

THE 1932 LOS ANGELES OLYMPICS:  
A MODEL FOR A BROKEN SYSTEM

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THE 1932 LOS ANGELES OLYMPICS:  
A MODEL FOR A BROKEN SYSTEM

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**ABSTRACT:**

In discussion of Olympic Games and Los Angeles, 1984 is often the primary focus; but the Tenth Olympiad hosted by the same city in 1932 provides a more meaningful and lasting legacy within the Olympic narrative. This thesis looks at the stadium construction of Olympic host cities prior to 1932 and investigates the process by which Los Angeles came to host the 1932 Summer Olympics. The significance of the first athletic village and a history of the venues used for the 1932 competition will also be explored. This thesis will show that the depression-era 1932 Los Angeles Olympics provides a model more in line with original Olympic principals opposed to the current economically-driven system. Within that 1932 model is a means by which a host city can incorporate existing facilities adequate for a large festival and also, when and where construction is needed, provide future-use plans that serve a community beyond the duration of an Olympiad. Los Angeles and 1932 are unique in that the built environment that remains still serves the city in various ways, an idea not necessarily incorporated in twenty-first century Olympic models.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

When investigating Olympic Games held on United States soil, the 1984 Summer Games in Los Angeles are usually the most prominent. The late summer sports festival provided an economic and cultural turning point for an Olympic movement that was in disarray following a turbulent two decades, including the financial struggles of 1976 and a U.S.-led boycott of Moscow in 1980. Los Angeles organizers should be credited for providing the International Olympic Committee (IOC) with a model for marketing and promoting not only its product, but also itself. The 1984 Olympics brought an estimated \$2.4 billion into Southern California and \$225 million of surplus revenue was divided among the United States Olympic Committee (USOC), the national governing bodies of U.S. sports, and an endowment for the creation of the Amateur Athletic Foundation that invested monies in youth sports programs throughout Southern California. The 1984 Olympics should be credited with saving a dying movement, but also pushing it toward the economically-driven system in place today.

In 1932, the same city used the IOC for its own purposes and saved a dying Olympic movement during a global financial crisis. In the process, Los Angeles also provided what remains a good example of successful preservation adaptive use principals for the many facilities used during competition. Adaptive use is defined as a process by

which a structurally sound older building is developed for economically viable new uses. This definition, when applied to the Olympic model, is where the 1932 Games provided an efficient and workable blueprint moving forward. No venue or facility created for the 1932 Games were specific to the Olympics; each was built prior to 1932 for other purposes and those altered for the two-week sports event were returned to their original status following competition. There are obvious signs of the 1932 Games in the built environment of Los Angeles today, including a very active Exposition Park and Rose Bowl stadium. Those signs and reminders in the structures and venues that remain provide a link to a past very different from the modern economically-dominated system of decision making that pervades the Olympic movement.

The current Olympic model far too often leaves dilapidated and empty structures in its wake. Host cities have incorporated an “outdo the last host” mentality that require large construction projects for new stadiums with no future use in mind. The term “White Elephant” has become a popular part of Olympic vocabulary describing empty and unused venues in the built environment of host cities in the aftermath of Olympiads. Greece spent an estimated \$16 billion for the 2004 Games in Athens; much of the costs went to constructing new facilities. Many of those venues are currently unused and left to decay which only strengthen the argument of a broken system. China spent \$480 million on Beijing’s National Stadium for the 2008 Summer Games; the facility requires \$11 million annually to maintain and has no permanent tenant. A stadium designed for the 1976 Games in Montreal left the city with a \$1.5 billion debt that took thirty years to

repay. Tokyo, host of the 2020 Summer Games, expects to build a \$1.37 billion “pleasingly sleek, contoured spaceship.”<sup>1</sup>

This thesis shows that the 1932 Los Angeles Olympics, held during a world-wide financial crisis, provided a positive model for an international Olympic movement that has morphed into something far more negative. Within that model exists a forward-thinking group of organizers who incorporated already-available structures and built new venues with a community’s future use in mind. Nothing was built specifically for the two-week Olympic event; any venue changed or altered for the Games was returned to its original state following competition. This is not to say the ten years of preparation, the management, and immediate aftermath of the two-week festival is without fault but to impress upon the reader that the 1932 experience embodied what the Olympic movement intended.<sup>2</sup>

A large part of this narrative involves a city that has evolved largely on the strength of its settlers and their promotional ability. Boom and bust periods document the growth of Los Angeles with the late 1880s real estate speculation period marking a key period in that development. Many of those who were instrumental in the city’s growth

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<sup>1</sup> Amy Qin and Robin Pogrebinjan, “National Olympic Stadium in Tokyo is Dogged by Controversy,” The Associated Press, 4 January 2015 (accessed 5 January 2015).

<sup>2</sup> The Olympic movement developed from the educational reform ideas of Baron Pierre de Coubertin. Instituting physical education into the educational curriculum of France evolved into bringing the world’s youth together through peaceful means. Coubertin’s vision and reasoning for bringing back the Olympic Games in the late nineteenth century is summarized as “To ennoble and strengthen sports, to ensure their independence and duration, and thus enable them to better fulfill the educational role incumbent to them in the modern world.” The phrase most attributed to the movement is “The important thing in life is not the triumph, but the fight; the essential thing is not to have won, but to have fought well.” See [www.olympic.org](http://www.olympic.org), the website for the International Olympic Committee (accessed 12 February 2013).



early in the twentieth century arrived in Southern California late in the nineteenth century. A wealthy elite resulted, and in order to continue the city's rise to national and international prominence, similar to previous World's Fairs that could promote the many advantages of living in Southern California were explored. The Olympic Games served that purpose, bringing international attention to the region which in turn brought tourist and investment dollars to allow for the substantial growth that followed during the 1930s.

Chapter one focuses on Olympic development prior to 1932, primarily the architectural and relevant issues related to that development. The chapter looks at host cities from 1896 to 1928 and the status of the prominent venues used in each of those Games. Architectural innovations coincided with the building of large stadiums used primarily for sporting events, especially during the 1920s.

Chapter two provides a condensed history of Los Angeles, its rise to prominence through a number of booms and some of the people responsible for the city's growth. This section also documents the process by which Los Angeles was awarded the 1932 Games which mirrors many of the patterns of boosterism and techniques used by the city's elite throughout its history in marketing itself. The 1920s included a building boom, the increased use of the automobile as a mode of transportation, the rise of Hollywood and the film industry, and an increased interest in sports. Los Angeles took advantage of all these variables when promoting the 1932 Games and the host city.

Chapter three looks specifically at the housing of the athletes and Olympic staff at the Athletic Village and the Chapman Park Hotel. A narrative developed following 1932 that the Village was created as a sort of embodiment of an Olympic focus on gathering the world's youth together through sport for peaceful means. Frenchman Baron Pierre de

Coubertin is largely credited with the revitalization of the modern Olympic movement, and the Village became a symbol of those efforts. However, records show that the Village was created more as a fix to a financial problem during a worldwide financial crisis as opposed to its post-Olympic interpretation. Without affordable accommodations, most of Europe's athletes would not be able to attend the 1932 Games. This chapter seeks to explain the larger significance surrounding the Athletic Village and what it means to the historical narrative.

The fourth chapter documents each venue used for the 1932 Games. Video, audio, photographic, and print records exist through various media for the two-week event. There also remains much of the architectural record, some of which has been given distinction by the National Register of Historic Places and through the state of California. Many of the venues documented provide examples of rehabilitation, restoration, and adaptive-use principles within the field of preservation. These include the Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum, constructed in 1923 and still in use today. Demolition, replacement, and other terms familiar to preservationists continually haunt the facility that has been the focal point of two Summer Olympics, but it remains in use. The Coliseum is not a "White Elephant," and a good example of what the 1932 model provides: a venue constructed for other purposes, modified for use in an Olympics, and incorporated into a community's continued use eighty years later — rather than empty a decade after construction.

This study fits within Olympic historiography and involves preservation-related principles regarding Los Angeles and the 1932 Games. Within that historiography, Los Angeles and 1932 is not given the necessary attention for the importance of its place in the Olympic chronology. Ironically, it was the collaborative effort of many during the

early 1930s financial crisis that allowed the 1932 Games to happen; that same effort, however, planted the seeds for an Olympic model that has become unmanageable.

## CHAPTER II

### 1896-1932: A HISTORY OF THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT PRIOR TO 1932 FOCUSING PRIMARILY ON ARCHITECTURAL AND RELEVANT ISSUES RELATING TO THE EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF THE GAMES

At the forefront of Olympic discussion regarding host cities, the availability of adequate facilities is of principal concern. An ability to house large gatherings in a stadium environment for the elaborate opening and closing ceremonies of the twenty-first century is a must for any city wishing to entice the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the Olympic Games held every four years. Pierre de Coubertin, during his efforts to revive the Olympic festivals of ancient Greece, wanted the Olympics to encompass the arts, to put muscle and mind together as part of the Olympian celebrations of youth and life.<sup>1</sup>

Part of the experience, for athletes and everyone involved, includes a memorable venue. In the latter stages of the nineteenth century such sports-specific stadiums did not exist. As Coubertin's efforts gained ground in the 1890s and the early decades of the twentieth century so too did the contributors to a built environment that in some cases

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<sup>1</sup> Pierre de Coubertin, *Olympism: Selected Writings* (Lausanne, FRA: International Olympic Committee, 2000), 613-618. Included in Coubertin's revival efforts was an importance placed on venues, on the architectural significance of ancient Olympia, and an all-encompassing experience for athlete and spectator.

still survive a century after their construction. That contribution by architects and builders is “undervalued within the [architectural] profession and largely unrecognized outside it,” wrote Barclay Gordon in 1983. From modest, sports-efficient beginnings, the costs associated with the building of venues by host cities has grown exponentially and, as Gordon asked in 1983, “Should such large, extravagant, and increasingly expensive building efforts continue? Should so much national pride be invested in their funding and can these designs, however dazzling, pay back their costs in after use ... would some alternative and less-costly format for the Games be more appropriate?”<sup>1</sup>

This chapter provides an architectural history of the Olympics prior to 1932.<sup>2</sup> Courbertain’s wish to make the games international allowed Athens (1896), Paris (1900 and 1924), St. Louis (1904), London (1908), Antwerp (1920), and Amsterdam (1928) to host Summer Olympic meets. As the Games grew in stature so too did the architectural creativity that led to the building of many stadiums still in use in the twenty-first century. That creativity occurred in accordance with the rising popularity of sport during the 1920s, and like memorials and other physical reminders of the past, those venues that

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<sup>1</sup> Barclay F. Gordon, *Olympic Architecture: Building for the Summer Games* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1983), vii. Gordon's questions concerning Olympic stadiums can best be described as ideas in adaptive use, a process by which a structurally sound older building is developed for economically viable new uses that may or may not involve maintaining defining, historic features.

<sup>2</sup> This thesis is specific to Summer Olympiads. The first Winter Olympics were in Chamonix, France, in 1924. The IOC’s early practice was to give the host of the Summer Games the opportunity to host Winter Games the same year. Lake Placid, N.Y., hosted the 1932 Winter Games February 4-13 and faced many of the same obstacles as Los Angeles. While the Summer Games produced a profit for the first time, Lake Placid struggled to meet a \$1.05 million total cost. It is important to note each city had its own organizing committee and corresponded very little during the preparation process. For a brief history of the 1932 Winter Games see, John Fea, *Encyclopedia of the Modern Olympic Movement*, John Findling and Kimberly Pelle, eds. (Westport CT: Greenwood Press, 2004), 297-302.

remain in some form provide a physical link to the past. Olympic stadiums and their accompanying venues all provide examples of restoration, rehabilitation, and adaptive use in attempting to conserve the built environment. An athletic stadium, with its many variable uses, can provide examples of any or all of the strategies for conserving existing buildings.

Stadiums specific to sports viewing have existed, in some form, for as long as men and women have gathered to be entertained. In 393 C.E., Theodosius I, Roman emperor, discontinued the Olympic Games in a decree that prohibited all forms of heathen and pagan culture. Natural disasters (flood and earthquake), along with the erosion of time, buried the remains of the *Altis* or sacred precinct that included the original stadium for the quadrennial Olympic Games in Athens, Greece. In the latter stages of the eighteenth century, French and English archeologists began the process of excavating the area. At the conclusion of the Greek War for Independence in 1829, the Greek government discontinued digs in the area, wishing to prevent the removal of antique pieces of Greek art to France.

Following the election of Otto of Bavaria as king of Greece, German influence, especially Ernst Curtius, a professor in Berlin, increased in regards to exploring the region. Curtius proposed full excavation around 1852, but Greece's involvement in the Crimean War (1853-1856) interrupted negotiations between the Prussian government and Greece. Further negotiations followed, but the Franco-Prussian War (1870-71) again halted any excavation plans. In the spring of 1875 Curtius traveled to Greece and six

excavations ensued over the next six years; the *Altis* was fully exposed and led to a six-volume history of the site.<sup>3</sup>

Despite the archeological findings, the ancient site of Olympia provided minimal clues as to what a stadium might look like; in order to provide a more aesthetic and philosophical meaning a suitable setting was paramount for Coubertin. Once Athens was awarded the 1896 Games, Coubertin and the founding members of the IOC sponsored an architectural competition for the purpose of soliciting a design for a “Modern Olympia.” The group wanted a modern city devoted exclusively to the celebration of art and sport, a semi-sacred precinct in which buildings and landscape were perfectly harmonized in an expression of dignified and lofty purpose, wishing that “[The Olympic City] must be steeped in a sort of gravity which need not necessarily be austere and need not exclude joy, so in the interval of silence between the Games it will attract visitors as on a pilgrimage and inspire in them a respect due to places consecrated to noble memories and to potent hopes.”<sup>4</sup> With the revival of Games modeled after those of Ancient Greece, many felt, especially many Grecians, that the festival should be held in Athens every four years because the Games belonged to them. The stadium was built with a future use in mind, but that future did not include the Olympics wished by many. The stadium was used for “Intermediate Games” in 1906, but the Olympics did not return to Athens until 2004.

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<sup>3</sup> Ernst Curtius’s five-volume documentation of the Olympia excavations is titled, *Olympia: Die Ereignisse der Deutschen Reich veranstalteten Ausgrabungen*, and published from 1891-1897 as cited by Karl Lennartz and Stephen Wassong in *Encyclopedia of the Modern Olympic Movement*, 18.

<sup>4</sup> Pierre de Coubertin, *Revue Olympique* (Paris: International Olympic Committee, 1910) as quoted in Gordon, *Olympic Architecture*, 3.

Thirteen nations participated in the 1896 Games with 233 of the 302 athletes from Greece; fourteen from the United States competed. Competitions were held at the Zappeion building, the Piraeus beachfront, a velodrome constructed in Phaleron with the majority of events staged inside the Panathenean Stadium, the ancient stadium of Herodes Atticus rebuilt in marble by architect Anastasios Metaxes. The U-form stadium sits east of the Acropolis in a fold in Arditos Hill and includes a 333-meter running track with two hairpin turns. The infield was too small for some field events, but the design gave future builders and the IOC a foundational base.<sup>5</sup>

The 1900 Olympics were originally scheduled as a stand-alone event, but political squabbles and athletic organizational in-fighting put the second Games within Paris' *Universelle Internationale*, a seven-month World's Fair. Over thirteen hundred athletes competed, four times the total of 1896, but inadequate facilities and disorganization kept the sporting competitions on the periphery. The hasty arrangements put track and field at Croix-Catelan in the Bois de Boulogne where a 500-meter grass track and with trees in the way of hammer throwers made for interesting results. Yachting and rowing were included in the exposition's "Class 33: material and commercial navigation" and gymnastics and fencing were displayed among the sports of school children. Following

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<sup>5</sup> Gordon, 6-7. For a complete history of the Panathenean Stadium a website exists, <http://www.panathenaicstadium.gr> (accessed 12 August 2014), that provides a list of twenty-first century activities available at the site. The Zappeion building also remains in use as a conference and exhibition center. See also, John MacAloon, *The Great Symbol: Pierre de Coubertin and the Origins of the Modern Olympic Games* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1981), Richard Mandell, *The First Modern Olympics* (Berkeley CA: University of California Press, 1976), and David Young, *The Modern Olympics: A Struggle for Revival* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1996) for more historical background regarding the 1896 Games.



the 1900 Games, Bill Henry writes, “It is a wonder that the Olympic movement survived.”<sup>6</sup>

Throughout the twentieth century the Croix-Catelan area remained an athletic training facility. It is now the site of Lagardère Paris Racing, a facility with over forty tennis courts, soccer fields, two swimming pools, and other sporting facilities. Opening and closing ceremonies were not held at the 1900 Games, thus a stadium was not part of the planning process.

The 1904 Games in St. Louis, like Paris in 1900, were part of a larger event, the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. Originally awarded to Chicago, the IOC moved the Olympics to St. Louis after threats by the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) and James E. Sullivan to keep the United States’ best athletes away from the Olympic contests if they were held in Chicago. St. Louis organizers also offered the IOC a plan that would include the Olympics as part of a world’s fair centennial celebration of the Louisiana Purchase. After investigating the necessary arrangements for hosting the large sports festival, Chicago organizers decided to withdraw its offer and allow the Games to move to St. Louis. In February 1903, Sullivan was put in charge and Washington University in St. Louis continued with venue preparation. Track and field events were held at the 536-meter track at Washington University, now Francis Field, but, like Paris’ extended five-month World’s Fair, sporting events that included high school, collegiate, and club teams with no real organizational structure. The young Olympic movement was still in its infancy and after the troubles of 1900 few Europeans made the trip overseas.

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<sup>6</sup> Bill Henry, *An Approved History of the Olympic Games* (New York: G.P. Putnam’s Sons, 1948), 62.

Perhaps one of the darkest episodes of the early twentieth century Olympiads is the Anthropology Days, a two-day series of athletic events sponsored by the Physical Culture and Anthropology Department of the exposition. Led by Sullivan, the exhibition took “primitive” peoples from the fair’s midway and staged athletic contests with which the participants were unfamiliar. At their conclusion, Sullivan proclaimed that primitive peoples “had neither good natural athletic skills nor the intelligence to make team sports work.”<sup>7</sup> This theory echoed the fair’s goals of providing evidence of Anglo-Saxon supremacy and led Coubertin to pen the prophetic statement, “As for that outrageous charade, it will of course lose its appeal when black men, red men, and yellow men learn to run, jump and throw and leave the white man far behind them.”<sup>8</sup>

The main facility in 1904, Francis Field, was built in 1902 and included in a 1979 nomination of the Washington University Hilltop Campus Historic District for National Historic Landmark (NHL) status. Constructed long before any Olympic model existed, a modified Francis Field continues to play a role in the community. NHL’s represent a special category of designated historic structures and properties with exceptional value or quality. They also recognize places that emphasize a common bond between all Americans. Designation as an NHL, however, does not prohibit property owners from

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<sup>7</sup> C. Robert Barnett, *Encyclopedia of the Modern Olympic Movement*, 38.

<sup>8</sup> For a complete description of the events surrounding the 1904 Anthropology Days see *The 1904 Anthropology Days and the Olympic Games*, Susan Brownell, ed. (Lincoln NE: University of Nebraska Press, 2008). Further resources for the 1904 Games include Alan Guttman, *The Olympics: A History of the Modern Games* (Champaign IL: University of Illinois Press, 2002), *Spalding's Official Athletic Almanac for 1905: Special Olympic Number, Containing the Official Olympic Report* (New York: American Sports Publishing Company), 1905, and David R. Francis, *The Universal Exposition of 1904* (St. Louis: Louisiana Purchase Exposition Company, 1913). For Coubertin’s comments following the 1904 Games see Coubertin, *Selected Writings*, 403-409.

altering the existing structure, with a general assumption that public pressure might deter any alteration. Francis Field changed significantly in 1984 and had major renovations in 2003. The National Register nomination form states, “although the function of many of these buildings have changed since their erection, their physical condition and the condition of the site remains excellent.”<sup>9</sup> Although the historic significance of the site remains, the physical alterations are such that NHL designation is difficult to achieve for the first major Olympic venue in the United States. Had the 1904 Games been held in higher regard, perhaps efforts to preserve Francis Field in its original state might have increased.

