



University of Physical Education in Kraków, Poland

Studies in Sport Humanities

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From the Editor



Studies in Sport Humanities (previously *Studia Humanistyczne*) is a scientific journal that publishes original works on physical culture prepared from multidisciplinary approach (including the perspectives of history, pedagogy, sociology, philosophy, cultural anthropology, Olympics, physical education theory). The journal

is published by the University of Physical Education in Kraków.

The English name and gradual increase of the number of texts published in that language resulted with broadening circle of our Authors, reviewers and readers. It allowed us to believe that the undertaken direction of the development is pertinent. For that reason, starting from a current edition, we publish texts only in English what has become an obligatory version for Authors publishing in our periodic. We strongly believe, that such a solution will contribute to better popularisation of the Polish science achievements in the international environment, and it will encourage Authors from abroad to publish their articles in our journal.

The journal appears on the Ministry of Science and Higher Education scientific journals list B. It is also indexed in the Index Copernicus International database. Detailed guidance for preparing text, procedures for reviews, and other editorial requirements are located in the publishing regulations. The original version is the hard-copy version, while the electronic version can be found on the editorial board's website: www.sporthishumanities.pl

Since 2016 the periodic will be published only in the electronic version (open access).

The next edition of the journal will be prepared by the editorial board led by prof. Jan Blecharz. I am very grateful together with the secretary of the journal Ph.D. Agata Kiluk to the members of the Advisory Board, Authors and Reviewers for cooperation and support we have got from you during last five years. Thank to your contribution the journal has achieved the international status thus promoting the University of Physical Education in Cracow in Poland and abroad.

Editor-in-Chief

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Halina'.

Associate Professor Halina Zdebska-Biziewska, Ph.D.

Health-Related Behaviours, Physical Activity and Perceived Life Satisfaction in the Academic Youth of Pedagogical Subjects in Cracow

Grażyna Kosiba^a, Maria Gacek^b, Agnieszka Wojtowicz^c, Agnieszka Bogacz-Walancik^d

^a University of Physical Education in Cracow

^b University of Physical Education in Cracow

^c University of Physical Education in Cracow

^d Pedagogical University in Cracow

Summary

The aim of the study was to analyse the correlation between the level of satisfaction with life, health-related behaviours and physical activity in the group of academic youth studying pedagogical subjects at chosen universities in Cracow. The following variables were used and characterized: levels of satisfaction with life, health-related behaviours and physical activity. The study verifies the hypothesis that the academic youth characterized by higher levels of satisfaction with life will be show a wider scale of pro-health behaviours and higher levels of physical activity. The study was conducted in a random group of 486 participants – 416 women (85.60%) and 70 men (14.40%) in the age 22–28 years (average: 23 years). The group consisted of undergraduates (3rd year of bachelor studies) at pedagogical studies from three universities in Cracow: Pedagogical University of Cracow (66.26%), the Jagiellonian University (25.31%) and Andrzej Frycz Modrzewski Krakow University (8.43%).

The standardised Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) by Diener et al. in the Polish adaptation by Z. Juczyński (2009) was used for the purpose of measuring the satisfaction with life. The Inventory of Health-Related Behaviours (IHRB) by Juczyński (2009) was used for the assessment of 4 categories of health-related behaviours: proper nutrition habits (PNH), prophylaxis (P), pro-health practices (PHP) and positive attitude (PA). The intensity of pro-health behaviours was assessed with the use of the proper sten scores (Juczyński 2009). The International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) – Short Form was used to assess the levels of physical activity.

The above presented authors' own research show that the majority of Cracow students of pedagogical subjects was characterized by an average satisfaction with life, and low levels of pro-health behaviours, as well as an adequate level of physical activity. Statistically significant diversity in some pro-health behaviours and physical activities were discovered. They were found to be related to such factors as sex, intensity of certain pro-health behaviours, and satisfaction with life among academic youth.

Keywords: health-related behaviours, satisfaction with life, physical activity, academic youth

Introduction

Lifestyle is a key determinant of health defined in a holistic model as a dynamic process of striving towards psychophysiological balance. In maintaining and perfecting a health capability pro-health behaviours are favourable, especially those related to a rational diet, recreational physical activity, effective ways of coping with psychological stress, avoiding psychoactive substances, avoiding risky sexual behaviours, and undergoing preventive medical examinations [Karski 2011, Heszen & Sęk 2012, Wojtyniak et al. 2012].

A propitious factor in retaining and improving health is a diverse and balanced diet rich in nutritious

products like wholemeal cereal, vegetables, fruits, dairy products with low content of fats, fish, vegetable oils and nuts. Such a diet should also limit the amount of consumed animal fats, red meat, finely milled cereal products as well as sweet and savoury snacks ([Kłosiwicz-Latoszek 2009]. Recreational physical activity, especially health-related training, conduces to health, prevents chronic diseases, improves emotional well-being, and delays involution [Kuński 2002, Jegier et al. 2013, Daniels 2014, Wernhart et al. 2015]. Moreover, physical activity helps in effective coping with stress by the means of positive and direct usage of maleficent elements of stressful reaction, a post-exertional relaxation, increasing cardiorespiratory endurance, stimulating se-

cretion of endogenous opioids and decreasing the level of reactivity [Kuński 2002, Heszen & Sęk 2012]. Rational diet combined with recreational physical activity were included as the key factors of healthy lifestyle in the new Polish pyramid of The National Food and Nutrition Institute in Warsaw [www.izz.waw.pl]. Avoiding the use of psychoactive substances (including cigarettes) is the a favourable factor in the prophylaxis of chronic illnesses, including cancer and cardiovascular diseases (Karski 2011). Undergoing preventive medical examinations increases the chances of early diagnose of various risks for health and is a part of prophylaxis of chronic diseases [Karski 2011].

Studies show that anti-health behaviours in lifestyle are widespread among various populations, including the academic youth [Łysak et al. 2009, Lisicki & Kosińska 2010, Mędreła-Kuder 2011, Romanowska-Tolloczko 2011, Podstawski et al. 2012, Ślusarska et al. 2012, Pasit 2014, Monhollen et al. 2016] and teachers [Prażmowska et al. 2011, Duda-Zalewska 2012, Woynarowska-Soldan & Tabak 2013, Laudańska-Krzemińska 2014]. The problem of a limited scope of pro-health lifestyle among the teachers and students of pedagogical subjects is particularly important. This is because, according to the new curricular guidelines of general education form the year 2009 [Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej a dnia 23 grudnia 2008 r. w sprawie podstawy programowej wychowania przedszkolnego oraz kształcenia ogólnego w poszczególnych typach szkół. Dz. U. Z 2009 r., nr 4, poz. 17], these groups have or will have an influence on health education of school children on all levels of education.

Health-related behaviours are determined by a wide range of socioeconomic, cultural and personality factors [Remick 2009, Juczyński 2009]. Individual differences which contribute to one's health culture include the location of control over health, a sense of general self-efficacy, optimism and satisfaction with life. Previous studies indicated the correlation between psychological traits (including a sense of efficacy, optimism and satisfaction with life) and nutritional habits of various populations including menopausal women [Gacek 2013a, 2013b], young women recreationally practicing fitness [Gacek et al. 2015] and teachers [Kosiba 2006, Laudańska-Krzemińska et al. 2015]. In this context, the present study has been conducted in order to establish the predictive role of perceived satisfaction with life with a reference to health-related behaviours and physical activity of a group of students of pedagogical subjects at chosen universities in Cracow.

The satisfaction with life (as a subjective measure of a sense of well-being) has been defined as a general individual cognitive assessment of life's quality [Juczyński 2009]. It is perceived as a subjective point of view because of its relatedness to the individual evaluation of own resources and limitations which is manifested through a positive attitude to one's life situation. The perceived satisfaction with life as a measure of life's quality is one of the individual's health resources in the dimension of psychosocial health [Byra 2011, Trzebiatowski 2011].

The present study assumes that the pro-health behaviours (including physical activity) are the key factors determining health, and that personal traits play a crucial role in modelling these behaviours. It is also assumed that the students of pedagogical subjects will undertake the work in their profession in the future and that they will be engaged in the health education of school children.

The aim of the study was to analyse the correlation between the level of satisfaction with life, health-related behaviours and physical activity in the group of academic youth studying pedagogical subjects at chosen universities in Cracow. The following variables were used and characterized: levels of satisfaction with life, health-related behaviours and physical activity. The study verifies the hypothesis that the academic youth characterized by higher levels of satisfaction with life will show a wider scale of pro-health behaviours and higher levels of physical activity.

Material and methods

The study was conducted in a random group of 486 participants – 416 women (85.60%) and 70 men (14.40%) in the age 22–28 years (average: 23 years). The group consisted of undergraduates (3rd year of bachelor studies) at pedagogical studies from three universities in Cracow: Pedagogical University of Cracow (66.26%), the Jagiellonian University (25.31%) and Andrzej Frycz Modrzewski Krakow University (8.43%). The difference in numbers between the sexes is a result of the fact that pedagogical subjects are rarely preferred by men.

The standardised Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) by Diener et al. in the Polish adaptation by Z. Juczyński [2009] was used for the purpose of measuring the satisfaction with life. The classification of the participants upon the criteria of satisfaction with life was based on proper sten scores [Juczyński 2009]. According to this the high (10–7 sten), average (6–5 sten) and low (4–1 sten) levels of satisfaction with life were distinguished.

The Inventory of Health-Related Behaviours (IHRB) by Juczyński [2009] was used for the assessment of 4 categories of health-related behaviours: proper nutrition habits (PNH), prophylaxis (P), pro-health practices (PHP) and positive attitude (PA). The intensity of pro-health behaviours was assessed with the use of the proper sten scores [Juczyński 2009].

The International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) – Short Form was used to assess the levels of physical activity. The categories of sitting, walking, moderate and vigorous physical activities were evaluated. The Metabolic Equivalent of Task (MET) was used for the purposes of assigning participants to the groups of different levels of physical activity: high (over 1500 or 3000 MET-minutes per week), average (600–1500 or 600–3000 MET-minutes per week) and low (under 600 MET-minutes per week) [Biernat et al. 2007].

The statistical analysis was conducted using the chi-squared test with multiple comparisons (z test for the

proportion with Bonferroni correction, marked in the tables below with the letters a and b), Paerson's correlation and repeated measures ANOVA. The level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$, while $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$ were deemed as highly significant.

Results

Based on the sten scores of the SWLS it has been stated that the majority of academic youth presents the average (41.56%) level of satisfaction with life. Smaller fractions were characterized by high (33.13%) and low (25.31%) levels. The statistical analysis has not indicated the significant differentiation in the level of satisfaction with life in accordance to sex ($p = 0.160$) (Tab. 1).

Based on the sten scores of the IHRB it has been observed that the academic youth mostly (47.94%) presented low levels of pro-health behaviours. Smaller percentage showed average (38.89%) or high (13.17%) levels. The statistical analysis has not indicated the signif-

icant difference in the level of pro-health behaviours in accordance to sex ($p = 0.577$) (Tab.2).

From the 4 categories included in the IHRB the academic youth presented the highest average index within the pro-health practices (19.48) and positive attitude (19.47). The lower index was presented with in the proper nutrition habits (18.95) and prophylaxis (17.99). The statistical analysis has indicated significant differences in the intensity of health-related behaviours between men and women in the: positive attitude ($F(1,480) = 7.04$; $p = 0.008$), proper nutrition habits ($F(1,480) = 23.95$; $p < 0.001$) and prophylaxis ($F(1,480) = 15.17$; $p < 0.001$). The scale of undertaking everyday pro-health practices has not shown differences in accordance to sex ($F(1,480) = 1.97$; $p = 0.161$) (Tab. 3).

The analysis of variance indicated statistically significant differences in the intensity of almost all categories of pro-health behaviours. There was no statistically significant difference between the intensity of pro-health practices and positive attitude in the academic youth (Tab. 4).

Tab. 1. The level of satisfaction with life in academic youth in accordance to sex (percentage of the participants)

SWLS scores	All		Women		Men	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
High	161	33.13	142a	34.10	19a	27.10
Average	202	41.56	175a	42.10	27a	38.60
Low	123	25.31	99a	23.80	24a	34.30
All	486	100.00	416	100.00	70	100.00

$\chi^2(2) = 3.66$; $p = 0.160$

Tab. 2. The level of health-related behaviours in academic youth in accordance to sex (percentage of the participants)

IHRB scores	All		Women		Men	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
High	64	13.17	57a	13.70	7a	10.00
Average	189	38.89	163a	39.18	26a	37.14
Low	233	47.94	196a	47.12	37a	52.86
All	486	100.00	416	100.00	70	100.00

$\chi^2(2) = 1.100$; $p = 0.577$

Tab. 3. The particular categories of health-related behaviours amongst the academic youth in accordance to sex (M±SD)

Pro-health behaviours	All (N=486)		Women (N=416)		Men (N=70)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Positive attitude (PA)	19.47	4.16	19.71	4.13	18.03	4.07
Prophylaxis (P)	17.99	4.64	18.31	4.63	16.07	4.22
Proper nutrition habits (PNH)	18.95	4.92	19.41	4.75	16.17	5.01
Pro-health practices (PHP)	19.48	4.10	19.57	4.00	18.91	4.69
Health-related behaviours (HRB)	75.88	12.83	77.00	12.43	69.19	13.17

The data presented in Tab. 5. indicate that the academic youth presented mostly satisfactory (62.10%), seldom high (26.5%) and low (11.30%) levels of physical activity. The statistical analysis indicated the significant differences in the level of physical activity of men and women ($\chi^2(2)=6.521; p=0.038$), where men more frequently presented high, and women satisfactory level of physical activity.

From the presented in IPAQ categories of physical activity the highest level was observed within walking and vigorous physical activity and lower within mod-

erate physical activity and sitting. Men scored higher in walking, moderate, and vigorous physical activities, while women scored higher in sitting (Tab. 6).

The statistical analysis indicated the significant differences in almost all categories of physical activities in the academic youth. There were no statistically significant differences only in accordance to the moderate and vigorous physical activities (Tab. 7).

Tab. 8 presents the correlations between the levels of satisfaction with life and the intensity of pro-health behaviours. Low levels of pro-health behaviours were

Tab. 4. The differences between the intensity of particular categories of health-related behaviours in the academic youth

	<i>F</i> (1,486)			<i>p</i>		
	PA	P	PNH	PA	P	PNH
P	48.30			< 0.001		
PNH	4.67	17.82		0.030	< 0.001	
PHP	0.002	39.37	4.27	0.968	< 0.001	0.039

Tab. 5. The level of physical activity in the academic youth in accordance to sex (percentage of the participants)

Level of physical activity	All		Women		Men	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
High	129	26.50	103b	24.80	26a	37.10
Average	302	62.10	268b	64.40	34a	48.60
Low	55	11.30	45a	10.80	10a	14.30
All	485	100.00	416	100.00	70	100.00

$\chi^2(2)=6.521; p=0.038$

Tab. 6. The particular categories of physical activity in the academic youth in accordance to sex (MET-minutes per week)

IPAQ categories	All			Women			Men		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
IPAQ vigorous	468	1194.27	2042.66	400	1120.40	1750.19	68	1628.82	3258.33
IPAQ moderate	461	719.91	1366.19	393	650.43	1126.42	68	1121.47	2280.14
IPAQ walking	445	2859.21	2861.35	385	2816.19	2842.92	60	3135.27	2986.81
IPAQ sitting	393	399.24	169.42	340	402.79	170.03	53	376.42	165.22
IPAQ all	418	4819.85	4497.27	362	4595.66	4053.36	56	6269.06	6560.31

Tab. 7. Differences between the intensity of particular categories of physical activities in the academic youth

	<i>F</i> (1,358)			<i>p</i>		
	IPAQ vigorous	IPAQ moderate	IPAQ walking	IPAQ vigorous	IPAQ moderate	IPAQ walking
IPAQ moderate	26.51			< 0.001		
IPAQ walking	69.60	179.76		< 0.001	< 0.001	
IPAQ sitting	60.66	24.56	252.15	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001

declared by participants with low (61.0%), average (49.0%) and high (36.6%) satisfaction with life. The high levels of pro-health behaviours were declared by participants with low (8.01%), average (12.9%) and high (17.4%) satisfaction with life. The significance of the differences between separate categories was confirmed by the statistical analysis ($p=0.022$).

The statistical analysis has not showed statistical significance in the differences between the levels of physical activity and the levels of satisfaction with life in the academic youth (Tab. 9).

The analysis of correlations indicated a positive correlation between the perceived satisfaction with life and particular categories of pro-health behaviours ($p<0.01$).

Tab. 8. The intensity of health-related behaviours in the academic youth in accordance to the level of satisfaction with life (percentage of the participants)

IHRB scores	All		SWLS scores					
			Low		Average		High	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Low	233	47.90	75a	61.00	99a, b	49.00	59b	36.60
Average	189	38.90	38a	30.90	77a, b	38.10	74b	46.00
High	64	13.20	10a	8.01	26a	12.90	28a	17.40
All	486	100.00	123	100.00	202	100.00	161	100.00

$\chi^2(2)=17.380; p=0.022$

Tab. 9. The level of physical activity in the academic youth in accordance to the level of satisfaction with life (percentage of the participants)

IPAQ scores	All		SWLS					
			Low		Average		High	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Low	55	11.30	12a	9.80	26a	12.90	17a	10.60
Average	302	62.10	67a	54.50	133a	65.80	102a	63.40
High	129	26.50	44a	35.80	43b	21.30	42a, b	26.10
All	486	100.00	123	100.00	202	100.00	161	100.00

$\chi^2(2)=8.487; p=0.075$

Tab. 10. Correlations between particular categories of health-related behaviours (IHRB), physical activity (IPAQ) and the level of satisfaction with life in the academic youth

Categories of health-related behaviours (IHRB)	Perceived satisfaction with life
	Pearson's r
Positive attitude (PA)	0.39**
Pro-health practices (PHP)	0.20**
Proper nutrition habits (PNH)	0.15**
Prophylaxis (P)	0.20**
Physical activity categories (IPAQ)	
IPAQ walking (N=445)	0.02
IPAQ vigorous (N=468)	-0.07
IPAQ moderate (N=461)	0.01
IPAQ sitting (N=393)	-0.04

** $p<0.01$

From the analysed categories the strongest correlation with the satisfaction with life was connected to the positive attitude ($r=0.39$) and the weakest to the proper nutrition habits ($r=0.15$). There were no statistically significant correlations between the levels of satisfaction with life and the level of physical activity in the academic youth (Tab. 10).

Discussion

Positive attitude to health and undertaking activities that work in health's favour in students that are to become teachers may help in creating appropriate models and healthy lifestyle of youth and school-children.

The above presented authors' own research show that the majority of Cracow students of pedagogical subjects was characterized by an average satisfaction with life, and low levels of pro-health behaviours, as well as an adequate level of physical activity. Statistically significant diversity in some pro-health behaviours and physical activities were discovered. They were found to be related to such factors as sex, intensity of certain pro-health behaviours, and satisfaction with life among academic youth.

The average levels of satisfaction with life (41.56%), which was described as dominant in academic youth, was consistent with tendencies found in other research, including the Iranian female teachers [Mirkhan et al. 2014] and the Greater Poland female teachers [Laudańska-Krzemińska et al. 2015]. Being satisfied with life was declared by 58,5% of another Cracow group of students [Makowska 2010]. This factor constitutes an important indicator of life quality and also a crucial health resource in the dimension of psycho-social health [Byra 2011, Trzebiatowski 2011].

The presented research shows that the majority of Cracow students of pedagogical subjects declared a low (47.94%) or average (38.89%) level of health-related behaviours, with behaviours in some areas being more intense in women than in men. Similar results were obtained in other groups of students [Lewko et al. 2005, Rasińska 2012], and in athletes [Boguszewski et al. 2014]. In the latter group, no diversification was found in relation to sex [Boguszewski et al. 2014].

The low and average levels of pro-health behaviour, which were described as dominant in academic youth, confirm rather limited scale of healthy lifestyle – a key factor for good health in the holistic model. The tendencies corresponded to limited scope of pro-health behaviours in various populations, including academic youth [Łysak et al. 2009, Romanowska-Tolłoczko 2011, Lisicki & Kosińska 2010] and teachers [Sharma et al. 2013, Laudańska-Krzemińska et al. 2015]. The erroneousness in lifestyles of various groups of students that may be found in a body literature concerned mainly the following: ineffective rest [Romanowska-Tolłoczko 2011], preference for passive forms of recreation (Lisicki & Kosińska 2010), abusing alcoholic beverages [Łysak et al. 2009, Romanowska-Tolłoczko 2011], smoking [Łysak et al.

2009, Romanowska-Tolłoczko 2011], and malnutrition [Mędreła-Kuder 2011, Myszkowska-Ryciak et al. 2011, Rasińska 2012, Seń et al. 2012, Ślusarska et al. 2012].

The authors' own research show the diversification of intensity of health-related behaviours falling into certain categories; the positive mental attitude (positive thinking, having appropriate relations with others, avoiding strong emotions and stresses) and behaviours related to daily health routine (having enough sleep, limited use of substances, etc.) being the most intense, and proper nutrition habits and prophylaxis being the less intense. Similar tendencies were observed in the Poznan group of academic youth which showed the highest intensity of behaviours related to positive mental attitude, and the lowest intensity of prophylaxis [Rasińska 2012].

