympic Games was that the United States had reemerged on the top by winning a total number of 90 medals, having pushed the Soviet Union to second place which could win a total number of 86 medals. India had to be satisfied by having won a single gold medal in all at the XVIII Olympic Games.

XIX Olympic Games were held at Mexico City in Mexico from 12 to 27 October 1968 in which 5531 participants from 12 countries took part. As compared to XVIII Olympic Games, nine more countries and 391 more participants had taken part in the 1968 Mexico Olympic Games. United States retained its top slot by winning 107-the highest number of total medals - and the Soviet Union was placed second in the medal tally by winning 91 medals in all. Japan was placed third by winning a total number of 25 medals. India had to be contented with a single bronze medal.

Munich (Germany) served as the venue of the XX Olympic Games, which were held there from 26 August to 10 December 1972. A total number of 7147 participants representing 122 countries took part in the XX Olympic Games. A
notable feature of the XX Olympic Games was that Soviet Union bounced back to the top position by winning 99 medals in total and relegated the United States to the second place. The United States secured 94 medals in all. India could win a single bronze medal at the XX Olympic Games.

Montreal (Canada) played a host to the XXI Olympic Games, which were held from 17 July to 1 August 1976. A total number of 6085 players representing 92 countries participated in it. There was considerable decrease in the number of participants as well as the countries represented at the XXI Olympic Games as compared to the XX Olympic Games held in 1972 at Munich. Soviet Union maintained its top slot in the overall medal tally by winning 125 medals in all to be followed by East Germany, which had won 90 medals in all. The United States was pushed to the third place. However, India’s performance at the XXI Olympic Games was very dismal as it failed to win even a single medal.

The XXII Olympic Games were held in Moscow, the capital of Soviet Union, from 19 July to 3 August 1980. In all, 5313 participants from 81 countries took part in the Moscow Olympic Games. As compared to the previous XX Olympic Games held in Munich in 1972 where 122 countries were represented and the XXI Olympic Games held at Montreal (Canada) in which 92 countries had taken part, the number of countries participating in the XXII Moscow Olympic Games was far less. This could be attributed to the fact that as a sequel to the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan during the last week of December 1979, the United States along with its Western allies and Japan had called for the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Afghanistan as a precondition for their participation in the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games. Boycott of the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games was considered as one of the diplomatic measures
against Moscow by the US and its allies. Accordingly, in view of the continued presence of Soviet troops on Afghan soil, the United States and its allies staged a boycott of the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games. Soviet Union topped the medal tally by winning a total of 195 medals followed by East Germany, which won 126 medals in all. India earned the single gold medal in all at the XXII Olympic Games.

It is further observed from Table 3.2 that Los Angeles (USA) became the venue of the XXIII Olympic Games, which were held from 28 July to 12 August 1984. A record number of 7078 participants from 141 countries took part in these games. The XXIII Olympic Games had attracted the highest number of participating countries thus far. It outnumbered even 1972 Olympic Games held at Munich in which 122 countries had taken part. United States topped the medal tally by winning highest number of medals to the extent of 174 medals in all to be followed by Romania, which could win 53 medals in all. India failed to win even a single medal at the XXIII Olympic Games.

The XXIV Olympic Games were held from 17 September to 2 October 1988 at Seoul, capital of South Korea. Unlike the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games and 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games, the XXIV Seoul Olympic Games were free from US-Soviet acrimony because the Soviet Union had started withdrawal of its troops from Afghanistan under Geneva agreement, which thus far had been the major plank of the US and its allies against the boycott of Moscow. 9421 participants from 159 countries, including India took part in the XXIV Olympic Games. Soviet Union topped the medal tally by having won 132 medals in all. It was followed by German Democratic Republic (GDR), also known as East Germany, which bagged 102 medals in all. The United States, having won 94 medals in all, was placed third. The host
South Korea romped to the fourth place. India failed to secure even a single medal at the XXIV Seoul Olympic Games.