The 1900 and 1904 Games showed how little the Olympic ideal was understood outside the IOC circle and “how quickly it could be turned to selfish commercial purposes and how far it had fallen from the innate dignity of Athens eight years before.”<sup>10</sup> Many felt Coubertin’s plans for revival were done, his vision misinterpreted. The difficulties following the 1904 Games hindered Los Angeles’s early bids for bringing the Games back to the United States for 1932.

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<sup>9</sup> Missouri Department of Natural Resources, State Historic Preservation Office, St. Louis County National Register Listings, <http://www.dnr.mo.gov/shpo/StLouis.htm> (accessed 8 January 2014). For more on National Historic Landmark status, see Norman Tyler, Ted Ligibel, and Ilene Tyler, *Historic Preservation: An Introduction to its History, Principles, and Practice* (New York: W.W. Norton and Company, 2009), 150.

<sup>10</sup> Gordon, 8. One of the many symposiums during the 1904 Games featured U.S. collegiate athletic directors attending lectures held by sporting goods companies for “model gymnasiums” and a way to sell sporting goods equipment to universities and colleges. The advertising is evident in *Spalding’s Official Olympic Report*. The Olympics were another sideshow in St. Louis and the modern businesslike methods and procedural organization of sport competitions were not yet established; there was no precedent to follow in 1904.

The 1908 Games in London were “a sensible compromise between the restricted program of Paris and the ‘orgy of meaningless events in St. Louis,’” according to Henry.<sup>11</sup> Key in re-establishing some sort of order, the IOC headed the development of Olympic committees with delegates elected from national sports organizations. The Franco-British Exposition coincided with the fourth Olympiad, but organizers were willing to create a number of sports venues and give the sports organizers more autonomy.

London’s White City Stadium is the first stadium designed and built expressly for an Olympic Games. Architect James Fulton strove to integrate sportsman and spectator; his seventy-thousand seat venue included a 536-meter track ringed with a cycling track with banked turns. A swimming pool was built inside the track, much better than the Seine River of Paris 1900 and the artificial pond of St. Louis 1904. White City Stadium cost 20,000 pounds, seated almost seventy thousand and remained in use until its demolition in 1984. It was taken over by the Greyhound Racing Association in 1927, hosted one World Cup match in 1966, and was the brief home to Queens Park Rangers football club.<sup>12</sup>

Stockholm did not have adequate sports facilities prior to 1912 and the seventy-thousand-seat venue in London did not produce the intimate setting requested by IOC leadership. Without political and organizational squabbles, architect Torben Grut designed a twenty-two-thousand seat closed oval stadium in a northern suburb of Stockholm that remains in use in 2015. Gordon calls Grut’s stadium, “then and now, the

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<sup>11</sup> Henry, 97.

<sup>12</sup> Jerry White, *London: The Story of a Great City* (London: Andre Deutsch Ltd., 2014).

kind of building architects look at and remember,” and the stadium became the new ceremonial and architectural backbone of the Games.<sup>13</sup>

The Games resumed following the end of the Great War in 1919. Antwerp had a year and a half to prepare for the 1920 Games, and with minimal infrastructure it is understandable that adequate preparation could not have been expected. The Olympic oath, recited by competing athletes, and the new five-ring flag, were unveiled at the sixth Olympiad. Belgian organizers hastily erected the Champs de Beerschot, a 30,000-seat stadium designed by Fernand de Montignies and L. Somers. Following the Games, the name changed to Olympisch Stadium and it housed a local soccer club for the next seventy years. It was modified significantly in 1999. A redevelopment program in 2000 resulted in a smaller stadium with no track and little resemblance to the original stadium.

Antwerp proved an important restorative for amateur athletics and another attempt at bringing the world’s youth together following Europe’s bloody war. Gordon writes, “In its graceful colonnades, cartouches, and its proud triumphal arch, the stadium’s designers made use of elements that had so long stood for beauty, that gave consoling reassurances that everything was as it had been, that the world had not turned, that the old prewar order was still intact.”<sup>14</sup>

The 1920s brought a creative surge in architecture and produced the United States’ first sports cathedrals, including Yankee Stadium in New York, Soldier Field in Chicago, and Memorial Coliseum in Los Angeles. The popularity of sports also increased, not just for its financial possibilities but for the stars and matinee-idols it

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<sup>13</sup> Gordon, 12.

<sup>14</sup> Ibid, 13.

produced. Olympic organizers began to incorporate subsidiary venues in the building of their *Altis*.

France, host in 1924, put on a better Games by sidestepping the political and organizational snares of 1900. Despite ongoing difficulties with Germany and other post-war issues of the early 1920s, Coubertin's home country was fully committed to making the thirtieth anniversary of the Olympic revival a positive event. Architect Louis Faure-Dujarric's stadium in Colombes cost 35 million francs. The State Antique des Turtles was the first stand-alone swimming stadium constructed for an Olympic Games, built by architect Leopold Bevier with a grandstand for 10,000. The pool was renovated in 1989 and given a retractable roof; it reopened as Piscine Georges Valery. Colombes, now State Olympique Yves-du-Manoir, remained a football and rugby venue for most of twentieth century. It is the current home to the rugby club Racing Métro 92.

Amsterdam's original plans for 1928 were hindered due to financial problems, but a memorable 40,000-seat stadium was designed by architect Jan Wils. For the first time the Olympic flame burned throughout the Games atop a specially-designed tower. The Olympic Stadium, renovated in 2000, continues to host Dutch football matches in 2015.

Four years after Amsterdam, Los Angeles hosted the 1932 Games. The Tenth Olympiad was a culmination of experience and experiment in regards to organizational efficiency and adequate facilities for sport on a mass scale. California did not experience the same post-war problems as Antwerp in 1920 or Paris in 1924, or not have any precedence as Athens, St. Louis, and London did. Local organizer William May Garland and his supporters had a short but extensive Olympic history to draw from that included logistical blueprints for staging several events over the course of several months.

Intentional or not, like pre-1932 host cities, Los Angeles' first Olympic experience provided an extensive addition to the community's built environment.

## CHAPTER III

### LOS ANGELES: BOOMS, BOOSTERS, AND THE PROCESS OF BECOMING AN OLYMPIC HOST CITY

If ever the phrase “right place at the right time” applied, Los Angeles and the 1932 Summer Olympics is an appropriate model. The “place” has a narrative filled with promotional campaigns to bring people and prosperity to the region. Considered a newer American city as an outgrowth of the motion-picture industry and as a creation of the real estate promoter during the 1920s, Los Angeles in reality dates to before the Revolutionary period. It is a derivative of Spain, Mexico, a brief Bear Flag Republic, and, since 1847, the United States. Throughout all periods of development there is a recurring theme of promotional activity to sell the region. Los Angeles leaders, in staging the 1932 Games, attempted to emulate the 1915 expositions in San Diego and San Francisco. They envisioned a large, global event bringing attention to the region and producing incentives for tourists and business-minded investors to become permanent residents. Southern California was considered by some to be “the Promised Land that amazes, delights and



thaws him out physically and spiritually; an open-air circus of mixed cultures that includes educational, scientific, industrial, and entertainment characteristics.”<sup>1</sup>

Throughout the twentieth century, attempts have been made to document the city’s varied history. Author, activist, and lawyer Carey McWilliams calls Los Angeles and its Southern California surroundings “an island on the land” and describes the city as “one of the greatest promotions the world has ever known;” historian Robert Fogelson portrays the city as “hooked on growth,” with Jeremy White coining the phrase “The Los Angeles way of doing things” in illustrating the city’s practice of boosterism during the 1920s and leading up to the 1932 Olympics.<sup>2</sup> Like the reinvigorated Olympic movement in 1896, Los Angeles was still in the developmental process when the IOC awarded the games to the U.S. for a second time. Not only would the IOC and future Olympiads receive an organizational and promotional lesson plan from the civic-minded organizers of Southern California, those in the business of promoting the city used the sports festival as a version of heritage tourism and to continue attracting the investments that would grow the region throughout the 1930s and 1940s.

The “time” was not conducive to sports festivals that required large expenditures.

The Olympic movement struggled for a firm footing from its revival in 1896 to its

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<sup>1</sup> *Los Angeles in the 1930s: The WPA Guide to the City of Angels, Federal Writers Project of the Works Progress Administration* (Los Angeles: University of California Press, 2011), 4.

<sup>2</sup> Carey McWilliams, *Southern California: An Island on the Land* (1946; repr., Salt Lake City: Peregrine Smith Books, 1973), 156-161. McWilliams, a resident of Los Angeles during the 1920s, documents many of those responsible for the “selling” of the region, especially during the early parts of the twentieth century. Robert Fogelson, *The Fragmented Metropolis: Los Angeles, 1850-1930* (Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press, 1967) and Jeremy White “The Los Angeles Way of Doing Things: The Olympic Village and the Practice of Boosterism in 1932,” *OLYMPIKA: The International Journal of Olympic Studies* 11 (2002). 79-116.

interruption for the Great War and through the 1920s. Antwerp, in 1920, was hastily arranged and the 1924 and 1928 Games did not receive the world-wide attention hoped for by Olympic organizers. Bringing the youth of the world together for peaceful sports competition was not necessarily looked on favorably by a tumultuous Europe of the 1920s, and the financial crisis just prior to 1930 added to what many felt was the impending doom of the Olympic movement. As late as September of 1931 Swedish sports leaders proposed the cancelation of the 1932 Games because of the Depression; many European countries, including Germany and France, were struggling to raise the necessary funds to send a team and agreed with Swedish leaders.<sup>3</sup> Six months before the Games were to open, American president Herbert Hoover informed organizers he would not be attending due to pressing issues in the capital. The president did not want to be associated with California's frivolous "athletic carnival." Vice president Charles Curtis would be sent instead.<sup>4</sup>

Los Angeles organizers, however, through various means of promotion and the creation of an Olympic village, produced a blueprint for the successful Olympiads for the rest of the twentieth century. In promoting the Olympic Games, boosters put forward the sports festival as a "modern cultural event" that included the world's greatest "amateur" athletes and also a chance to rub elbows with celebrities, explore Spanish mission ruins, and experience the Mediterranean-like climate of ancient Greece in Southern California.

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<sup>3</sup> "Suggest Olympics Should Be Put Off," The Associated Press, *New York Times*, 24 September 1931, p. 33 (accessed 12 January 2014). American Olympic Committee leader Avery Brundage cited the Olympic Charter, saying "Under IOC protocol the Games must be held as scheduled; the four-year interval cannot be altered."

<sup>4</sup> A.J. Stump, "The Games That Almost Weren't," *American Heritage* 33 (August/September 1982), 67.

Previous Olympics had been held on the periphery of world's fairs; 1932 showed that, as a stand-alone event, a large sports festival could achieve similar goals as world's fairs and expositions.<sup>5</sup> The use of the Olympic Games as a promotional event for a particular city is not necessarily within the intended goals of the IOC. Los Angeles, the first city to earn a profit from an Olympics, produced an early financial model that perhaps unintentionally led to the economic determinism of later Olympiads. These unintended commercial and financial consequences should be weighed against the organizers' choice of venues and the inclusion of these venues in the community's future plans. Stadiums and venues for the 1932 Games were not built with one specific purpose or event in mind; that is not necessarily the case in the twenty-first century.<sup>6</sup>

This chapter provides a brief history of Los Angeles, focusing largely on its rapid growth late in the nineteenth century through the period of rapid development in the 1920s. It also explores the evolution of the city's successful attempt to bring the Olympics to Southern California and examines the similarities of boosterism from previous boom periods. Many of the venues used for the two-week 1932 Games were constructed during the 1920s, a period of rapid construction in the city, and not solely with the Olympics in mind. In order to better understand the built environment and the

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<sup>5</sup> Sean Dinces, "Padres on Mount Olympus: Los Angeles and the Production of the 1932 Olympic Mega-Event," *Journal of Sport History*, Vol. 32, No. 2 (Summer 2005), 157.

<sup>6</sup> Many sources are available documenting the large financial investments made by cities hosting Olympic Games and World Cup soccer tournaments. An interesting look at the 2014 World Cup and 2016 Summer Olympics in Brazil by Dave Zirin questions the process. See Dave Zirin, *Brazil's Dance With the Devil: The World Cup, The Olympics, and The Fight for Democracy* (Chicago: Haymarket Books, 2014).

historical significance of many of the Olympic-related structures, it is important to recognize the process by which the city developed.

### **Early Los Angeles**

Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo, a Portuguese navigator in the service of Spain, sailed into San Pedro Bay midway through the sixteenth century. As expansion and exploration continued, Spain and its missionaries brought Christianity to the local population, mainly Gabrieleno and Fernandeno Indians. Franciscan Father Junipero Sera and Captain Gaspar de Portolá led Spanish expeditions to select mission sites, arriving at the first of twenty-one eventual sites, San Diego Bay, in 1769. The group continued north and made camp near modern Elysian Park where they documented the La Brea tar pits, possibly the first indication of petroleum in western America. Natives became a cheap and local source of labor for the growing missions.<sup>7</sup>

Spanish Governor Felipe de Neve recommended a pueblo be established in the area of Elysian Park. After difficulties finding settlers, de Neve recruited a group from Sonora (Mexico) that reached San Gabriel Mission, located near Elysian Park, in August of 1781.. The official founding of Los Angeles, or *El Pueblo de Nuestra Señora la Reina*

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<sup>7</sup> The narrative concerning Father Junipero Sera and the missions is not a popular one with Native peoples of Southern California. As of January 2015 that debate is still ongoing. See Carol Pogash, “To Some in California, Founder of Church Missions is Far From Saint,” *New York Times*, January 21, 2015, [http://www.nytimes.com/2015/01/22/us/to-some-indians-in-california-father-serra-is-far-from-a-saint.html?\\_r=0](http://www.nytimes.com/2015/01/22/us/to-some-indians-in-california-father-serra-is-far-from-a-saint.html?_r=0) (accessed 21 January 2015). For more narrative on the missions, see McWilliams, *Southern California*, 21-48. For a brief history of the Native American population prior to and during early Spanish contact, see Fredrick Hoxie, ed., *Encyclopedia of North American Indians* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1996), 94-96. Native Indian population declined by 80 percent between 1845 and 1870 due to disease and extermination killings by government-sanctioned California Volunteer Militia with bands of miners and ranchers. Native Indians served as labor during the early gold-rush years, then as domestic servants, and by the 1880s in fruit growing operations.

*de Los Angeles de Porciúncula* which translates to *The Town of Our Lady the Queen of the Angels de Porciúncula*, is dated to 4 September 1781. It is one of the few U.S. cities deliberately planned in advance and ceremonially inaugurated.<sup>8</sup>

Pedro Fages succeeded de Neve as governor and began a policy of giving large land grants to personal friends and those favored by his government. Juan José Dominguez accepted 43,000 acres in 1785, the first land grant in Southern California. The area included Wilmington, Torrance, and Redondo Beach and is the only original Spanish grant still in the possession of the original grantees' heirs.<sup>9</sup> Similar petitions were made and ranchos spread without government control, becoming self-sufficient. By the end of the eighteenth century, the area was divided into mission, ranch, and pueblo domains with large tracts of land covered by herds of cattle, fields of grain, vineyards, and orchards.

By 1800, Los Angeles had a population just over three hundred. With Spain unable to fully govern the region, New England ships frequented California ports and continued trade with local Indians and whites in the early decades of the nineteenth century. Spanish contributions to civil government, missions, and soldiers ceased by 1811, one year after the start of the Mexican revolution; Spanish ships avoided California ports, creating a wide-open market for other nationalities. Although not necessarily a boom period, a diverse population began to exploit a region with very little regulation or government intervention. During the decade's-long revolution, revenues dropped

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<sup>8</sup> *Los Angeles in the 1930s: The WPA Guide to the City of Angels*, 25-38.

<sup>9</sup> Glen Creason, *Los Angeles in Maps* (New York: Rizzoli International Publications, 2010), 29. The 1937 lithograph published by the Title Insurance and Trust Company shows the Spanish and Mexican ranchos of Los Angeles County.

significantly, however. Local missions were over-burdened with taking care of locals, yet the population of Los Angeles doubled by 1820 as new settlers made their way into the unregulated areas. Spain eventually relinquished control and from March 1825 until 1847, California was a territory in the Republic of Mexico. The population increased to 1200 by 1830 as Mexican, Spanish, German, Scottish, English, and French immigrants moved to the area. With Spain no longer in control, the mission system was phased out in the early 1830s.

At the beginning of 1834, California's twenty-one missions were directing the labor of 15,000 Indians, were producing 123,000 bushels of grain, tending 780,000 head of cattle, horses, sheep, goats, and swine, and cultivating orchards, vineyards and well-kept vegetable gardens. Eight years later, in 1842, only one-eighth of the Indians were living near missions. Livestock was reduced to 64,000 head, and mission buildings were nearly in ruin.<sup>10</sup> From 1836 to 1846, Justin Smith writes, "[California] was poor, shiftless and pitiful; unprotected, undeveloped, unenlightened, unconsidered; helpless and almost hopeless."<sup>11</sup> Foreigners gradually took control of commerce and industry, giving their oath to the Mexican government, joining the Catholic Church, and marrying into leading Spanish and Mexican families. These foreigners gained such wealth and local power that

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<sup>10</sup> The missions exist in varying degrees of architectural integrity in 2015. Ongoing restoration projects are directed by the California Missions Foundation, a tax-exempt organization. In 2004, President George W. Bush signed HR146, the "California Mission Preservation Act," into law. The measure funded \$10 million over a five-year period. For a concise history of each mission, see *Missions of California* (Charm Kraft Industries, 2010).

<sup>11</sup> Justin H. Smith, *War With Mexico* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1919), 315.

Mexican leaders considered some to be “foreign agitators” and led to hostilities between local Mexican governors and American “foreign” landholders.<sup>12</sup>

War with Mexico erupted in 1846 after Mexico refused to recognize the annexation of the Republic of Texas to the United States. In California, John C. Fremont led an uprising, the Bear Flag Revolt in May 1846, against the Mexican government. Skirmishes, battles, and open warfare existed in and around Los Angeles, notably two battles in May 1847 fought just south of Los Angeles, and led by Americans Stephen Watts Kearny and Robert Field Stockton. Nine months later, the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed, establishing the Rio Grande as the border between the United States and Mexico. The treaty recognized the annexation of Texas, and agreed to sell California and the rest of its territory north of the Rio Grande to the U.S. for \$15 million.<sup>13</sup>

Just prior to the end of war with Mexico, in 1848, gold was discovered to the north, leading to a population decrease in the Los Angeles area. The large and quick increase in population to the north exhausted the meat supply in San Francisco and Sacramento. This, in turn, led to a profitable cattle market for Los Angeles during the gold rush period of 1848-1855. Money, scarce during Mexican rule, began to circulate freely thanks in part to the hides, tallow, and meats provided by local ranchers and the necessary labor required to get them to prospective customers. Again, although not necessarily considered a boom period, the increased revenue inevitably led to more localized development. Ranch owners became wealthy.

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<sup>12</sup> *Los Angeles in the 1930s*, 34.

<sup>13</sup> Smith describes the events surrounding conflict in and around Los Angeles. Smith, *War With Mexico*, 347-369. For further investigation into the Mexican-American War see also Winfield Scott, *Memoirs of Lieut.-General, LL.D.*, 2 vols. (New York: Sheldon, 1864).