The highest level of pro-health behaviours related to positive attitude (i.e. in the field of psychological health factors) may suggest that the students were aware of the importance of effective preventive strategies. Similar tendencies were discovered in other groups of academic youth [Binkowska-Bury et al. 2010, Sygit-Kowalkowska 2014]. The significance of active and effective coping with stress is also underlined in the literature concerning professional burnout syndrome in teachers; with the crucial factors being interpersonal competences, including: resilience, initiative, optimism, self-confidence, high self-esteem, ability to adapt to demanding situations, and effective coping with stress [Tucholska 2003, Sęk 2004].

The relatively high levels of daily health routine (sleep, recreation, avoiding substances, etc.) in academic youth, which was discovered in the research, may confirm the observed improvement in healthy lifestyle in adults. During the past few years a positive change in recreational habits of young people may have been observed (e.g. growing popularity of jogging, cycling, fitness, swimming, as well as the use of recreational centres). It seems that, contrary to the popular view stressing the persistence of passive leisure, the appeal of active recreation models, and the general growth of ecological and health consciousness of the society cause the remaining obstacles to recreation (especially physical) to consequently diminish.

On the other hand, the results showing lower intensity of behaviours related to proper nutrition go in line with the results of other research confirming the ubiquity of erroneous nutritional habits in academic youth. The typical malnutrition practices in students and teachers were mostly related to: insufficient consumption of vegetables, fruits, wholegrain and dairy products, and to excess consumption of sweets (including pastries), animal fats and salt [Romanowska-Tolłoczko 2011, Rasińska 2012, Sharma et al. 2013, Laudańska-Krzemińska et al. 2015].

The lowest levels of pro-health behaviours was related to prophylaxis, including compliance to health professionals' recommendations, regular medical examinations, and broadening one's knowledge of requirements of good health and threats to it. The results were

on a par with what was found by Nitecka-Walerych [2005] in students of early school education. Also, the studies conducted in students of medical faculties confirm the inconsistency between behaviour and knowledge of prophylaxis [Kleszczewska et al. 2014]. Therefore, it is acceptable to state that academic youth tends to dismiss the potential threats to their health in the distant future.

Moreover, the presented authors' own research showed that the majority of Cracow students of pedagogical subjects declared sufficient levels of physical activity (62.10%), with sex being the differentiating factor (men being more active than women). Its average levels, in most cases, meant that more than a half of the group did moderately intense exercise or walk no less than 5 times a week for 30 minutes, or intense exercise no less than 3 times a week for 20 minutes, or a combination of activities done at least 5 times a week and exceeding 600 MET-min per week. Other research showed diverse levels of physical activity in academic youth [Winiarska-Mieczan & Dymek 2009, Baj-Korpak et al. 2010, Suguksu 2011, Sochacka & Wojtylko 2013, Pedisic et al. 2014a, Bergier et al. 2016]. The tendencies found in authors' own study corresponded to the results obtained from the students of Pope John II State School of Higher Education in Biała Podlaska [Bergier et al. 2014]. The highest fraction (about 60%) of the participants was characterized by moderate physical activity. As in the case of Cracow youth, the Biała Podlaska students preferred walking (959.2 MET-min per week) and intensive workout (901.5 MET-min per week). Men were more active than women ($p < 0.05$). Similar levels of physical activity, higher in men than women, was found in Greek [Tirodimos et al. 2009] and American [Buckworth & Nigg 2004] academic youth. Conversely, teachers were characterized by low physical activity [Zysnarska & Bernad 2007, Prazmowska et al. 2011, Biernat et al. 2012, Woynarowska-Soldan & Więziak-Białowska 2012, Woynarowska-Soldan & Tabak 2013], except for the research where a significant part of the participants comprised physical education teachers [Laudańska-Krzemińska 2014, Laudańska-Krzemińska et al. 2015].

In the authors' own research statistically significant relationships between the levels of satisfaction with life and health-related behaviours were discovered. The relationships were also confirmed by comparison of levels of health-related behaviours and satisfaction with life, as well as by correlation between the analysed variables. Higher level of satisfaction with life was related to higher level of pro-health behaviours. The results, suggesting more rational behaviours in youth characterized by greater satisfaction with life, are well-grounded in the characteristics of this personality dimension. They also correspond to the results from other research. The relationships of satisfaction with life with certain behavioural determinants of health were also confirmed by Chile studies [Schnettler et al. 2014, Schnettler et al. 2015a, Schnettler et al. 2015b]. The research conduct-

ed in female teachers from Greater Poland showed that the higher levels of satisfaction with life were related to lower BMI and better nutritional standards [Laudańska-Krzemińska et al. 2015]. What is more, better nutritional choices were also found in perimenopause women [Gacek 2013, Gacek 2014].

The authors' own research did not provide statistically significant relationships between the levels of satisfaction with life and the levels of physical activity as measured by IPAQ. This is true for both: the comparison of physical activity levels and the satisfaction with life, and for the correlation between the analyzed variables. Other studies in academic youth suggest that physical activity positively influences the quality of life, improving *inter alia* well-being and interpersonal relations [Miązek 2005, Fiolna 2010]. Positive correlations between taking up physical activity and levels of satisfaction with life were also found in the American [Valois et al. 2004, Maher et al. 2014, Maher et al. 2015], Croatian [Pedisic et al. 2014b], and Australian [Eime et al. 2014] studies.

Summarizing, it may be concluded that the data obtained allow of partially positive verification of the research hypothesis, that the academic youth characterized by higher levels of satisfaction with life is also characterized by more health-oriented lifestyle. Furthermore, the positive verification is also valid for pro-health behaviours (as measured by Juczyński's IHRB), and is not valid for physical activity (by IPAQ).

It needs also be stressed that high satisfaction with life is an important human health resource, which works well with actively caring for health. At the same time, the limited scope of pro-health behaviours, as it was shown in the author's own research and other studies, substantiate the need for health education. It also seems necessary to monitor students' lifestyle and – taking into consideration their psychological characteristics – make it more rational. It is advised that further research in this field be conducted in order to explore the relationships between satisfaction with life, the intensity of pro-health behaviours, and participation of different age-groups in physical activities.

Conclusions

1. The group of Cracow students of educational faculties is mostly characterized by average levels of satisfaction with life, low levels of pro-health behaviours, and adequate levels of physical activity; with pro-health lifestyle being realized to a rather limited extent.
2. Some aspects of the academic youth's lifestyle were dependent on sex, with men being more physically active than women.
3. The obtained significant positive correlations between satisfaction with life and intensity of pro-health behaviours meant that with the increase of satisfaction with life there was an increase in positive attitude, daily health routine, good nutritional habits, and preventive behaviours in Cracow students.

The statistically significant relationship between the level of satisfaction with life and the intensity of physical activity (a key aspect of healthy lifestyle) was not found.

Application of conclusions

1. Health education for pedagogical faculty students should not only work in favour of modelling pro-health attitudes, but it also ought to take into account the problem of rational nutrition and preventive behaviours; the areas where – as the results show – there still is plenty of room for improvement.
2. The students need be reminded that irrespective of their specialization, the task of health education of school-children is and will be theirs to perform; as it outlined by the regulations concerning their future profession.

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Contemporary Perspective of Pedagogical Rhetoric in Higher Education Teaching – the Example of a Seminar

Agata Kiluk

University of Physical Education in Cracow

Summary

One of the goals of the information society is cooperation with the use of technical resources and information. Knowledge is not associated with any element of the structure, but results from the process of cooperation. Therefore, the requirements regarding the effectiveness of the formulation and processing of knowledge are increasing. The problem of not being mature enough to autonomously participate in the global exchange of information relates inter alia to students who engage in various social activities with the use of IT. In the case of university students, who have mature personalities and for whom self-reliance and problem solving orientation are of key importance, different rules of cooperation with lecturers are necessary. The uniqueness of a person's situation in the knowledge society lies in the extent of the collection and processing of knowledge.

Keywords: rhetoric, teaching, seminar, students

One of the goals of the information society is cooperation with the use of technical resources and information. The result of these changes is, among others, the process of relocation of knowledge indicated in literature. Knowledge is not associated with any element of the structure, but results from the process of cooperation. This cooperation involves the exchange of knowledge, which is both the subject and method of operation. Knowledge of such processes is viewed both as the material and method of operation. Therefore, the requirements regarding the effectiveness of the formulation and processing of knowledge are increasing. Information technologies provide tools for searching for and processing of knowledge and thus enhance operational efficiency and team collaboration. There is a widespread presumption that people who use information technology have developed the capacity of independent judgment, analysis of the content of communication and responsibility in reasoning. In this respect, technological resources of the information society are passive, because this matter is beyond the scope of tasks of information technology (IT). The problem of not being mature enough to autonomously participate in the global exchange of information relates inter alia to students who engage in various social activities with the use of IT. Most of the students getting into different universities today are younger than computers. They prefer typing instead of writing on paper and reading from the computer screen instead of books. They consider the possi-

bility of staying in touch with their loved ones an important achievement of modern technology. The phenomena of information noise overload, which occur along with these changes, put into the background the information content and the need to understand it [Foss S, 1989]. The passive form of participation in communication reveals the real attitude of the participants subject to the influence of electronic media. The methods of influence involve instrumental techniques in which the recipients are treated like objects, and the goal is to create a situation conducive to the acceptance of the message without reflection.

In the case of electronic media, this is the result of pursuing the goal of collecting as many customers as possible, e.g. as the recipients of advertising content. In high school, in turn, it is a way of building relationships between an academic teacher and a student. In elementary or secondary school, pupils' immaturity, age difference and the difference in competence between students and teachers inevitably makes the former inferior. But in the case of university students, who have mature personalities and for whom self-reliance and problem solving orientation are of key importance, different rules of cooperation with lecturers are necessary. The uniqueness of a person's situation in the knowledge society lies in the extent of the collection and processing of knowledge. Each individual has to take a stance concerning the phenomenon of exchange of information. A modern human inevitably becomes a mass speaker (everybody writes

blogs, but who reads them?) using a variety of techniques to promote their own views. Therefore, it is good to treat information technology and rhetoric as complementary elements of society based on knowledge, where IT is based on the assumption of those who exchange information and knowledge (which can be achieved by rhetoric) and gives the technical basis for the exchange of ideas in a reasonable and responsible manner (which is consistent with the assumptions of rhetoric).

University

New expectations, attitudes and ways of thinking characteristic of the information age require a response from the university. Integration of the achievements of information technologies and change in pedagogy is an essential step in the process of shaping the mind of the information age. If the university fails to respond to the needs arising from the need to adjust the methods of teaching to the possibilities offered by IT technologies, they will be of no benefit to education, and computers and all infrastructure will be an unnecessary expense. Therefore, the nature of educational relations should change, both in the classroom and the entire institution.

Academic teacher as a user of rhetoric

When speaking, a speaker – just like a lecturer – tries to achieve a certain objective, has a defined audience and adapts the message to their needs. Rhetoric helps achieve the goals, and the means is imparting information regardless of whether the text is spoken or typed. Rhetoric is seen as a toolbox helpful for those who want to pass the information or to defend their views. Rhetoric includes argumentation instruments, tools to build confidence in the speaker, and tools to control the speech. At the same time, the range of options makes it easy to match them to specific situations. But is rhetoric just beautiful language? The use of language is the art of conscious choices and rhetoric can assist in this effort in a constructive manner. Thus, the rhetoric of those who are proficient in this skill is perceived, not only as a technique, but also as a set of rules. It provides tools to reflect on the language. In this way, the importance of rhetoric extends from the improvement of communication (as a form of acquiring and expressing views) to the area of reflection on communication.

Does a contemporary university student develop the ability to study or just assimilates knowledge? Are there alternative methods of forming relations between the participants of the educational process?

Depending on the level at which rhetoric is used, there are two approaches. In the first, the emphasis is on the efficiency of conveying knowledge, while in the second, to be able to interact on the basis of exchange of knowledge. In the first approach, the central role is that of the teacher conveying knowledge and focusing on the

elements that influence the effectiveness of persuasion. The aim of such actions is to maximize the effectiveness of the presentation of knowledge, in which oratorical skills are used to defend the views presented. This model leads to students developing the attitudes that emphasize self-presentation and self-promotion. This type of transfer of information is closed, with pre-defined contents of the message, and its assumptions are similar to dialectical rhetoric. In the second approach, it is assumed that the aim of the course is to develop solutions based on the existing knowledge and information resources of the participants. For this purpose, it is necessary to allow all participants to present their views and influence the process. The result of the team's work is not pre-defined and therefore requires an active attitude of all. What is desirable here is the awareness of aids to communication and communication skills. Participants are expected to display open-mindedness and critical thinking, to formulate proposals, and to cooperate in the pursuit of knowledge.

Rhetoric as the development of skills

In the original sense, the purpose of rhetoric was quite broad and included not only the ability to convey some knowledge, skills and perspective, but also the broader objective to improve the quality of social life. Rhetoric understood this way should not only prepare teachers to the task of knowledge transfer, but also prepare them to be a model for students, promoting attitudes useful for citizens of the knowledge society. Rhetoric is not the art of speaking, just to express one's thoughts, but a way of forming methods of communication based on the ability of analysis, understanding and critical judgment of content shared with the environment.

Thanks to IT technologies, information society has the unique new opportunities to collect and process knowledge. Human activity is increasingly filled with the perception and creation of messages. This applies both to teachers and students. Modern information technologies shape human skills in a selective manner, emphasizing efficiency, streamlining tasks, modern forms of cooperation, and sharing information and expertise. At the same time, it is assumed that the citizens of the information society develop the capacity of independent judgment, analysis and accountability in reasoning, but the sources of these competencies are not identified. The role of universities is to complement this gap and promote attitudes based on existing and well-established science, such as rhetoric. Promoting such knowledge should consist of shaping behavior patterns: how to use the knowledge, what attitude toward information to express, how to participate in the processes of cooperation based on the exchange of knowledge. Rhetoric, in this sense, is not a set of techniques, but an expression of a certain attitude rationally characterized by critical thinking, understanding, and respect for the opinions of others[LeCourt D,2004]. It is a desirable attitude in

young people, because it affects, not only the quality of the tasks performed individually or at the level of social discourse, but also the utilization of information technology and the potential opportunities of participation in the knowledge society. Deficiencies in this area and failure to develop certain patterns of behavior and attitudes may result in the exclusion of the perceptual phenomenon which results in reducing individuals to passive recipients, who are unable to actively participate in the processes of shaping the reality.

Seminar as an example of rhetorical space science

The word seminar (from Latin), means nursery for plants or trees. T. Kindeberg treats seminars as a place of formation, developing the ability to think creatively. She stresses that the skills acquired during the classes are developed in line with the objectives of higher education. Hence, she looks for the causes of the process of thinking „cultivation” which takes place during the seminar [Kindeberg2008].

In modern science, there is one-sided interest in the cause-and-effect relationship. Life sciences employ an arsenal of different criteria to help in the search for the „driving force”. Essentially, scientific effort reduces it to obtaining reproducible results to explain the phenomenon from the perspective of the cause-and-effect relationship. This trend is nothing new to researchers in the field of education.

Aristotle argued that the discovery of causes and their mutual relations is the key to understanding a phenomenon. The causes of the phenomenon should be sought in the internal relations between its elements. This demonstrates the complexity of the human phenomenon, which seems to be consistent with the experience of pedagogy. T. Kindeberg proposed an approach based on Aristotle’s theory of four causes: material cause; formal cause (the form of things); moving cause (the impact of forcing change); and final cause (the ultimate goal pursued by the phenomenon). To obtain knowledge about someone’s expectations and motivation, you need to examine the reasons for this phenomenon. Here the phenomenon is a seminar as a space for teaching. Using the concepts of education and analysis of the use of language, T. Kindeberg describes the four Aristotelian causes as follows:

- anticipatory experiences and judgments of a seminar participant,
- a form of expressing them by means of language and other media,
- intentions of the speaker / seminar participant,
- and the meaning and purpose of the process going on during the seminar [Kindeberg2006]

Teaching from the perspective of rhetorical teaching

The central assumption of pedagogy rhetoric concerns the relationship based on spoken communication. One element of this communication is emotions and

feelings that are the reason why a person wants to learn from the other person. As noted by A. Rodziewicz, the culture of speech „requires thorough knowledge of the seed and the soil on which it is sowed, and then – according to Plato in Phaedrus – waiting for what is sowed finally matures.”

Feelings discussed in the paper, characterized by dynamics affecting the potential for dialogue in creating a situation conducive to the learning process. Aristotle calls this growth rate „energy”, which reflects the development of verbal communication. „Energy” is manifested as a feeling and affects the quality of dialogue through the level of involvement of both those who listen and those who speak. Seminar participants take active part in it; conversation leads to a relationship manifested in progress in knowledge acquisition. The possibility of progress and learning increase with the exchange of views and skills. The means of interaction is the language used to communicate thoughts. Thoughts spoken at a given moment have special significance and meaning. If their form resulting from the choice of words is not approved by other participants of the conversation, new forms of expressing thoughts are sought, but the topics discussed are continued. In this process of learning, the progress in the relationship gives rise to the sense of meaningful collaboration. The motivation here is the need to talk in order to define meanings; in this sense, the above process does not involve guessing a pre-defined solution or its correctness. Each person speaks with specific intentions, which are not known to the audience, and therefore cannot predict the impact of various statements on the course of conversation [McKerrowR.E,1989]. The difference in intent and how to read it creates a dynamic seminar; prior knowledge and intentions of the participants are the only contribution to the unknown outcome. The importance of the seminar does not lie in the result (which is not given) but in the sense of meaningfulness of the activity undertaken by the participants.

Dialogue is both a means and a goal of action based on the sense of significance of the topic which is currently undertaken. In this case, teaching is an expression of human will to attach importance to talking to other people. Dialogue is a form of activity closely associated with the present moment in the present, even though it is future-oriented[Andersen2000]. The participants’ sense of openness and progress results from the awareness of irrevocability of the changes caused by words spoken during the conversation. Words create new meanings affecting the awareness of all participants, providing the basis for the next steps. The open form of dialogue makes it different from dialectic rhetoric, which is closed by definition. The present combines prior knowledge useful in solving the problem and the future result achieved thanks to the human need to understand the meaning of the conversation. Waiting for the development of ideas through conversation is the only meaning of the conversation, and therefore learning through seminars should be focused on dialogue.

„Not ready“ and „ready“ skills

The content of a seminar can be likened to a maturing skill. For the participants of a seminar to start exchanging ideas, they must be convinced that their skills are needed and expected. Therefore, if one of participants closes the form of dialogue by signaling that the solution to the problem is already known, it can make the exchange of ideas disappear and stop the process of ripening of the pursued skill. A seminar is perceived as an arena of finding solutions through taking into account a broader spectrum of views and opinions, and thus through richer and more in-depth understanding of the problem presented to the group. H. G. Gadamer believes that the basic model of collaboration to understand the problem is dialogue or conversation. Conversation is not possible when one of the participants adopts a superior position and assumes that the views of the other side are wrong. This attitude condemns the person to being closed in the circle of their own prejudices [Gadamer 2006]. In fact, it is impossible to achieve understanding of the problem through dialogue if even one of the parties will not allow themselves to engage in a real conversation.

Seminar participants do not use dialogue to discuss things that are known. Once acquired, knowledge is the foundation for further work, reflected in the expressions used in the dialogue. The knowledge the participants of a seminar already have is built into its content and provides the basis for the questions asked and thoughts expressed during the seminar. The learning process during the seminar can be described in terms of expectations of broadening the scope of knowledge by learning new meanings.