By the time XXV Olympic Games were held in Barcelona, Spain, from 25 July to 9 August 1992, the geo-political scenario at the global level had undergone substantial transformation as a sequel to the disintegration of the Soviet Union by the closing part of 1991 culminating in the end of the Cold War rivalry between the United States and the erstwhile Soviet Union. Former republics in Central Asia and in the Balkans, which once formed the constituents of the USSR had, by early 1992 emerged as independent sovereign countries. Prominent among them, *inter alia*, included Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Kyrgyzstan, Estonia, Georgia, Azerbaizan, Latvia, Lithuania, Belarus, Moldavia, etc. Czechoslovakia had spilt into two parts- Czech Republic and Slovak Republic. Yugoslavia had also disintegrated resulting in the emergence of Croatia as an independent country. The cumulative impact of these developments was that most of these newly independent countries had also sent their sports contingents to the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games under their respective national flags. In all, 10,563 participants representing 171 countries participated in the Barcelona Olympic Games. Most of the former republics of the erstwhile Soviet Union, which took part in the XXV Olympic Games, had presented themselves as a unified team which topped the medal tally by winning 112 medals. United States was placed second by winning 108 medals. Following the unification of Germany in the wake of merger of East Germany and West Germany in May 1992, the united Germany was placed third by having won a total of 82 medals. However, India failed to open its account in the medal tally at the XXV Olympic Games.
Atlanta in the United States became the venue of XXVI Olympic Games, which were held from 20 July to 4 August 1996. A record number of 10,744 participants representing 197 countries had taken part in the Atlanta Olympic Games. In terms of the players and countries represented, it was the highest number in the Olympic Games thus far. In the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games, there was no unified team of Russia and other republics of the erstwhile Soviet Union. Each participating country had taken part in its individual capacity. The United States romped to the top by winning 101 medals. Russia second and Germany was placed third in the medal tally. China had shown a spectacular performance and was placed fourth both at the Barcelona Olympic Games in 1992 as well at the Atlanta Olympic Games in 1996. At the Barcelona Olympic Games, China had romped home with 54 medals. Only consolation for India at the XXVI Olympic Games was a bronze medal won by Leander Paes in Lawn Tennis.

At the XXVII Olympic Games held in 2000 in Sydney (Australia), India could win a single bronze medal.

It becomes discernible from Table 3.2 that between 1948 and 2000, India could win a total of 11 medals of which 5 have been gold medals, one silver medal and five bronze medals. Keeping in view India's size, population and other resources, it has been undoubtedly a dismal performance by India at the Olympic Games. The Parliamentary Standing Committee, attached to the Ministry of Human Resource Development, in its forty-fourth report on India's performance in international sports submitted to the Parliament in December 1995 had thus observed: in the Olympic Games, India which is the second largest country in terms of population and seventh largest in terms of area in the entire world, has been able to win a medal each only
in Hockey and wrestling so far. Since 1984 [till 1992] it has not won even a single medal in the Olympics.\textsuperscript{44}

(ii) \textbf{India's Performance in Commonwealth Games}

The idea of holding sports festivals for youth in British colonies/empire had taken nascent form before the commencement of the twentieth century. The revival of Olympic Games in 1896 at Athens (Greece) had provided an impetus to this idea. The occasion of coronation of King George V in London in 1911 was utilized as an auspicious occasion to conduct sports events. Accordingly, these sports events were conducted on 24 June 1911 at the Crystal Palace of London in the name of 'Festival of Empire Games'. In this festival, four countries - Australia (comprising Australia, New Zealand, and the Tasmania), South Africa, Canada and the United Kingdom participated. Following the outbreak of the First World War (1914-1919), the holding of the 'Festival of Empire Games' had to be discontinued. It could be revived in August 1930 under the new name of Commonwealth Games.

Accordingly, the first Commonwealth Games were held in Ontario (Canada) Commonwealth Games in August 1930 in which eleven countries took part. The second Commonwealth Games were conducted in London (UK) in which 500 competitors from 16 countries took part. By the time the IV Commonwealth Games were held in Auckland (New Zealand) from 4 to 11 February 1950, many significant developments had taken place and prominent among them inter alia included end of the Second World War and attainment of independence by India and its joining the Commonwealth. Independent India participated in the IV Commonwealth Games. India's performance in the Commonwealth Games is shown in table 3.3.
## TABLE 3.3