The first mapping of the city, the Ord Survey in 1849, represents a point in time when the pueblo of Los Angeles began its relationship with the U.S. and moved away from preceding eras. The downtown plaza existed for sixty-eight years prior to Lieutenant Edward Ord and William Rich Hutton producing City Map No. 1, but for the first time the salesmen, the speculators, and the developers of the region had a promotional aid to show prospective settlers.<sup>14</sup> On 4 April 1850, the city of Los Angeles was incorporated and became the county seat. The first U.S. Census gives the population of the county at 8,329 (4,091 native White Mexicans, 4,193 domesticated Indians, 295 Americans); the first newspaper was *La Estrella de los Angeles* (Los Angeles Star) and was printed 17 May 1851 in Spanish and English.<sup>15</sup> Over the next two decades, Los Angeles grew into a wild frontier town with saloons, gambling dens, houses of prostitution, and too many thieves, murderers, and desperadoes. This period also included shady land dealings as holdings moved from Mexican land owners to wealthy whites. By the mid-1870s, four-fifths of the great ranches surrounding Los Angeles belonged to whites, considered foreigners previously. Vineyards also grew exponentially, making wine a major export.<sup>16</sup>

The region gradually lost its wild frontier status and began to include technological developments in the 1860s. Water mains and gas lights were introduced in 1867, and the first railway was built in 1869 from downtown to the harbor at Wilmington, thus helping with the export of wine, wheat, fruit, and other regional

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<sup>14</sup> *Los Angeles in Maps*, 33.

<sup>15</sup> *Los Angeles in the 1930s*, 40.

<sup>16</sup> *Ibid*, 40.



agricultural products. By 1870 the population stood at just over 5,600 and the first improvements were made to the harbor. Until 1876, communication with the outside world existed through stagecoach, freight wagon, and by sea. The first link to the transcontinental system, the Southern Pacific Railroad, extended southward from San Francisco in 1876 encouraged by land and cash subsidies. Still, by the mid-1880s, Los Angeles had many aspects of a Mexican pueblo. Everything quickly changed from 1885 to 1887 with one of the largest real estate booms in history.

The Santa Fe Railroad reached Los Angeles in late 1885, creating a competitor for the Southern Pacific and the rate wars that brought about mass migration. With a ticket from Kansas City to Los Angeles costing one dollar, one thousand people a month came in the summer of 1886. A frenzied period of land speculation ensued and land prices skyrocketed, boosted by “boomers” from Eastern and Midwestern land rushes. McWilliams calls this period the “Pullman Car Migration.”<sup>17</sup> Once city plots sold, promoters began to lay out new “cities” in farming regions, barren hillsides, the desert, and mountaintops. By the end of 1887, twenty-eight towns mushroomed along the Santa Fe Railway between the city and San Bernardino. Recorded transactions in Los Angeles County for 1887 totaled \$100,000,000 with many additional sales not recorded. Land prices went from \$100 to \$1500 an acre. By 1888, many of those prospective communities remained sagebrush, and the boom, as quick as it materialized, was over.<sup>18</sup> Inevitably, the fictitious land values began to subside and land owners, sensing the boom

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<sup>17</sup> McWilliams, *Southern California*, 125-128. The author describes these new immigrants as, “people who could afford a train ticket: the merchant, the banker, the uprooted professional man, the farmer with an invalid wife.”

<sup>18</sup> *Los Angeles in the 1930s*, 43.

had reached its peak, tried to sell at inflated rates. When there were no longer any buyers, prices quickly dropped. Of the more than one hundred towns “created” in Los Angeles County between 1884 and 1888, at least sixty two did not exist by 1940.

Following the boom period of 1885 to 1887, civic leaders began to seek a different kind of immigrant: hard-working farmers from the Middle West as opposed to get-rich-quick investors. Newspaper editors, businessmen, and railroad leaders formed the city’s first Chamber of Commerce in 1888 and helped produce “persuasive literature” that was distributed in the corn and wheat belts. That literature included agricultural exhibits established at fairs and expositions with “California on Wheels” and its two-year tour with prize fruits and vegetables, a brass band, tons of pamphlets, and a squad of high-powered Los Angeles salesmen.<sup>19</sup> The goal was to bring immigrants with means, hard-working, industrious, God-fearing folk. The railroad-inspired boom boosted the population from 11,000 in 1880 to 50,000 in 1890; the Chamber’s efforts pushed the total over 100,000 by 1900.

The founding of modern Los Angeles can be dated to the end of the boom in 1887 and the introduction of the Chamber of Commerce in 1888. The Mexican pueblo no longer existed as streets became paved, larger buildings erected, and facilities improved (electric car lines, lights, water mains and sewers). Commercial expansion occurred during the 1890s, including the discovery of petroleum near the heart of the business district in 1892. In less than five years, 200 companies existed and 2,500 wells were drilled within the city limits. One of most important events of the period was the successful conclusion of a long fight for the construction of a deep-water harbor at San

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<sup>19</sup> Ibid, 44.

Pedro.<sup>20</sup> The final decade of the nineteenth century is the beginning of what Norman M. Klein calls the “industri-opolis,” and brought many of the men who would help shape the city and bring the 1932 Olympics to Southern California.<sup>21</sup>

Another boom period followed the Great War and lasted throughout the 1920s. Post-war economic decline stimulated renewed efforts at civic promotion with the hope of charming visitors to establish residency or to invest in the area’s economic future.<sup>22</sup> The population in Los Angeles rose from 576,000 to 1.2 million by 1930. Construction projects increased markedly during the 1920s, including a war memorial in the form of a huge coliseum in Exposition Park that would be the center of activity during the 1932 Games. The post-1919 building boom also included Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company’s \$6 million plant, Firestone and Goodrich Tire Companies in 1927, followed by aircraft and automobile assembly plants, and oil refineries operated by Pan-American Petroleum and Shell Oil Company. The region’s citrus crops accounted for one third of Los Angeles County’s income. Always at the center of conversation and innovation was water with the Owens Valley tragedy and its ethical implications.<sup>23</sup>

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<sup>20</sup> Ibid, 46. The expansion of the harbor area allowed for an increase in shipping which in turn increased the level of imports and exports to the region.

<sup>21</sup> Norman M. Klein, *The History of Forgetting: Los Angeles and the Erasure of Memory* (New York: Verso, 2008), 48-50. The term “industri-opolis” is defined by Klein as a social imaginary, an industrial blueprint laid over a rapidly decentralizing city that blends the Depression, war-time, industrial city (1929-1945) with the sunshine city (1885-1929). Masking the increasing level of industrial grime for the sunshine-seeking tourist was the task for those promoting the city.

<sup>22</sup> Robert K. Barney, “Resistance, Persistence, Providence: The 1932 Los Angeles Olympic Games in Perspective,” *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* 67 (June 1996), 149.

<sup>23</sup> McWilliams, *Southern California: An Island on the Land*, 183-204.

With growth reaching a fever pitch during the 1920s, business and civic leaders concluded a world-level event such as the Olympics was a perfect way to showcase their growing city. The large event would simultaneously entice more outsiders to stake their claim or to make Southern California a yearly destination of tourists.

### **Getting the Games to Los Angeles**

The Olympic seed may have been planted by Fred Kelly, a freshman at the University of Southern California (USC) who won a gold medal in hurdles at the 1912 Olympics in Stockholm. The attention the local student received, along with the national recognition in the press of Jim Thorpe, the involvement of future International Olympic Committee (IOC) president Avery Brundage and war hero George S. Patton, Jr., brought the young Olympic movement into conversations among Los Angeles leaders. Kelly relayed his experience of Stockholm positively; various Los Angeles civic groups thought about their city being portrayed in a similar fashion.<sup>24</sup>

Thirty years before it was to play the key role in 1932, Exposition Park, originally known as Agricultural Park, had a frontier reputation with its gambling and horse and carriage racing. Dating to the early 1870s, the park received special attention from USC law professor William Bowen in the final five years of the 1890s. His goal was to keep students from loitering, gambling, and out of the brothels.<sup>25</sup> On 12 June 1899, the City of

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<sup>24</sup> Earl Gustkey, "The Long Run: Track and Field in LA has a Storied History and an Uncertain Future," *Los Angeles Times*, Dec. 29, 1999, <http://articles.latimes.com/1999/dec/29/news/ss-48677> (accessed 8 January 2015).

<sup>25</sup> The University of Southern California began classes in 1880. The campus' southern border remains Exposition Boulevard with the first building constructed, now known as the Widney Alumni House, constructed at a cost of \$5000. The Widney House

Los Angeles annexed the land. It took a decade, but by 1913 the current boundaries of the park began to take shape and more involvement by community leaders led to continued growth in the area.

During the 1915 Panama-Pacific Exposition in San Francisco and the Panama-California Exposition in San Diego, Los Angeles was considered a “gateway;” a term that did not sit well with civic leaders. William May Garland was among those who wished to change the perception of the city. Garland, who arrived in Los Angeles in 1890 as a railroad auditor, was part of what McWilliams calls “that great wave that brought cunning, shrewdness, and calculation. It brought the boosters and go-getters who proceeded to capitalize on the first migration that brought wealth, enterprise, and culture to Southern California.”<sup>26</sup> Another prominent citizen, *Los Angeles Times* publisher Harry Chandler was also part of the late nineteenth century wave of newcomers. Considered a shadowy figure by many scholars, Chandler went to work at the *Times* in 1885. He married the boss’s daughter after the death of his first wife and took over the newspaper in 1917. A man with enormous political clout, Chandler was influential in selecting public officials and helping them stay in office as long as they supported his conservative personal views.<sup>27</sup>

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has been moved three times and is currently the home to the USC Alumni Association. The house is also a California State Historic Landmark, number 536. See Charles Epting, *University Park Los Angeles: A Brief History* (Charleston SC: The History Press, 2013), 11-13.

<sup>26</sup> McWilliams, *Southern California*, 156. Garland arrived in Los Angeles in 1890 and formed a real estate company in 1894. He is the principal developer of Wilshire Boulevard and much of the downtown area, serving as head of the Chamber of Commerce, Board of Education, and the Los Angeles Athletic Club.

Following the Great War, tourism slumped significantly, prompting Chandler and other leaders to become more active in the promotion of the city. Through the first two decades of the twentieth century tourism was a valuable factor in selling the region, and boosters believed visitors would inevitably return to live and establish businesses. Late in 1918, five of the city's newspaper publishers met and agreed to work together as a "unit on everything that had to do with the up-building and advancing of Los Angeles."<sup>28</sup> In the spring of 1919, Los Angeles mayor Meredith Snyder appointed one hundred leading citizens to the California Fiestas Association (CFA) with a purpose of reviving Southern California's Spanish heritage and as a means of encouraging tourism and economic vitality. The group explored the possibilities of the Exposition Park area but wanted and needed a more attractive venue. The CFA reorganized one year later into a new booster group known as the Community Development Association (CDA) which included twenty-two members of the city's wealthy elite. The function of this non-profit organization, chaired by Garland, was much broader and forward-thinking than the CFA. At the initial CDA meeting, *Los Angeles Examiner* publisher Max Ihmsen proposed Los Angeles apply to stage an Olympic Games, arguing that hosting such a spectacle would "direct a lot of attention to the city, improve its prestige, and bring a great deal of free publicity."<sup>29</sup> Garland took the lead in organizing the effort to bring the IOC and their sports festival to Los Angeles.

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<sup>27</sup> Steven Riess, "Power Without Authority: Los Angeles' Elites and the Construction of the Coliseum," *Journal of Sport History* 8 (Spring 1981), 50-51.

<sup>28</sup> *Ibid*, 51.

<sup>29</sup> *Ibid*, 53. Garland took on the responsibility of showing the IOC that Los Angeles was a worthy host.

The chairman of the CDA made six trips to Europe between 1919 and 1923 to solicit the IOC. He attended the 1920 Games in Antwerp, bringing official invitations from Los Angeles and the state of California, plus early building plans for a new stadium that was soon to be under construction. Official voting for the 1924 and 1928 host cities did not occur in Antwerp. The vote was to take place at the 1921 IOC Olympic Congress in Lausanne, France, and it was widely known that IOC president de Coubertin intended the thirtieth anniversary of the Games' revival to be in Paris where he would retire from Olympic duties; de Coubertin also wanted the 1928 Games to go to Amsterdam. Both cities were verified in late 1921.<sup>30</sup>

Los Angeles received consideration and Garland, who personally financed his trips to Europe and impressed the IOC leadership with his aggressive ideas, became a member of the IOC in March 1922. In April 1923 at Garland's second meeting as a member at the Olympic Congress in Rome, the IOC voted to give Los Angeles the 1932 Games. The first order of business was to select an organizing committee to set up the administrative mechanism required to host an Olympics. Garland became president of the Los Angeles Olympic Organizing Committee (LAOOC) and Zack J. Farmer, a forty-year-old journalist and general-secretary of the CDA, was elected general-secretary. The LAOC was in actuality a product of the CFA and the CDA with many of the same business-minded leaders of the region as members.

Los Angeles, at the time, was not considered part of the Eastern-dominated American Olympic organization. But with the help of de Coubertin, who published his

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<sup>30</sup> No American representative attended the 1921 IOC Congress. U.S. IOC members William Milligan Sloane and Judge Bartow Weeks were reportedly ill. Allison Armour resigned earlier in 1921. Two Americans, Gustavus Town Kirby and Fred Rubien, arrived in Lausanne after the vote. See Barney, "Resistance," 150.

positive impressions of Southern California after visiting the area in 1893, the IOC and new president Count Henri Baillet-Latour were sold on Southern California. By the mid-1920s as the modern Olympic movement appeared stagnate following postwar devastation in Europe, de Coubertin envisioned California as a “kind of neo-Olympism,” a place to revive what he had started to build before the World War I disruption.<sup>31</sup>

Many of the city’s architectural icons were constructed during the 1920s, due in part to efforts of the CDA. The Memorial Coliseum (1923), the Los Angeles Public Library (1925), Los Angeles City Hall (1928), and the Rose Bowl in Pasadena (1922) remain in use in 2015. The venues used for the 1932 Games, their birth and twenty-first century fate, will be discussed in full in Chapter 4. It is also important to note that in acquiring or constructing venues, or altering existing ones, the organizing committee considered the use of the venues after the Games were over. As a result, the City of Los Angeles possessed several permanent sports improvements which were among the direct benefits of the Olympics to the host city.<sup>32</sup>

Throughout the second half of the 1920s the financial viability of hosting such a large event was always at the forefront of conversation. If the city and state were to benefit, it was argued by Olympic officials that public funds should in part underwrite the

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<sup>31</sup> Barney, “Resistance,” 152. Coubertin and Garland exchanged letters following his appointment to the IOC and Los Angeles earning the 1932 Games. Parts of the letters appear in Coubertin, *Olympism: Selected Writings* (Lausanne, FRA: International Olympic Committee, 1979).

<sup>32</sup> Charles Moore, Peter Becker and Regula Campbell, *Los Angeles: The City Observed, A Guide to its Architecture and Landscapes* (Santa Monica: Hennessey and Ingalls, 1998), 11, 18-19. For the library, the city commissioned Bertram Goodhue, a designer of buildings for the 1915 Panama-California Exposition in San Diego; John and Donald Parkinson, architects for the Coliseum, are responsible for City Hall, which Moore calls “typical of Los Angeles with loosely recreated architectural styles.” See also *Official Olympic Report*, 62.



project. On 16 March 1927, a bill was introduced in the state legislature for a one million dollar bond issue to help support the 1932 Games. The monies were to go toward expenses of preparing for and the holding of the Olympic Games, and the formation of the Organizing Committee. Called the California Tenth Olympiad Bond Act of 1927, it was ratified by voters in November 1928.<sup>33</sup>

Prior to 1932, Olympic Games were held in cultural centers of the world – Athens, London, Rome, and Paris – to help elevate the movement by association. Los Angeles marked a beginning for respective cities to associate themselves with world civilization, as a way to declare itself an important member of the world marketplace. This association is exactly what Los Angeles, through land speculation and boosterism, wanted throughout the 1920s and 1930s.<sup>34</sup> But with those associations come the inherent circumstances of the period and organizers faced many obstacles and crisis leading up to the opening ceremonies. Things changed significantly from gaining the Games in 1923 to the early 1930s.

To gain a better understanding of the administrative and organizational structure of hosting, the organizing committee sent Farmer to Amsterdam in 1928 to assess the IOC, the National Olympic Committees (NOCs), and the International Sports Federations

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<sup>33</sup> Barney, “Persistence,” 153. See also *The Games of the Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932, Official Olympic Report*, Los Angeles: Wolfer Printing Company, Inc., 43 (accessed through [www.LA84.org/sports-library-digital-collection](http://www.LA84.org/sports-library-digital-collection) 10 January 2013).

<sup>34</sup> White, “Constructing the Invisible Landscape,” 5-6. See also Maurice Roche, *Mega-Events and Modernity: Olympics and Expos in the Growth of Global Culture* (London: Routledge, 200), 141.

(IFs).<sup>35</sup> When Farmer returned to Los Angeles in August, his report was filled with misgivings about the commitment that lie ahead. Among his concerns was a lack of enthusiasm in Europe that could lead to 1932 being a regional or local event; Olympism was not necessarily in the air as World War I still lingered and another conflict seemed to be brewing; the IOC was a rudderless ship with mutinous national and international sport federations; financing was not yet secured. Farmer proposed a resolution to abandon the Games. Chandler urged caution with Garland not in attendance at “Farmer’s Report.” After debate among committee members, it passed. Garland attended the 1928 Games but remained in Europe an additional ten days for vacation with family. When he returned the vote was rescinded, prompting Farmer to resign from his post as general secretary of the organizing committee.<sup>36</sup>

A second crisis involved a power struggle with the American Olympic Association (AOA) trying to usurp duties of the Los Angeles committee. AOA president Avery Brundage cited statutes in the IOC constitution, pointing out in Article VI that the NOC of the host country had the power to delegate duties to a committee of its choosing. The local committee in Los Angeles pointed out the language of Article VII, stating the Organizing Committee of the country chosen is responsible and must make all necessary arrangements. Garland, Farmer and others in Los Angeles made it clear that they had done all the work and would not relinquish the administrative leadership at this late date.

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<sup>35</sup> For a better understanding of the Olympic organizational structure see Roche, *Megaevents and Modernity*. Each country has its own National Olympic Committee (NOC) which is expected to comply with the IOC’s Olympic Charter. Each sport has its own governing body, the International Federations, which also are expected to follow IOC rules.

<sup>36</sup> Barney, 153-154. The California Tenth Olympiad Bond Act passed in November. Garland did not accept Farmer’s resignation and he remained with the committee through the 1932 Games.

They also pointed out the IOC's acceptance of their administrative mechanism as early as 1924. The debate was resolved in Washington, D.C., at an AOA meeting in late-November 1930 where the confusing language concerning national and local committees disappeared from the IOC constitution.<sup>37</sup>

The final circumstance, the stock market crash in 1929, required creative solutions to complex global problems. Unemployment in California hit almost 700,000 with half of those in the Los Angeles area in early 1932. Soup kitchens were full on Figueroa Street, blocks from Exposition Park. Signs held by protesters around the city read "Groceries not Games" and "Olympics are Outrageous." Governor James Rolph knew it was tough to drum up support with clusters of crate-wood shacks thrown together in arroyos and on hillsides on the city's outskirts. He proclaimed "These games are an impossible venture. What do they want, riots?" European leaders discussed the problem of sending two hundred discus tossers and gymnasts halfway around the globe in an era of breadlines, homelessness and hunger.<sup>38</sup> What Los Angeles needed, according to Garland's group, was a big party to show Los Angeles's resolve during the crisis. With many supporters losing interest, Garland and Chandler attacked the "cold feeters" and spoke of "keeping our sacred word" and of not welshing if only a few showed up. At the center of that party would be a cost-cutting village community, the first Athletic Village in an Olympics, where the youth of the world would gather.<sup>39</sup>

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<sup>37</sup> Ibid, 153.

<sup>38</sup> Stump, "The Olympics That Almost Wasn't," 65-66. Los Angeles mayor John C. Porter ordered a \$5.3 million reduction in the city budget. See also Barney, 153-154.

<sup>39</sup> Ibid, 68.

With growing pessimism at home and abroad, the LAOOC focused on two issues – getting the athletes to Los Angeles and accommodations once they arrived.

Transportation systems were in economic trouble; transatlantic ocean liners had half-empty cabins and similar issues hindered American railroad coaches. Resolutions to existing problems were discussed at the 1930 IOC Olympic Congress in Berlin.