Comparing the formula of maturing knowledge / cognitive dialogue with the formula of constructivist dialogue makes it possible to define the difference between them. The above diagram (Figure 1) illustrates making room for shared solutions by the interaction between knowledge of each participant of the seminar and shared knowledge based on the spiral model of knowledge extraction and reinternalization, SECI. The seminar offers all participants the same (shared) knowledge, maturing in the process of exchange of ideas and views, not favoring any of the people (despite the function they may have at the meeting). Expectations of all the participants and their need to acquire the pursued skills are the integrating factor. In the dialectical constructivist approach,

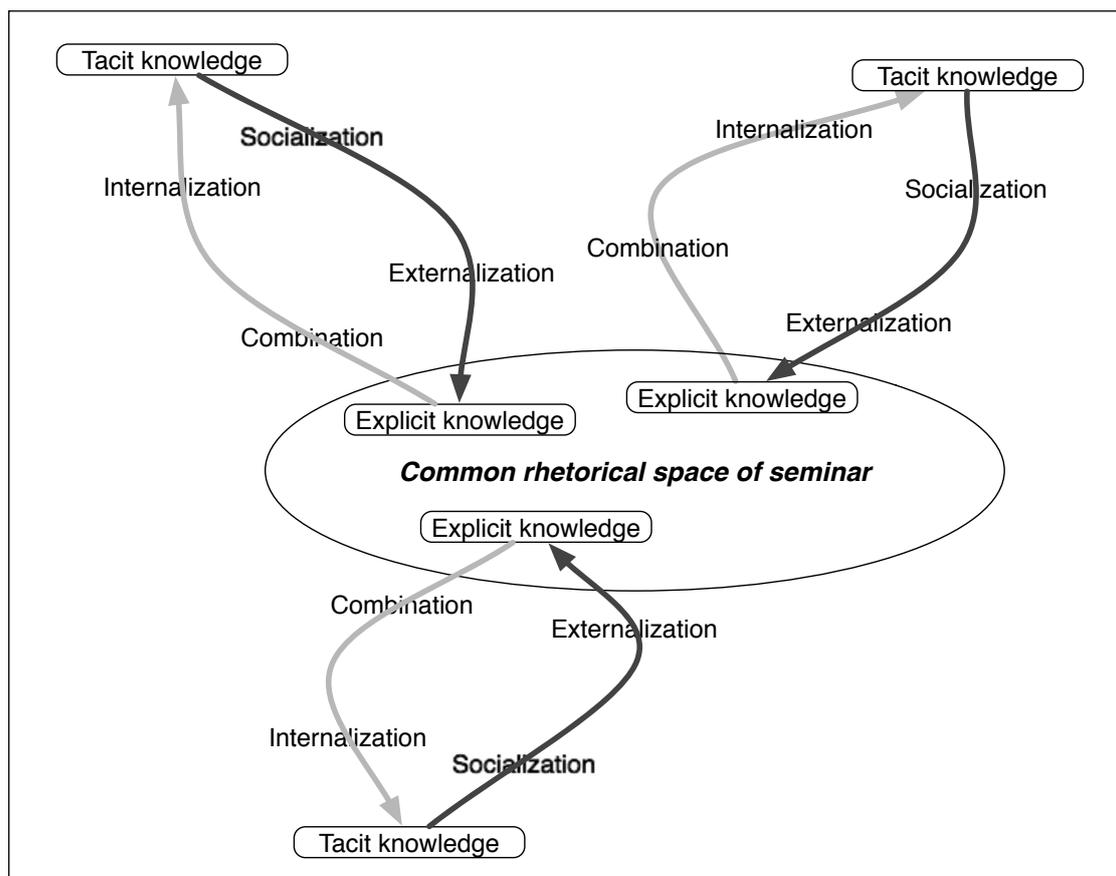


Fig. 1. Scheme to create space for joint solutions by the interaction of knowledge of the individual participants of the seminar and of shared knowledge based on the spiral model of knowledge extraction and reinternalization SECI [Nonaka I, Takeuchi H. The knowledge creating company: how Japanese companies create the dynamics of innovation. New York: OUP, 1995, p.284]

each of the participants gains something else from the dialogue – a different competence useful for private assessment of the knowledge he or she already has. This comparison indicates a significant difference of knowledge: ready (mature) in the cognitivist dialogue, and not ready, being an individual intermediate product of constructivist dialogue. In the second case, the intention of the participants is not so much to acquire new skills, but to assess the existing situation, and in the future, to improve immature knowledge. The SECI model presented above is one example of interest in sharing knowledge and the organization of information flow in other areas. Modern technology has a growing range of technical resources to help solve various problems. The question of the ability to use them is still open.

Dialogue in teaching

Rhetoric can be understood in many ways. On the one hand, it is a theoretical science, and on the other one, an art conveying some knowledge, skill, or point of view. Originally, this art was to serve a specific purpose, which was to improve the social life. This purpose, in the context of the challenges faced by information society, becomes valid again, but its significance is different. The reality of the era of IT forces you to use forms of cooperation that make it possible to solve problems beyond the capabilities and experience of individuals. The open form of dialogue focused on team problem solving by sharing knowledge and opinions, characteristic of the seminar, gives wide possibilities of group work. In contrast, advancements in technology are a legitimate way of removing geographical and organizational barriers. Rhetoric is seen as the ability to analyze, understand and critically judge the content. It should not only help lecturers convey knowledge, but also develop certain attitudes towards the media in students: attitudes useful both for skillful recipients and senders of information (which is characteristic of the IT

revolution). In this sense, the task of a university teacher includes the organization of work to meet the challenges of modern times. One of the forms of teaching, utilizing emotional relationships between participants, is the dialogue during a seminar. Seminar is a social phenomenon in which the potential of teaching partly results from being open to knowledge contributed by the participants.

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Pedagogical Values of Olympic Education

Magdalena Mika

University of Physical Education in Cracow

Summary

Olympic education is currently perceived as one of the most effective forms of upbringing, which is why it should be included in modern pedagogy. It is important because of the values of Olympism and education through sport. When speaking of Olympic education, its origins and precursor should be studied as well. It is worth knowing that it was Pierre de Coubertin's philosophical and pedagogical concept that played the key role in the development of Olympic education in the world. The values of Olympism, including equality, fraternity, collaboration, friendship, respect, solidarity and striving for excellence are now commonly accepted. The timeless and universal nature of those values, the generally accepted fair play rule that is important not only in sport, but also in everyday life, looking at sport through the prism of social and human values, as well as the common global recognition of the Olympic Games, all may contribute to Olympic education becoming a marvel of modern education.

Keywords: Olympic education, upbringing, Olympism, Olympic idea, sport pedagogy, Pierre de Coubertin.

Introduction

Almost eight centuries before Christ, an idea of cultivation of the human body and spirit emerged. That idea led to the organisation of the first Olympic Games in history in 776 BC. With time, it started to be called the *Olympic idea*, one that carries values pursued by many: respect, tolerance, fairness, equality, fraternity, friendship, the will to become a better person thanks to one's own work and not at the opponent's cost, fair play. The ancient Olympic values and rules have survived for approximately 3000 years. They served as a source of inspiration for Pierre de Coubertin, who revived the organisation of the Olympics in the modern world. It is because of him that since 1896 (with the exception of the period of WW1 and WW2), we have been able to witness the greatest sports event of all time, the Olympic Games.

The dawn of the 19th century saw not only the long-lasting and effective efforts of Pierre de Coubertin to revive the idea of organising the Olympics (according to him, they were to morally refine sport and make it universal), but it was also a special time, when Olympism gave start to a new concept of education, later known as Olympic education. Contemporary Olympic Games and the accompanying idea of Olympism have become the cultural marvel of the 20th century. Every four years, millions of spectators gather at the stadiums and in front of their TVs to watch the best athletes from all continents compete. Breaking records, the perfect technique of motion, the corresponding moral standing of the athletes show us the beauty of sport, both from the physical and human perspective. The human sphere of sport

adds moral and intellectual content to the Games, at the same time creating a huge opportunity for the development of Olympic education.

According to many researchers of Olympism, Olympic education should find an important place in the contemporary mainstream of pedagogy. This paper aims at pointing to the pedagogical values of Olympic education. It also touches upon the values that sport and Olympism bring, as well as their role in the educational process.

I. Sports pedagogy by Pierre de Coubertin

The pedagogy of physical culture is an element of pedagogy as a science of education and, despite its theoretical nature, it is a practical science [Suchodolski 1969]. Therefore, which subjects belong to the physical culture pedagogy, and which to the sport pedagogy? The first one deals mostly with the practical and theoretical sides of educational and didactic issues: physical education, health, sport, tourism and recreation, and physical therapy, whereas the other one is all about the same issues, but it looks at them from the sport activity perspective [Błajet 2012]. Stefan Wołoszyn defined sports pedagogy in the following way: "It is the state of theoretical reflection and knowledge about the place and role of physical education and sport in the general education of a human being. The knowledge involves not only the way sport and physical education act together to ensure a complete education of an individual, but also the way in which pedagogy helps physical education and sport in

fulfilling their tasks and specific functions, characteristic of physical culture [Włoszyn 1988].”

Physical education and sports competition have a special place in Greek culture. Whenever we look at the history of sport, we refer to the ancient Greece, as it is customarily considered to be the land of origin to sport. However, it was not the Hellenes who invented sport, but it was them who made it an idealised phenomenon that stems from religious rites and is based on the equality between *kalokagathia* and *arete*. Harmonious education, meaning a steady development of corporal and spiritual fitness, used to be the most important principle of education for the ancient Greek children and youth. The ancient Greek principles were reflected in the emerging pedagogical idea.

It is beyond doubt that Pierre de Coubertin, a pedagogue, thinker, humanist, visionary, creator of Olympism, is considered to be the creator of sport pedagogy. According to Miller, he is: “...rather a pedagogue than an athlete, not a politician, but a sociologist - more of an amateur, more of a philosopher than a teacher. But firstly, he is a thought leader, a liberal with a great feeling of history, possessing a vision of the future, even if controversial, as it goes beyond his times...” [Miller 2012]. At the age of 24, he decided to promote a broad movement of education reform, with a particular highlight on sports activity, considering sport not only as a means to strengthen the body, but first and foremost, as a universal method of education for the young generation. He believed that sport was beneficial not only for health, but mostly for shaping the personalities of young people [Kazimierzczak 2013].

The inspirations to act for the reform of education, as well as the factors that determined the direction of Coubertin's pedagogy, were the following: his personal experience - as a student, observing the British and American systems of education (his trips to England and North America), the culture of ancient Greece (*kalokagathia*, *ekecheiria* and *arete*), and the views of some outstanding thinkers (Frederic La Play, Hyppolyte Taine, Henri Didon).

The Baron's school memories (he attended a Jesuit school, where conservative methods of schooling and education prevailed) from the times when he was a student made him dislike the routine at schools, intellectualism, encyclopedism and the curricula being overloaded with too much content to be memorised [Müller 2000]. On that basis, he pointed out that the educational system of his time was unable to equip the young generation with the necessary capabilities that could be used in everyday situations. The spreading pedagogical crisis in France was the reason why Pierre de Coubertin, striving to restore the ancient cult of the body and biological regeneration of the society, wanted to create a universal educational system that would prevent social disturbances and other social ailments [Zuchora 2006]. That was when Coubertin compared education to a four-horse chariot. Each horse stood for a different feature: muscle, brains, character and conscience.

Educational success was possible only if all four features could be combined into a whole. The teacher, just like the charioteer should master the art of driving his chariot, and more specifically, should control the forces working in different directions and turn them into a common, harmonious whole [Młodzikowski 1994].

Apart from his experience as a student, his sport pedagogy was also shaped by his numerous travels. French government wanted to introduce some changes to the educational system and thus commissioned Coubertin to conduct research on the history of physical culture in England and the USA [Müller 1994]. His stay at the Thomas Arnold school in Rugby consolidated his belief in sport and its educational values. Arnold himself (1795-1842) was considered by him to be the best teacher of that time. Even though they never met, as Thomas Arnold was active before Coubertin was born, his rather conservative views had a great influence on shaping Coubertin's viewpoint. However Arnold has not introduced any new educational methods and he was not a pedagogue himself, he enriched old values with new educational methods. As the head of Rugby School, Arnold gave sport a chance to influence the future political and cultural elites of Great Britain. During his stay in Rugby, Coubertin saw that education can be successfully supported by sport. The focus was not only on the students' physical fitness; mind and body were shaped simultaneously. According to Arnold, it was sport, even in the form of a spontaneous play, that prepared a young individual for living in society [Lipiński 2012]. It was because of Thomas Arnold that the English sport became an indispensable element of a comprehensive education of a British gentleman. His belief that sport should be included in education gradually reached other schools and educational institutions. The great importance Thomas Arnold had for the development of sport across the world and of how much he influenced Coubertin's views was proved by a report submitted by the Baron to the French Ministry of Public Education in 1890: “Thomas Arnold was the first person to have used sport to shape a strong will and proud heart within a fit body. He was the one who, through freedom and an order of merits and values, was able to prepare children to their role as citizens of a free county. And lastly, he managed to gather his teachers around him and made them his collaborators. He detested lies and promoted the need of shaping an honest human being” [Coubertin 1890].

The culture of ancient Greece had a special place in the developing pedagogical and philosophical thought of Pierre de Coubertin's. The French nobleman appreciated the ideals of *kalokagathia* (the ideal of the complete human personality, harmonious in body - *kalos* and mind - *agathos*), *ekecheiria* (truce) and *arete* (moral virtue), knowing very well that he would not invent anything better than what Plato proposed ages before: physical exercise for the body and music for the soul [Zuchora 2006].

Coubertin's idea of reaching to the Hellenic culture was born after archaeological finds in Greece. Research-

ers of Coubertin claim that ancient Olympia, unearthed in his times, was the inspiration for a deeper reflection on Greek culture and the pursuit of his dreams connected with reviving the Games and creating a pedagogical and philosophical doctrine as a foundation of Olympism.

Many years later, the idea of reviving the modern Olympic Games came up, with an accompanying humanistic vision of the world, and Coubertin commented on it as follows: “Nothing in ancient history had made me ponder more than Olympia, this city of dreams, dedicated to a task strictly human and material in form, but purified and magnified by the idea of the fatherland which there possessed a reserve of vitalising forces and which resurrected its colonnades and porticoes in my adolescent thoughts. Long before I even thought of extracting renovation principles I occupied myself in reconstructing in spirit and making its broad outlines relive. Thence came the project, less glamorous but more practical and more fruitful, of re-establishing the Games, and thenceforth it was not a long road, especially since the hour had struck for the internationalisation of sports to be called to play its role anew in the world” [Coubertin 1909].

The influence of the ancient and contemporary thinkers was the last element that set the direction for Coubertin’s pedagogy. Hippolyte Taine, Frederic La Playa, Henri Didon, Herbert Spencer and Jules Simon were the people who had a significant influence on Coubertin and were an inspiration to his pedagogical concept.

Hippolyte Taine made Coubertin become lively interested in the British culture, politics and education. The conservative Frederic La Play inspired the young Frenchman to get involved in the reform of education and activities aimed at achieving social peace. Henri Didon, a Dominican priest, promoted the idea of shaping young people’s personalities through physical activity and competing according to the motto of *‘citius, altius, fortius.’* Probably it was him who had the greatest influence on Coubertin’s views [Müller 1996]. Jules Simon, the then Minister of Public Education, supported Coubertin in the field of extracurricular physical education. An important reading that had fascinated Coubertin and set the direction for his pedagogy was “Tom Brown’s School Days” by Thomas Hughes (a Rugby School graduate) [Kazimierzak 2013]. Furthermore, people such as: T. Arnold, H. Spencer, P. Mahaffy and P. Gardner had become the source of the pedagogical concept that referred mainly to the Greek tradition [Biliński 1990].

In his letters, writings and books, Pierre de Coubertin revealed his dreams, plans and visions connected with Olympism. Based on Coubertin’s views, a definition of Olympism was created and can now be found in the Olympic Charter. According to the above-mentioned definition: “Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example, social responsibility and respect for universal fun-

damental ethical principles. The goal of Olympism is to place sport at the service of the harmonious development of humankind, with a view to promoting a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity.” Olympism should also “contribute to building a peaceful and better world by educating youth through sport practised without discrimination of any kind and in the Olympic spirit, which requires mutual understanding with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play” [Olympic Charter 2013, p. 11]. Modern Olympism fulfils Pierre de Coubertin’s testament, which included the basic truths and moral messages applicable to anyone who enters the circle of social and cultural influences of sport and the Olympic Games.

Coubertin himself never produced a straightforward definition of Olympism. He preferred to treat it as an open set of new ideas. The lack of any fixed framework in his sport pedagogy makes it possible to adapt Olympism and its rules to the ever-evolving world and changing generations, so that it stands a chance to be used in pedagogical activities of modern times. Although Coubertin never presented a definition of sport pedagogy or developed an educational and didactic proposal properly systematised that would clearly define his understanding of sport pedagogy, his propositions, statements, letters and declarations have become the foundation of the modern Olympic education.

II. Olympic education – selected pedagogical values.

For many years, Olympic education has been the object of scientific research and investigations for many scientists across the world. This subject matter seems particularly interesting to researchers from Germany (Gruppe, Geßmann, Müller, Naul, Wassong, Nicolaus), Canada (Binder), Great Britain (Parry) and Australia (Brownlee) [Żukowska and Żukowski 2003].

When it comes to the global promotion of Olympic education, Poland is still behind the countries that organise or aspire to organise the Olympic Games. However, year by year, the Polish scientific output is growing, which is mainly due to the activity of the Polish Olympic Academy and academic institutions (Universities of Physical Education deserve a special recognition here). Renown Polish experts on Olympism include: Żukowska, Lipoński, Lipiec and the Bronikowscy.

Modern education, as a fulfilment of the process of human evolution, aims at an integral mental, physical, affective, moral and spiritual development of an individual. It is not only about transmitting knowledge, capabilities and cultural values, but it also aims at inspiring a creative, open attitude, independent thinking and an ability of self-education. Furthermore, it also promotes the integration of individuals on many levels of social, cultural and economic life [Wojnar 2000].

The term ‘Olympic education’ appeared in the 1970s. The first person to use it, when referring to Cou-

bertin's interests related to sport education, was Norbert Müller. It was in 1972. It is also worth highlighting that the term 'Olympic education', proposed by Norbert Müller, was officially approved by IOC and IOA in 1992, and started to officially function as part of the Olympic terminology [Nicolaus 2015].

Pierre de Coubertin himself never used the term 'Olympic education', he would rather use terms such as 'athletic education', 'English education', 'sporting education' or 'Olympic pedagogy'. To those terms he related the assumptions of Olympism that he considered the foundation of all educational activities [Naul 2008].

The first time Coubertin indirectly mentioned the term 'Olympic education' was in the Olympic letter of 22 November 1918 [Coubertin 1918]. In the letter, he used the term 'Olympic pedagogy', so close to the modern concepts of Olympic education. Another work of the French reformer, in which the issues connected with Olympic education were discussed, was "Pedagogie Sportive" from 1922.

Olympic education consists in promoting and popularising the values of Olympism among children, youth, athletes, trainers, sport journalists, doctors, fans and all other people involved in sport. The French nobleman used to claim that Olympism was a way of sport education available to all, accompanied by the spirit of bravery and chivalry, a way of education rich in experiences that strengthen conscience and prepare individuals for living in a society [Müller, 2000]. This direction of thinking is confirmed today by the Olympic declaration that defines the basic rules of Olympism. It should be remembered that Olympism is the carrier of values that are persistent and unchanging (in time), and universal (considered superior no matter the time, location or culture). Thanks to those values Olympic education can reveal its pedagogical values.

Olympic education, as defined by Żukowscy, is to serve as a substantive base for the sport education of youth based on the value of the Olympic idea and Olympism. The Olympic idea and Olympism, according to W. Lipoński, refer to the same area of human aspirations and the philosophical attitudes related to everything connected with the Olympics. However, what sets them apart, is that Olympism defines the pedagogical and philosophical standards of conduct, while the Olympic idea delimits a general area in which those standards should be applied. According to the same author, the Olympic standards include primarily: fair play behaviour in sport and everyday life, knowing how to tame one's own emotions and desires, self-controlled behaviour, as well as developing the beauty of human body and movement [Lipoński 2000].

The condition for using the values that Olympism brings is promoting and disseminating the Olympic idea. In terms of ethics, the term 'idea' means "a model of desirable behaviour or attitude advocated by a given ethical system or actually functioning in a given moral system" [Jedynak 1994]. Therefore, the Olympic idea is an idea of beauty and purity, carrying values pursued

by many: respect, tolerance, fairness, equality, fraternity, friendship, the will to become a better person thanks to one's own work and not at the opponent's cost, fair play. Coubertin himself never used the term *fair play*, but this type of behaviour is present in his concept in the form of mutual respect and noble competition both in sport and in everyday life. It is a beautiful and difficult idea at the same time, as it assumes the existence of an ideal human being, depicted by the symbol of *kalos kagathos*, who cares for a harmonious development of soul and body and always lives up to his ideals.

The Olympic idea has become universal for the whole world. Because of this idea people of various races, nations, religions and beliefs gather in one place, proving that friendship and collaboration between people is possible. That is why all efforts should be made for it to become a source of education based on the Olympic message. Therefore, the term 'Olympic education' should be interpreted as a substantive foundation for the sport education of youth, based on the Olympic idea and its pedagogical values.

Coubertin's dream was for the Olympic Games to become a means to fulfil his philosophical and pedagogical idea. His desire was that the Olympic Games were owned by the whole world and open for everyone, no matter their origin, race, religion or political party. He believed that the sports field can be an example of how to resolve social conflicts, and responsibility combined with a high level of moral culture were to prevent the development of aggression and hatred towards others. As understood by Coubertin, the starting point of the Olympic idea was its international nature (all nations, all games, i.e. the Games as a place where all nations could participate in all sports disciplines).

Across the years, the goals of Olympic education were variously formulated by experts in the field. Almost thirty years ago, B. Kidd was one of the first people who, referring to the points of correspondence between Olympism and general goals of education, articulated the following points of Olympic education: mass participation - the expansion of opportunities for sport and play to create what Coubertin called "the democracy of youth"; the development of opportunities that are genuinely educational, that assist both individuals and groups in the process of knowledge; the fostering of a high standard of sportsmanship, called "the new code of chivalry"; the integration of the visual and performing arts into the Olympic celebrations; the aiming at creating an international brotherhood that promotes understanding and thus contributes to world peace [Kidd 1985].

Müller claims that the features of Olympic education can be traced back to Coubertin's heritage. According to him, Olympic education focuses on the following concepts: harmonious development of the whole human being; striving for human perfection; sporting activity voluntarily linked to ethical principles such as fair play and equality of opportunity; peace and goodwill between nations, reflected by respect and tolerance in re-

lations between individuals; the promotion of moves towards emancipation in and through sport [Binder 2010].

On the basis of Coubertin's writings, Gruppe [1997] concluded that Olympic education should aim at developing body, mind and character through physical performance and rivalry, always according to the fair play spirit, as well as at making sport available for everyone across the world. Furthermore, according to him, Olympic education should promote practising sport with peace, goodwill and understanding towards all participants.

As per R. Naul [2008], Olympic education should be based on transmitting knowledge about the values and ideals related to Olympism. The learnings should create and consolidate the required behaviours both in sport and in everyday life. The author also highlighted that the goals and tasks of Olympic education should always be related to the current issues of children and youth, as well as to the Olympic movement, which differ a lot from what could be observed a decade ago.

According to Wołoszyn [1996], in the system of contemporary educational contradictions, in which the bewildered civilisation functions, Olympism can be considered as a variant of 'global education' that, thanks to the pedagogical thought of Pierre de Coubertin, the creator of modern Olympic Games, meets the demands of humanistic globalism and humanist global upbringing. This is where the concept of Olympic education in school was born.