**INDIA’S PERFORMANCE IN COMMONWEALTH GAMES (1950-2006)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Venue and Date</th>
<th>Number of countries participated</th>
<th>Total number of participants</th>
<th>Medals Won by India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gold</td>
<td>Silver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>Auckland (New Zealand) 4-11 February, 1950</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Cardiff, Wales (UK), 14-26 July, 1958</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1130</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>Perth (Australia) 22-31 Nov., 1962</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>863</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>Kingston (Jamaica) 4-15 August, 1966</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1050</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>Edinburgh (Scotland) 16-25 July, 1970</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1383</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>Christchurch (New Zealand) 24 Jan. - 2 Feb., 1974</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1276</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XI</td>
<td>Edmonton (Canada) 3-12 August, 1978</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1474</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XII</td>
<td>Brisbane (Australia) 30 Sep.-9 Oct., 1982</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1580</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIII</td>
<td>Edinburgh (Scotland) 24 July-2 August, 1986</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIV</td>
<td>Auckland (New Zealand) 24 Jan.-3 Feb., 1990</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3200</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XV</td>
<td>Victoria (Canada) 18-28 August, 1994</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>2450</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVI</td>
<td>Kuala Lumpur (Malaysia) 25 July-9 August, 1998</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>5250</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It becomes discernible from table 3.3 that 590 participants representing 13 countries, had taken part in the IV Commonwealth Games held at Auckland (New Zealand) in February 1950. Australia won 34 gold medals and emerged as the winner of highest number of gold medals, followed by UK, which had won 19 gold medals. India was not represented at the IV Commonwealth Games.

Cardif, in Wales (UK), became the venue of the V Commonwealth Games which were held from 14 to 26 July 1958. A total number of 1130 competitors from 35 countries, including India, took part in it. The United Kingdom topped the medal tally by winning 29 gold medals while Australia having won 27 gold medals was placed second. India could win two gold medals and one silver medal at the V Commonwealth Games.

The VII Commonwealth Games were hosted by Australia at Perth from 22 November to 1 December 1962. In all, 863 participants from 35 countries, excluding India, took part in these games. Australia was placed at the top by having won 38 gold medals. The United Kingdom having won 29 gold medals was placed second. At this juncture, India was faced with Chinese aggression in October 1962, therefore, it did not participate in the VII Commonwealth Games.

It is further revealed from table 3.3 that Kingston in Jamaica served as the venue for VIII Commonwealth Games which were held there from 4 to 15 August 1966. In all 1050 competitors from 34 countries, including India, took part in these games. It is interesting to note that the number of countries represented at the Kingston Commonwealth Games was less by one as compared to VII Commonwealth Games held at Perth, yet the number of participants was higher. At the VIII Commonwealth Games, UK topped the medal tally by winning 34 gold medals and
Australia, which had won 23 gold medals, was placed second. It is worth mentioning here that United Kingdom had considerable its performance and increased its medal tally from 29 at the 29 at the VII Commonwealth Games to 34 gold medals at the VIII Commonwealth Games. India won three gold medals, four medals and three bronze medals at the VIII Commonwealth Games.

The IX Commonwealth Games were hosted by Scotland Edinburgh from 16 to 25 July 1970. There were 1383 participants representing 42 countries. As compared to VIII Commonwealth Games, there was increase both in the number of competitors as well as participating countries. This time Australia topped the medal tally by winning 36 gold medals and UK which had won 27 gold medals was placed second. Australia, which had bagged 23 old medals at the VIII Commonwealth Games, had shown considerable improvement in its performance at the IX Commonwealth Games when it secured 36 gold medals, thereby showing a gain of 13 gold medals. On the other hand, United Kingdom, which had bagged 34 gold medals at the VIII Commonwealth Games, could win 27 gold medals at the IX Commonwealth Games, thereby registering a loss of 7 gold medals. India won 5 gold medals, three silver medals and four bronze medals at the IX Commonwealth Games, thereby showing a slight improvement over its past performance when it could win three gold medals.

It is also observed from table 3.3 that Christchurch in New Zealand became the venue of X Commonwealth Games, which were held from 24 January to 2 February 1974. A total number of 1276 competitors from 38 countries took part in these games. As compared to IX Commonwealth Games, there was decrease in the number of players as well as participating countries in the X Commonwealth Games. Australia topped the medal tally by winning 32 gold medals and UK was placed
second with 28 gold medals to its credit. Nevertheless, Australia had remained at the
top by securing 32 gold medals at the X Commonwealth Games but at compared to
its performance at the IX Commonwealth Games; it was a loser by four old medals.
However, UK not only maintained its second place but also recorded an
improvement in its performance by gaining one old medal at the X Commonwealth
Games as compared to IX Commonwealth Games. India had won 4 gold medals, 8
silver medals and three bronze medals at the X Commonwealth Games as compared
to 5 gold medals it had won at the IX Commonwealth Games.