Using Hollywood-style tactics Garland, Farmer, and their entourage presented a motion picture to the Congress showing all facilities completed and those under construction. Also part of the presentation was information for discounted steamship and railroad travel and the initial Olympic Village plan.<sup>40</sup> By May 1930, American railroad companies, due to the negotiating skill of Garland, created a 40 percent reduction in round-trip Pullman car fares. The IOC negotiated directly with steamship companies and by May 1931 the Atlantic Conference, a consortium of eighteen of the major ocean-crossing lines gave a 20 percent reduction for one-way and round-trip tickets to Olympic athletes, coaches, and members of the IOC, NOCs, and IFs. The fare stood at slightly less than \$200. The coup de grâce at the Berlin Congress was the LAOC's village proposal. Los Angeles would provide housing for \$2 per person for the duration of the 1932 Olympics. This final proposal, discussed in Chapter 3, left Los Angeles with its most illustrious and lasting legacy. De Coubertin considered 1932 a watershed event in sustaining the Olympic movement and the closest to reflecting his vision of peace, joy, and unity through sport.

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<sup>40</sup> Barney, 155.

## CHAPTER IV

### HOUSING THE GUESTS: THE FIRST OLYMPIC VILLAGE AND THE CHAPMAN PARK HOTEL

The 1936 Olympic Games, hosted by Nazi-controlled Germany in Berlin, is shrouded in controversy for various reasons. Among those reasons are: Americans of Jewish descent staging a boycott campaign that was eventually immobilized by U.S. Olympic Committee leader Avery Brundage; the interaction, or lack thereof, between Adolf Hitler and U.S. African-American track star Jesse Owens; and the use of the Olympic Games as a political tool. At the time, the 1936 Games, in regards to Olympic procedure, organization, and international success, were seen in a positive light. The athletes, even those of color who the hosts deemed “black auxiliaries,” recalled being treated better in Germany than on their home soil. A village that housed the athletes earned praise from those who stayed there. Much of the procedural efficiency and the idea for housing athletes in one central location came from German sports administrator Carl Diem’s extensive notes taken from the previous Olympics in 1932. Part of Diem’s time at those Games was spent at the Olympic Village in Los Angeles where, four years later in Berlin somehow a government of intense racial exclusion provided for a mixed and racially harmonious environment. If the Olympic idea created in Los Angeles could exist in a state where the Nuremberg Laws ruled the day then perhaps Pierre de

Coubertin's Olympic philosophy could help strengthen international diplomacy.<sup>1</sup> Thirty-six years after the 1936 Games, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) returned its festival to Germany, this time to Munich. There are lasting images that accompany the Olympic narrative, many from the turbulent 1960s and 1970s. Perhaps at the top of Olympic historiography in regards to visual memory and the included narrative is the 1972 Games with its images of terrorism. That narrative includes a global television audience watching members of the Black September Palestinian terrorist organization hold hostage and eventually murder athletes, coaches, and staff of the Israeli Olympic team. In response to the militaristic environment of 1936, Munich was supposed to be the Games of peace and joy, a gathering of the world's youth during a chaotic period. Trying to promote this peaceful environment, German authorities made sure security forces were not posted on every street corner in opposition to the heavy police presence of 1936. Attending athletes spoke of a very relaxed security environment, of being able to pass somewhat freely in and out of the specified Olympic facilities. Maybe the mythical truce of Ancient Greece during Olympiads could hold firm in 1972. But on 5 September 1972 Jim McKay of the American Broadcasting Company (ABC) delivered one of Olympic

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<sup>1</sup> David Clay Large, *Nazi Games: The Olympics of 1936* (New York: WW Norton and Co., 2007), 227-259. The source material on the 1936 Olympics is extensive. For insight into the boycott movement and other factors related to 1936 see Allen Guttman, *The Olympics: A History of the Modern Games* (Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press, 1992), Guttman, *The Games Must Go On: Avery Brundage and the Olympic Movement* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1992), and Arnd Krüger and W.J. Murray, *The Nazi Olympics: Sport, Politics, and Appeasement in the 1930s* (Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press, 2003). For information on Carl Diem's trips to the United States, see Large, *Nazi Games*, 56-57.

history's most memorable sentences: "There were eleven ... two shot yesterday ... nine at the airport ... they're all gone."<sup>2</sup>

Terrorists hit at the heart of the Olympic movement, the Olympic Village. This gathering place of athletes was supposed to be a safe environment where barons, princes, aristocrats, laborers, black and white, could put aside their differences and come together through sports similar to an ancient truce when Spartans and Athenians put down their weapons to take part in Olympian games.<sup>3</sup> Although the concept of a village for visiting athletes did not necessarily come into existence within this context, the Los Angeles organizers' attempt to solve other issues became one of Olympism's most important icons. Previous to 1932, athletes and a nation's large contingent found their own accommodations. During the 1912 Games in Stockholm and again in 1928 in Amsterdam, United States athletes trained and slept on the ocean liner that brought them across the Atlantic.

This chapter explores the Athletic Village's conception and its quick demise following competitions in 1932; it also details the Chapman Park Hotel, the host to the female athletes. Photographs are included in Appendix A. The intention is to place the

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<sup>2</sup> David Clay Large, *Munch 1972: Tragedy, Terror, and Triumph at the Olympic Games* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield Publishers, Inc., 2012).

<sup>3</sup> There are various interpretations of the ancient "truce" within Greece during Olympiads. War did not necessarily cease during the sports festivals, but most Olympic historians agree that athletes and those traveling to the Games were to pass freely without hindrance. There are recorded instances where this truce was not honored and twentieth century conflicts in Southeast Asia, the Middle East, and others have not ceased with hostilities during Olympiads. See *Thucydides, The Peloponnesian War*, trans. by Martin Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 2009), 5.49-50, and Stephen Miller, *Arete : Greek Sports From Ancient Sources* (Berkeley, CA: University of California Press, 2012), 87-89.

Village and the hotel within the larger context of the Olympic movement and to conclude with that movement's parallels with the future existence of the Baldwin Hills neighborhood at the same site. Village Green, a condominium community within Baldwin Hills, was designated a National Historic Landmark in 2001. Had the Olympic Village remained a part of the built environment, as some wished in the immediate aftermath of the 1932 Games, it too might have received some historical designation.

The rhetoric of the *Official Olympic Report* for 1932 regarding the village includes a romanticized version of events, a Utopian space:

The doctrine under which this plan was to be consummated, reduced from its complexities, was that here would be the home of the sons of many nations, made homelike for them and its sanctity protected as at home. Every rule and regulation was conceived in the interest of the Village residents. All were treated alike. A miniature world was here set up by itself, rigidly protected from the world outside.<sup>4</sup>

The *Official Report*, in Los Angeles boosterism fashion, claims that in the Olympic Village “the sons of many lands, a true cross-section of nations, could find a common ground of understanding in a manner divorced from political internationalism” and that “the miniature city, replete with modern conveniences and facilities, had arisen magically atop the hills within eyesight of the great Olympic Stadium – atop the modern Mount Olympus, below which lay the modern plains of Elis.”<sup>5</sup> What started as a practical response to financial matters became a much larger part of the 1932 narrative with Los

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<sup>4</sup> The Committee of the Games of the Xth Olympiad 1932 Ltd., *The Official Report of the Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932* (Los Angeles: Wolfer Printing Co., 1933), 43-44.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid*, 233 and 235. The *Official Report* for 1932 was produced after the Games.



Angeles taking full advantage to again sell Southern California hospitality and its prosperous, diverse future.

Among the Los Angeles Olympic Organizing Committee's (LAOOC) issues during the late 1920s was addressing the financial commitment and extended absence required for European countries to travel to California. Previous Olympics, with the exception of St. Louis in 1904, allowed for easy travel and minimal financial commitments for the predominantly European event. The LAOOC proclaimed that, "At this time the world generally was in a comparatively prosperous condition," with one of the key issues being to "capture the confidence of Olympic nations on behalf of Los Angeles by a convincing demonstration of the determination that every possible aid would be given to participating nations, and that preparations would be of such magnitude as to warrant every effort toward participation."<sup>6</sup>

With preparation and plans on track, the dynamic changed significantly with the stock market crash in 1929. LAOC members met with de Coubertin and new IOC head Henri Baillet-Latour in London with Baillet-Latour stating, "For your 1932 ambitions it now does not look so certain. Continental affairs are darkening. You should look to the giant South America and the Orient for support."<sup>7</sup> As sentiment shifted in the opposite direction, the 1930 IOC Berlin Congress proved to be key in convincing Olympic leaders that Los Angeles could still produce a successful event. Zack Farmer, the LAOC secretary sent by Garland, delivered the first plans for an Athletic Village. Plans were to

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<sup>6</sup> Ibid, 44.

<sup>7</sup> A.J. Stump, "The Olympics That Almost Wasn't," 65. Coubertin retired from the IOC following the 1924 Olympics in Paris. Count Baillet-Latour, an original member of the IOC, was president until his death in 1942.

help cut costs and at the same time to create a “spiritual assembly where brotherhood could flower through close daily associations.”<sup>8</sup>

Originally, the sharing of space was seen as collectivism by some at the Berlin Congress; this sharing in such close proximity would lead to racial clashes. Other members of the Congress believed there would be too much noise, that athletes returning from events late at night would disturb the next day’s competitors. There were also privacy issues with countries sharing space. Most, however, liked the proposed cost-cutting measures provided by the LAOC. The cost per athlete to make the journey was estimated at \$1500 to \$2000; this included travel and a thirty-day stay in Los Angeles. The LAOC provided a plan to reduce the cost to around \$500 that included just two dollars per day for each Village occupant. The \$500 total included travel to and from Los Angeles, housing, dining service, local transportation, entertainment, and general care.<sup>9</sup> And in classic Olympic rhetoric, the *Official Report* claims that in the collaboration between the IOC and LAOC the creation of an Athletic Village was a “test of strength of the Olympic doctrine and in a determination to show the world that Olympism is an instrument for physical and cultural advancement [and] is impregnable to the prosaic prejudices of race or creed.”<sup>10</sup>

The Village, according to Jeremy White, had three primary functions: (1) to persuade the National Organizing Committees (NOCs) that a trip to Southern California

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<sup>8</sup> Ibid, 68.

<sup>9</sup> *Official Olympic Report*, 47.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid, 48. Reducing travel costs also included collaboration with U.S. railroad and steamship owners. The Transatlantic Steamship Conference was sailing with empty cabins early in the 1930s and made a deal for a 20-percent rate reduction. See also Stump, “The Olympics That Almost Wasn’t,” 69.

was economically feasible and that their athletes would be housed in a clean, safe environment; (2) to manifest fair-play and multi-national/multi-racial harmony in accordance with de Coubertin's original Olympic philosophy; and (3) to stimulate local interest in the Games which would also generate interest towards Los Angeles as an attractive destination for the tourist, new residents, and business investment.<sup>11</sup> Regardless of function or form, the cost-cutting measures of the village idea is what kept the 1932 Games in Los Angeles.

With the village concept accepted in 1930, determining a site that would help sell Los Angeles was important to organizers. LAOC leadership was well aware of Baillet-Latour's reports from previous visits to the region that detailed a dry and hot climate during the months of an Olympics. In response, several sites were considered and strategically placed thermometers checked daily during July and August of 1931. Results showed Baldwin Hills to be ten degrees cooler than other tested areas. The 250-acre centrally-located section of land was twenty-five minutes from downtown and provided views of the Pacific Ocean, the Santa Monica mountains, and the Sierra Madre range in the distance. Anita Baldwin, heir of Elias Jackson "Lucky" Baldwin, lent the property that was to be returned unchanged following the conclusion of the 1932 Games. This temporary addition to the built environment, therefore, would require structures easy to dismantle and separate from any long-term venue-related goals.<sup>12</sup> Instead, the site would eventually become one of the city's most culturally-diverse neighborhoods.

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<sup>11</sup> Jeremy White, "The Los Angeles Way of Doing Things: The Olympic Village and the Practice of Boosterism in 1932," *OLYMPIKA: The International Journal of Olympic Studies* XI (2002), 79.

The village proposed in 1930 was different from its realization in 1932. The lofty goals of the LAOC were for architectural facades native to participating countries. Great Britain's athletes would stay in Tudor-style structures; Natives of Mexico, Argentina, and Brazil would live in adobe-style units. This idea, for financial reasons, was not instituted and each cottage/unit was painted beige with a rose-colored band along the base in a Mission-style format similar to the large Administration building, the hub of the Village. The original plan called for barracks, but the final result was two-room 24' x 10' boxes described as "huts" by the Australians and "cardboard houses" by a Chicago newspaperman. The original plan of quadrants specific to race, nationality, and geography and a celebration of architectural styles of visiting nations similar to world's fairs practices was changed to a celebration of the architectural style of Los Angeles.<sup>13</sup>

Architects Wilbur Bettis and Stanley Gould, along with engineer Rumley DeWitt, designed the final plan with construction beginning 1 April 1932 and concluding the first day of June. H.O. Davis, the developer of the grounds at the 1915 San Diego Exposition, built and maintained the three hundred acre city that included individual dining facilities for each nationality, a Red Cross first aid station, a dental office supplied by the Los Angeles Board of Education, a full sanitation system, a fire department provided by the

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<sup>12</sup> White, *Constructing the Invisible Landscape: Organizing the 1932 Olympic Games in Los Angeles*, Ph.D. diss., University of California, Berkeley, 2005, 99.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid*, 101-102. White also writes, "The expensive cliché of race, nationality, and geography was dropped for less-expensive undecorated boxes" and describes in detail the 750' Administration Building. See White, "The Los Angeles Way of Doing Things," 92-94.

City of Los Angeles, a post office, radio facility, and a two-thousand-seat open-air theater.<sup>14</sup>

The local press dedicated plenty of copy to the Village, much of it controlled by newspaper publishers who founded the Community Development Association (CDA) and were now members of the Tenth Olympiad Commission. This temporary utopian space was unavailable to the public, making many of the tangible items belonging to the athletes collector's items post-Olympics. Therefore, making the village an attraction before and during the Games was necessary in order to enhance post-Olympic salvage. The majority of venues and facilities used for Olympic competition in 1932 remained part of the landscape and employed in some form or fashion for the city. The village, with stipulations made by those who loaned the property, was to leave no physical mark on the landscape. Following the closing ceremonies the lounge inside the administration building of the village became a salesroom with Hector Dyer, a member of the U.S. swim team, the leading salesman. Los Angeles's addition to the Olympic program became a yard sale.

The 24' x 10' "cottages" could be bought intact after the Games for \$140 (\$215 furnished), not including shipping. Some were damaged, others had graffiti left by the temporary occupants. Laguna Beach developer Fred Leach purchased almost two hundred and wanted to create a permanent Olympic Village overlooking the Pacific Ocean. The German Olympic Organizing Committee and members of the Japanese contingent also purchased units. Those unsold became scrap lumber. Everything was

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<sup>14</sup> *Official Olympic Report*, 256.

sold, including silverware purchased by a local restaurant hoping to capitalize on the Olympic memorabilia for commercial purposes.<sup>15</sup>

A number of post-Olympics suggestions were proposed. Hugh Thatcher, member of the County Board of Supervisors, led failed preservation efforts to set up a tourist exhibit at the site. An association of unemployed men demanded the structures be given to some of the many homeless in and around the city. The American Legion petitioned the governor of California to house some of the struggling Legion members. But by the end of September nothing tangible remained.<sup>16</sup>

It is important to remember that throughout the developmental process of the village, the rhetoric always stressed the comfort and home-like conditions for the competing athletes. At the center of home, it can be argued, is the family unit that includes father, mother, and siblings. Contradictory to the family-like message, the IOC and LAOOC decided against allowing women inside the “Utopian” city during the Olympics. The explanation given centered on feminine needs and the necessity for a permanent type of residence in proximity to a social center. During a period when female athletics fought for existence in a misogynistic sports culture, organizers chose the Chapman Park Hotel for its ideal location on beautiful Wilshire Boulevard close to

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<sup>15</sup> An advertisement in the *Los Angeles Times* for 12 September 1932 read, “Final Clearance: Olympic Village Furnishings.” The proposed permanent Village overlooking the Pacific Ocean proposed by Leach turned into a lawsuit after the land was sold to an oil company in 1937. See “Plan ‘Olympic Village’ at Laguna,” *Los Angeles Times*, 6 August 1932 and “Oil Concern Buys L.A. Couple’s Land,” *Los Angeles Examiner*, 27 May 1937. See also White, “The Los Angeles Way of Doing Things,” 99. The Mexican Olympic team donated a cottage to a local merchant where it remains today. See <http://www.lataco.com/taco/1932-olvera-street>.

<sup>16</sup> White, “The Los Angeles Way of Doing Things,” 98-99.

training grounds, shopping, and theaters. Tea was served each afternoon until the opening ceremonies.<sup>17</sup>

Wilshire Boulevard's development coincided with rapid growth of Los Angeles during the first three decades of the twentieth century. The boulevard follows the original route of explorers and Native Americans from the downtown (original pueblo) area to the Pacific Ocean. Around 1895, real estate speculator H. Gaylord Wilshire gave his name to the street that was a residential enclave for the wealthy; among the residents was Harrison Gray Otis, owner of the *Los Angeles Times*. As property values increased, hotels and expensive apartment complexes were built around 1900. Continual growth as a hotel and commercial district led to the opening of the Ambassador Hotel at 3400 Wilshire and the Gaylord Apartments at 3355 Wilshire in 1921. The Ambassador was the first grand resort hotel in the city and became a tourist attraction, a fashionable winter residence, and a prominent social center highlighted by the Cocoanut Grove Nightclub and Restaurant. The area around the Ambassador became a site of New-York style apartment buildings that housed many of the day's film stars and celebrities, a perfect place to house female athletes and sell the modernity of the city. In 1925 and 1926, the Chapman Park Hotel and the Brown Derby café joined the Ambassador and the Gaylord Apartments to form a social triangle near Wilshire and Alexandria Avenue. Many Olympic athletes, male and

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<sup>17</sup> *Official Olympic Report*, 292-296. Cost was \$2 per athlete with the LAOC making up the difference in hotel rates. Baron de Coubertin never intended women to compete in his Olympic Games. Following his retirement in 1925, the IOC slowly allowed more female participation. Two-hundred-ninety women competed at the 1928 Games (9.6 percent of the 3,014 total), but new IOC head Henri Baillet-Latour proposed cutting all women's events. After the 1930 Berlin Congress, the IOC, with the aid of American Olympic Association head Avery Brundage, voted to include track and field, swimming, and fencing in the 1932 Games; 127 women competed in Los Angeles. Not until 1976 did the female total reach 20 percent of the total participants. See Doris Pieroth, *Their Day in the Sun* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1996), 5-6.

female, participated in the neighborhood's vibrant night life during their stay in Los Angeles.<sup>18</sup>

Real estate developer Samuel James Chapman financed the building of the Chapman-Plaza Hotel at 3405 Wilshire Boulevard. It was renamed the Chapman Park Hotel in 1925 and three years later Chapman commissioned Morgan, Walls, and Clements to build the Chapman Park Market Complex on the corner of Wilshire and Alexandria Avenue. The hotel added a low-rise structure to its five-story foundation when in 1936 the Brown Derby café moved from its original location just south of the Chapman Park Hotel's garden a half block to the east on Wilshire Boulevard. Architect Carleton Monroe Winslow designed a Pueblo-Revival complex in the new space that opened later in 1936. By 1941, the addition of the Zephyr Room, a nightclub at the corner of Wilshire and Alexandria, further changed the integrity of the original structure.<sup>19</sup>

Throughout the 1940s and 1950s, the two hotels and the Gaylord Apartments were at the center of the city's social scene. The 1960s marked a change and the beginning of what proved to be a difficult fight for preservationists and those hoping to safeguard the neighborhood's significant history. In 1966 the Equitable Life Assurance Company purchased the neglected Chapman Park Hotel with plans to construct a \$30 million, 32-story skyscraper office building. Construction plans included a lower plaza below street level with thirty-five thousand square feet for retail stores and restaurants with underground parking for twelve hundred cars. Original plans called for a

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<sup>18</sup> Ruth Wallach, Linda McCann, Dace Taube, Claude Zachary, and Curtis Roseman, *Historic Hotels of Los Angeles and Hollywood* (San Francisco: Arcadia Publishing, 2008), 81 and 96. For more details on the women athletes and their stay at the Chapman Park Hotel see Peiroth, *Their Day in the Sun*.