Żukowscy [1991/1992] claim that the values of the Olympic idea are the main content of Olympic education, whereas sport is the main means of its educational influence.

At present, Olympic education is carried out in two ways:

- As the preparation of countries and their societies for the Games;
- As a carrier instrument for the education of youth, with chances for self-realisation and socialisation, partnerships within educational interactions, a deeper ethical reflection and the need for self-improvement, not only in sport.

The following can be considered the main goals of Olympic education [Nowocień 2001]:

1. Shaping social relations, educational situations and means that prepare for the reception and participation in the Olympic Games.
2. Proper preparation of athletes, trainers, doctors, speakers and referees to fulfil their roles from the ethical and moral point of view.
3. Preparation of all people across the globe to participate and witness the Olympic Games.

Olympic education can become the marvel of modern education due to its dynamic development and efficiency. Here are a few arguments to confirm this hypothesis:

1. Common recognition of the fair play rule as an important part not only of sport, but most of all, of everyday life;
2. General approval of the Olympic Games by the whole world;

3. Looking at sport from the point of view of social values: sport has a great influence on shaping the personality of an individual and on social development;
4. Sport serves as a platform of mutual understanding between nations that brings people together;
5. The great popularity of outstanding athletes and Olympians in the society;
6. Universality and acceptance for the values of Olympic education; the timeless nature of those values.

Józef Lipiec [1999] claims that Olympism is a way of preparing a human being for the "extra-Olympic life, while Olympic education is the basis, the content and the set of means for the complete education of a human being." Furthermore, Lipiec believes that the rules and values related to sport, Olympic sport in particular, create a system of educational methods. By definition, sport can be an area of universal presentation. It can contribute to the intensification of axiological upbringing. A properly conducted Olympic education can significantly influence the students' knowledge and the shaping of the desired behaviours, based on the values and rules of Olympism. As a consequence, it can contribute to the improvement of entire communities [Lipoński, 2000].

Sport is a great means of educational influences within Olympic education. As per Zuchora [2014], "Sport creates beauty and serves it, determines its own laws and rules, but at the same time, it teaches respect towards general laws and rules, takes friendships created in a circle, out of that circle, just as it does with the *fair play* rule. And then, by developing individual talents and perfecting virtues, it teaches how to include them in the common repository of values, in the way in which in a sports field, individual performances of each team member combine into the effort of the entire soccer team. Sports field can be an example of how disputes can be resolved in a peaceful manner, how inequality can be subordinated to democracy, and competition does not need to be similar to a war, but it can lead to a dialogue that brings people together and does not estrange them."

Conclusion

The effort that we put into presenting sport to young people as an element in the creation of a peaceful, better world, based on the idea of mutual understanding, respect, friendship, solidarity and fair play, brings positive results in the process of education. The sport of today faces many aberrations and risks. Upbringing in the 'Olympic spirit' only seems to be an easy task. Especially today, when the image of the Olympic Games often differs from the assumptions of Olympism and Pierre de Coubertin's vision. Olympism, as an element of Olympic education, includes moral rules and values that, if used accordingly, can bring huge educational advantages. Their pedagogical functions are still valid and function both in sport and in many areas of life. Those values

have not lost their strength through the years, still uniting people, and their presence in the sports field is one of the most important criteria confirming their role in the upbringing and education of a young human being. A pro-Olympic education is an opportunity to educate a young individual in the spirit of tolerance, friendship, loyalty, equality, fairness, persistence, diligence and fair play. Those are the values many of us pursue and want in their lives.

Olympic education does not guarantee to be the effective antidote to all the evil of modern world. However, it is undoubtedly an attractive form of educational influence on children and youth. By encouraging activity, it gives an opportunity to get in touch with sport with a freedom of action. It also encourages youth to involve in the organisation and execution of various initiatives related to sport and Olympism. Thanks to that children and youth broaden their knowledge, develop their interests and shape their sport behaviours. Furthermore, Olympic education offers means of socialisation that have a great influence on a student's development, improving his interactions with other individuals and social groups.

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The recurrence syndrome: A case study of the repeatability of political developments during the Olympic Games

Mateusz Rozmiarek

University of Physical Education in Cracow

Summary

The article examines instances of the impact of international relations and politics on the Olympic movement and sport in view of the so-called Syndrome of the 25-year Recurrence. The recurrence of developments directly related to multilateral politics can be observable since the organization of the first Olympic Games of the modern era in 1896. Although the degree of relations between the Olympics and international politics has varied and depended on specific circumstances, politics has tended to overshadow the Olympic spectacle and aspired to be the key component of the Games, roughly every twenty years. The author argues, on the basis of numerous examples, that the Olympic Games in the years 1896, 1916, 1936, 1956, 1976 and 1996 were dominated by political developments.

Keywords: Olympism, politics, recurrence syndrome

The recurrence syndrome is a phenomenon in the science of international relations understood as an area of political science¹. It refers to the recurrence of crucial political events that significantly affect or even entirely transform multilateral interstate relations every twenty-five years [Wojciechowski 2005, p. 12]. The most frequent examples of the syndrome refer directly to the events of the 20th century such as the outbreak of World War One in 1914, followed by the outbreak of World War Two a quarter of a century later. In 1964 China became a nuclear weapons state, and embarked on the process of disentanglement from the Soviet influences, changing the distribution of power in the Far East. In the same year Martin Luther King received the Nobel Peace Prize for his civil rights activities and combating racial segregation in the United States, which triggered a number of transformations worldwide and led to the granting of full civil rights to African-Americans². The

¹ Known in professional literature as the Syndrome of the 25-year Recurrence.

² Researchers often give the eventful year of 1964 as an example of the 25-year recurrence syndrome. The most crucial events of that year included the war in Vietnam and the first military defeat of the United States against guerillas during the Cold War, subsequent changes in US military strategy and a symbolic breakdown of American power; Leonid Brezhnev's rise to power as the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union on October 14; and the establishment of the United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP) to supervise the ceasefire between Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots, to patrol the UN Buffer Zone in Cyprus, and to facilitate a return to normal conditions.

year of 1989 witnessed the events of the Autumn of Nations which led to the end of Communist rule in the states of Central and Eastern Europe, and brought the symbolic end to the Cold War and the physical fall of the Berlin Wall. International relations experts deliberate whether the recurrence syndrome will affect the events of the 21st century. It appears that the political crisis in Crimea as a result of the Euromaidan protests in Kiev led in effect to the annexation of Crimea by the Russian Federation and brought about an international debate on the geopolitical stability and peace in the countries of Eastern Europe.

The assumptions of the recurrence syndrome can be also applied to the developments of the 19th, 18th or even earlier centuries. The year of 1789 is immediately associated with the outbreak of the French Revolution, 1814 with the beginnings of the Congress of Vienna and establishing a new world order for the next one hundred years, and 1839 with the First Opium War between the United Kingdom and the Qing Empire. 1864 saw the most decisive battles of the American Civil War, and a quarter of a century later the Meiji Constitution was enacted in Japan as the first codified state constitution in Asia.

Particular assertions of the recurrence syndrome, especially its cyclic character, that refer directly to critical global events and political incidents can be also used for analysis of relations between politics and the Olympic movement and sport in general. The phenomenon of recurrence of certain sport events in strict relationship with global multilateral politics can be observed since

the organization of the first Olympic Games of the modern era in 1896. In my view, however, crucial links between the Olympic Games and the international situation occur not every twenty-five, but every twenty years.

The following analysis of developments from 1896, 1916, 1936, 1956, 1976 and 1996 is an attempt to exemplify the syndrome of recurrence associated with physical culture and Olympism. The conclusions will lead to a reflection about the possible existence of logical connections between the discussed events, and whether it can be asserted that the future events of the 21st century will also be reflected in the aforementioned theory.

1896: the first Olympic Games of the modern era

The idea of modern Olympic movement was growing in the mind of Baron Pierre de Coubertin since the mid-1850s, when inspired by the organization of the Much Wenlock Olympian Games in Shropshire, England he decided to start preparations for a much greater international sport event. Coubertin assumed that his vision of sport served the development of individuals and, first and foremost, enhanced the educational potential of sport pedagogy [Zdebska 2008, p. 77]. In his view athletes were to demonstrate their prowess during the Olympic Games in accordance with the ideas of Olympism and values of the Olympic movement. From the very beginning Coubertin stressed the non-political character of the Olympic movement. In practice, however, there was always a visible discord between the actual sports activities and the impartiality and neutrality of the movement. In essence, Coubertin intended to elevate the position of France in international sport since French sport successes outside France had been virtually non-existent. The first Summer Olympic Games were preceded with an Olympic Congress aimed at reviving the ancient Olympic Games. And it was already during the Congress proceedings that the links with politics became clearly visible, e.g. during the appointment of members of the Congress Presidium, or of a three-person body responsible for the organization of the future games, dominated by the French and English-speaking officials [Młodzikowski 1984, pp. 13-14]. Moreover, the German Gymnastic Federation openly excluded the participation of its representatives in the planned games due to the perceived problem of Coubertin's French nationality [Kluge 1968]. In its reply to Coubertin's invitation from December 1895 the Federation stated that "The Organizer of the Games has always opposed the Germans in words and actions, which is unworthy of German honor. In consideration of this situation Germany will not participate in the Olympic Games in Athens" [Metzner 1968]. One of the reasons for this opposition was the increasing political tension between France and the German Empire at the end of the 19th century.

It is undeniable, however, that Pierre de Coubertin's activity brought about a successful revival of the Olym-

pics, and the consequences of this remarkable achievement are still visible today. Furthermore, in December 1895, ignoring the Federation's decision, a German nationalist Willibald Gebhardt founded the Committee for German Athletes' Participation in the 1896 Olympic Games in Athens – the first National Olympic Committee. He endorsed Coubertin's idea, proposed making peace, and pledged support for all gymnasts wishing to participate in the Olympics [Scherer 1996, p. 36]. One of the members of the Committee became Hermann Weingärtner, renowned German gymnast born in Frankfurt am Oder, who rose to fame in 1896 by winning six medals at the Games of the I Olympiad in Athens [Rozmiarek 2015, p. 42].

1916: the cancellation of the Berlin Olympic Games

The Games of the VI Olympiad were scheduled to be held in Berlin, the capital of the German Empire, in 1916. Berlin had been selected as the host city during the 14th Session of the International Olympic Committee in Stockholm on 4 July 1912, having defeated bids from Alexandria, Amsterdam, Brussels, Budapest and Cleveland. Soon after, adaptation works commenced to make the Deutsches Stadion in Berlin suitable for staging the Olympic events. The stadium was officially dedicated on June 8, 1913 with the triumphant release of ten thousand pigeons, and German Emperor Wilhelm II Hohenzollern celebrated his 25 years on the German throne [*60,000 Dedicate...* 1913]. The Games were cancelled after the outbreak of World War One as the international community had not realized that the conflict would spread to other continents. One of the most ardent advocates of revocation of the right to host the Olympics by Berlin was Justinien de Clary, a former trap shooter, and 1900 Olympic bronze medalist, who at that time was the President of the French Olympic Committee [*Findling, Pelle* 1996, pp. 51-52]. For one year after the outbreak of the war Pierre de Coubertin hesitated about making the decision about cancelling the games, claiming that even in the case of cancellation the Berlin Olympics would still receive their official serial number (VI), as it used to be the case in ancient Greece. Ultimately, he decided to cancel the games in 1915, coping with the issue of political impartiality of the International Olympic Committee and facing the demands of Theodore Cook to expel German nationals from the IOC membership. Coubertin decided to suspend the activities of the IOC until the cessation of hostilities [Młodzikowski 1984, pp. 66-67].

1936: Nazi politics and anti-Semitism during the Berlin Olympics

Berlin got its opportunity to enhance its international position and promote its own vision of German state-

hood, precisely twenty years later. The growing significance of the Olympics riveted the attention of German politicians and Nazi party officials, who through the organization of the sport spectacle intended to demonstrate to the world the strong and unquestionable place of Germany in Europe. Berlin won the bid to host the 1936 Summer Olympics during the 29th IOC Session in Barcelona in 1931. At that time the Weimar Republic used the right of priority as stipulated in Article 6 of the IOC Statute and provisionally secured its bid to host also the 1936 Winter Olympic Games in the Alpine town of Garmisch-Partenkirchen. Initially, the choice of Berlin was not controversial. In the vote by correspondence Berlin won 46 votes, Barcelona 16, and only 8 votes were abstaining [Mayer 1960, pp. 130-131]. However, Adolf Hitler, who rose to power on January 30, 1933, began to implement racial ideology and commenced unprecedented reign of terror. National sport in Germany became completely dominated and controlled by the National Socialist German Workers' Party (NSDAP), and a close associate of Adolf Hitler, Hans von Tschammer und Osten, became the Reich Sports Leader and the President of the German Olympic Committee. One of the biggest issues for the Third Reich was the prospect of ideologically inappropriate participation of German athletes of Jewish origin in the Olympic Games. The then IOC President, Henri de Baillet-Latour, proposed an official motion during the 33rd Session of the IOC in Vienna urging the Third Reich officials to respect the provisions of the Olympic Charter and allow German athletes of Jewish descent to participate. The German authorities issued a statement that "as a rule German Jews will not be excluded from the Games of the XI Olympiad." This statement was only a temporary reassurance to the IOC members, because the same problem came up again during the 32nd Session of the IOC in Athens, but the Germans confirmed their earlier assertion [Kobierecki 2010, pp. 203-204]. Only the British and the Americans were adamant. The latter during a congress of the Amateur Athletic Union passed a resolution calling for a boycott of the Olympics and requested the United States Olympic Committee to do the same. The USOC President Avery Brundage, known for his anti-Semitic views and affinity for the Nazi regime, blocked, however, the adoption of the boycott resolution [Walters 2008, pp. 40-43].

In effect, a few German athletes of distant Jewish origin were allowed to take part in the Olympics, e.g. foil fencer Helena Mayer, thanks, among many others, to Dr. Theodor Lewald, a German IOC member of Jewish descent, whose achievements and membership were affirmed by Hitler himself. Hitler's intention was, first of all, to glorify the Nazi system and demonstrate the German military might. In 1936 the political objectives completely marginalized the Olympic idea. In view of all these developments it seems rather odd that at that time Pierre de Coubertin was nominated for the Nobel Peace Prize, but the nomination was finally dropped [Każmierczak 2013, pp. 409-410].

1956: the Suez Crisis, the Hungarian Uprising and the Melbourne Olympic Games

Far fewer athletes took part in the Melbourne Olympic Games in 1956 than before. The reasons for this limited participation were the long distance to the host city and high costs of travel to the southern hemisphere. It was the first time the Olympics were organized on a continent other than Europe or North America. A number of countries decided to withdraw from the games after the Soviet Union bloodily suppressed the Hungarian Uprising in 1956. They claimed that the idea of Olympic sacred truce had been violated and that a sport spectacle in the context of incessant armed conflict should not be organized in the first place. Their decision not to participate was further strengthened by the invasion of Egypt by Israel, France and the UK on October 29, 1956, affecting the political stance of a number of nations during the Olympics, as well as by the incessant political conflict between Taiwan and the People's Republic of China. Due to these international tensions the Melbourne Olympics were boycotted by Egypt, Switzerland, Spain, the Netherlands, Iraq and Libya and the PRC. These countries were soon followed by Lebanon, Panama, Guatemala, Malta and the Gold Coast [*The Official...* 1958, pp. 23-24]. The year of 1956 witnessed the first significant attempts of using the Olympics to advance political objectives through a boycott. The countries that withdrew from the Olympics were far from criticizing the organizers, but simply intended to express their political opinions about armed conflicts and political decisions worldwide.

Undoubtedly, the most significant sport rivalry during the Melbourne Olympics was the water polo match between Hungary and the Soviet Union. Considering the Soviet intensity of brutal attacks against the Hungarian citizens in 1956, a victory in a match against the USSR was of fundamental importance for the Hungarian water polo team. Already in the first minute of the match Peter Mchvenieradze twisted a Hungarian player's arm. Right after half-time Boris Markarov hit Antol Belvari in the right eye [*Hungarians...* 1956, p. 49]. After that both teams began to exchange punches and kicks above and below the water. It was a symbolic defense of the Hungarians against the Soviet onslaught. In the last minutes of the match Valentin Prokopov punched Ervin Zádor in the face damaging his right eyebrow ridge and causing a bleeding gash. The water in the pool turned red. The blood in the water became a tangible symbol of this rivalry, and the referee finally stopped the match before full-time and awarded the victory to the Hungarian team.

1976: African nations boycotting the Olympic Games in Montreal

The 1976 Olympics in Montreal witnessed one of the greatest collective boycotts by national teams in his-

tory. The boycott was staged as a protest against the international situation of the day and resulted from growing demands of African nations unmet by the Olympic movement. Additionally, the issue of Taiwan's participation also re-surfaced after twenty years. In April 1976 there were no indications that Taiwan might not be allowed to participate. A month later the problem of Taiwanese team competing under the name of the Republic of China appeared. The organizers agreed that Taiwan would compete only under its own flag and with its own national anthem. The PRC, which maintained diplomatic ties with Canada, had warned against allowing Taiwan to compete at the Olympics [*Game playing...* 1976]. The noble idea of Olympic rivalry was again mired in political developments, and five members of the national Taiwanese Olympic team, who had already been in Montreal, ultimately left the Olympic village.

The boycott of the Montreal Olympics by a number of African states was directed against the participation of the New Zealand team which maintained sport contacts with South Africa and was planning to organize a South African rugby union team tour of New Zealand in 1976. For that reason, on April 26, 1976, the Executive Committee of the Supreme Council for Sport in Africa decided on non-participation in the Olympic events which New Zealand athletes declared to attend. In June 1976, after failing to reach an agreement with the New Zealand authorities, during the session of the Organization of African Unity the heads of national Olympic representations of the OAU member states decided to boycott the games and submitted an official letter to the IOC urging the Olympic officials to ban New Zealand athletes from the games. It should be noted that the very collective decision of the African states was itself a *de facto* reflection of the influence of politics on sport, since such agreements and decisions remain in direct contradiction with the Olympic Charter. The IOC rejected the motion categorically [Słoniewski 2016, pp. 57-61]. All in all, 27 African states withdrew from the Montreal Olympics and they were joined later by Iraq and Guyana which expressed their solidarity with the boycotting nations. As a result the African continent was only represented at the 1976 Olympics by Senegal and the Ivory Coast, which had ignored the decisions of the Organization of African Unity [Nowicka 1986, pp. 266-267].

Although the African boycott had a rather insignificant international impact, most likely since it was only directed against New Zealand, it was at that time the greatest form of protest directly related to the Olympic Games. It was also the first time when pressure, threats, and blackmailing failed to accomplish the intended objective. It revealed the significant problem of racial segregation and apartheid, and the applied protest form showed that only a complete abandonment of apartheid policies will solve this complex issue as signaled by African countries in 1976.

1996: the Centennial Olympic Park bombing during the Atlanta Summer Olympics

The terrorist bomb attack in the Centennial Olympic Park during the 1996 Olympics in Atlanta committed by Eric Robert Rudolph on July 27, 1996 seriously overshadowed the Olympic sport events. The blast killed 2 and injured 111 people. The scale of damage might have been much greater, if it had not been for the security guard Richard Jewell, who discovered the bomb before detonation and cleared most of the spectators out of the park.

The bomber intended to force the authorities to cancel the Olympics. Shortly after midnight he carried into the park three pipe bombs filled with masonry nails (which caused most of the human injuries) using the ALICE (All-Purpose Lightweight Individual Carrying Equipment) load bearing system [Brenner 1997]. Rudolph had notified the police about his plans before. The explosion killed a 44-year-old Alice Hawthorne, when a nail from the bomb penetrated her skull. A Turkish cameraman Melih Uzunyol, had a fatal heart attack while running to the scene [Jacobs 1996]. The US President Bill Clinton denounced the explosion as an "evil act of terror" and vowed to do everything possible to track down and punish those responsible [Clinton... 1996]. Despite the attack, officials and athletes agreed that the Olympics should continue as planned.

Rudolph admitted later that he had been considering his actions for a long time. He stated that "Even though the conception and purpose of the so-called Olympic movement is to promote the values of global socialism (...) the purpose of the attack on July 27th was to confound, anger and embarrass the Washington government in the eyes of the world for its abominable sanctioning of abortion on demand" [Robertson 2007, p. 152].

Conclusion

The 25-year recurrence syndrome referring to strategic political developments of crucial importance of the past centuries can be applied in research on interactions between politics and all forms of Olympic rivalry. The degree of these interactions varies and depends on particular circumstances; however, a thorough study of these developments allows us to state that roughly every twenty years politics tends to shut out the Olympic events and aspire to be the key component of the Games. The syndrome of recurrence of developments directly related with multilateral politics can be observed since the very beginning of the modern Olympic Games in 1896.