The XI Commonwealth Games were held at Edmonton in Canada from 3 to 12
August 1978. In all, 1474 competitors representing 46 countries, including India,
participated in the games. A notable feature of the XI Commonwealth Games was
the inclusion of gymnastics for the first time. There was appreciable increase, both in
the numbers of competitors as well as in participating countries, in comparison to
previous games held thus far. The outcome of the XI Commonwealth Games had
many surprises. Canada having won 44 gold medals topped the medal tally.
Australia, which was at the top slot in IX and X Commonwealth Games was placed at
the third slot and it won 25 gold medals. UK continued to retain second position and
it won 27 gold medals. However, it was a loser by one gold medal as compared to X
Commonwealth Games. India showed slight improvement in its gold medal tally
when it secured 5 gold medals, four silver and six bronze medals at the XI
Commonwealth Games.

It also emerges from table 3.3 that Brisbane (Australia) became the venue of XII
Commonwealth Games, which were held from 30 September to 9 October 1982. In
all, 1580 competitors from 46 countries participated in these games. Though the
number of participating countries had remained the same at XII Commonwealth Games as it was in the XI Commonwealth Games, but the number of participants showed an increase of 06 participants as compared to the previous XI Commonwealth Games. Some countries seemed to have sent contingents of competitors for categories for which they not taken part earlier.

An interesting aspect of the XII Commonwealth Games was Australia’s catapult to the top slot in the medal tally when it won 39 gold medals. From a third slot in the XI Commonwealth Games, Australia had made to the top by making a gain of 14 gold medals. On the other hand, Canada, which was at the top having won 44 gold medals at the XI Commonwealth Games, was relegated to the third place having won 26 gold medals at the XII Commonwealth Games, thereby, showing a loss of 18 gold medals. At the same time, though UK retained its second position and won 38 old medals, yet it showed an increase of 11 gold medals as compared to what it had won at the XI Commonwealth Games. India had romped home with five gold, 8 silver and three bronze medals at the XII Commonwealth Games, thereby, maintaining a status quo with reference to previous XI Commonwealth Games.

It can be evidenced from table 3.3 that XIII Commonwealth Games were held in Edinburgh, Scotland, which had served as the venue of IX Commonwealth Games in 1970. The XIII Commonwealth Games were held from 24 July to 2 August 1986. The Edinburgh Commonwealth Games were marred by unprecedented developments. The British refusal to support UN economic sanctions against the apartheid regime of South Africa had led many Commonwealth member countries, including India, to boycott these games. Consequently, only 26 countries took part in it. UK, Australia, and Canada shared bulk of the gold medals. UK emerged on the top by winning 52
old medals, Canada was placed second and had won 51 gold medals and Australia, which had bagged 40 gold medals, was placed third. Broadly speaking, Commonwealth countries were under-represented at the XIII Commonwealth Games. As India, along with some other Commonwealth countries, had boycotted the XIII Commonwealth Games, hence it did not participate in it.

Auckland (New Zealand) hosted XIV Commonwealth Games, which were held from 24 January to 3 February 1990. It is worth mentioning here that Auckland had already served as a venue for IV Commonwealth Games in 1950. A notable feature of the XIV Commonwealth Games was that 3200 competitors from 56 countries were represented in these games. It was an indication of the growing popularity of the sports among the Commonwealth countries. Australia emerged on the top of the gold medal tally by winning 52 gold medals. UK had won 47 gold medals and was placed second, while Canada having bagged 35 gold medals was placed third. India had shown all-time best performance at the Commonwealth Games thus far held by winning 13 gold, 8 silver and 11 bronze medals at the XIV Commonwealth Games.