<sup>19</sup> *Ibid*, 96.



modernization of the hotel with a two-story cabana motel replacing the existing swimming pool. The modernization never materialized and the Equitable Plaza has been at the location since 1969. The Chapman Plaza was restored by developer Wayne Ratkovich and architect Brenda Levin and is currently occupied by Korean restaurants and shops.<sup>20</sup>

With the demolition of the original Ambassador Hotel in 2005-2006, the neighborhood, with the exception of the Gaylord Apartments, has little resemblance to 1932. The Chapman Park Hotel exists only through the fading memories and ephemera that remain. There is a tangible link, albeit existential, with the Athletic Village and the modern Baldwin Hills neighborhood constructed primarily at the same site. In 1993, Baldwin Hills Village was designated a National Register Historic District with the period of significance of 1935-1942.<sup>21</sup>

Not unlike the experiment attempted in 1932, a new housing experiment transpired in the early 1940s. A design team developed an eighty-five building complex of one, two, and three bedroom condominiums with a central garden modeled after the urban planning ideas of the Frenchman Le Corbusier.<sup>22</sup> The Village Green part of the

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<sup>20</sup> <https://www.laconservancy.org> (accessed 20 August 2014). The Los Angeles Conservancy was founded in 1978 when the Los Angeles Public Library was threatened with demolition. Since saving the library, efforts to revitalize structures on Wilshire Boulevard have been a priority of the non-profit volunteer group that works through education and advocacy to recognize, preserve, and revitalize the historic architectural and cultural resources of Los Angeles County.

<sup>21</sup> <http://ohp.parks.ca.gov/listedresources> (accessed 15 August 2014). See also National Historic Landmark Nomination, Baldwin Hills Village, United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service, [http://www.nps.gov/nhl\\_links](http://www.nps.gov/nhl_links) (accessed 15 December 2014).

community was modeled after the late nineteenth century Garden City movement popularized by urban planner Ebenezer Howard. Clarence Stein, principal architect of Baldwin Hills Village, wrote that the sixty-eight acre Village Green was the purest expression of Howard's principals.<sup>23</sup>

Prior to the segregation of the late 1960s, the neighborhood was home to many African-American musicians, actors, and many who worked in the film industry. With musicians like Ray Charles and Ike and Tina Turner among its residents the moniker of "Black Beverly Hills" was often associated with Baldwin Hills. Post-segregation, many of those celebrities moved to Brentwood and Beverly Hills, and the neighborhood developed a poor reputation during the 1980s and 1990s due to local gang violence. Still, despite its poor, often Hollywood-influenced status, the Village Green Owners Association maintains strong preservationist policies.

The Athletic Village and the Chapman Park Hotel do not exist today, but sources provide evidence of their contribution to Los Angeles' larger narrative. The built environment that remains from the 1932 Games, because of its physical presence and daily use within the city in the twenty-first century, continues to leave a lasting footprint. None of those footprints, however, may be as large as those left by the Olympic Village created out of financial necessity and transformed into a selling point for Los Angeles and the IOC. The fact that a diverse Los Angeles neighborhood developed on the same grounds as that short-lived village in 1932 speaks to perhaps a larger cultural significance

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<sup>22</sup> Le Corbusier; Jacques Guiton, *The Ideas of Le Corbusier on Architecture and Urban Planning* (New York: G. Braziller, 1981). Le Corbusier was an influential urban planner in the early part of the twentieth century; his goals were to provide better living conditions for those residing in crowded cities.

<sup>23</sup> <https://www.laconservancy.org> (accessed 20 August 2014).

to what the village represented outside Olympic discussion. Did the village provide yet another model?

## CHAPTER V

### 1932 OLYMPIC VENUES: THEN AND NOW

In 1997 when Athens, Greece, was awarded the 2004 Summer Games, organizers and the International Olympic Committee (IOC) estimated the cost to Greece at \$1.3 billion. Further analysis by planners showed a cost of approximately \$5.3 billion. Once the costs of security for the first post-9/11 Olympics were factored in, the bill came to \$14.2 billion. The words of IOC president Jacques Rogge are significant: “At Athens the legacy will be a new airport, new metro, and new suburban units. This is a legacy the Greeks can be proud of.” Author Dave Zirin points out the real legacy in the homeless population of Athens finding shelter in many dilapidated and unusable structures built for the 2004 Games.<sup>1</sup>

Drawing parallels between the economic environment of depression-era Los Angeles and twenty-first century Greece is difficult at best. The IOC was a different

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<sup>1</sup> Dave Zirin, *Brazil's Dance with the Devil: The World Cup, the Olympics, and the Fight for Democracy* (Chicago: Haymarket Books, 2014), 149. Zirin sites Taki Theodoracopulos, a Greek shipping magnate and author from a Forbes magazine article, who says, “I watched Athens go completely broke when we built the venues. Now they're derelict. These buildings are horrible and the government is to blame.” See John Clarke, “Olympics ... the Other Greek Tragedy,” <http://www.forbes.com/sites/johnclarke/2012/02/15/olympics-the-other-greek-tragedy> (accessed 20 August 2014).

entity in the late 1920s and the global sports culture was still in its infancy. Although the wealthy leadership mechanism of the Olympic organization certainly played many political games within the context of selecting host sites and arbitrating between the many sports federations, before 1932 the IOC did not necessarily understand the economic possibilities of its sports festival. What Los Angeles organizers did do in 1932 was provide plans for the future use of facilities following the Olympics, not something that has stood the test of time. The opening lines of the chapter detailing stadiums, construction, and facilities in the official report for the 1932 Olympics are:

Fortunately several existing important sports facilities and establishments, located in Los Angeles, were available to the Organizing Committee. Changes and additions were necessary to adapt them to the special needs of Olympic competitions, and with the exception of the swimming and rowing events for which it was necessary to provide new stadiums, it was found that all events could be held satisfactorily in existing structures.<sup>1</sup>

Unfortunately the model used by Olympic organizers in 1932 is not the same as the modern economically-driven one used by the IOC. Los Angeles leaders used the international sports festival to promote the city, to influence tourists, and to extend invitations to prospective investors. The IOC used the promotional skills learned from Los Angeles to market the IOC's product and, in turn, force prospective host cities for the rest of the twentieth century to engage in competitive bidding wars in order to bring the Olympics to their city and reap the rewards. Those rewards often include public funding for the building of new and improved facilities that the IOC and international sports federations often demand. The result, in many cases, has been new structures with no future use in mind. The 2004 Athens Games is not the only one to include what have

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<sup>1</sup> *The Games of the Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932, Official Olympic Report* (Los Angeles: Wolfer Printing Company, 1932), 61.

been tagged “White Elephants.” Sarajevo (Winter, 1984), Helsinki (Summer, 1952), and Beijing (Summer, 2008) also built expensive facilities for Olympics that currently have no full-time tenants. The record shows dilapidated and unused venues throughout the Olympic narrative.

What Los Angeles provides is a model, an example of what can be done during financially-strained times. Instead of requiring expensive new construction projects, would it not be more feasible for the IOC to seek out cities and locations with already existing structures? Again, 1932 is not the twenty-first century but it is important to recognize how Los Angeles negotiated the difficulty of hosting such a large event without any real precedence. Each venue used in 1932, excluding the housing entities of the Athletic Village and Chapman Park Hotel, remains in some form. Is this a testament to California preservationists or a product of a community’s efforts at adaptive use? In each facility, venue, location, or structure, there are examples of restoration, rehabilitation, and adaptive use. This chapter will detail each location used for competition in 1932, provide details of their origin, and explore the various uses throughout their existence into the twenty-first century. Some have more historical value than others, but for the purpose of this research the year of construction will be used in determining the order in where they are discussed within the chapter. Each venue’s heading includes the name, location, year built, and an appendix location. The list includes three with National Register of Historic Places designations and many with distinctions on the California Register. The State Historical Resources Commission has a program for use by state and local agencies, private groups, and citizens to identify,

evaluate, register, and protect California's historical resources.<sup>2</sup> Despite alterations to the original integrity of many of the venues, there are instances within each of the four criterion for determining historical significance.<sup>3</sup>

The criteria for listing on the California Register are based on those developed by the National Park Service for listing in the National Register. That federal criteria has been modified in order to include a broader range of resources that better reflect California's history. Properties must be significant at the local, state, or national level under one of four criteria: (1) associated with events or patterns of events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of history and cultural heritage of California and the United States; (2) associated with the lives of persons important to the nation or to California's past; (3) embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, region, or method of construction, or represents the work of an important creative individual, or possesses high artistic values; (4) the property has yielded or may be likely to yield information important to the prehistory or history of the state or nation.<sup>4</sup> Each venue detailed in this chapter includes characteristics of the four criteria. The question of

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<sup>2</sup> California Office of Historic Preservation, <http://www.ohp.parks.ca.gov> (accessed 5 May 2014).

<sup>3</sup> In determining integrity of a structure, the National Register has seven applications: location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. Categories of historic properties include buildings, districts, site, structure, and object. Determining the historical significance falls under four criteria applied either at the local, state, or national level: association with important events, association with significant person of the past, architecturally significant, likely to yield additional information (archeological significance). Each venue researched in this chapter can and will provide different levels of what is required for listing on the National Register. See [www.nps.gov/nr/](http://www.nps.gov/nr/). Accessed 10 December 2014.

<sup>4</sup> Draft Environmental Impact Report, Alamitos Bay Marina Rehabilitation Project, City of Long Beach, Section 4.4 (LSA Associates, Inc., 2009), 4.4.4.1

each property's integrity is perhaps the most difficult to assess due to numerous physical alterations. In order to remain connected with an event that Californians and the rest of the country considers historically significant it is important to document the life of each structure and/or location associated with that event.

**Exposition Park; 700 Exposition Park Drive; 1913; B-1.**

Any discussion of the 1932 Olympics in Los Angeles must begin with Exposition Park, the competitive and social center for the duration of the Games. The 160-acre plot of land is directly to the south of the University of Southern California (USC) and bordered by Martin Luther King Jr. Boulevard to the south, Figueroa Street to the east, Vermont Avenue to the west, and Exposition Boulevard to the north. The park maintains much of its original integrity, especially in regards to the original site plan dating to the first decade of the twentieth century.

The colorful history of the location dates to 1872 when it was purchased for six thousand dollars by the Southern District Agricultural Society (SDAS) and named Agricultural Park. The original intention of the SDAS was to provide an agricultural fairground for the surrounding neighborhoods to help promote a shift from the old rancho system to a more Anglicized farming system. Plans failed and the project went bankrupt before 1880, leaving the location open to opportunists who knew the site just outside Los Angeles's city limits meant a different kind of commerce. Beyond the reach of city governance, brothels, saloons, gambling halls, and a large race track with a four-story brick grandstand flourished. Everything from horses to camels to bicycles frequented the



track during the boom and bust years of the 1880s. The original grandstand and hotel stood close to where the Natural History Museum is today.<sup>5</sup>

Coinciding with the park's undesirable reputation was the development of USC; its first building was constructed in 1880. USC law professor William Bowen realized his students were skipping Sunday sermons to loiter at the park. He led an influential group wishing to rid the neighborhood of the park's undesirable businesses, and after a long and tedious process eventually aided in the City of Los Angeles annexing the park in June 1899. Now within Los Angeles County jurisdiction, undesirable activity, or at least the type of businesses USC and city leadership did not desire, could be addressed. There was no immediate effect as county, city, and state leaders fought over who actually owned the property for the next nine years. In 1908, the State of California purchased the property and Bowen, USC president George Bovard, and other city elites laid out the plans for the park that primarily still exists in 2015. Architect John Parkinson designed the site plan under Beaux Arts principals with the first building phase including a museum, exposition building, and state armory surrounding a sunken garden.<sup>6</sup> In 1913 the park officially became Exposition Park with four anchor tenants – the exposition building, an armory, a museum, and a sunken garden. The Natural History Museum and the Rose Garden are listed on the National Register of Historic Places and the park continues to provide

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<sup>5</sup> Charles Epting, *University Park, Los Angeles: A Brief History* (Charleston, SC: The History Press, 2013), 56-58.

<sup>6</sup> Ibid, 56-57. *The Los Angeles Times* 8 December 1912 edition proclaimed, "The State of California dedicated this ground to the perpetual use and enjoyment of the people of this city and section." The Associated Press, "Ground is Broken for Splendid State Armory," *Los Angeles Times*, 8 December 1912 (accessed September-October 2014, Oklahoma State library microfilm collection). For more information on Exposition Park and its current tenants see <http://expositionpark.org/venues>.

diverse cultural, entertainment, and educational activities through its collection of museums, sports facilities, and recreational areas.<sup>7</sup>

### **State Armory; 700 Exposition Park Drive; 1914; B-2.**

The state armory was the last of the three original buildings constructed in Exposition Park. Despite state funds being allocated as early as 1909, political haggling and architectural planning issues delayed any actual building. In 1912, a final plan designed by architect J.W. Wollett was accepted and the San Francisco firm Robert Trost & Company constructed the concrete and steel-framed building covered in red brick with a stone entryway at a cost of one hundred thousand dollars. The initial layout consisted of an administrative area with living quarters in the rear separated by a large drill floor for military exercises. It served as the State Military Field Hospital and Ambulance Corps headquarters, an arsenal, a war college for citizen soldiers, a shooting range and served as a public recreation hall throughout the 1930s. From its construction through World War II, the armory was home to the 7th Infantry Regiment (later the 160th Infantry Regiment).<sup>8</sup>

During the 1920s, the armory hosted non-military activities including but not limited to a food exposition (1924), professional wrestling (1925), and a poultry and rabbit show (1929). For the 1932 Olympics, the armory was made available to the Los

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<sup>7</sup> The Natural History Museum (N332) earned National Register distinction in March 1975. In 1928 the original garden was redesigned and rededicated as the Rose Garden. It received National Register distinction (P690) in August 1987.

<sup>8</sup> Epting, *University Park*, 66-67. The State of California allocated \$600,000 for the park area. In addition to the \$100,000 for the first armory in the state, \$10,000 per year for 10 years for upkeep of the park grounds was also included.

Angeles Olympic Organizing Committee (LAOOC) at no cost for the fencing competition. The necessary physical alterations included the addition of dressing rooms for both male and female competitors and 1200 seats on the main floor and 600 in the balcony for spectators. At the conclusion of the Games everything was restored to its original condition.<sup>9</sup>

The armory served many purposes as a recreational facility following the Olympics. The building hosted automobile hot rod shows and roller derby throughout the 1940s and 1950s which required minimal alterations. In 1947, the American Bowling Congress held its annual tournament in the armory; the construction of thirty-six bowling lanes serviced four thousand participating teams.<sup>10</sup>

In 1961, the 160th Infantry Regiment moved to Cheli Air Force Base in southeast Los Angeles County and the armory building became headquarters for the Board of Trustees of the California State Colleges Throughout the 1970s, the building served as exhibit space for the Los Angeles Museum of Science and Industry.<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>9</sup> *Games of the Xth Olympiad, Official Olympic Report*, 69-70. Italian fencers won eight total medals, including two gold medals. For the third straight Olympics woman (17 entrees from 11 nations) competed in individual foil. The fencing portion of the five-event pentathlon was also held at the armory. For Olympic results from 1896-2008, see David Wallechinsky and Jaime Loucky, *The Complete Book of the Olympics, 2012 Ed.* (London: Aurum Press, 2012).

<sup>10</sup> Doug Schmidt, *They Came to Bowl: How Milwaukee Became the America's Tenpin Capital* (Wisconsin Historical Society Press, 2007). The author describes the 1947 bowling tournament in Los Angeles as one of the most significant in the sport's history, giving the original armory a significant place in another narrative outside the Olympics. See also, The Associated Press, "Hammers Fly as Work Starts on ABC Lanes." *Los Angeles Times*, 4 March 1947 (accessed September-October 2014).

<sup>11</sup> "College Trustees Await Guard Units Transfer: Negotiations Under Way to Move Outfits From Exposition Park." *Los Angeles Times*, 7 August 1961. The Museum of Science and Industry is the original Exposition Building, one of the first three

As part of renovations of Exposition Park for the 1984 Olympics, architect Frank Gehry was commissioned to design a new Aerospace Building for the Museum of Science and Industry on the south side of the armory. The Aerospace Building opened in 1982 and housed airplanes, satellites, and other displays exhibiting the history of aerospace travel. Once it opened, the armory building became the Space Building. Currently, the original armory is operated by the California Science Center as the Wallis Annenberg Building for Science Learning and Innovation. The original military drill floor is the open air “Big Lab” for use by students and teachers of local schools. The living quarters and administrative sections of the original layout are now classrooms and laboratories and have served as the Science Center School and Amgen Center for Science Learning since 2004.

**The Rose Bowl; 1001 Rose Bowl Drive, Pasadena; 1922; B-3.**

In 1987, the Rose Bowl was added to the National Register of Historic Places (N1485) as a National Historic Landmark. It meets three of the four criteria — association with important events, association with significant person of the past, and architecturally significant — required for distinction.

The Rose Bowl stadium was not built specifically for the 1932 Olympics and did not play a large role, hosting the cycling events. Despite its limited association with the Olympics, most Rose Bowl narratives, including the National Park Service’s nomination form for National Register status, always includes the cycling events from 1932 within the statement of significance. Over the last three-quarters of a century the stadium has

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Structures in the park opened in 1912. The building was renamed in 1951. In 1998 the museum became a public institution for science learning, the California Science Center. The renovated armory building is part of the complex. See Epting, *University Park*, 8-69.

become one of American sports' most iconic locations. It continues to host major events, including one of the two national semifinal football games for the first National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) playoff in January 2015.

As discussed in earlier chapters, Los Angeles history includes numerous periods of growth with the late 1880s considered a significant time period. Many new settlers came to the city to avoid Midwestern and Eastern winters and like many late-nineteenth century city residents of similar background and tastes congregated together. A group of Pasadena citizens formed a social club called the Hunt Valley Club and Charles Frederick Holder, a professor, naturalist and author, suggested celebrating New Year's Day and the opening of the orange season by decorating buggies with flowers and parading through the city. A "Rose" parade and accompanying festival developed in 1890 and local participation increased significantly over the next five years. Decorating contests became competitive, so the progression to sporting contests seemed natural with burro, pony, and foot races. The festival quickly outgrew the small Hunt Valley Club, as non-locals' participation increased.<sup>12</sup>

The Tournament of Roses Association formed in 1895 with the sole purpose of managing the festival. Jousts, bicycle races, polo matches, and chariot races joined festival activities with the first post-season football game played in January 1902 between Michigan and Stanford. Los Angeles and Pasadena city leaders saw potential tourist dollars from college football fans from Eastern and Midwestern schools. However, due to a financial deficit from the 1902 game, and the popularity of chariot races, football did not return to the festival until 1916.

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<sup>12</sup> Michelle Turner and the Pasadena Museum of History, *The Rose Bowl* (San Francisco: Arcadia Publishing, 2010), 7-8.

As crowds grew along with an interest in college football, the Tournament of Roses Association, similar to city boosters before them, knew a new stadium would attract more commerce. W.L. Leishman, a former president of the association, helped secure funding following the 1922 Rose Bowl game by pre-selling seats in the future stadium. The 57,000-seat facility was built on city-owned land in the Arroyo Seco at a cost of \$272,198 with designs made by architect Myron Hunt. The original horseshoe design was made a full bowl in 1928. The closing of the south end increased seating capacity to 76,000; requested changes for the 1932 Olympics increased the capacity to 84,000. In 1971, seating capacity increased to 104,000.<sup>13</sup>

For the 1932 Olympics the Rose Bowl was made available to the LAOOC for the cycling events. The International Cycling Federation drew up plans for the construction of the track which, at the conclusion of competition, was given to the Tournament of Roses Association. Although large attendance numbers often accompany memorable Rose Bowl events, the three days of cycling for the 1932 Olympics drew small numbers.<sup>14</sup>

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<sup>13</sup> National Register of Historic Places Inventory-Nomination Form 10-800, prepared by James H. Charleton, National Park Service, 18 October 1984, Washington DC. The first football game played in the stadium was 28 October 1922 pitting USC against California. See Turner, *The Rose Bowl*, 15. The first Rose Bowl featured USC against Penn State. See Turner, 27. It is also important to note that cycling events were not well-attended. Increasing the capacity of the stadium was not specifically for the Olympics.