The theory of repeatability of political developments during the Olympic Games adopted in the present study and the study results confirm the recur-

rence of significant dominance of politics over sports events during the 1896, 1916, 1936, 1956, 1976 and 1996 Olympic Games. Certain general conclusions can be made about the leading political factors during particular Olympics:

- ✓ As early as 1896 was the organization of the first Olympic Games of the modern era politically biased. Pierre de Coubertin's indirect objective was to undertake quick and effective educational reforms in the area of physical culture in France (being *de facto* a sport backwater of Europe at the time) as well as stabilize and improve France's international position. Coubertin also attempted to enhance the role of France by appointing French and British representatives to the Presidium and organizational bodies of the Olympic Congress to assert control over these institutions.
- ✓ If it had not been for the outbreak of World War One, being an effect of complex international political entanglements, the 1916 Olympics could have taken place in Berlin as scheduled. Initially, no one expected that the war would continue for several years and engulf states from different continents. The decision to cancel the games and suspend the activities of the IOC was taken in 1915.
- ✓ The organization of the 1936 Olympic Games by the Third Reich was to prove the unquestionable position of Nazi Germany in Europe. The turning point was the rise of Adolf Hitler who commenced the implementation of Nazi racial ideology and the reign of terror. Hitler intended to use the Berlin Olympics to demonstrate Germany's military might and glorify the Nazi system of government at the expense of the noblest Olympic ideas.
- ✓ The invasion of Egypt by the United Kingdom, France and Israel, affecting the stance of a number of nations competing during the Olympic Games, the incessant political conflict between the People's Republic of China and Taiwan, and the bloody suppression of the Hungarian Uprising by the Soviet Union completely overshadowed the events of the Melbourne Olympics in 1956. The highlight of the games was a water polo match between Hungary and the USSR, which turned into a literally bloody rivalry in the water.
- ✓ The 1976 Summer Olympics in Montreal faced the biggest collective boycott in the Olympic history to date. The boycott was a protest against the current global political situation, and it resulted from increasing demands put forward by African countries to the IOC and the controversies related to the participation of Taiwan in the games. All in all, 27 national Olympic teams from Africa *withdrew from the Games, and two other representations also joined the boycott in solidarity with the aggrieved athletes.*
- ✓ In 1996 a terrorist bomb attack overshadowed the sport events of the Olympic Games in Atlanta. The victims were killed and injured in the name of politics and the main motive behind the attack was to

embarrass the US government for its controversial sanctioning of abortion on demand.

Certainly, the above study of the Olympic Games does not belittle the significance of the events in Munich in 1972, Moscow in 1980, Los Angeles in 1984, Seoul in 1988, or other Olympics, which involved some events directly related to the political situation of the day. According to two American political scientists, Patrick M. Cottrell and Travis Nelson, since the 1936 Berlin Olympics all consecutive Olympics have been exploited for some political purposes [Cottrell, Nelson 2010, pp. 729-730]. Although the intensity of political developments may vary from year to year, and they may be quite different in nature, some important occurrences may clearly point to the high level of association of the Olympic Games with politics. It is rather difficult to question the validity of the aforementioned theory since, for example, such developments as World War One or Nazi racial and anti-Semitic policies did permanently transform the course of the Olympic events and clearly went down in the history of the Olympic Games. The observable recurrence of connections between the Olympics and political developments may also harbingersome future, potentially turning, events during the Olympic Games of the 21st century, which cannot be confidently predicted at present.

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Legacy of the Olympic Games in the opinion of students of the International Olympic Academy

Ewa Malchrowicz-Mośko^a, Paulina Korzeniewska-Nowakowska^b

^a School of Physical Education in Poznan

^b University of Zielona Gora

Summary

The modern Olympic Games are a highly interdisciplinary phenomenon. The current literature abounds with examples of effects of this socio-cultural event: long-term, short-term, direct, indirect, expected, unexpected, desirable, and undesirable. Olympic Games result in, among others, economical, ecological, social, cultural, psychological, institutional, political, and logistical effects. Top-class sporting events are also influential in terms of the development of tourism. The aim of this article is to demonstrate the concept of Olympic legacy in the past years and to show potential results of hosting Olympic Games in a particular country in the opinion of students of the International Olympic Academy.

Keywords: Olympic Games, Olympic legacy, International Olympic Academy

Introduction

The modern Olympic Games are a highly interdisciplinary phenomenon. The current literature abounds with examples of effects of this socio-cultural event: long-term, short-term, direct, indirect, expected, unexpected, desirable, undesirable. Olympic Games result in, among others, economical, ecological, social, cultural, psychological, institutional, political, and logistical effects. [Weed 2009, MacAloon 2002, Cashman 2002, Tomlinson, Young 2006, Moska 2009, Chappellet 2012, Banio 2014, Malchrowicz-Mosko 2015]. Top-class sporting events are also influential in terms of the development of tourism. [Chalip 2002, p. 195; Carvalhedo 2002, p. 220]¹. Sporting events stimulate a dynamic growth of a tourism sector and influence not only individuals, but also local communities and even whole societies (mostly in the socio-cultural dimension). The results concern both residents of receptive areas and sporting events' participants – tourists. The effects are significant to touristic spots as well. According to the Olympic Charter, it is an important role of the IOC to promote a positive Olympic legacy for host cities and countries. [Kowalczyk 2014, p. 97]

The notion of Olympic legacy already came to prominence some time ago, but it is still challenging to measure it. The effects of a mega event such as Olympic

Games are so broad, that it is difficult for researchers to apply a proper methodology in order to examine the problem sufficiently. For example, to check whether positive effects prevail in a given touristic destination or not. Moreover, some impacts are tangible (financial profits), and some are immeasurable (the increase of national pride connected to hosting an event). There has also been an inconclusive debate about which of these impacts are more important. Research in this field would be, hence, highly desirable taking into consideration the fact that the sporting tourism should also be guided by the idea of sustainable development [Gnieźnińskie Forum Ekspertów Turystyki Kulturowej 2012, p. 93-99]. This must be applied both to the natural ecosystem and the "human ecosystem". Although it is often marginalized, the research on the socio-cultural impact of this form of traveling would be relevant, for it can be recognized globally [Goering 1990, p. 24].

The notion of Olympic legacy

The notion of Olympic legacy has been part of strategic documents of the International Olympic Committee since the 1990s as an important socio-political issue and research material for academics of different disciplines. Olympic legacy can be defined as "planned and unplanned, positive and negative, tangible and intangible aspects produced by and for a sporting event, which last longer than the event itself." [Preuss 2007].

¹ For example, in 2012 (due to UEFA EURO 2012) there were 11% more tourists in Poland than in 2011. One cannot be sure, though, that this trend will be continued in the following years.

The discussion over the mega sporting events legacy started as a result of an attempt to address the question of positive and negative effects of hosting them, not only in terms of economics, but also in terms of culture, society and ecology. The issue has become interesting not only for Olympic hosts, but also for researchers and sustainable development specialists who distinguish legacies such as tangible, intangible, social cultural, ecological, economical, urban, and sporting (new sporting infrastructure or encouraging people to do sports) [Girginov 2012; www.olympic.org].

Effects caused by a given sporting event can be called its legacy – something that will stay for the local community after the event is over (for the residents of the city and region in which the event takes place) [Derom, Minnaert 2015]. Social legacy of a sporting event is “a change in value systems of individuals and societies caused by sporting journeys, changes in behaviour of tourists and local residents, their social structures, lifestyles and quality of life. [Hall 1992, p. 141-158]. The sporting event legacy constitute all permanent and long-term changes for the local and international environment, which occur due to hosting the Olympics. The experience of host cities and countries shows these changes may be both positive and negative. Positive legacy is, for example, an increase of the quality of life in a community which put an effort to organize a big sporting event. It could also implicate the higher life standard for the residents who may believe in the importance of physical activity and the possibility to shape their social environment. A financial aspect is crucial, too. New roads and highways, ultra-modern stadiums and development of small sporting and touristic infrastructures in towns also contribute to the positive legacy. Although difficult to measure, its intangible aspect is equally important. Shaping an interesting image of a country abroad and among visiting fans, which may translate into more tourists coming there in the future or popularizing sport and healthy lifestyle among citizens serve as examples. Organizational skills possessed while preparing the event, which include e.g. consultations with local communities about proposed changes, are also an asset. What is interesting, even unsuccessful bidders who applied for hosting the Olympics claim they have managed to find positive elements of their candidacy. [Święchowicz 2014]. The sporting event legacy may be negative, though. It means that the event triggered a decrease in the quality of life of communities which hosted it. Some hosts experience serious financial losses which cannot be compensated by later income from the touristic sector. [*What will stay after EURO 2012?*]

The “Barcelona effect” is definitely worth mentioning as an example of a positive legacy. In 1992, Barcelona hosted the Olympics. Due to excellent organization and promotion, the capital of Catalonia became recognizable in the whole world as a business cen-

ter and, mostly, a touristic destination. Although the Olympic Games left Barcelona with an over USD 1,5 billion deficit, the city profited by the event in a long-term perspective. The phenomenon was so remarkable, that it became known as the “Barcelona effect”. Some researchers claim, though, that it is a myth which needs to be dispelled. According to Chappelet, Catalonia itself is a very attractive cultural and touristic destination, and its widespread popularity has been caused by cheap flights, not the Olympics. In his opinion, there is no credible evidence which would indicate that tourism in Barcelona developed so dynamically due to the Olympic Games. (As learned from a conversation with prof. Chappelet in September 2015.) There are some dissenting voices, however, which claim that the achievements of Barcelona would have taken much more time, if it had not been for the Olympics. The situation in Poland might be similar. Stadiums and roads were built, airports and railway stations were extended, which suggests a promising forecast for the future. In the next years, a half a million tourists are expected to visit Poland and spend billions of zloty here. According to some economists, we may witness the “Polish effect” in the near future, which can replicate the Barcelona success.

Unfortunately, hosting the Olympic Games or UEFA Championships may cause a lot of financial problems. That was the case with the 1976 Summer Olympics in Montreal: Canadians were paying off their debts for thirty years. The losses could not be compensated by the income from tourism, which did not fully develop, as had been expected. The “Montreal effect” is, hence, the opposite of the “Barcelona effect”. Other examples are, among others, Lake Placid (1980), where the Organizing Committee for the Olympic Games almost went bankrupt, Lillehammer (1994) and Athens, which struggle with the problem of sporting facilities built for the occasion going into ruin. (The city experiences the so called white elephant problem.²) For, years, the Japanese were not willing to admit how much they lost due to the 1998 Winter Nagano Olympics as well. The FIFA World Cup which took place in the US and held the viewership record made a loss of USD 4 billion. UEFA EURO 2004 in Portugal made a loss of almost EUR 700 million, whereas only three out of ten stadiums which had been built or modernized for the Olympics were able to make a profit. Some hosts bear costs which cannot be compensated by further income from the touristic

² The term derives from a Southeast Asian legend about a white elephant which used to serve as a gift from maharajah for those whom he considered friends. Although beautiful and unique, this sacred animal was of no use and could not work whereas its maintenance ruined its owner. Great sporting facilities are often perceived this way. They required exorbitant costs, yet they are not able to make any money now. The examples can be multiplied: Estadio Nacional Mane Garrincha in Brazil has been rebuilt as a bus depot, the National Stadium in Lagos, Nigeria, serves as a bordello, whereas the first Real Madrid stadium – as a prison. In the 1980, the National Stadium in Chile was used as a concentration camp.

sector (the 2004 Summer Olympics in Athens). It happens that the maintenance costs of a stadium are so high, that host countries decide to disassemble them (as in Portugal after the UEFA EURO 2004). A painful aspect of the negative legacy also falling short of social expectations.

The opinions of students of the International Olympic Academy on potential results of the Olympics are given below.

Information about the research

The research was conducted by means of a diagnostic poll method. The interviews were carried out during the lectures delivered as part of the IOA Seminar for Postgraduate Students which took place in September 2015, in Greece. 18 people constituted the group of respondents (10 women and 8 men). The average age of participants was 28. The nationalities they represented were: Great Britain, Brazil (2 people), USA, Spain (2 people), China (2 people), Germany, Australia, Sweden, France, Czech Republic, Poland (2 people), Latvia, South Africa, and Slovakia.

It seemed interesting to check what the opinion on the Olympic legacy is among people who have already possessed the basic knowledge regarding olympism. Moreover, the participants have gained this knowledge not only from their academic and research performance, but also from their personal experience – some of them represented the countries which had already hosted the Olympic Games; others actively participated in them, e.g. as volunteers. The participants already had some opinions concerning potential legacy of the Olympic Games. The aim of the research was to establish what these opinions were among people who already possessed the knowledge on the Olympic legacy. The results are presented below.

Question 1. “Has your country ever hosted the Olympic Games?”

Among the respondents, 10 people came from countries which had already hosted the Olympics. 6 people represented countries which had not, whereas 2 people came from Brazil, which has just hosted the Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro this year. The host countries whose experiences were basis for the respondents' knowledge are:

France – Paris 1900, Chamonix 1924, Grenoble 1968, Albertville 1992,
China – Beijing 2008,
Sweden – Stockholm 1912,
Australia – Sydney 2000
Spain – Barcelona 1992
Germany – Berlin 1936, Munich 1972
Great Britain – London 2012
USA – Los Angeles 1932, Lake Placid 1980, Atlanta 1996, Salt Lake City 2002.

Question 2. “In your opinion, which effects of hosting the Olympic Games are the most significant?”

- Intercultural communication of a multi-ethnic society established in a positive atmosphere (Great Britain),
- Noticing the role of sport for people with disabilities (Brazil),
- The Olympics served as a marketing tool for the host city (Barcelona),
- The Olympic Games triggered the Olympic education (Germany),
- Sporting facilities were built in host cities (Germany, China),
- The new face of the Olympic Games could be presented, e.g., the aims of the *Agenda 2020* (Germany),
- Sporting culture could develop; more and more people decided to do sports, including regional disciplines (Spain, China)
- The growth of national pride (Australia),
- The Olympic Stadium in Stockholm, which has witnessed the history of international sport and is still in use (Sweden),
- The image of a host country improved and the national solidarity was fostered due to the Olympic Games (China),
- The mountain infrastructure was developed (France),
- Promoting equality among all people regardless of sex, race and religion (USA).

Question 3. “Would you like your country to host the Olympic Games again/ for the first time?”

The respondents' opinions concerning hosting the Olympic Games were fairly divided. 9 people answered “yes” to this question and 9 people answered “no”. There was also an answer stating that a respondent “would like that to happen because it would be a valuable experience, yet for the sake of the society it would be better if the Olympic Games were hosted elsewhere.” The respondents were asked to justify their opinions.

Question 4. In your opinion, what would be the most significant potential results, both positive and negative, of hosting the Olympic Games in your country in terms of economy, ecology, culture, and society?

Potential positive results:

- Acknowledging and addressing the problems of disabled athletes,
- Infrastructure development, improvement of public transport,
- Protected areas development and renovation,
- Metamorphosis of cities (especially areas previously neglected),

Why YES?	Why NO?
To enhance the process of integrating societies (France, Slovakia)	The problem of abandoned stadiums would be probably more serious than after 2010 FIFA World Cup (South Africa)
To gain economical profits, e.g., from tourism (Poland)	My country is not ready for such an initiative which would not get much social approval (Poland, Czech Republic)
Because sport is a crucial element for the national identity (Australia)	At the moment, it would too massive event for such a small country. (Sweden)
To support the collaboration with international organizations (Slovakia)	Money should rather be spent on urgent matters and social policy. (Brazil)
To promote the country as a touristic destination (due to Australia's location, national tourism dominates) (Australia)	My country should not apply to host the Olympic Games due to widespread corruption. Moreover, people live in chronic poverty. (Poland)
It would be a good opportunity to introduce and develop international programs, improve the existing sporting regulations (Spain)	
It would promote healthy lifestyle and sport (Spain, Germany)	
It is a "political need" (China)	
Hosting the Olympic Games would be desirable, but it probably will not happen soon until GB decides to apply again. (The Olympics took place in London just a few years ago.) (Great Britain)	
The next Spanish Olympics should take place in Madrid in order to promote this city, improve its international image and popularize it among tourists worldwide. It would be excellent if Madrid experienced its own "Barcelona effect" from 1992. (Spain)	

- In the pre-Olympic period, sport gained media attention and became an important element of social debate,
 - The growth of national pride. (According to the British respondent, "*I have never seen British pride as high as the year of the London Olympics*"),
 - The enhancement of social identity and integration,
 - The possibility to present local cultural heritage worldwide,
 - The possibility to spread Olympic values which are supposed to be universal,
 - Promoting Olympic education among children,
 - The possibility to establish or improve diplomatic relations
 - Promoting ecological education assuming that host countries recognize sustainable development directives,
 - The possibility to spread cultural education among locals and tourists,
 - The development of programs aiming at fighting social exclusion
 - Promoting active and healthy lifestyle
 - Mobilizing local communities, e.g., volunteering,
 - The Olympic Games unite people of different races and cultures,
 - Empowering women in their struggle for equality (e.g., increasing the number of women participating in professional sport)
 - Creating workplaces,
 - Experiencing cultures, rather than learning about them (the possibility to meet representatives of different cultures)
- Potential negative results:
- It is often the case that the Olympic Games concern only selected social groups. Sporting infrastructure after the Olympics may not be available for everyone,
 - The development of infrastructure often takes place only in host cities, whereas it is the whole country that bears the costs,
 - The problem of "white elephants",
 - Some positive results may be short-term (e.g., national pride),
 - Investments made in host cities only may slow down the development of other cities or even deepen differences between them (e.g., further development of London). While preparing to the Olympic, needs of other regions are set aside. Some places may suffer from centralization of preparations.
 - The increase of living costs in a given location – food, rent, etc.
 - Economical imbalance – high costs do not equal satisfactory profits,
 - Problems related to security (e.g., terrorist attack threat in a host city),

- Sport may be used as a political tool and a propaganda element,
- Decisions regarding the development of infrastructure are not taken democratically, which means not all social groups are part of the decision-making process
- Likelihood of corruption,
- High prices of hotels or flights may discourage other tourists who may want to visit a host country regardless of the Olympic Games,
- Hosting the Olympics may cause damage to the natural environment, e.g., due to excessive deforestation,
- New workplaces may be temporary

Question 5. “What other sporting mega-events were hosted in your country? What are their visible effects?”

The mega-events enlisted by the respondents were: FIFA World Cup (South Africa, Germany), NBA finals (USA), EURO 2012 (Poland), Ice Hockey World Championships (Slovakia, Latvia, Czech Republic), Winter Universiade (Slovakia), European Football Championships (France, Sweden), Asian Games (China), Football/Basketball/Handball World Championships (Spain, Brazil), Rugby World Cup (Australia), Commonwealth Games (Great Britain), Panamerican Games (Brazil)

The results noticed by the respondents:

- The development of touristic sector,
- Encouraging girls to play soccer (gender equality aspect in sport),
- A unique, joyful and emotional atmosphere during the event; “carnivalization” of everyday life,
- European integration,
- Fighting for world peace,
- Education in terms of positive support (fighting vandalism at stadiums)
- Educating local communities (trainings for hosts before the event),
- Active involvement of young people with the preparations (skills acquired in that time could be used elsewhere and serve as a professional asset),
- The development of sport management as an academic field (drawing on international organizations’ experience),
- Introducing educational programs (e.g., in regards with fighting doping),
- Revitalization of already existing facilities
- Breaking stereotypes (e.g., tourists could learn that South Africa was not as dangerous place as they had expected),
- Tourists could experience local community’s hospitality (e.g., Poland before EURO 2012 was perceived as a country hostile to people of different skin colors),

- Sporting events promote knowledge about current international socio-political matters, such as women’s involvement with sport in Muslim countries
- Sporting events may cause the growth of national pride.....?

Conclusions

Prof. J.L Chappelet, a European expert on sporting mega-events legacy, is of the opinion that results observed within eight years after the event is over should be called its impact. The term “legacy” should be used to describe lasting effects after the above mentioned period [Conversation from September 2015]. Chappellet states that a lot of socio-cultural effects are difficult to measure, whereas reliable analyses can take years. It is worth noticing that with the lapse of time, the type of impact may change. For instance, the “Barcelona effect” is widely considered as positive, yet recent months have showed that a massive wave of tourists has been troublesome for citizens of Barcelona and the city authorities are attempting to limit the number of tourists coming there. It may come as paradoxical, for most cities try to attract as many tourists as possible, not to discourage them from visits. Similar examples may be found in infrastructure. In the twentieth century, a lot of new infrastructural solutions were introduced, including railways in mountain areas. For example, new roads built for the Olympics in the Alps have been considered a positive effect of the event. Now, however, it is obvious that they caused irreversible damage in the Alpine ecosystem.

The characteristics and extent of the Olympic impact is, hence, complex. The opinions regarding the Olympic legacy presented in the article come from respondents who are particularly interested in olympism. It should be underlined, though, that these opinion may be objective as they were expressed by people who lived in host-countries. On the other hand, the responses may be subjective and based on their authors’ personal emotions. It is even challenging to determine whether the described effects really took place; they may be solely a set of images associated with the Olympic Games shaped by media.

In the article, potential positive and negative effects of hosting the Olympic Games have been presented. Undoubtedly, the knowledge concerning the Olympic legacy should be spread and broadened, whereas the cooperation between host-countries and potential candidates – intensified. The Olympic legacy will be positive as long as events are well planned and organized, and their long-term effects will concern everyone, not only selected social groups, improving their life quality.