The XV Commonwealth Games were held at Victoria in Canada from 18 to 24 August 1994. A record number of 63 countries, including India, were represented in these games and total number of participants was 2450. Another notable characteristic of 1994 Victoria games was that post-apartheid South Africa was also represented in it. Australia made a big sweep of old medals by winning 87 gold medals and was on the top. It was the highest ever haul of old medals by Australia in any Commonwealth Games. Canada bagged 40 gold medals and was placed second while UK, having won 31 gold medals, was placed third. As compared to the Auckland Commonwealth Games, Canada had improved its medal tally while UK had
shown a downward swing at the XV Commonwealth Games. India could win 6 old, 1 silver and 7 bronze medals at the XV Commonwealth Games, which showed decline in India's performance as compared to Auckland Commonwealth Games.

At the XVI Commonwealth Games held in 1998 at Kuala Lumpur (Malaysia), India had won 7 gold, 10 silver and 8 bronze medals.

**Conclusion**

It can be observed from the above-mentioned analysis that, nevertheless, there has been a growing interest in India towards sports since independence but at the operational level, India's performance in intentional sports meets, particularly the Olympic Games and Commonwealth Games does not commensurate with India's size, resources, population and its standing in the international arena. On certain occasions, India had shown, to some extent, good performance in the Commonwealth Games, but on an average, India's performance on the whole has been below the level.

In Olympic Games, India's overall performance has been more than dissatisfactory. India's show in these international sports meets reflects on country's overall image in the international comity of nations. Even smaller countries have considerably improved upon their sports standards, which is amply demonstrated in their sterling performance and rich haul of gold medals they make. This is a sad commentary on the state of affairs pervading the realm of sports in India. It needs to be addressed in totality, with particular reference to raising the standards of sports in the country.
Notes

6. Stanley Eitzen contends that sport participation “fosters the admirable traits of courage, determination, hard work, fairness, respect, sacrifice, selflessness and loyalty”; see Eitzen, n. 4, p. 43.
7. According to Eitzen, “[S]port... promotes rule-breaking, selfishness, greed, contempt for opponents and violence on the field as well as deviant behaviour off the field,” see ibid.

13. Council of Europe, R (95), n. 10, p. 16; also see, Duquin and Schroeder-Braun, “Power, Empathy, and Moral Conflict in Sport,” n. 12, p. 352.


17. Stoll and Beller, n. 10, p. 49.

18. Ibid.


20. Ibid, also see, Etizen, n.4, p.42.


22. Kavassanu and Roberts, n. 8, p. 37; also see, Snyder and Spreitzer, n. 12, p. 13.


26. Council of Europe, R (95), n. 10, p. 16.


34. A good summary description can be found in the American Legion code of sportsmanship. A player pledges: “I will keep the rules; keep faith with my teammates; keep my temper; keep myself fit; keep a stout heart in defeat; keep my pride under victory; keep a sound soul, a clean mind, and a healthy body.”

36. One answer to this question is: because sport in all its forms supports an unjust social system. For example, according to George Sage, Power and Ideology in American Sport: A Critical Perspective, 2nd ed. (Champaign, Illinois: Human Kinetics, 1998), “sport socializes young athletes to accept authoritarian leadership and the norms of segmentation and rationalization in the playplace... [T]he discourse of building character through sports turns out to emphasize forming traits admired in the capitalist workplace” (p. 265). According to Rod Beamish, “Karl Marx’s Enduring Legacy for the Sociology of Sport,” in Joseph Maguire and Kevin Young, eds., Theory, Sport & Society [Oxford, JAI, 2002], p. 31, sport supports the power of dominant classes by indoctrinating youth with the beliefs and values that sustain that power.


46. Ibid.


48. Ibid.
52. Ibid.
54. Ibid.
57. Reet Howell et. al., n. 50, p. 42.
58. Ibid., p. 4.
61. Ibid.
62. Ibid.
63. Ibid.
65. Ibid.
67. For more information see R. Mechikoff and S. Stes, A History and Philosophy of Sports and Physical Education (Madison, Wis.: Brown and Benchmark, 1993).


52. Ibid.


54. Ibid.


57. Reet Howell et. al., n. 50, p. 42.

58. Ibid., p. 4.


61. Ibid.

62. Ibid.

63. Ibid.


65. Ibid.


67. For more information see R. Mechikoff and S. Stes, A History and Philosophy of Sports and Physical Education (Madison, Wis.: Brown and Benchmark, 1993).