<sup>14</sup> Italians won three of the six gold medals in a limited schedule of races that included the 1000-meter time trial, match sprint, 4000-meter team pursuit, 2000-meter tandem, road time trial, and team time trial. Women's cycling was not introduced into the Olympic program until 1988. See Wallechinsky, *The Complete Book of the Olympics*, 543-587.

Significant structural changes have been made to the stadium over time, but in defining its place in California history the National Register nomination form states,

In considering the historic integrity, the alterations to the stadium's original design may be discounted in view of [Myron] Hunt's belief that additional seating would be necessary, and that he in fact planned for their installation. Major change took place in 1928, six years after construction, and has been dignified by the passage of time; except for that change the Bowl has retained its characteristic form and its key structural elements are intact.<sup>15</sup>

The National Register nomination form also points out the outstanding significance in the field of recreation and as the long-term site of the oldest and most renowned post-season college football game held since 1916. The venue is also the "outstanding extant historic manifestation of the civic work of the Pasadena Tournament of Roses Association, the parade dating to 1890. This link between football, the community, and the parade is symbolized by the game beginning at the conclusion of the parade."<sup>16</sup>

Listing significant events and renovations of the Rose Bowl is a sizeable endeavor. The first of five Super Bowls played at the Rose Bowl occurred in 1977. In 1982, the University of California-Los Angeles became a permanent tenant of the stadium, moving from its previous home at the Memorial Coliseum. The soccer competition for the 1984 Olympics was played at the Rose Bowl. The stadium press box was renovated and reconstructed for \$11.5 million in 1992, and in 1993 a further \$2 million in renovations transpired thanks in part to a gift from World Cup USA, Inc., in preparation for the eight games played at the site during the 1994 World Cup.

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<sup>15</sup> National Register of Historic Places Nomination Form, 66.

<sup>16</sup> Ibid, 70-71.

In 1996, there were \$21.5 million in renovations, three years prior to the memorable 1999 Women's World Cup of soccer where American Brandi Chastain scored an attention-getting goal to beat China in the gold medal game. Under the stewardship of the Rose Bowl Operating Company, in 2011 a \$152 million renovation brought the stadium to its current state.

Sporting events highlight the story of the Rose Bowl Stadium, mainly the Rose Bowl football game played on New Year's Day until 2002 when the Bowl Championship Series (BCS) moved the game to a later date. It can be argued that Los Angeles showed the IOC how to market its sports festival. In a similar light, the Rose Bowl should be considered the model or originator of the bowl season that now lasts from early December though early January. Available tourist dollars from college football fans began to flow into Miami (Orange Bowl, 1933), New Orleans (Sugar Bowl, 1935), and Dallas (Cotton Bowl, 1937).

Portraying the Rose Bowl as a football-only venue discounts the importance it plays in the Los Angeles and Pasadena communities. For example, over the last fifty years it has hosted the second Sunday of every month the Rose Bowl Flea Market welcoming 2,500 vendors to the immediate area surrounding the stadium. This cross-cultural gathering of residents will continue to play a role in the daily life of the community. Despite the many changes to the venue, it is important to identify the adaptive use principles applied spanning from original construction to the twenty-first century. And in accordance with adaptive use principles the Rose Bowl Operating Company provides an Internet link ([www.rosebowlstadium.com](http://www.rosebowlstadium.com)) to the stadium's twenty-first century daily activities.



### **Memorial Coliseum; 3911 South Figueroa Street; 1923; B-4.**

Any discussion of iconic sports stadiums in the United States must include Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum. Like the Rose Bowl it has hosted much more than sporting events and is a fully-used structure within the community. Unlike the Rose Bowl, the Coliseum played the largest role of any venue for the duration of the 1932 Games, including the Opening and Closing Ceremonies. Its construction was not specific to the Olympics and yet exemplifies the forward-thinking civic leaders who, intentionally or unintentionally, thought of uses for venues beyond immediate needs. Ninety-two years after its construction, the Coliseum is still a busy facility. It was designated a California Historical Landmark (960) in May 1984 and added to the National Register of Historic Places in July 1984 (N1297).

The history of the Memorial Coliseum is filled with ownership disputes between private, public, and government entities. The initial stages of planning did not include the Olympic Games as many accounts suggest. What the narrative does show is another example of a handful of “visionary movers and shakers deciding to utilize sport to advance their city’s reputation for the purpose of encouraging the expansion of tourism, commerce, and migration.”<sup>17</sup>

The first mention of a large stadium for the city came in November 1919 when the Community Development Association (CDA) proposed a seventy-five-thousand-seat structure on a parcel of land inside Exposition Park for the purpose of “holding and maintaining industrial exhibitions, agricultural fairs, street pageants, athletic exhibitions,

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<sup>17</sup> Steven Riess, “Power Without Authority: Los Angeles’ Elites and the Construction of the Coliseum,” *Journal of Sport History* 8 (Spring, 1981), 50.

and other performances.”<sup>18</sup> Questions immediately arose concerning who would pay for it, operate it, and build it? The CDA plan included renting the facility to the city and county on specified dates for a ten-year period; the city and county would pay \$475,000 in rent to pay off construction loans. After ten years the stadium would be turned over to the local governments to operate. The city council and county board approved the financing plan in June 1920, but the mayor and county board president vetoed the plan, sending the dispute to the courts. Attorneys representing the city and county sought a court order compelling Mayor Meredith Snyder and County Board Chairman Jonathon Dodge to sign and implement the agreement.<sup>19</sup>

An alternative plan for financing included a bond issue to raise the necessary funds for building the sports complex. Voters considered two bond issues: one called for the building of a municipal auditorium; the other for \$900,000 to build an amphitheater and stadium in Exposition Park. Both measures were defeated. The negative response to the building of a new structure should not be interpreted as locals not wanting a new sports facility, but as their unwillingness to bear the burden of paying for it with higher taxes. The debate was short-lived as in May 1921 the state supreme court ruled in the CDA’s favor and the city and county leased seventeen acres in Exposition Park. Fourteen city banks supplied \$800,000 to cover construction costs with the city and county making rental payments over a five-year period.

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<sup>18</sup> Ibid, 54. It should be noted that early meetings of the CDA included discussions of the Olympics and the need for a stadium to host the large event. Research shows the hosting of the Olympics was part of the process in developing support for the building of the stadium, but not the sole purpose.

<sup>19</sup> Ibid, 54-55.

The selection of Exposition Park was not a coincidence. The park was a few blocks from the campus of USC, where those “movers and shakers” sent their children to college. The mention of a new stadium was not exclusive to the CDA. In 1919, Judge William Bowen, head of the Agricultural District that maintained Exposition Park, explored options for the building of a sports facility for USC football. In early 1921, the city council, aided by Bowen, hired architect John Parkinson to make plans for a possible 25,000-seat stadium. This is another example contradicting the narrative that Memorial Coliseum was built specifically for the 1932 Olympics. Throughout William May Garland’s early contact with the IOC, no specific plans for a stadium were complete. The evolution of the stadium moved quickly from 1919 to 1921 and included many entities with differing agendas. Once the IOC awarded Los Angeles the 1932 Games, partially wooed by the promise of a new and modern stadium, the “movers and shakers” had another way to promote the city. It was imperative to finalize plans in order to produce yet another tourist attraction and put Los Angeles at the forefront of a growing sports industry.

Eventually contracts were signed between the CDA, city, and county and Parkinson provided plans for a 75,000-seat structure. When the stadium was finished in 1923, at a cost of \$772,000, it was the most expensive sports-specific facility in the U.S. with the exception of Yankee Stadium in New York, a privately-financed structure. Debate continued between various civic organizations arguing the facility did not meet public need and was specific to the elite associated with USC. The Municipal League, a government watchdog organization, complained about private entities controlling publicly-funded facilities and pointed out the negative vote on the earlier bond issue. The

League felt “it had been presumptuous for a small group of self-designated men to assume that their fellow townspeople could not decide for themselves what they needed, although the elite could, and did.”<sup>20</sup> Despite the factious debate surrounding its construction, maintenance, and public place, the Coliseum became a large part of life in Los Angeles.

The first event in the stadium was a week-long Wayfarer musical pageant in the fall of 1923. In October, USC beat Pomona College, 30-0, in front of 12,836 in the first college football game played at the Coliseum. Throughout the 1920s, USC football was the dominant tenant.

The lease signed between the CDA, city, and county expired in 1931. With the Olympics pending, the CDA organized the Xth Olympiad Association in 1927; it consisted of members of the CDA and seven hand-picked men from California. As the 1920s progressed and reports came back from the Paris and Amsterdam Olympiads detailing the financial commitment required, the new Xth Olympiad Association pushed a one million dollar bond issue for the 1928 elections. This bond issue did not cover expenses required to increase the Coliseum’s capacity to 100,000, a number requested by the CDA. The bond issue passed, but the debate over funds for the expansion lasted into 1929.

USC president Rufus von Kleinschmidt also wanted an expanded stadium as football crowds increased. He threatened to schedule all USC football games away from home for the 1930 season or build a new facility if the capacity was not increased. In the summer of 1929, the debate continued between the CDA, the Municipal League, a

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<sup>20</sup> Ibid, 57. The author cites the *Bulletin of the Municipal League of Los Angeles* 3 (January 1924), 5.

number of taxpayer organizations, and USC. All agreed the Coliseum needed improvements, but the means by which the changes were to be instituted and who remained in control was not easily resolved.

By the end of 1929 all entities agreed to allow the CDA to run the facility through the Olympics with a new contract drawn up at their conclusion. A contract between the CDA, the Tenth Olympic Games Committee, the Sixth District Agricultural Association, the city council, and the county board of supervisors was drafted with stipulations that the facility would be turned over to the city and county on 1 January 1933. Still, it took until 28 July 1930 for stadium expansion to be approved after the city council passed a measure cancelling another public works project and reallocating \$227,000. The county matched the funds and construction finally ensued. The chaotic, multi-layered ownership of the early days of the Coliseum remained a constant problem throughout the twentieth century, especially with National Football League franchises wishing to play in Los Angeles.<sup>21</sup>

The Olympics ran from 30 July to 14 August and all reports suggest a very successful sports festival with the Coliseum the focal point. The stadium's alterations for the Games were under the supervision of the IOC, international sports federations, and the Tenth Olympic Association. Among the additions to the original stadium were:

- A concrete Olympic Torch erected 107-feet above the central arch of the peristyle to allow for a flame to burn for the duration of the festival. The 1932 Games are the first to incorporate the torch and flame in the ceremonial program of an Olympics.
- A 78-foot flag pole for an Olympic flag.
- An electrical loudspeaker system with twenty-three amplifying horns on the 78-foot flag pole, approximately 35-feet from the ground.

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<sup>21</sup> "Los Angeles to Enlarge Coliseum to Seat 105,000 for the Olympic Games of 1932," The Associated Press, *New York Times*, 4 January 1930, 21.

- A large scoreboard on the inner face of the peristyle over the main arch and below the Olympic Torch. The scoreboard was 22-feet high and 24-feet wide operated entirely from behind the board on three floor levels. The letters and numbers were 27-inches high, readable from the most distant seat.
- A reconstructed running track, shortening the length from 440 yards to 400 meters to meet Olympic requirements.
- An expanded press box.<sup>22</sup>

The Opening Ceremonies drew 105,000, and in the words of columnist Damon Runyan the Games “opened in the most amazing setting and with the most impressive ceremonies in all the history of sports.”<sup>23</sup> Thirty-seven nations competed in 116 events, 23 of them in track and field. With the exception of the marathon and 50,000-meter walk all track and field events were held in the Olympic Stadium.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>22</sup> *Official Olympic Report*, 64-66. A fully-detailed list of each alteration of the original stadium is provided by the report produced following the conclusion of the 1932 Games.

<sup>23</sup> *Encyclopedia of the Modern Olympic Movement*, eds. John Findling and Kimberly Pelle (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 2004), 99.

<sup>24</sup> The marathon started and finished inside the stadium. United States men dominated track and field, winning 11 gold medals, 10 silver medals, and 5 bronze medals. Finland totaled 11 medals. Twenty World or Olympic records were broken credited to the “fine mental and physical condition” and the “pleasant surroundings in the Olympic Village” and adequate training facilities along with enthusiastic and sportsmanlike attitude of the spectators. See *Official Olympic Report*, 377. Women were included in the program for the second time following its inclusion in 1928. Fifty-four women from eleven countries participated in six events: javelin, 100 meters, 100-meter hurdles, 4X100-meter relay, discus, and high jump. Mildrid Didrikson, a native of Dallas, Texas, became a national star following her gold medals in the javelin and 100-meter hurdles, plus a silver medal in the high jump. As a member of the Employers Casualty Insurance Company in Dallas, Didrikson entered ten events at the Olympic Trials in Evanston, Illinois, and won eight championships. In Los Angeles, she set World records in the javelin and 100-meter hurdles. Tied with teammate Jean Shiley after clearing 5-foot, 5.75 inches, but Didrikson’s high jumping “western roll” style was declared illegal and she was disqualified. The amateur-professional debate, a topic throughout the 1932 Games, included Didrikson. Before 1932 was through, she was banned from amateur competition after a photo of her appeared in an automobile advertisement. For full track and field results see Wallechinsky, *The Complete Book of the Olympics*. The womens’

Prior to the Closing ceremonies, the debate continued as to future ownership of the stadium. When the CDA delivered a check for \$213,877.29 to both the city and county in January 1933 there were many who felt it should remain in CDA hands. But in February 1933 the city council decided that the Los Angeles Board of Playground and Recreation should operate the Coliseum. The decision was formalized in May 1933 when the city, county, the Sixth District Agricultural Association, and the playground board signed an agreement. The playground board was renamed the Coliseum Commission, with a special fund established by the city treasury department to pay for operating expenses.<sup>25</sup> The relationship between the city and the stadium would repeat the first decade's chaos into the twenty-first century.

Between 1932 and the end of World War II, the stadium's structure remained unchanged except for a new scoreboard in 1936. Modifications began in 1946, but as Charleton notes in the National Register nomination form, "few of them are apparent to the casual observer except for the two-story administrative office structures at the north and south flanking towers of the east peristyle façade and the press box and its attendant tower and elevator on the upper tiers of the south side of the field."<sup>26</sup> The first major

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1932 experience is detailed in Doris Pieroth, *Their Day in the Sun: Women of the 1932 Olympics* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1996). Field hockey, gymnastics, and portions of equestrian were also held inside the stadium.

<sup>25</sup> Riess, "Power Without Authority," 62. See also Braven Dyer, "The Coliseum: Who Built it, Who Will Run it?," *Los Angeles Times*, 12 September 1932.

<sup>26</sup> National Register of Historic Places Inventory-Nomination Form 10-800a, 1.7. Some of the other changes to accommodate the stadium's many uses include: field lighting (1946), ticket booths and concession facilities, a 13,000-square-foot underground dressing room complex (1950), replacement track (1960s), folding and theater seats (1962-66, 1970s), marble veneer at the peristyle (1960s), computerized scoreboard (1972).

renovation occurred in 1964, changing the wood-and-metal-bench seating to theater-type chairs.

The significant events and people associated with the Coliseum and its first sixty years of existence is vast. The expansion of Major League Baseball (MLB) to the West Coast brought the Brooklyn Dodgers to Los Angeles in 1958. The Dodgers played at the Coliseum from April 1958 to April 1962 when they moved to a new stadium in Chavez Ravine. The fifth game of the 1959 World Series drew 92,706 to the Coliseum, an MLB record. The first Super Bowl (1967) for the National Football League (NFL) was played in the stadium. The Coliseum, like 1932, was the focal point of the 1984 Olympics.

The Coliseum's size, weather, and location have brought major political, religious, and patriotic rallies to the city, including a Presidential campaign appearance by Franklin D. Roosevelt (September 1932); acceptance speeches of John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson as Democratic candidates for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency (July 1960); and Billy Graham's Los Angeles Crusade for Christ (August-September 1963) attended by 134,254. The Coliseum is also a significant architectural work by distinguished architects John and Donald Parkinson, both recognized as influential in the physical transformation of Los Angeles in the early twentieth century.

Following the 1984 Olympic Games, the debate started in the 1920s continued into the 1980s as the NFL continually requested changes to the venue in order to accommodate a modern facility. Almost comical at times, the multi-layered ownership of the stadium added preservationists to the debate during the 1980s as some argued for demolition, others wanted renovation, and still more sought a new facility in a new



location. A 1990 article in the *Los Angeles Times* draws a picture of never-ending debate.

Former Coliseum commissioner Joe Cerrell says,

I think we can remodel it, we can renovate it, we can restore it. I just don't know why we have to tear it down. I'm not trying to stand in the way of progress when I say that, but I just returned from Eastern Europe, and you see these churches and buildings hundreds of years old. We get excited when we see something 20, 25-years old in Los Angeles, and I just don't think it's necessary to destroy the Coliseum.<sup>27</sup>

Also in 1990, the Los Angeles Conservancy adopted a resolution, opposing demolition, but not ruling out support for remodeling. The non-profit pointed out the Coliseum's designation as a National Historic Landmark and "opposes demolition of this important landmark and proposes that the Coliseum be preserved and adapted for continued use in a manner consistent with its distinctive architecture and past role in the city and the nation."<sup>28</sup>

A \$200 million plan circulated through all parties involved in 1991, and in August of 1992 a privately-funded renovation plan was vetoed. In 1993, a \$15 million project removed the track surrounding the playing surface and the field itself was lowered 11-feet, 8-inches to add more lower-level seating.<sup>29</sup> A 1994 earthquake required \$93 million in repairs from monies received from Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), but in historical Coliseum fashion factions developed and no agreeable plan was ever formulated and the process of renovation moved slowly.

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<sup>27</sup> Kenneth Reich, "Critics of Coliseum Teardown," *Los Angeles Times*, 6 February 1990.

<sup>28</sup> Ibid.

<sup>29</sup> Earl Gustkey, "New Look Coliseum: Bigger and Younger," *Los Angeles Times*, 1 September 1993.

Oakland Raiders football team owner Al Davis was at the center of the Coliseum debate throughout the Raiders' stay in Los Angeles from 1982 to 1994. Preservation-minded initiatives eventually convinced all involved that upgrades to the existing facility was cheaper than building a new stadium. In 1996, Beverly Hills-based architect Barton Myers and developer William McGregor presented a proposal to the nine-member Coliseum Commission that made a strong case for the "urbanistic and social value of keeping the stadium as a vibrant element in Exposition Park, in a historic but rundown district that is badly in need of economic stimulus."<sup>30</sup>

Minor upgrades and structural changes continued into the twenty-first century with a six-thousand-square-foot high-definition video scoreboard added to the east end of the stadium. In July 2013 after the many failed attempts by the Coliseum Commission to renovate, USC took over the lease. The school, paying rent for use of the facility since 1923, signed a ninety-nine year lease to manage the Coliseum and will pay one million dollars per year in rent to the State of California. USC is expected to make \$100 million in improvements with \$70 million coming in the first 10 years.<sup>31</sup>

The Memorial Coliseum made its international debut at the 1932 Olympics. Over the last eighty-three years it has developed into one of the United States' top sports venues and provides a meeting place for cultural and entertainment activities. Despite a high volume of use, it remains a workable venue and will continue to function as long as Los Angeles preservationists trumpet its historical significance to the state and country. If

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<sup>30</sup> Leon Whiteson, "Could a Facelift Make the Coliseum a Contender," *Los Angeles Times*, 10 June 1996.