It is worth mentioning that one of the positive “legacy” of the Olympics is also the existence of the International Olympic Academy in Greece, because as the Postgraduate Students Seminar’s participants used to say:

„WE ARE THE BIGGEST OLYMPIC LEGACY – OUR INTERNATIONAL AND INTERCULTURAL FRIENDSHIP AND OUR SOLIDARITY”



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The American YMCA and its physical education program – first steps to world expansion

Tomáš Tlustý

FTVS UK Praha

Summary

This paper looks at the first steps taken by the American YMCA to expand its physical education program across various countries in South and Central America, Asia and Europe. The YMCA was established in 1844 in London. However, it particularly flourished in the United States of America, building large physical education facilities, setting up its first physical education institute and developing new sports. Their schools were attended by people from all over the world, who went on to promote the organisation's physical education program. Due to cooperation with the US army, the organisation saw further expansion and its secretaries began to operate in other countries. They were instrumental in establishing the first local YMCA groups, often provided with material and financial support by the United States. Local groups began to build their own physical education facilities and adopt new "American" sports. Elwood S. Brown was a pioneer in the promotion of the American YMCA's physical education program. He worked for the organisation on several continents, significantly assisting the organisation of big sporting events which were always attended by sportsmen from several countries. Unfortunately, many of the national YMCA groups were later paralysed by the Second World War. Despite that, the YMCA has become the largest voluntary youth organisation in the world.

Keywords: YMCA; the spreading of physical education and sport; sport facilities; officials

Introduction

The YMCA (Young Men's Christian Association) is an international youth organization with a Christian ethos, established in London by George Williams in 1844 [Konečný 1930, pp. 30-32].

Its symbol is a straight-sided red triangle which symbolizes the three main directions which it focuses on – balance of mind, soul and body. Physical education and sport have always formed only part of the whole association's program, which has always tried to encourage the all-round development of its members. However, it must be emphasised that the various parts of the YMCA program have never been separate entities but coincide with each other. Hence, if we are to pinpoint the role physical education and sport has played within the YMCA, we should always consider relationships between the various parts of the overall program [*Protein* 2006, No. 1, p. 8.].

In its first few years of existence, the YMCA restricted its activity to spiritual instruction for all members. However, the organisation gained popularity in London and began to expand rapidly to other parts of England, Great Britain, France (1852), the Netherlands (1853), Germany (1883), or to the area now known as Hungary (1883). It became most widespread in the United States of America, though, with

the first groups to appear in North America being established almost simultaneously in Boston and Montreal in 1851.

Associations were first housed in humble rooms in churches, rented properties or other buildings designed for a completely different purpose. These cannot have been suitable for physical education and sport [Johnson 1979, p. 31]. By 1860, YMCA members and secretaries had been making efforts to get physical education included in the organization's program and in 1870 YMCA buildings became equipped with the first gyms and swimming pools. [Constable 1999, pp. 127-128].

Physical education and sport flourished throughout the YMCA between 1880 and 1885, when the first "International Young Men's Christian Association Training School" was established in Springfield, Massachusetts¹ by Jacob I. Brown [Gustav-Wrathall 1998, p. 13.]. The organisation soon established a similar school of physical education in Chicago – "Training School of the YMCA".² However, they were initial-

¹ In the course of time, this school changed its name several times. In 1912 it was renamed International YMCA College and in 1954 Springfield College.

² The official name of this institution changed several times – Training School of the YMCA (1890-1896), Secretarial Institute and Training School (1896-1903), Institute and Training School of the YMCA (1903-1913), YMCA College or Association College

ly attended by very few pupils, each school enrolling about a hundred.

Year after year, there was a gradual increase in the number of people who wanted to devote themselves to physical education at one of those schools. By 1925 the situation had changed and both schools were full, with around 500 enrolled pupils. This was a time of rapid development in the YMCA schools. The organisation greatly benefited from sufficient funding, acquiring a large number of generous financial gifts [YMCA (*asopis...* 1926, No. 1, p. 7-9).

It did not take long for physical education and sport to expand across the North American YMCA. By 1890, the organisation owned and used around 400 gyms in the United States of America and Canada.

After such achievements in promoting physical education and sport in the United States of America, there is no wonder that other states asked the YMCA to do the same for their countries.

By 1900, the organisation was working in every continent (except Antarctica), with 16 YMCA centres in South America, 19 in Africa, 20 in Australia and 270 in Asia [McComb 2012, p. 76].

The American YMCA and physical education in Asia

By the second half of the 19th century, the American YMCA had expanded its activity to Asia, particularly to India, Japan, China and the Philippines.

The YMCA entered the Philippines, and many other countries, alongside American soldiers. They had come to the Philippine Islands, which were a Spanish colony, to fight during the Spanish-American war (25th April – 12th August 1898).

By 1907, the YMCA was coaching the Philippines' best swimmers in the Fort William McKinley YMCA swimming pool in the province of Rizal. The Manila YMCA swimming pool was opened four years later. Credit for such achievement is owed to Elwood Stanley Brown (*see Fig. 1.*)³. He is considered to be the most significant figure in the Philippines' YMCA physical education program in the early 20th century. In 1910 (at the young age of 27) he began to organise physical education in Manila, where he became national YMCA physical education director [Johnson 1979, p. 136].

With its growing influence, the YMCA began to promote physical education in local schools and build gyms and swimming pools for the Philippine people. In 1916 the YMCA was instrumental in setting up the first official Philippine scout group [Protein 2003, No. 4].

Within three months of being appointed, E. Brown had prepared the Philippine YMCA's new physical education program, which included volleyball, basket-



Figure 1. A photo of Elwood S. Brown

ball (*see Fig. 2.*), swimming, light athletics, football and baseball. In addition, Elwood Brown also prepared a program for 10 thousand national police officers and 8 thousand members of the US military based in the Philippines. His proposals also led to the Philippine Amateur Athletic Federation being established [Constable 1999, pp. 129-133].

By 1914 there were projects to build more than 5 thousand courts and sports grounds in the Philippines and building work had begun in schools, city sports grounds and private clubs [Johnson 1979, p. 161]. There were initial teething problems, though, as local people rejected the new "American" sports.

E. Brown's work in the Philippines was a great achievement. He was soon offered work in another two countries where a YMCA presence had been established – China and Japan. Elwood Brown did subsequently begin working on programs for them, but from a distance - via his YMCA colleagues.

Elwood Brown's work in these three countries led to the idea of organising the Far Eastern Championship Games,⁴ where Philippine, Chinese and Japanese sportsmen were to compete against each other. He

(1913-1933). In 1933 the school was finally renamed George Williams College.

³ Elwood Brown did not establish the local YMCA group in Manila, though. This had been set up in 1907. His work did significantly improve it, though.

⁴ The first ever Games were called "First Oriental Olympic Games". In 1915 the Games were renamed Far Eastern Championship Games.



Figure 2. Philippine girls playing basketball in 1913

managed to win recognition for this idea and the first ever Games were held in Manila in 1913. The whole event lasted for ten days, during which the six participating states⁵ competed in eight sports. Having been fairly critically acclaimed, E. Brown decided the event should be repeated and the following games were held in Shanghai in 1915 [<http://www.ocasia.org/Game/GamesL1.aspx?9QoyD9QEWPFemU/arvY96w==>, Accessed 28th October 2015].

However, even E. Brown's influence was not enough to increase the popularity of the YMCA and its preferred sports in China. Like Japan, China had a very long tradition of physical culture and new "western" sports were initially rejected by the local people. Despite that, in the course of time he had great success in promoting basketball in China. This new "American" game was first mentioned at the beginning of 1896 in Tientsin, where the local YMCA published its "gazette" [Johnson 1979, pp. 190-191].

YMCA physical education director Max J. Exner, who arrived in Shanghai in 1908, did bring certain changes to the organisation of physical education and sport though, introducing the association's new physical education program to the country. He began by introducing two-year physical education studies for potential local sports directors. He also offered first aid courses to those who were interested. In 1910 he also managed to acquire athletics grounds for the YMCA's needs. However, a year later, he was replaced

⁵ Participating states were: The Philippine Islands, Republic of China, Empire of Japan, British East Indies (Malaysia), Kingdom of Thailand and British crown colony Hong Kong. However, almost only sportsmen from the Philippines, China and Japan took part in the other Games. Perhaps the only exception was in 1934, when the Dutch East Indies participated in the Games.

by Canadian J. Howard Crocker [Guttman 2007, pp. 206-208].

Crocker was actually the mastermind behind China's participation in the first "Oriental Olympic Games". He went about choosing 36 sportsmen to represent China at this event, forming the first ever Chinese team to compete abroad [Morris 2004, pp. 20-25]. Between 1916 and 1918 his successor, David K. Brace, worked hard to have a physical education department established at Tsinghua University in Beijing. This was the first modern physical education department of its time in China [Johnson 1979, p. 148].

The YMCA's early work in Japan was hindered even more than in China. In the second half of the 19th century, Japan still took great pride in its own traditions, although it did slowly begin to accept western models. The first Japanese YMCA was opened in Tokyo in 1880. Two years later, another YMCA was established in Osaka. The year 1908 represented a turning point for the YMCA in Japan, when local director of physical education Hyozo Ohmori returned from physical education training at the International YMCA training school in Springfield. Unfortunately, Ohmori's support for the YMCA did not last for long as he died after contracting tuberculosis. The problem was that the Japanese did almost nothing but combat sports [Constable 1999, p. 137].

However, they did come to like one collective sport promoted by the YMCA - baseball. This was played at the YMCA building in Tokyo along with tennis, basketball and softball. However, the building there was found to be insufficient and a new one was opened in 1917 [Johnson 1979, pp. 147-149]. It became home to the first indoor sports hall and the first indoor swimming pool in Japan. Three years later the Osaka YMCA organised the first ever summer youth camp in Japanese history [Protein 2002, No. 12].

The Japanese love of baseball greatly contributed to it being included in the first Oriental Olympic Games. But the Japanese sent only a baseball team and two runners to take part in the Games.

Two years later the Japanese were still not particularly interested in participating in the Oriental Olym-



Figure 3. Volleyball at the Far Eastern Championship Games in Tokyo in 1917

pic Games. Only 20 sportsmen were sent to compete, as against 90 Philippine and 100 Chinese. However, the few Japanese were relatively successful, achieving victory in tennis, the marathon and swimming. In 1917 the Games were held in Tokyo (*see Fig. 3.*) [Constable 1999, pp. 140-145].

At that time, two of the YMCA's physical education directors for Japan - Elwood Brown and his successor Franklin H. Brown⁶ - tried hard to get the local government to support the expansion of their physical education program. This was achieved, representing a partial breakdown of barriers, and a new physical education base was built near Tokyo. This became the training camp for Japanese sportsmen focusing on team games.

Franklin H. Brown subsequently came up with the idea of introducing basketball and volleyball to Japanese schools and forming a national basketball team that would begin to play matches against Korea. This was achieved as well. Later the YMCA in Tokyo began to serve as a sports training centre where, for example, swimming was very popular [Johnson 1979, pp. 149-150].

The Japanese became much more enthusiastic about participating in the following seven⁷ Far Eastern Championship Games [Constable 1999, pp. 145-146]. The sixth Games, held in Osaka, Japan in 1923, were reported to have attracted 40 000 spectators.⁸ Their tradition continued up to 1934, when the last Games were held in Manila.

The YMCA was also active in India. Elmer Berry from Springfield School became the first YMCA director in India, taking charge of physical education and sport in 1901 and 1902. He was subsequently replaced by Canadian T. Duncan Patton who brought basketball to India. Although physical education directors never stayed long, they still managed to have volleyball adopted in the country. They also helped to establish local physical education institutions [Johnson 1979, pp. 153-155].

The director of the Indian YMCA in the twenties was A. G. Noehren. He and the Anglo-Indian businessman Dorabji Tata worked together to assemble an independent Indian team for the 1924 Olympic Games in Paris. India's participation in these VIII Olympic Games was preceded by the All-India championship in New Delhi, which the YMCA had been responsible for organising. Tata and Noehren subsequently chose eight winners to take part in the Olympic Games. Three years later, the YMCA provided financial resources to support establishment of the Indian Olympic Association [Majumdar & Mehta 2009, pp. 13-14].

⁶ These YMCA physical education directors were not related.

⁷ These were held in 1919 - Manila, 1921 - Shanghai, 1923 - Osaka, 1925 - Manila, 1927 - Shanghai, 1930 - Tokyo and 1934 - Manila. The following Far Eastern Championship Games were to be held in Osaka in 1938 but were cancelled due to the war.

⁸ The number of spectators was reportedly higher than at the 1924 Olympics in Paris.

The YMCA opened a school of physical education in India too - the National YMCA School of Physical Education - in the city of Chennai (Madras). Teaching commenced in 1920 and students were introduced to sports like basketball, volleyball, badminton, softball, baseball, football and hockey. Athletics disciplines were also popular there. Its central figure was Harry Buck. The YMCA's physical education program gradually made its way into other Indian schools [MacAloon 2013, p. 64].

The American YMCA and physical education in Central and South America

YMCA presence in South America dates back to the second half of the 19th century. Between 1870 and 1874 there was a YMCA in Buenos Aires that had been founded by English and Scottish immigrants. However, the American YMCA began its activity there later. In 1891 Myron Augustus Clark came to Sao Paula, moving to Rio de Janeiro two years later. The first YMCA physical education director sent to work full time in South America was Maurice C. Sallasa in 1911 [Dyreson, Mangan & Park 2013, p. 185].

Despite being in Brazil for only a year, he managed to establish a leaders' corps and develop a limited physical education programme. In 1911, the YMCA also organised the first ever volleyball competition in Brazil, held in the city of Recife [Nauright & Parrish 2012, p. 145].

A year later, Maurice C. Sallasa was replaced by Henry J. Sims who was a specialist in wrestling and gymnastics. He spent most of his time trying to improve young Brazilians' performances in these sports. While he was working there, the popularity of physical education and sport constantly rose. In 1920 a National Department of Physical Education was established in Brazil and H. J. Sims was called to its office. In this new position, he developed Christian physical education even further [Johnson 1979, pp. 167-170].

As for Uruguay, Montevideo became home to the first YMCA in 1909 but it was of little significance until the following year. In 1910, Springfield College graduate and YMCA secretary Jess T. Hopkins was employed in Montevideo, where he soon received 50 000 dollars from the Uruguayan government to erect sports grounds. These were used for American sports that had been introduced here by the YMCA and its functionaries. J. T. Hopkins brought basketball to South America, for example [Johnson 1979, p. 91]. In addition, he was instrumental in raising the standard of school athletics and modernising school facilities and areas that could be used for physical education and sport.

In 1916 the Uruguayan YMCA began to discuss the possibility of establishing a YMCA school to instruct local secretaries and physical education directors. J. T. Hopkins had been in favour of this idea, which later became reality. Building work had been

completed by 1922 and the school opened its doors to its first students a year later [Dyreson, Mangan & Park 2013, p. 188].

In 1930 the YMCA was instrumental in developing a new indoor sport – futsal (five-a-side soccer). This was first presented by Juan Carlos Ceriani in the Uruguayan capital Montevideo [Bellos 2009, pp. 168-169].

In 1912 Paul Phillips arrived in Argentina's Buenos Aires, probably at the best possible moment. At the time, a huge wave of construction work had just finished, during which a number of hotels and schools were built. P. Phillips took advantage of this, convincing the "right people" of the need to provide sports facilities. In the following nine years, he went on to organise one of the best physical education programmes in South America.

Phillips himself was inclined towards athletics, which he managed to interest his students in as well. In addition, he organised evening gymnastics classes and introduced basketball to Argentina. Its rules were translated into Spanish by local YMCA secretaries. He was also responsible for organising annual National Championships in boxing, wrestling and swimming. In 1921 he was replaced by Fred W. Dickens. Paul Phillips then left Argentina to spend two years in Turkey.

F. W. Dickens continued with the on-going program, mainly focusing on athletics. In 1927 he became coach for the Argentinian national team of athletes [Johnson 1979, pp. 171-172].

The first association in Chile was founded in Valparaíso in 1912. Six years later, the movement extended to Santiago de Chile. The physical education program of the Chilean YMCA was prepared between 1912 and 1915, when Fred C. Wurtz held the post of general secretary. Before the arrival of the American YMCA secretaries, the physical education system in Chile had been highly influenced by the German Turner system, brought by German immigrants. There were also traces of the Swedish system, which Joaquin Cabezas preferred. He was sent by the local authorities to study Ling's system in Stockholm.

In such an environment it was no easy task for the YMCA to promote its "American" sports. Basketball and volleyball were presented with the slogan "sport for all" and the YMCA finally managed to promote these sports to a limited extent.

J. T. Hopkins held office in Chile too, working hard to modernise and erect sports grounds. In addition, he was responsible for the translation of American physical education books and rules of "American" sports into Spanish [Johnson 1979, p. 252].

The above-mentioned Elwood Brown became another important figure for the YMCA. As he had done in Asia, he wanted to organise a big sporting event that would become a tradition. In 1920 he travelled around South America, where he met local YMCA physical education directors. With funding from them he subsequently managed to organise the so-called South

American Games, later renamed the Latin American Games [Constable 1999, p. 150].⁹ Secretaries Dickens and Sims also took part in their organisation [Nau-right & Parrish 2012, p. 138].

The first Mexican YMCA was established in 1891, when it separated from the existing Christian Society. It again went on to employ the physical education program imported from the United States. Some local functionaries had spent time in Springfield learning about a number of "American" games, which they subsequently introduced in Mexico.

Basketball is one of those games. The first swimming and basketball teams in Mexico were organised by YMCA physical education directors A. C. Stewart and Charles Westroop. Another important member of the Mexican YMCA to attend Springfield School was Enrique C. Aguirre – the later Mexican minister of sport and physical education [Beezley 2004, p. 59].

Basketball was first introduced in Mexico in 1903. The leader of the Mexican YMCA also changed that year and Richard Williamson became the new secretary. In his charge, the local YMCA flourished. The first athletics clubs were formed and gymnastics also became more widespread.

The first YMCA physical education secretary to work full-time in Mexico was Percy K. Holmes. He came to Mexico in 1910 and during his office he managed to raise the importance of physical education in local schools. In addition, he became founder member of the Mexican Olympic Committee and the first athletics coach for the 1924 Mexican Olympic team. [Johnson 1979, pp. 163-166].

After finishing his work in Brazil, Henri de Baillet-Latour left for Mexico, where he and Mr Cuéllar made efforts to have a delegation of Mexican athletes sent to the "South American Games" in Rio de Janeiro – but without success. However, alongside these two protagonists of sport, the Mexican YMCA did spark off a tradition of Central American Games, first held in Mexico City in 1926 with 14 participating states [Constable 1999, pp. 150-151].

The American YMCA and physical education in Europe

American YMCA secretaries began to work in a similar way in Europe. Having originated in England in 1844, the YMCA had already set up a number of lo-

⁹ To organise this event, E. Brown and his YMCA co-workers decided to take advantage of the Brazilian celebration in Rio de Janeiro in 1922. That was taking place to celebrate the one hundredth anniversary of Brazil's declaration of independence from Portugal. They added their sports program to the celebration. This event was of double significance. Firstly, it was to begin the process of raising the performance of South American athletes to European and American standards and secondly it was to give rise to the Brazilian Olympic Committee, which would send local athletes to the Olympic Games. The later President of the International Olympic Committee – Henri de Baillet-Latour – also assisted Brazilian organisers with this project.

cal groups in the country. The American YMCA's first steps towards expansion in Europe go back to the First World War. During the war, the American YMCA worked not only alongside soldiers of various armies but also alongside their prisoners of war [Tlustý 2015].

Elwood Brown was again a major figure working for the YMCA in Russia during the First World War. He later worked in France as director of the YMCA athletics department, which closely cooperated with the American army and was responsible for entertaining American soldiers. After the First World War, he was instrumental in organising the Inter-Allied Games (see Fig. 4.), which took place in 1919 in Paris in honour of the Allies' victory [Daniels 2000, pp. 123-125]. This sporting event took place at Pershing Stadium, which had been designed and erected with YMCA support. The French government provided the site and the US army did most of the building work [*The Inter-allied...* 1919, pp. 101-102]. The Inter-Allied Games were a huge success [*Summary of world war...* 1920, p. 134].

Pierre de Coubertin was so delighted with their organisation that he sent their program to the organisers of the first post-war Olympic Games, which were held in Antwerp in 1920. Pierre de Coubertin also urged summoned Elwood Brown to speak at four Internation-

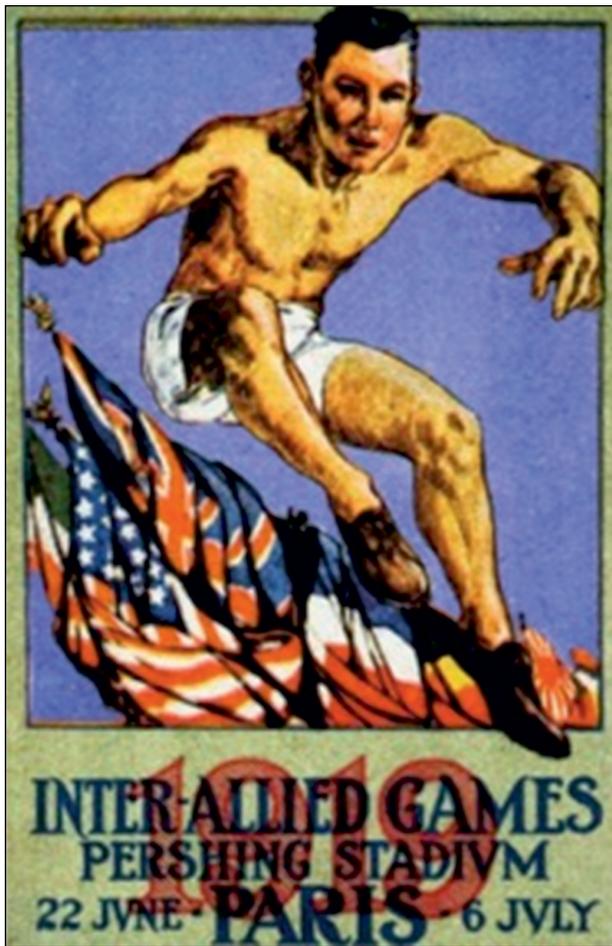


Figure 4. A poster for the Inter-Allied Games

al Olympic Committee meetings in 1920, 1921, 1922 and 1923. During the first one, Elwood Brown expressed his and the YMCA's plans to organise an event similar to the "Far Eastern Championship Games" in South America [Constable 1999, pp. 147-148].