<sup>31</sup> Garry Paskwietz, "Board Approves Coliseum Lease," ESPNLA, 26 June 2013 [http://espn.go.com/los-angeles/college-football/story/\\_/id/9423259/lease-vote-paves-way-usc-trojans-take-coliseum](http://espn.go.com/los-angeles/college-football/story/_/id/9423259/lease-vote-paves-way-usc-trojans-take-coliseum) (accessed 20 January 2015).

ever there was an example of adaptive use in the field of preservation it is the Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum.

**Grand Olympic Auditorium; 1801 South Grand Avenue; 1925; B-5.**

At first glance, the Glory Church of Jesus Christ on Grand Avenue appears to be just another concrete structure. But the building that houses the large Korean congregation has a much larger meaning to locals dating to 1925. Despite its rich boxing history from 1925 into the 1980s, the period of significance listed in a 2004 California Resources Survey lists 1924 to 1932 and the 1932 Olympics as possible reasons for listing on the National Register. The structure maintains little interior integrity, but like the Rose Bowl and the Coliseum adaptive use principles apply. The auditorium was constructed during the 1920s building boom of the city, not specifically for the 1932 Olympics, but again for purposes of adding to the sports and cultural environment of the period.

Frank A. Garbutt, founder of the Los Angeles Athletic Club (LAAC), commissioned architect Gilbert Stanley Underwood to build an auditorium in the Art-Deco style with elements of Italian Renaissance Revival. At its completion, the auditorium was considered an architectural gem with its 10,096 seats, the most of any United States boxing-specific venue. The opening-night card of 6 August 1925 featured boxers named Young Nationalist and Newsboy Brown; Mayor George Cryer cut the ribbon to dedicate the building. Boxing, with stars like heavyweight champion Jack Dempsey, dominated sports pages during the 1920s and the Grand Auditorium had a reputation for top-level fights through the 1950s. In anticipation of the 1932 Games,

“Olympic” was added to the marquee for the venue less than two miles from Exposition Park.<sup>32</sup>

For the 1932 Games, the LAOOC leased the building for a nominal fee sufficient to cover expenses and for the boxing, wrestling, and weightlifting training and competitions. The LAOC, along with the international sports federations of each sport, supervised the construction of a new ring, a press stand, new dressing rooms, and other needs. Once the competition concluded, the interior of the building was restored to its original makeup.<sup>33</sup>

The venue sustained its popularity through the 1930s but suffered from financial difficulties in the 1940s. Cal Eaton and his wife Aileen LeBell (Eaton) promoted boxing, professional wrestling, and roller derby to keep the building open. The couple balked at an offer to buy the building for \$80,000 in 1943, instead deciding to pay rent. In 1964 the building received a \$185,000 remodel thanks in part to a near riot following a local favorite’s controversial loss. In 1980 the Olympic Auditorium was put on sale for \$5 million by the LAAC, and when Aileen Eaton could not raise the necessary funds, the venue was sold to real estate tycoon Steve Needleman for \$3 million.<sup>34</sup>

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<sup>32</sup> David Israel, “A Dream House,” *Sports Illustrated* 57, 12 July 1982.

<sup>33</sup> *Official Olympic Report*, 70. Twelve nations won at least one medal in eight contested weight classes in boxing on 13 August. Weightlifting featured five weight classes on 31 July; France won gold in three of the five weights. Freestyle wrestling consisted of seven weight classes. Three Oklahoma State students — Bobby Pearce, Jack Van Bebber, and Melvin Clodfelter — competed for the U.S. team with Van Bebber and Pearce winning gold medals. Greco-Roman wrestling was 7 August with Sweden winning four gold medals. See Wallechinsky, *The Complete Book of the Olympics*.

<sup>34</sup> Israel, “A Dream House.” Cal Eaton died in 1966 and Aileen Eaton took over promotional duties.

The auditorium closed in 1987 except for occasional concerts and filming for movies. A \$5 million renovation in 1994 preceded an Oscar de la Hoya fight, but the owners could not sustain a financially-feasible schedule as competing venues, and Las Vegas, took control of boxing. In 2005, the property was purchased by a Korean-American church for a reported \$25 million. Currently the Glory Church of Christ features 12,000-feet of open floor space with amphitheater-type seating for 7,000 reminiscent of the arrangement surrounding the original boxing ring.<sup>35</sup>

Research does not indicate that the Olympic Auditorium was built specifically for the 1932 Games. But it would be naïve to think that during the building boom of the 1920s, especially in regards to sports-related venues, that discussions of the coming sports festival did not enter into planning. The auditorium is another example of the IOC and its contingent organizations finding an available facility that also factored into the community's future.

#### **Los Angeles Police Pistol Range; Elysian Park, 1880 Academy Drive; 1925; B-6.**

The Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) supplied its shooting range to the LAOOC for pistol and rifle competitions in 1932. Built in 1925, the facility remains in its original location just north of Dodger Stadium and seven miles north of Exposition Park. Adjustments made prior to the Games met the requirements of the International Shooting Federation (ISF) and the International Pentathlon Committee (IPC). At the conclusion of competition, the improvements were left installed for permanent use by the LAPD. Modifications, mainly structural improvements, have influenced the site's integrity.

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<sup>35</sup> K. Connie Kang, "From Old Boxing Arena to a House of Worship," *Los Angeles Times*, 13 August 2005.

However, elements of restoration and adaptive use have kept the original location functioning into 2015.

In the early part of the twentieth century as cities increased in population and size, the need for law enforcement increased. After meeting minimal requirements, officers were given a badge and asked to protect the city. There was no formal training, just on-the-job experience. Los Angeles instituted a program for training in 1924, using a classroom in an armory in Elysian Park for instruction. The Los Angeles Police Revolver and Athletic Club (LAPRAAC) formed in 1925 and members opened a pistol range on the twenty-one acre academy in Elysian Park.<sup>36</sup>

Olympic competition included rapid-fire pistol using a .22 caliber pistol and small-bore rifle on 12 and 13 August. Los Angeles police officers comprised much of the rapid-fire pistol competitors. The shooting portion of the five-event modern pentathlon used the pistol range.<sup>37</sup>

The LAPD took advantage of the dismantling of the Olympic Village following the Games. One of the large mess halls was disassembled and brought to the LAPD Academy to serve as a clubhouse and later as a restaurant and café adjacent to the shooting range. In 1935, the Board of Park Commissioners approved development plans by architect Peter Karl Schabarum that included an athletic center, the addition of landscape beautification features, and a new façade for the shooting range. In 1973.

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<sup>36</sup> Ivy Marie Amable, “Citius, Altius, Fortius: Filling a Void in the Identification and Designation of Historic Venues From the 1932 Los Angeles Olympics,” (Ph.D. diss., University of Southern California, 2013), 66-67. See also Lapdonline.org.

<sup>37</sup> Prior to the modern pentathlon’s shooting competition, eventual gold medalist Johan Oxenstierna of Sweden practiced in a nearby wooded area of Elysian Park. Confronted by Los Angeles police officers, Oxenstierna had to convince them he was a competitor. See Wallechinsky, *The Complete Book of the Olympics*, 857.

Schabarum's rock garden design was named Cultural Heritage Monument No. 110 in Los Angeles.<sup>38</sup>

Still in use today, the shooting range is eligible for National Register distinction at the local, state, and national level for its association with the 1932 Games. The mess hall brought from the Olympic Village, despite remaining at its original location, has lost its integrity.

**Riviera Country Club; 1250 Capri Drive, Pacific Palisades; 1927; B-7.**

One of the more difficult tasks for the LAOOC concerned finding adequate facilities for equestrian events. Constructing a course for steeplechase, housing horses, and building grandstands for spectators required additional cooperation between all bodies concerned. Various locations were scouted, and the Riviera Country Club was selected as the headquarters for all equestrian events. That the Riviera, seventeen miles west of Exposition Park, became an Olympic venue should be no surprise as William May Garland and Frank Garbutt founded the club in 1926. Golf course architect George Thomas designed the course. After an eighteen month construction process that cost \$243, 827, the course opened in June 1927. The clubhouse, four polo fields, an equestrian center, and the golf course are all frequented by Hollywood celebrities, bringing added

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<sup>38</sup> In 1958, members of the Los Angeles chapter of the American Institute of Architects (AIA) Historic Building Committee sought to combat destruction of historic landmarks during post-World War II growth in the city. Los Angeles passed the City's Cultural Heritage Ordinance in 1962. Its five-member board was given the responsibility to designate as historic-cultural monuments any building, structure, or site important to the development and preservation of the history of Los Angeles, the state, and the nation. See, <http://preservation.lacity.org/commission/history-cultural-heritage-commission> (accessed 1 August 2014).

attention to the new facilities. Annual membership fees are estimated in the \$250,000 range.

For the 1932 Olympics, the LAOOC paid Riviera the necessary monies for the construction of additional stables, an Olympic-specific steeplechase course, and a permanent grandstand with a capacity of three thousand.<sup>39</sup> Already enjoying an air of celebrity, the 1932 Games brought officers, generals, and prize horses to the three days of competition. A number of competitors later served in military units with distinction during World War II including Japan's Takeichi Nishi, who commanded a tank regiment at Iwo Jima, and Holland's Charles Pahud de Montanges, a prisoner of war who later led the Dutch resistance and served as president of the Netherlands Olympic Committee.<sup>40</sup>

Following the 1932 Games, the club returned to its original layout. As with listings of other venues, Riviera Country Club meets criteria related to significant people and events, but nothing remains of the structural additions made for the 1932 competition. Riviera is a modern facility that continues to host the prestigious Los Angeles Open; the 1948 United States Open was played at the club, the first west of the Rocky Mountains.

The photographic record, newspaper accounts, and the memories of those in attendance in 1932 is all that remains. The golf course was built during the 1920s building boom in Los Angeles and coincided with a rising popularity in sport-related recreation. It is another location not necessarily strengthened by a relationship with the

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<sup>39</sup> *Official Olympic Report*, 73-74.

<sup>40</sup> Wallechinsky, *The Complete Olympic Report*, 616.



Olympics, but any historical narrative of the site always makes mention of equestrian and 1932.

**Sunset Fields Golf Club; 3825 Don Felipe Drive, 1927.**

Located fifteen miles west of Exposition Park and just east of Riviera Country Club, Sunset Fields Golf Club hosted the cross country running portion of the modern pentathlon. A four thousand meter hill and dale course was required, and Sunset Fields, located near Baldwin Hills and the Olympic Village, proved to be sufficient. The location is now a residential area that includes the St. Bernadette Catholic Church.

Dating to the mid-nineteenth century in a section of *La Cienega O’Paso de Boca La Tijera*, part of a four-thousand-acre Mexican land grant, a small church was established. The rancho was purchased by Elias “Lucky” Baldwin in 1875 and a golf course was built around 1910 on part of the property. Sunset Fields closed in 1941 and newly-appointed pastor William J. Duggan negotiated for the purchase of three and one half acres for the Archdiocese of Los Angeles. The original clubhouse for Sunset Fields is the Sanchez Adobe, Los Angeles Historic-Cultural Monument No. 487, and is part of the reconstructed center of the St. Bernadette Catholic Church properties.<sup>41</sup>

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<sup>41</sup> Glen Creason, *Los Angeles in Maps* (New York: Rizzoli International Publications, 2010), 28-29. See also [www.stbernadetteschurch.com](http://www.stbernadetteschurch.com) (accessed 23 December 2014). The *Official Olympic Report* is clear about the location of the Sunset Fields Golf Club used. Brentwood Country Club, whose northwestern edge is around 590 Burlingame Avenue, opened in 1910 and changed from Sunset Fields Golf Club to Brentwood in 1941. Two courses were built on the four to five thousand acre property, so it can be argued that the course that no longer exists is where the 1932 Olympic modern pentathlon competition occurred. The Sanchez Adobe earned its distinction in 1990.

### **Olympic Swimming Stadium; 3980 Bill Robertson Lane; 1932; B-8.**

In determining a model for cooperation between organizational entities, a forward-thinking plan for immediate and future needs, and a good adaptive-use example relating to a sports facility, the Olympic Swimming Stadium built specifically for the 1932 Games is a good place to begin. After estimating costs of construction for a temporary facility, the LAOOC approached the Board of Playground and Recreation Commissioners of the City of Los Angeles about building a permanent swim stadium southwest of the Coliseum. Stipulations included meeting requirements of the International Swimming Federation and a seating capacity of at least ten thousand. The proposal was accepted and construction began on the concrete structure with a temporary five-thousand-seat wooden grandstand, dismantled at the close of the Games.<sup>42</sup>

Prior to 1932, Olympic swimming competitions were held in icy bay waters near Athens (1896), the River Siene in Paris (1900 and 1924), and a bay near Stockholm (1912). The London Games in 1908 constructed a pool in the infield of White City Stadium; Antwerp (1920) and Amsterdam (1928) also built swimming-specific structures. But Los Angeles' facility set a new standard and remains a vital part of the community as the LA84 Foundation/John C. Argue Swim Stadium.<sup>43</sup>

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<sup>42</sup> *Official Olympic Report*, 68.

<sup>43</sup> Japanese male swimmers surprised the Americans by winning five gold medals and eleven overall medals; the U.S. only won one gold, Buster Crabbe's victory in the 400 meter freestyle. Crabbe turned his swimming fame toward Hollywood where he starred as Tarzan, Buck Rogers and Flash Gordon over a long movie career. American women won four of five events, including Helene Madison, Josephine McKim, and Eleanor Holm, who each starred in various 1930' Hollywood films. See John Findling and Kimberly Pelle, *Encyclopedia of the Modern Olympic Movement*, 100-101; Wallechinsky, *The Complete Book of the Olympics*; and George R. Watson, *Olympic*

At the conclusion of the 1932 Games, the pool opened to the public, that public being “white only” despite legislation in 1931 that ended racial segregation at municipal pools in the city. The location hosted local, regional, and international swim meets beyond World War II and became USC’s “home pool” in 1958. Over the next twenty-two years, sixty-five world records were set at the stadium. Throughout the 1970s the structure and facility began to show its age. When the IOC and Los Angeles organizers for the 1984 Games went searching for a suitable swimming venue, it was determined that a new venue be built. Following the 1994 Northridge earthquake, the 1932 swim stadium was closed and left only to graffiti artists and local homeless.

In 1998, a non-profit corporation formed with the idea of re-establishing a suitable pool and expanded recreational opportunities. Following the 1984 Games, the LAOOC merged into the Amateur Athletic Foundation, also forming the LA84 Foundation to help promote sport in the Los Angeles area. A \$2 million grant of surplus funds from the 1984 Games was awarded in 1999 for improvements on the swim stadium. That grant was given to the Exposition Park Intergenerational Community Center as part of a \$28.3 million renovation. By 2003, a new three-story complex opened with two basketball courts, weight and fitness rooms, a family pool, an outdoor amphitheater, and a 50-meter competition pool.<sup>44</sup>

The modern eight-acre complex incorporates the original stadium, now known as the LA84 Foundation/John C. Argue Swim Stadium. The original façade remains with

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*Photographic Collection: Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles* (San Francisco: Heian International, 1984), 100-112.

<sup>44</sup> Cecilia Rasmussen, “Swim Stadium Full of Success Stories,” *Los Angeles Times*, 16 March 2008. See also “Swim Stadium to Receive \$2 Million From Fund,” *Los Angeles Times*, 5 June 1999.

refurbished concrete. A plaque above a side doorway reads “Erected by the Department of Playground and Recreation, City of Los Angeles, in the year 1932 for the Tenth Olympiad.” The five Olympic rings adorn the south side of the main structure.<sup>45</sup>

The original structure remains a foundational aspect of the current complex, but minus the façade very little integrity is retained. Association with significant events and people make the location eligible for National Register distinction, but much like the original armory, the swimming stadium is now part of a much larger entity. The building of the pool served a much larger purpose than the 1932 Games, providing yet another example of combining Olympic building aspirations with community planning. The dilapidated and unused swimming pool constructed for the 1952 Games in Helsinki, Finland, served no purpose after 1952.

### **Long Beach Marine Stadium; 5750 Boathouse Lane, Long Beach; 1932; B-9.**

In August 1994 the first man-made rowing course in the United States, the Long Beach Marine Stadium, was given California Historical Landmark (1014) distinction. The site was built specifically for the 1932 Games, but like the swimming stadium the rowing facility continues to serve a modern purpose.

A thorough survey of water courses adjacent to Los Angeles found none able to meet Olympic rowing requirements. A lagoon in Long Beach was merited good, except for being approximately five hundred meters too short. The City of Long Beach and the LAOOC entered into an agreement in which the City agreed to dredge the lagoon to the necessary length and depth. The LAOOC agreed to finance the construction of

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<sup>45</sup> Author’s observations, June 2014.

grandstands, a boat house, docks, starting platforms, and buildings for dressing rooms. At the conclusion of competition, in return for the city's expenditures, the LAOOC agreed to give the rowing stadium and its facilities to the City of Long Beach.<sup>46</sup>

In 1922, a bond passed to pay for the purchase and dredging of Upper Alamitos Bay and the construction of Recreation Park and two golf courses. A saltwater swimming lagoon was also built. After Los Angeles received the 1932 Games, Long Beach hoped to bring rowing and swimming to their location as sites were scouted by the LAOOC. A fresh-water swimming facility was the desire of the LAOOC, but the City gave \$77,000 for the primary building of Marine Stadium. It officially opened 23 July 1932 and an estimated 120,000 watched the first rowing event where a race could be seen start to finish.<sup>47</sup>

Following the 1932 Games, the original Long Beach Rowing Club was formed by twenty five Long Beach businessmen wishing to promote rowing in the Los Angeles and Long Beach area. The club purchased shells left by German and Japanese rowing squads from 1932 and helped Long Beach and Wilson High Schools, Long Beach Junior College and UCLA to start rowing programs. All high school crews were coached by Pete Archer (1904-2001). After a \$2 million renovation in 1968, the rowing stadium hosted many prominent national rowing events, serving as the venue for 1968 and 1976 U.S. Rowing Team Trials and the 1984 U.S. Women's Rowing Trials. Now called the Pete Archer

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<sup>46</sup> *Official Olympic Report*, 72-73.

<sup>47</sup> Paul McLeod, "Long Beach's Marine Stadium: Designate a Historic Site?," *Los Angeles Times*, 7 August 1992. The United States and Great Britain won five of the seven gold medals. Englishman Hugh Edwards, a member of the two British gold medal units, served in the Royal Air Force during World War II. See also Wallechinsky, *The Complete Book of the Olympics*, 873.

Rowing Center, the Long Beach Cultural Heritage Commission approved the stadium as a California Historical Landmark in 1992; the stadium was added to the CHL in 1994 and continues to serve the rowing community.

Los Angeles Harbor hosted three days of sailing competition. No construction of a venue or grandstand was required. As with previous boom periods of the city, the Harbor adds another chapter to the narrative due to its 1937 expansion that made possible an industry that employed ninety thousand. During World War II, Los Angeles produced an estimated 17 percent of goods for the war effort. The location, like the city, has grown significantly since Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo sailed into the area midway through the sixteenth century.

### **Highways and roadways; B-10.**

A number of events for the 1932 Games required use of neighborhood streets, roadways, and highways around the Los Angeles area. They include: Los Angeles and Vineyard Avenues, Riverside Drive, and Pacific Coast Highway. The logistics required for hosting particular events on major roadways during the two-week sports festival is expansive. Detailing the meaning and significance of the many roadways in and around Los Angeles is beyond the scope of this study.

It is important to note, however, that Southern California, tourism, and the heightened utilization of the automobile throughout the twentieth century have a special relationship. Many of the scenic byways are part of American culture through Hollywood, song, and television. In the Los Angeles style of boosterism discussed throughout this thesis, the Pacific Coast Highway provides yet another example of selling

the city and its environs. Built during the 1920s, the highway provided part of the route for the 100-kilometer cycling road race. Photographer George Watson captioned his 1932 photograph, “Cyclists in the grueling 100-kilometer road race found the azure blue of the Pacific restful to the eyes, the ocean breezes cooling to perspiring bodies, and the cheering of the assembled throng gathered along Santa Monica Bay sweet music to their ears.”<sup>48</sup>

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<sup>48</sup> Watson, *Olympic Photograph Collection*, 116. See Appendix 4A. The highway was the first to link the Mexican and Canadian borders and part of the Roosevelt Highway, named in honor of Theodore Roosevelt. In 2015 the PCH offers an alternative to the often congested Interstate-5 that runs parallel farther inland. For a 1937 road map produced by the Automobile Club of Southern California see Creason, *Los Angeles in Maps*, 120-121.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSION

On a June afternoon in 2014, a visit to the Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum offers a number of observations. At first look, despite the restoration and noticeable changes that have been a part of its eighty years of existence, a sense of history immediately overtakes the sightseer. The façade on the east side still adorns the five Olympic rings. In an age when modern sports facilities are mistaken for space ships or small cities, the Coliseum appears simple and refined, from a more sturdy era.

On a regular weekday there are a handful of employees, observers, some tourists and others who are just strolling through Exposition Park for exercise. The large stadium is anything but vacant. A film crew, shooting a scene for perhaps a movie or a television program, mills around one section. On the opposite side, another entrance has hundreds of high school students forming a line. Coliseum ownership, still multi-layered like the 1930s, is giving away backpacks filled with school supplies for underprivileged youth in the neighborhood.

Across a small street, the *California Science Center* crowds are in a constant buzz. The Space Shuttle Endeavor is on display in one pavilion. Massive I-Max movie theaters are also available. The complex is dubbed a place where families, adults, and



children can explore the wonders of science. Exposition Park also houses an African-American Museum, a Natural History Museum, along with a picturesque Rose Garden. More than one afternoon is required to see everything.

The architecture is a mix of old and new. There are plenty of trees and the green of open spaces, but the modern day need for parking takes away from the aesthetics. It is obvious the park and its environs are frequented daily by visitors, many of them tourists. Although there is a modernity to the location, plenty of history exists in full view.

Exposition Park has endured for over a century. Prior to the founding of the University of Southern California, the location was looked at unfavorably due to its association with gambling, prostitution, and its wild activities. School and city officials wanted to change the makeup of the park, constructing a museum, an exposition building, and an armory prior to the 1920s. In 1923, the Memorial Coliseum was added. By the 1932 Olympics, the park was an ideal setting for a struggling Olympic festival. The addition of an Olympic Village to alleviate some of the financial strain on European and foreign athletes added to a positive narrative for Los Angeles.

The positive narrative includes the city's use of existing structures and the construction of facilities and venues with a future in mind. Although many of the decisions were made by a wealthy and influential elite of Los Angeles, those decisions included a cooperation between many entities to alleviate some of the financial strain and the inherent problems of hosting such a large event.

Los Angeles organizers used the Olympics as a promotional tool for their city. The young IOC was still a relatively young entity and did not wield the power it currently has, giving the LAOOC the ability to work with the many organizations. In the end, the

city benefitted and many of the venues continue to serve the community as explored in this thesis. Preserving the history of those venues and structures remains a multi-layered challenge for preservationists, who understand the importance and cultural heritage such places provide. Without that physical link, a large part of the narrative is lost. It is ironic that Olympic aficionados seek new and improved facilities while promoting a historical link to the ancient games of Greece. Would it not be more in line with its doctrine to bring Opening and Closing ceremonies to locations already with the credentials of a memorable past? If the goal is for the next city to outdo its predecessor then this might be unattainable. But for adequate and existing facilities, most U.S. cities that have multiple professional sports teams could host an Olympic Games.

Since 1932 the IOC's influence has increased greatly and now prospective host cities cater to the Olympic leadership's every need. The ability to bring a Summer or Winter Olympics to a particular city now requires a large bidding process and the promise of new stadiums, larger than the last. Due to the supposed economic impact of an Olympics, many cities have fallen victim to IOC wishes and spent large sums on construction projects. Is it not possible for the IOC to bring its festival to communities with existing venues and locations that require minimal additions to the already built environment? Unfortunately, there appears to be no move in that direction in the foreseeable future.

Imagine a 1932 model applied in 2020. A city bids to host a future Olympics. That community already has the necessary facilities and venues to host large numbers of athletes and the contingents associated with large festivals. The two-week festival concludes and those facilities go back to their daily routine. Or, in the case of

construction of a new venue, following competition it becomes home to a local sports team and the added entertainment and cultural activities it can supply. One hundred years later, through a strong local preservation movement that includes adaptive use, restoration, and rehabilitation principles, many of the facilities are still part of the built environment and being used for various means. Why are methods used in the 1920s and Depression-era Los Angeles not feasible in 2020? It is a question urban planners, and maybe the IOC, should address sooner rather than later.

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## APPENDICES



An aerial view of the Athlete's Village built on Baldwin Hills.  
*(Photo from Official Olympic Report for the 1932 Los Angeles Olympics).*

The Spanish-Mission-style Administration Building was the hub of activity during the 1932 Olympics. *(Photo from George Watson Olympic Photograph Collection, Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles).*

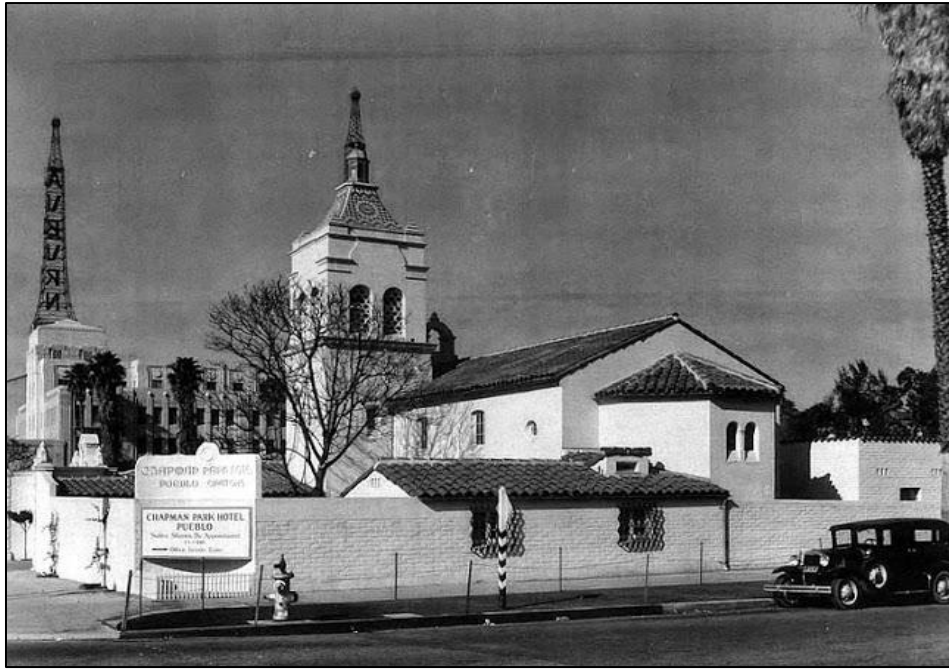


## APPENDIX A



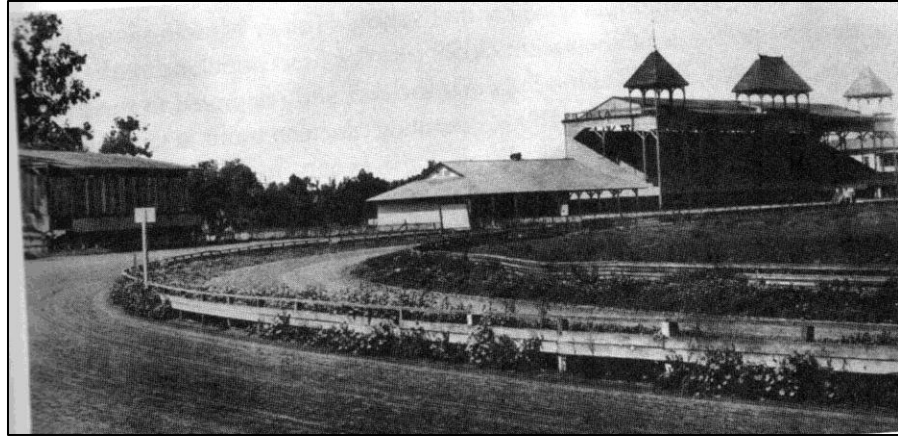
## APPENDIX A

Some of the cottages that housed the athletes in the Athlete's Village found new homes and uses after the 1932 Games. This structure is a restaurant on Olvera Street. (Photo from <http://www.lataco.com/taco/1932-olvera-street>)



The Chapman Park Hotel Pueblo in 1936 (top picture) with a view of an inside reception area of the hotel during the 1932 Los Angeles Olympics. (Photo from Watson Photo Collection, Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932).

## APPENDIX B



**B-1:** Exposition Park dates to the 1880s when the location was known as Agricultural Park and included only a race track and grandstand. Today's Exposition Park maintains much of its original 1913 site plan. (*Top photo from University Park: A Brief History; bottom photo from UCLA.edu*).



## APPENDIX B



**B-2:** The State Armory was one of the first three structures built in Exposition Park, constructed in 1913. The original structure is now the Wallis Annenberg Building for Science Learning and Innovation inside the California Science Center (*left photo from Official Olympic Report; right photo from Watson Collection, Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932*).

Before becoming the Wallis Annenberg Building, the original armory space housed the Space Shuttle Endeavor (*photo from <http://www.californiasciencecenter.org>*).



## APPENDIX B

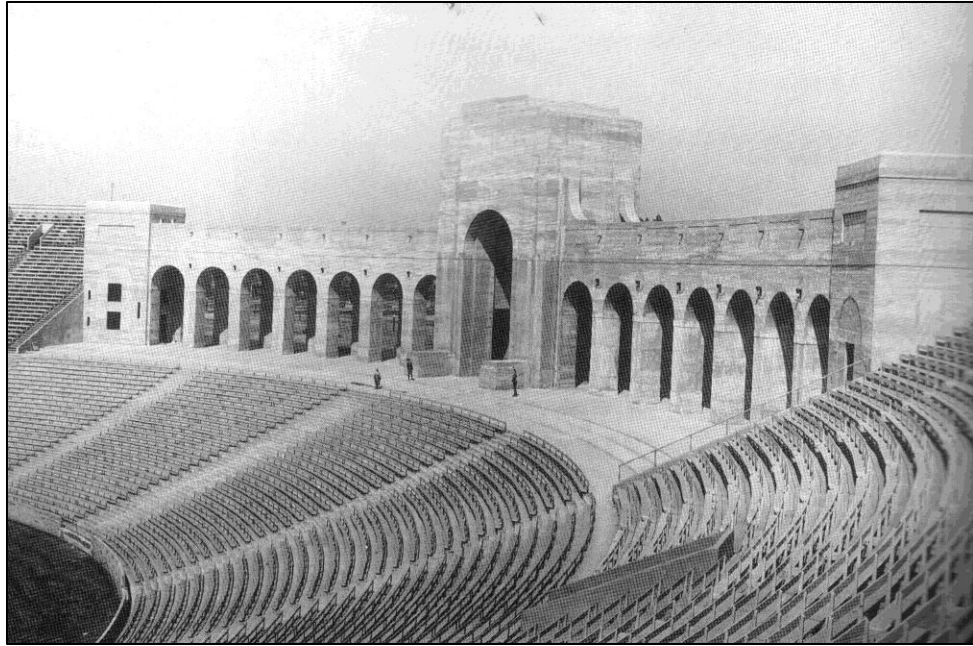


**B-3:** The cycling track inside the Rose Bowl (Photo from *Official Olympic Report*).

The Rose Bowl Stadium hosts more than sporting events. More than 2,500 vendors and almost 20,000 shoppers attend monthly flea markets at the venue. (Photo from The Rose Bowl, Images of America).



## APPENDIX B



**B-4:** The above photograph is from inside the Memorial Coliseum in 1923. The bottom photograph is from the same view in 2002 (Photos from Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum, Images of America).



## APPENDIX B

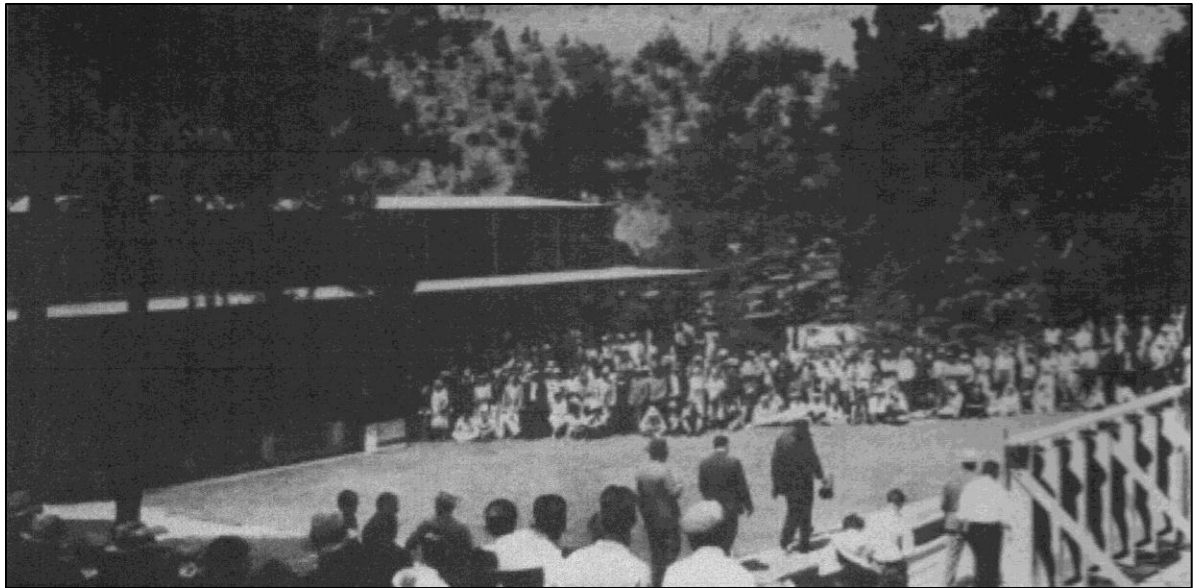


**B-4:** The façade of the Memorial Coliseum is one of the most recognizable sports icons in the United States. The facility also hosted Billy Graham and 134,254 for the Los Angeles Crusade for Christ in 1963 (*Photos from Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum, Images of America*).

## APPENDIX B

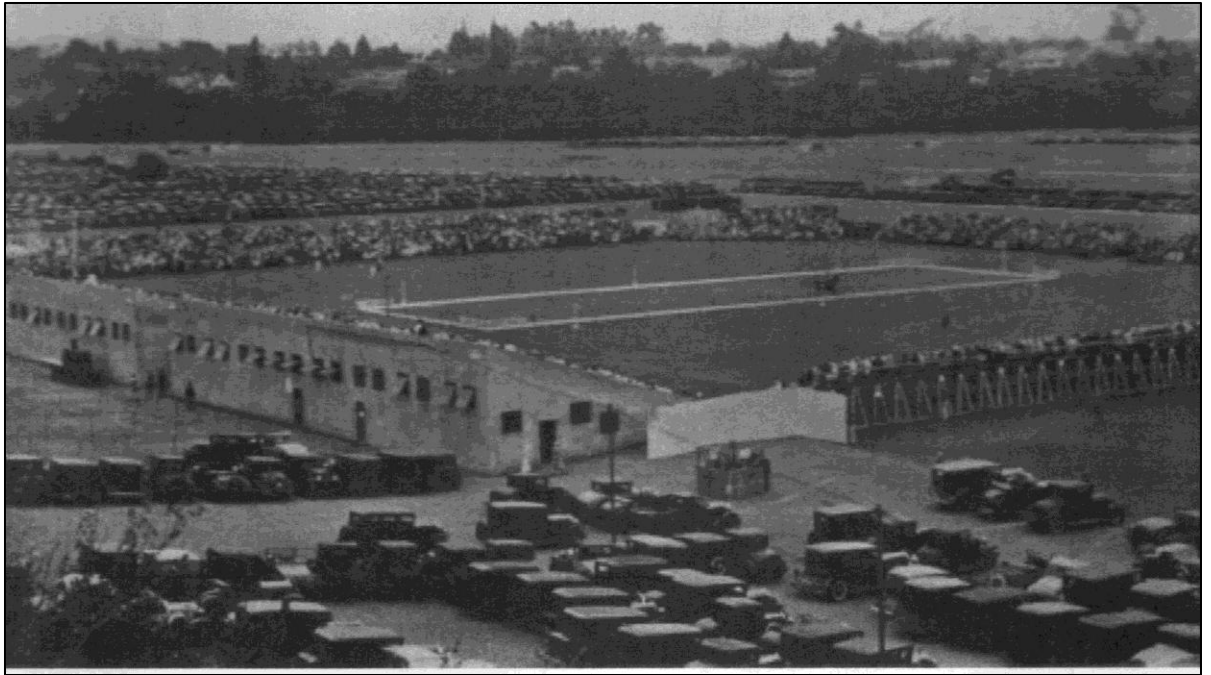


**B-5:** Grand Olympic Auditorium, built in 1925 (*Photo from Official Olympic Report*)

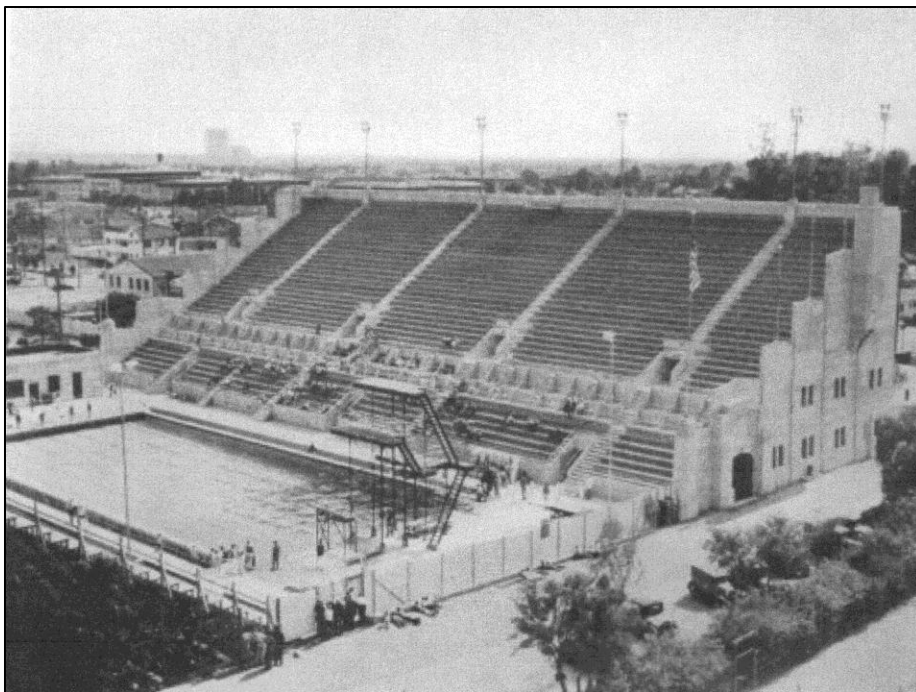


**B-6:** The Los Angeles Police Pistol Range located in Elysian Park (*Photo from Official Olympic Report*).

## APPENDIX B



**B-7:** The temporary equestrian stadium at Riviera Country Club (*Photo from Official Olympic Report*).



**B-8:** The Olympic Swimming Stadium built specifically for the 1932 Los Angeles Olympics (*Photo from Official Olympic Report*).

## APPENDIX B



**B-8:** A modern view of the façade outside the Los Angeles Swimming Stadium. (*Photo from [www.expositionpark.org](http://www.expositionpark.org)*).

## APPENDIX B



**B-9:** The Long Beach Marine Stadium (*top photo from Watson Collection, Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, 1932; bottom photo from Official Olympic Report*).



## APPENDIX B



**B-10:** The Pacific Coast Highway during the 1932 Los Angeles Olympics (*Photo from Official Olympic Report*).

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