Physical education functionaries from the American YMCA also gradually began to work in universities and vocational schools in Europe. Through this, the American YMCA slowly extended its physical education activity across Czechoslovakia, Poland, Estonia, Rumania, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Turkey and France [*YMCA (asopis...* 1926, No. 1, p. 7-9].

However, the American YMCA's influence had actually penetrated into Europe prior to the First World War. After J. Naismith had invented basketball, it spread very quickly. It had already been adopted in Europe by the end of the 19th century, particularly in Germany, Russia, Turkey and France. Basketball was presented in Paris in 1893. It was first played in the Czech lands in 1897. It was demonstrated in Turkey in 1904 and a year later in Russia [Sigfried 2008, p. 450].

In Italy, American soldiers demonstrated their "American sports" just after the First World War in 1918-1919, leading to their increased popularity. Basketball, or rather a game similar to it, had first been played in Venice in 1907, but it was American YMCA instructors that increased its popularity among the Italian people during the First World War [Martin 2011, p. 110].

Even after the war had ended, the American YMCA was asked by the Italian government to stay and continue its activity. Its work helped to create a nationwide interest in sport and its high standards led to Platt Adams, secretary, being asked by the Italian Olympic Committee to take charge of the Italian national team and coach them. The YMCA also built large physical education complexes with swimming pools and gyms in Rome and Torino. In particular, the Torino YMCA had superb facilities in the interwar period. Its swimming pool was actually used by the Italian team during their final preparations for the 1924 Summer Olympics. Basketball evidently became the most popular sport promoted by the YMCA [*YMCA (Casopis...* 1926, No. 1, p. 7-9].

King Alexander of Greece also summoned Arthur E. Marriott, YMCA director of physical education and Springfield College graduate, to form a national Olympic team in post-war Greece. The association had already been given permission to use the National Stadium for some of its physical education events [Constable 1999, pp. 194-195]. L. W. Riess, a big promoter of American sports, later became YMCA physical education director there. Mr Machotka also worked in Greece. The YMCA gradually began to build tennis and basketball courts, football pitches and athletics grounds for its activities in Greece. YMCA bases also had to be built, though. In 1928 a YMCA base was built in Solun, with a gym and indoor swimming pool.

French playgrounds and parks were also filled with children playing games brought by American YMCA secretaries. These included basketball, volleyball and baseball. Basketball was particularly popular there. It again became a demonstration sport at the 1924 Paris Olympics but this time it was not only played by teams from the host country, as it had been in 1904 [Johnson 1979, pp. 242-247]. L. C. Schroeder, a former student and teacher at the YMCA's Springfield Physical Education College, was in charge of the French Olympic team at the 1924 Summer Olympics [*Těp pražské Ymky* 1925, No. 8-9, p. 7]. He organised a wide range of specialised physical education courses. In 1924 - 1925 he also taught in a number of other European countries¹⁰ - including Czechoslovakia and Poland [*YMCA (Časopis...* 1926, No. 1, p. 7-9].

L. C. Schroeder was one of the greatest experts of his time on coaching light athletics. In March 1925, when he was YMCA General Secretary of Physical Education and Sport in Europe, he was invited to stay at the local YMCA in Warsaw. He shared his knowledge and opinions on light athletics and light athletics training, which was of particular benefit to local coaches and their trainees. [*Stadion* 1925, No. 12, p. 9].

This important functionary also led several sports courses in Czechoslovakia.¹¹ Other YMCA sports pioneers were Captain Machotka, F. M. Marek, J. A. First, J. A. Pipal a L. W. Riess. They organised a huge number of courses for Czechoslovakian sports clubs to teach them new trends in light athletics and, more importantly, ball games [Bureš & Plichta 1931, pp. 383-385].

Indeed, the YMCA is to thank for the expansion of basketball, volleyball, softball and other games across Czechoslovakia. Furthermore, the technique of coaching in-game signals was brought to Czechoslovakia by this organisation. F. M. Marek became one of the greatest promoters of ball games in Czechoslovakia, having been introduced to these sports during study stays in Springfield and Chicago. Several other members of the Czechoslovakian YMCA also studied at these two schools [National Archives in Prague, collection: YMCA, No. of the cardboard: 4, Signature: 8].

However, for various sports to be developed and played, new facilities and sports grounds and gyms were required. The first two modern sports grounds were built in 1921 in Prague and Bratislava. Advice and material was provided by J. A. Pipal, who helped to set up sports grounds and athletics tracks for both youngsters and adults throughout the republic. Traces of his work in Czechoslovakia could still be seen 30 years later [National Archives in Prague, collection: YMCA, No. of the cardboard: 4, Signature: 8, YMCA v prvním desetiletí 1921-1931].

By 1927 the YMCA had begun building six more sports grounds and four gyms. By 1928 it had its own

sports centre in Prague, with a 25 metre indoor swimming pool, banked running track, gymnastics hall, saunas and a spa. In addition to its own hard work, the local YMCA owed such rapid expansion to the generous support from its colleagues in the USA and Canada. In 1921 it received 1 794 600 dollars from its American colleagues. The YMCA's other income came from members' contributions, donations and from the state as well [Kössl, Štumbauer & Waic 2004, p. 98].

The YMCA also established the tradition of permanent summer camps in Czechoslovakia. Its origins can be credited to J. First, who also participated in a long-term study stay in Springfield. The first YMCA camp – Sázava – was established in 1921. By the beginning of the Second World War, the Czechoslovakian YMCA had opened fifteen [Tlustý 2013, pp. 59-67].

The YMCA was founded in Poland again with extensive support from the United States. The YMCA entered the newly established Poland at the end of the First World War alongside their returning army [*Polska YMCA 1923-2003*, 2003, p. 2]. Arriving in Warsaw on 21st April 1919, they had accompanied General Józef Haller's troops back home at his request [Kalamacka 1992, p. 66].

The YMCA's physical education program became widespread in Poland as well. It organised basketball, volleyball (often doubles or triples) [*Polska YMCA ognisko Krakowskie...* 1936, p. 5], chess and table tennis tournaments, swimming races and hiking or skiing trips on innumerable occasions [*Polska YMCA ognisko Krakowskie...* 1937, p. 21]. The number of YMCA-run boathouses, sports grounds, skiing courses and summer and winter camps rose gradually and was by no means negligible [*Polska YMCA ognisko Krakowskie...* 1937, p. 5].

In the early 1920's, the YMCA had three main centres in Poland – in Warsaw, Lodz and Krakow. To start with, though, they only used rented premises [National Archives in Cracow. Collection: Związek Młodzieży Chrześcijańskiej Polska YMCA Ognisko Krakowskie, Signature: 228, O gmach dla krakowskiego gniazda Y.M.C.A.]. Another centre was later opened in Gdansk (1932). Smaller centres were also established, of course, and by 1925 there were fifteen of them [*YMCA (Časopis...* 1925, No. 1-2, p. 37-38].

During the interwar period, the Polish YMCA also built several of its own sports facilities, partly financed by the United States. These were buildings with gyms or an indoor swimming pool. In Poland, the YMCA divided various sports into separate sections, as they had done in Czechoslovakia. These were established and organised by "Klub Sportowy Polskiej YMCA" [*Stadion* 1930, No. 49, p. 8]. Ball games were particularly popular in the winter months and swimming in the summer, the YMCA using its indoor swimming pools for training.

During the interwar period, not only traditional ball games like basketball and volleyball became extremely popular among members. The populari-

¹⁰ He mainly taught on the Balkan peninsular and in Northern Europe.

¹¹ Courses in Nymburk and Olomouc are well-known examples.

ty of less traditional activities like boxing, wrestling and weightlifting also rose and the Warsaw YMCA achieved great success in these sports [*Stadjon* 1928, No. 21, p. 11].

After the First World War, the American YMCA saw rapid expansion across other countries around the world. But it needed more trained leaders to expand and improve its physical education program. To cater for that, the International Young Men's Christian Association School was opened in Geneva, Switzerland on 15th September 1927, in line with the American school model. The Geneva school was acknowledged as an affiliated school and promised financial support by the International YMCA College in Springfield, which it had close ties with.

Initially, the institution in Geneva did not have its own facilities for sports provision. However, they did benefit from the fact that everything they required had already been built in Geneva. So athletics, swimming, indoor sports and various gymnastics exercises could be taught there. Students could also use the nearby courts. Students were not only instructed by local experts but also by physical education experts from a number of other countries or fellow students with various sports specialisations. The school's teachers always made efforts to combine theory and practice. The various exercises were often anatomic, physiological, aesthetic or otherwise justified. The school's philosophy was to produce healthy, all-round graduates. The school rejected forced and unilateral training [*International Young Men's...* 1928, pp. 8-11].

The American YMCA was thus instrumental in developing physical education and sport in many countries around the world. However, its activity in a number of them was significantly paralysed by the 2nd World War, many local organisations restricting their activity before its outbreak. During the 2nd World War, the YMCA had to suspend its operations in many countries.

Conclusion

The YMCA was founded in London in 1844 but it by no means focused its initial activity on physical education and sport. The YMCA's physical education program became particularly widespread in the United States, where, in the course of time, there were almost ideal conditions for their activity. Besides building gyms and sports grounds, the association also established schools of physical education, which were attended by students from all over the world.

Due to such schools, the YMCA's physical education program began to expand rapidly. From the mid-19th century, local YMCA groups were established on almost every continent. Secretaries (mainly from the United States) were sent to various countries around the world to share their expertise and develop phys-

ical education and sport. Furthermore, the American YMCA supported these newly established groups, both in terms of material and funding. Its secretaries also introduced new sports and training methods.

A number of YMCA workers were transferred to new workplaces. This was partly thanks to the US army, who the association cooperated with, organising ways to entertain its soldiers. Reading rooms and kitchens were provided, for example, or they were offered the opportunity to do sport. So alongside the US army, YMCA workers travelled to many countries around the world, where they helped to establish the first local groups. By the end of the First World War, the American YMCA was already active in South and Central America, Asia and Europe. On these continents, it also organised big sporting events held for sportsmen from a variety of countries.

In their new workplaces, the various YMCA secretaries made efforts to innovate and modernise the current physical education system and began to introduce and promote their ball games and sports in local schools. They were of such a high standard that many of them were asked to take charge of national teams and prepare them for the top world competitions.

Today, the Young Men's Christian Association is still active in many countries around the world, although it is not always abbreviated YMCA. The meaning of the abbreviation has actually been translated into many languages and subsequently shortened again. Some examples of how the association can be found abbreviated in Europe are as follows: CVJM in Germany and Austria, KIE in Hungary, IKE in Romania, KFUM in Norway, Sweden and Denmark, CEVI in Switzerland, UCJG in France, XAN in Greece and XCM in the Ukraine. It is the largest volunteer youth organisation in the world, active in approximately 120 countries with a total of around 58 million members.

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Recreation Physical Activity in Popular TV Soap Operas

Piotr Rymarczyk

University of Physical Education, Warsaw

Summary

The paper presents results of the study concerning patterns of participation in recreational physical activity in popular soap operas. The analysed material are the season 2014/2015 episodes of three soaps: „M jak miłość”, „Na dobre i na złe” and „Barwy szczęścia”. The applied research methods are quantitative and qualitative content analysis. The author wanted to answer the following questions:

1/ Do the researched serials encourage overcoming cultural stereotypes constituting barriers to participation in physical culture, or do they act in the opposite way?

2/ Do their content reflects a late modern shift from the efficiency-oriented and the ascetic pattern of somatic culture to the hedonistic and the aesthetic one?

The conducted study proves that the analysed serials manifest a conservative attitude regarding the issue of sports participation of various social groups and categories. Males are shown in situations connected with recreational physical activity more often (94 cases) than females (74 cases) and the latter do not take up activities which are stereotypically recognized as masculine. Reproduction of conservative stereotypes takes also place regarding the age of physically active persons – in the analysed material there are only 4 cases of elderly persons’ sports activity (in comparison e.g. with 54 cases of young adults’ activity).

Taking into account the second research question, the conducted analysis confirms the supposition about the dominant role of the hedonistic and the aesthetic pattern of somatic culture, since they are referred to in almost two third (17 from 27) of justifications of recreational physical activity which appear in the analysed material.

Keywords: physical recreation in the mass media, sport for all in the mass media, leisure patterns in soap operas, sport in late modern society.

Introduction

Mass culture indubitably exerts a significant influence on social values in contemporary societies. Admittedly, development of new forms of popular culture connected with the Internet has partly undermined its hegemony, but it still remains a major factor shaping human behaviours.

It is also obvious that TV serial dramas called soap operas¹ constitute a category of messages playing a special role in shaping patterns of everyday life – including the patterns of leisure – and it is both because of their popularity and the fact that their storylines are focused on everyday existence. It brings us to a question: what influence is exerted by them on the sphere of physical activity undertaken by ordinary people in their everyday life – that is, the sphere of physical recreation (or – using another term – of sport for all)?

There are two basic processes which transform the sphere of physical recreation in the contemporary Western world. The first of them is the process of popularization of that form of activity, which starts to be more

and more often practised by social groups and categories which until recently had been significantly under-represented in that field – or virtually excluded from it (Krawczyk 2007). It refers, among others, to women, the elderly, the disabled. The second is the process of hedonisation/aesthetisation of sport for all. Zygmunt Bauman (1995), while describing the process of transformations of the cultural status of the human body, which – according to his opinion – took place with the shift from modern to postmodern society, characterised it as replacing the producer body, used as a means for working and fighting, with the consuming body oriented on gathering pleasures offered by consumer society.

It is certain that such a shift must have entailed a change concerning the axiological background of sport for all and the motives for participating in it. Piotr Rymarczyk (2011) in his text on postmodern physical culture emphasises that old forms of sport for all – connected with an ascetic aspiration for controlling bodily desires and overcoming bodily weaknesses, and often oriented on serving collective ideological aims – in postmodern² Western societies are replaced with new ones oriented on

¹ I define soap operas as serial dramas on television or radio characterized by open-ended narratives and multiple storylines focused on emotion and affairs of the heart (cf. Anger 1999).

² Or – using Anthony Giddens alternative term – late modern (Giddens 1991).

providing pleasant sensations or on bodily beauty. Using Zbigniew Krawczyk's categories, we have to do with replacing the ascetic and the efficiency-oriented pattern of somatic culture by the hedonistic and the aesthetic one (Krawczyk 1995). Rymarczyk points also out to contemporary commodification of sport for all, which causes that individuals more and more often perceive their participation as consumption of fashionable commodities (sports equipment, sportswear, holidays in fashionable destinations), which is to provide them with a socially attractive identity (op. cit.).

Thus, our analysis of soap operas should include the following questions: are the discussed processes reflected in their content? And – if yes – what kind of reflection is it? Do mass media messages belonging to the discussed category support those processes, or do they oppose them?

The author wanted first of all to answer two detailed questions:

1. Do the researched serials encourage their viewers for overcoming cultural stereotypes which constitute barriers to participation in physical culture, or do they act in the opposite way maintaining those stereotypes?
2. Do the researched serials confirm the thesis that late modern societies experience a transformation of the axiological context of physical activity consisting in a shift from the efficiency-oriented and the ascetic pattern of somatic culture to the hedonistic and the aesthetic one?

Short review of literature on the subject

Cultural transformations faced by Western societies in the second half of the 20th century made many sociologist and social philosophers formulate the thesis on subversive character of mass culture. Numerous authors proclaimed that commercial mass culture is a force which, in order to promote consumption, encourages its recipients for unrestrained fulfilment of hedonistic needs, what undermines traditional moral norms. That way sensual pleasures – which in the light of older cultural narrations were regarded as “low”, sinful or animal-like – according to the new mass culture narration are regarded as the proper aim of life.

Such views on mass culture were proclaimed both by its conservative critics – such as Daniel Bell ((1976) 1996) or Christopher Lasch ((1979) 1991) – as well as by its postmodern adherents, such as Lyotard ((1974) 1993).

What is worth noting is the fact that the discussed authors not only describe mass culture as a vehicle of cultural change, but they also maintained that it changes somatic culture by making it more and more hedonistic – what means that they perceive it as an executor of the transformation of social attitudes towards the body which was described in the aforementioned texts of Bauman and Rymarczyk.

On the other hand, there are authors who put into question the opinion about subversive potential of mass culture. Among them there are numerous feminist writers who proclaim that mass culture in contemporary Western society is a factor maintaining traditional patriarchal gender relations (Wolf 1992, Faludi 1991). Another analyst Stewart Hall (2002) points out to racist stereotypes reproduced by authors of mass media messages – even if unintentionally.

Soap operas, as a popular category of radio and TV programmes, were the subject of separate analyses. A British researcher Dorothy Hobson emphasizes their educational role. As she writes: “Soap operas producers are constantly approached by organizations of all kinds who ask them to include their own particular concerns or campaigns as parts of the storylines” (Hobson 2003, p. 141). Thus she maintains that soaps can be a force undermining social stereotypes, but they do that, according to her opinion, on a different basis than that which is pointed out by the authors who emphasise hedonistic aspects of mass culture.

However, the situation described by Hobson seems specific for the British TV market which was dominated by public broadcasting for a long time. On the other hand, Dorothy Anger, referring to realities of the American market – dominated by privately owned and commercial mass media – describes soap operas as reluctant to undertake a role of a social educator who deals with controversial issues and undermines established patterns of behaviour. It comes from the fact that their producers are afraid of offending or disinclining viewers. However, even Anger, while telling about screenwriters of soap operas, admits that, “in order to tell effective stories, stories that will catch their audience's interest, they must deal with matters that are part of that audience's realities” (Anger 1999, p. 107).

Ang and Stratton (1995) also point out to conservative character of social patterns promoted by soap operas. They describe soaps as involved in maintaining the cornerstone of the existing moral order constituted by the nuclear family³.

Material and methods

The analysed material was constituted by the season 2014/2015 episodes of three soap operas:

- „M jak miłość” – episodes 1073-1151;
- „Na dobre i na złe” – episodes 564-603;
- „Barwy szczęścia” – episodes 1150-1307.

The choice of the material resulted from the fact that in the previous year (that is, 2013) the researched seri-

³ My review of literature does not discuss scientific publications considering conservative or subversive character of mass media messages concerning sport. It comes from the fact that publications raising that issue – especially in the context of gender patterns – admittedly quite numerous (e.g. Whannel 2002, Humberstone 2003, Stevenson 2004) – focus their attention on the way top sport is presented in the media and they disregard sport for all.

als – according to a study by the National Council of Radiophony and Television – were, the most popular soap operas aired by Polish TV stations (*Rynek telewizyjny – analizy problemowe* 2014). All of them were aired on a public TV station TVP 2.

The study is based on quantitative and qualitative content analysis. The latter takes on a form of narrative analysis – that is, interpretation of texts consisting in treating them as stories with some kind of plot whose structure and qualities a researcher tries to characterize (Alaasutari 1995, pp. 71-73). As Anne-Laure Ryan remarks, speaking about a plot or a narration is legitimate when a given text creates a world filled with persons and objects of definite qualities and undergoing changes which are interpretable in terms of aims, motives and cause and effect relationships (Ryan 2004). In the case of the presented analysis the author was interested in aims and motives connected with participation in physical recreation.

Results of the study

Quantitative content analysis proves that cases of recreational physical activity of characters in the studied serials – such they are directly involved in and such which are mentioned by them as a subject of their plans or memories – appear in the analysed sample the following number of times:

Table 1. Number of cases of recreational physical activity according to sex⁴

	Women/girls	Men/boys
„M jak miłość”	27	36
„Na dobre i na złe”	9	14
„Barwy szczęścia”	38	44
„Total”	74	94

„M jak miłość” – 53 cases for 3547 minutes – once for 66.92 minutes.

„Na dobre i na złe” – 18 cases for 1913 minutes – once for 106.28 minutes.

„Barwy szczęścia” – 67 cases 3950 for minutes – once for 58.96 minutes.

A total of 138 cases of recreational movement activity can be found in the analysed soaps. Its forms which are the most often met are various forms of physical play (28 cases), jogging (13 cases), cycling (11 cases) and fitness exercises in a gym (7 cases).

Thus, sport for all is a relatively rare subject of plots of the researched programmes. Such a picture of their characters' leisure is probably to a considerable degree a consequence of storyline requirements, since the *spiritus movens* of plot development in soap operas are dialogues, which are easy to conduct while drinking coffee or walking, but which would be difficult if soap opera characters undertook any more intense physical activity.

Situations of recreational physical activity relatively the most seldom appear in „Na dobre i na złe”. It can result from the fact that the discussed soap opera is a medical serial whose plot takes place mainly in the area of a hospital, and hence there is little space for any form of leisure activity there.⁴

As we can see in the above table, males in the analysed serials are shown in situations connected with recreational physical activity more often than females. In fact – according to some polls – the difference between the levels of males' and females' physical activity in the analysed serials is higher than the difference between the levels of those activity in real life (*Aktywność fizyczna Polaków* 2013). It proves that the analysed messages have a clearly conservative⁵ attitude towards the discussed issues.

A conservative attitude towards gender patters is also visible when we consider what particular forms of recreational physical activity characters appearing in the studied serials are involved in, since persons who are involved in such types of activity which are stereotypically recognized as “masculine” – that is, which are connected with violence (like boxing) or muscular development (bodybuilding exercises) – are almost always men. Admittedly in one of episodes of „M jak miłość” (1142) we see a young woman trying to do push-ups, but her attempts are clumsy and a man watching them says that her push-ups are “girlie”.

Reproduction of conservative stereotypes concerning physical activity takes also place regarding the age of persons involved in it. What is the most visible when we look at the table above is the fact that the analysed material includes only four situations when the discussed kind of activity is participated by persons after their middle age (what means for that their number is over 13 times smaller than the number of cases of young adults' physical activity and over 7 times smaller than the number of situations of middle aged persons' activity).

⁴ The sum of cases of males' and females' acts of physical activity indicated in the table is higher than the aforementioned total number of cases of recreational physical activity because in some scenes we have to do with simultaneous presentation of males' and females' activity.

⁵ The term “conservative” in the presented text is used in its popular meaning – as synonymous with “reluctant to social/cultural change”. It does not include all elements of conservative ideology as it is described by political sciences.

Table 2. Number of cases of recreational physical activity according to age category⁶

	Children	Teenagers	Young adults	Middle-aged	Elderly
„M jak miłość”	25	6	18	14	0
„Na dobre i na złe”	3	3	12	4	0
„Barwy szczęścia”	25	12	24	11	4
„Total”	53	33	54	29	4

All those cases appear in “Barwy szczęścia”. We can watch there an elderly couple practising tai chi, another couple playing ball with a granddaughter, an old woman with Nordic walking poles and a white-haired man playing tennis. But in one of “Barwy szczęścia” episodes we can find also a scene reflecting popular fears referring to elderly people’s physical activity. A husband proposes her not so young wife to go to a gym. “Do you want me to break my bones” – she answers enraged.

The analysed serials maintain also discriminating stereotypes referring to physical activity of the disabled. On the one hand, they deserve praise for raising that subject at all. On the other, in the studied soaps there are only five cases of such activity – four of them in “Na dobre i na złe”, what is indubitably connected with the subject of that serial. It means that disabled persons appear in about 3.6% of the scenes presenting recreational physical activity. Taking into account the fact that they constitute over 12% of the Polish population (*Biuro Pełnomocnika Rządu ds. Osób Niepełnosprawnych Dane demograficzne*, 2016), we have to do with their clear underrepresentation.

Another question which the study tries to solve is whether the studied serials reflect transformations regarding the axiological background of somatic culture reportedly taking place in contemporary Western societies. In order to achieve that aim the content of the analysed sample has been analysed regarding utterances which are justifications of undertaken or prescribed recreational physical activity. There have been found 27 of them.

The most numerous category (12 cases) was constituted by utterances referring to justifications which can be placed at the threshold of hedonistic and health-oriented values. It refers to statements which justified physical activity by pointing out to wellbeing and relaxation it is going to provide. “Running somehow makes me calm” – says a young woman jogging in a forest (“M jak miłość” – episode 1084). “Nothing purifies the mind better than physical effort” – says another woman while practising Nordic walking (“Barwy szczęścia” – episode 1215). Exercises in a gym are described as “Probably the best way of getting rid of toxins from your head and from your body” (“Barwy szczęścia” – episode 1269) “Endorphins” play a role of some kind of a keyword in that context. “I am increasing production of endor-

phins” – says a young doctor jogging in a park (“Na dobre i na złe” – episode 586).

The category of utterances which was the second regarding its numerical amount (4 cases) are justifications which can be called social ones. They consist in presenting participation in sport for all as a means of achieving social popularity, arising other persons’ jealousy, avoiding social stigmatization or realizing a need for being with others. In 3 of 4 cases of referring to such a justification the key role is played by social prestige which is supposed to be achieved through sports participation. In one of episodes of “Barwy szczęścia” (1154) son asks his father for money for participation in school tennis tournament – he admits that he does not like tennis but he says “I don’t want to be worse than others again”.

There are 3 cases of justifications of aesthetic character in the analysed sample. Recreational physical activity is treated there as a means of attaining a slim bodily form in the case of women or a muscular form in the case of a man who explains going to a gym in the following way: “Summer is coming. You need to work out a bit” (“Barwy szczęścia”- episode 1232).

In the researched sample we find 2 cases of referring to purely health-oriented values (what means that the idea of health is not connected there with a hedonistic element of wellbeing, but it is rather associated with faultless functioning of the organism. “We all do it for health” – says a young woman running marathons (“Na dobre i na złe” – episode 583).

In 2 other cases we have to do with justifications referring to purely hedonistic values. In one case it is a possibility of getting in contact with nature, in the other it is pleasure connected with adventure – in one of episodes of “M jak miłość” (1092) a young man encourages his girlfriend for rock climbing and says: “Kaśka – you only live once. When are we going to do it? When we are married and with children?”

There are 2 cases of justifications referring to the efficiency-oriented pattern of somatic culture, which – as it has been mentioned above – consists in treating the body as a means of working or fighting. In “M jak miłość” (episode 1142) a policeman says that he should start going to a gym because he is going to have tests in his workplace. In some earlier episode (1107) a baby sitter says to the aforementioned policeman’s son: “I will show you what you can do when somebody attacks you”. What happens next has more to do with play than with real training, but practical, efficiency-oriented character of the quoted justification is indubitable.

⁶ The sum of cases of physical activity of persons belonging to particular age categories indicated in the table is higher than the aforementioned total number of cases of recreational physical activity because in some scenes we have to do with simultaneous presentation of physical activity of people of different age.

There is one case of justification referring to the agonistic pattern of somatic culture (connected with sport competition) – a boy wants to improve his fitness because his football coach has removed him from the first team squad (“Barwy szczęścia” – episode 1189). We find also one justification which cannot be unambiguously classified and which refers to purely health-oriented or to mixed health-oriented/hedonistic values – a woman refuses an offer for a lift and says that she prefers to come back home by bike. She says: “it will probably serve me well if I pedal a bit” (“Na dobre i na złe” – episode 589).

Conclusions and discussion

The conducted study proves that the analysed serials manifest a conservative attitude regarding the issue of participation of various social groups and categories in physical culture. In spite of the fact that we have to do with serials aired by a public TV station TVP2, they fit much more characteristics presented by Anger than that expounded by Hobson. Such a result confirms an opinion proclaimed by a media sociologist Beata Łaciak (2013), who came to a conclusion that contemporary Polish soap operas promote conservative attitudes regardless from the fact whether they are broadcasted by public or private TV.

One of interpretations of that phenomenon is connected with the fact that when the study was conducted the Polish public TV in practical terms was more oriented on commercial aims than on realization of any social mission, so it is no surprise that it was reluctant for repulsing potential clients by undermining cultural stereotypes. We should, however, remember that participation in physical culture does not belong to the category of “hot” issues – such as abortion, homosexuality or immigration – which are the subject of public debates and, because of that, the way of presenting them is indubitably thought over and discussed by screenwriters and producers of soaps. Hence, in the case of patterns of participation in physical recreation which are presented by the analysed soaps we have rather to do with unintentional reproduction of stereotypical assumptions than with their intentional maintenance. Nevertheless, such a reproduction – even if unthinking – can contribute to slowing down the process of achieving more similar levels of particular social categories’ sports participation.

Conservatism of the studied TV dramas is not, however, unambiguous. Taking into account the second research question – concerning the axiological context of justifications of recreational physical activity which appear in the analysed material – the conducted analysis confirms a supposition that the dominant role among them is played by those which refer to hedonistic and aesthetic values connected with the body, hence values of those kinds are referred to in almost two third (17 from 27) of justifications which appear there. Thus, the content of the analysed soaps reflects the aforementioned postmodern shift in sport for all consisting in re-

placing the ascetic and the efficiency-oriented pattern of somatic culture by the hedonistic and the aesthetic one.

That discrepancy in the analysed material probably results from the fact that hedonistic lifestyles constitute the central element of the ideology promoted by contemporary commercial mass culture and, hence, they are an inseparable component of its messages.

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Strategy of managing a project of organising a mass sports event

Kazimierz Witkowski, Jerzy Kosa, Paweł Piepiora

University School of Physical Education, Wrocław

Summary

Background and aim: Organisation of mass sports events is one of the functions of contemporary physical culture and, at the same time, a dynamically developing service, provided by both public and private institutions. Organising such an event requires a professional project-based approach, i.e. the conceptual preparation of activities related to its preparation, conduct and summing up. The aim of this study is to present project activities related to the organisation of a mass sports event, such as a marathon race, using the example of the 6th 'Wrocław Marathon'.
Material and methods: The subject matter of this study is an analysis of the system of project activities related to the organisation of mass sports events. Use was made for this purpose of the modern scientific discipline of project management and the following methods were applied: literature analysis, source documentation analysis and studies of 6 'Wrocław Marathon' cases.

Results: The following organisational phases of the 'Wrocław Marathon' were analysed in detail: event planning and preparation; implementation; controlling.

Conclusions: Project management is a deliberate measure in the organisation of a mass event, such as the 'Wrocław Marathon' – development of a reference model of such an event.

Keywords: sports management, organisation structure, management models, benchmarking

1. Introduction

Organising a large sports event requires a project-based approach and cannot be done in a spontaneous and haphazard manner. Sports organisations preparing for an event should realise that they operate within a free-market environment; therefore, everything that they engage in should be preceded by careful preparatory work. Preparing and conducting a sports event is an undertaking that requires efficient organisation and the process of organising a sports undertaking in which a particular objective is to be achieved necessitates a proper arrangement and allocation of work for members of the organisation. To this aim, detailed plans are necessary. Every sports event is different and practically unrepeatable, both in the preparation and conduct phase, requiring the cooperation and joint action of many entities.

A sports event is a specific project. The organisers must have economic knowledge in the field of sport marketing, if they wish to pursue it successfully and achieve the expected benefits. They should also be aware of its specific nature. The actual product of a sports event is unique: variable, subjective in reception, short-lived, unpredictable and, at the same time, manufactured and consumed [1].

The essential factors impacting the quality of a sports spectacle include: the choice of time and location, advertising, all public relations activities, sponsoring, a prop-

er financial policy and legal safeguarding mechanisms. Therefore, the organisational structure of a sports event should include, among other things: administration, communication, special services (creative, ceremonies), broadcasts, information and publications, special events, services (accommodation, meals), management (budget, purchases, finance), special operations (security, medical services), special projects and a report [2].

Organisers of a mass event must make efficient use of marketing tools. Marketing is a concept closely related to the market, which is a place where a continuous exchange of goods and services into money or into goods and services takes place. The goals are to: place relevant products or services where they are demanded, supply relevant products or services to a customer that needs them and is willing to pay for them, satisfy customer needs, for which customers pay with their money or an equivalent of goods and services, and to engage in money-earning activities [3]. The theory of sport marketing has developed the concept of the marketing space of a sports organisation, which is determined by the following areas:

- ideas and values of sport (promoting health and a healthy lifestyle, consistent with the biological and psychophysical development of an individual, creating social bonds, symbiotic relationships between organisational teams, and communities),
- activity (of individuals and organisations in an organisational effort, participation in sports events),

- communication of the content, forms, methods and ways specific to a sports spectacle (ideas are given concrete form through procedures and processes, while operational systems – through functions, methods and organisational forms),
- human, material, financial, etc., resources.

It is of fundamental importance, in organising a mass event, to ensure good organisation of the logistic system. Logistics is a sphere of economic activity concerned with, primarily, material and information processes of the flow of products within a company and between economic entities. It is an area of knowledge that investigates phenomena and processes related to production, transport, warehousing, stock management and other activities and provides economic practice with appropriate methods and ways of controlling those processes. Logistics is, first of all, the process of managing an entire “chain” of supply [4].

Sport and recreation are an area of economic activities that are particularly concerned with the notion of “quality”. An organisation that provides that type of services must take account of the fact that the emotional aspect of expectations is significantly marked and it is that aspect that determines the quality [5]. In order to effectively launch a company strategy and be able to control its implementation, an organisation must build a system that allows for full monitoring of the relationships between the effectiveness of company processes and an operationalised strategy, i.e. long-term goals. A project-based approach to the implementation of changes in building an organisation’s strategy involves the following scenarios:

- a defined mission of the organisation determines the directions of activity and strategic goals that it wishes to achieve in the short- and long-term perspective,
- the strategic goals determine the areas and resources of the organisation on which an emphasis should be placed,
- everything must be aimed towards the improvement of effectiveness,
- reconstruction of processes and, thus, value enhancement,
- the strategy of changes in the functioning of the organisation should be evaluated and monitored from the perspective of the customer, employee, owner, club management and sports and recreation organisation [6].

A mass sports event is a project that may be of great significance to the region’s promotion; therefore local authorities are involved in its organisation. Promoting sports events is also aimed at building a competitive advantage over other regions – not only those in the same country. A sponsorship project can be one of the elements of building a competitive advantage for the region’s cities and towns, as long as it has a unique character.

In order to create a successful mass sports event, one needs proper personnel. Therefore, a particular emphasis must be placed in the field of sports organisations on increasing the number of persons having for-

mal knowledge and skills that are necessary to prepare and manage sport-related projects. It is also important to mobilise volunteers. Thus, projects aimed at popularising volunteering should be pursued [7, 8]. Organising a mass sports event requires the completion of specific tasks that can be divided into: tasks proper (sports regulations, rules of participation, all matters related to refereeing, inspection of sports facilities and equipment, conduct of competitions, announcement of the results), welfare tasks (accommodation, meals, etc.), preparation of sports facilities (routes, sports equipment), audience organisation, security [9].

The aim of this paper is to demonstrate project activities related to the organisation of a mass sports event, such as a marathon race, using the example of the 6th ‘Wrocław Marathon’. Use was made for this purpose of the modern scientific discipline of project management, as a project-based approach enables one to identify all the necessary activities and processes that need to be planned, organised and controlled. It is a concept and tool that allows for more effective and safer organisation of long-distance races. It makes it easier for organisers to monitor the course of the activities and processes and improves the flow of information and documentation.

2. Material and methods

The principal aim of this paper is to describe and explain the function of a project-based approach to the organisation of mass sports events. The subject matter of this study is an analysis of the system of carrying out projects related to the organisation of mass sports events.

The object of this study was the organisation of marathon races, using the example of the ‘Wrocław Marathon’ in 2010-2015. The research process included the identification and analysis of relevant activities and processes [10-27]. The following research methods were used:

- analysis of source documentation from the organisation of ‘Wrocław Marathon’ races in the years: 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014 and 2015,
- description of the organisation of the races under analysis,
- analysis of surveys completed with race participants,
- use and evaluation of IT tools.

The outcome of the study will be the demonstration of the degree to which project management is a deliberate measure in the organisation of a mass event, such as the ‘Wrocław Marathon’, and the development of a reference model of such an event.

3. Results

A project of the size of the ‘Wrocław Marathon’, which also includes the Polish Teachers’ Marathon Championships and the Polish Solidarity Marathon Championships, requires a detailed planning of work allocation to individ-

ual persons. To this aim, the Organisational Committee establishes the Organisational Bureau of the event, composed of the general management, the management of individual teams and their members. Each of them has his or her own tasks, which are scheduled to be completed within specific times. A review of the organisational structure makes one aware of the scope of tasks and activities that are faced by the organisers.

Table 1. Marathon management, source: own research

Marathon Director
Sport, Marketing and Advertising Director
Technical and Security Director
Head of the Accompanying Events and Guest Services Team
Marathon Chief Accountant
Head of the Security and Crisis Management Team
Head of the Marathon Director's Office
Secretary of the Marathon Organisational Bureau

Table 2. Teams reporting to the Marathon Technical and Security Management, source: own research

Security and Crisis Management Operational Team
Route Technical Safety Control Team
Route Safety Team
Event Area Safety Team
Transport Services Team
Route Marking Team
Aid Stations Provisioning Team
Route and Area Medical and Sanitary Safety Team
Event Area Technical Services Team
Parking Services Team
Tidiness Maintenance Team
Catering services
Prize Payment Team
Volunteers Team
Information for Contestants Team
Accommodation Team
Storerooms and Deposits Team
Wrocław TV 'Everybody Races in Wrocław' Programme Team
Family Race Organisation Team
On-Line Broadcasting Team

The 'Wrocław Marathon' sports undertaking is carried out in the following stages:

1. Decision to organise the sports event.
2. Appointment of the organisation manager.

- Cost estimate preparation and approval.
 - Obtaining resources.
3. Organisational structure.
 - Ensuring the facility.
 - Drawing up of operational plans.
 4. Human resources management.
 - Logistics.
 - Marketing.
 - Implementation control.
 - Financial control.
 - Technologies (measuring devices, information system, data compilation).
 5. Preparation status control.
 6. Conduct of event.
 - Quality control.
 7. Post-event control.
 - Degree of the achievement of goals.
 - Financial effectiveness.
 - Managerial efficiency.

The structure of the 'Wrocław Marathon' event and its monitoring are based on the project activities model referred to as Mass Sports Event Organisation (*Organizacja Masowych Imprez Sportowych – OMIS*), which consists of three mutually connected elements [28].

A. Entry – planning phase

On the basis of materials collected by the 'Wrocław Marathon' organisers, one may trace event organisation phases in practice. The first one – planning and preparation – includes activities engaged in by the organisers, beginning from the decision to organise a marathon and half-marathon to the start of the race. It is long and requires the preparation of detailed operational plans, numerous activities, efficient logistics, marketing and human resources management. The tasks are scheduled over a period of time and begin to be performed several months prior to the event. The Organisational Committee commenced its work on the marathon, half-marathon and accompanying events from the following steps:

- 1) Establishment of the Organisational Bureau, allocation of tasks by the Marathon Director
- 2) Preparation of the marathon programme and a draft cost estimate
- 3) Running of the Organisational Bureau
- 4) Furnishing invitations for volunteers to schools, sports clubs and coaches, in order to attract groups of volunteers
- 5) Preparation of programmes popularising running ('Everybody Runs in Wrocław', 'And You Can Become a Marathon Runner', 'Running Student', 'Marathon Academy') and a web portal for runners and their implementation
- 6) Development of graphic marks and their application for the Organisational Committee of the 'Wrocław Marathon', 'Wrocław Half-Marathon', accompanying events and events that popularise running
- 7) Development of a modern website
- 8) Preparation of a list of the 'Wrocław Marathon' and

'Wrocław Half-Marathon' information materials for: the Management of the Sports Ceremonies Team of the Organisational Bureau and the announcers, the Management and the Organisational Bureau, Police officers, the Town Watch, security guards, medical safety teams, volunteers, race participants, guests invited and journalists

- 9) Running of the 'Wrocław Marathon' magazine
- 10) Preparation of a marketing and promotional programme
- 11) Preparation of the offer, conduct of negotiations, cooperation and conclusion of agreements with sponsors, partners, co-organisers and media patrons
- 12) Preparation of documents
- 13) Promotion of Wrocław running events during marathons in Poland
- 14) Running of the Press Office
- 15) Advertising placement designs
- 16) Obtaining a consent from the Mayor of Wrocław to the organisation of a mass event and to a specific use of public roads
- 17) Obtaining a consent from the Municipal Transport Company to the placement of information on traffic impediments at stops and a Marathon advertisement on tramways and buses
- 18) Obtaining a consent from the Department of Transport Management for free-of-charge public transport passes for the runners
- 19) Selection, by means of a tendering procedure, of contractors for external services: designs of lists, publications, invitations, personal passes, prints, IDs, accommodation vouchers, etc.; route design and safety solutions; medical and sanitary safety solutions; purchase of medals, cups and shirts; meals for contestants and guests; artists' performances; advertisements, banners, ad walls, flags; time measurement and document preparation; event publicity; provision of mobile phones to the Organisational Committee and rental of CB radios; security for the event and for the facilities – a tendering procedure; transport services; rental of rooms and sites necessary for event organisation; stationery, consumable materials for printers and photocopying machines; supply of household chemicals and hygiene agents; supply of advertising materials
- 20) Preparation of all organisational documents, route descriptions and race route maps, race regulations, lists of contestants invited, elites, guests as well as invitations and the programme, the programme of accompanying events, a list of prizes and gifts, regulations concerning prize drawing, the prize award ceremony
- 21) Event insurance
- 22) Route setting and measurements, publication of AIMS, IAAF and PZLA (*Polish Track and Field Association*) attestations on the website
- 23) Tour of the marathon route by the Route Safety Manager's Technical Committee, with the participation of representatives of the Police, the Town Watch, the Municipal Transport Company, the designer and the safety provider, verifying the design solutions adopted in relation to the current traffic organisation on Wrocław roads, confirming the effectiveness of the adopted project solutions regarding the safety of the contestants and road traffic participants, drawing up of a memorandum of understanding and a report on route tour
- 24) Positioning and installation, at the places provided for in the project, of B-36 no parking road signs together with T-24 boards and a note on how long they are to remain in force, installation of notice boards on traffic impediments and planned detours at the places provided for in the project on the Big Isle
- 25) Bringing and placement of all banners, advertisements, decorations and notice boards in the Olympic Stadium and along the marathon route
- 26) Bringing and storage, in the Olympic Stadium, of start line, finish line and route equipment
- 27) Bringing and storage of all materials for start packages
- 28) Packaging of start packages
- 29) Contestant verification at the Marathon Bureau
- 30) Opening of the SPORT EKSPLO fair
- 31) Preparation of the Olympic Stadium for Marathon organisation
- 32) Ongoing services of an electric maintenance technician and execution of necessary electric connections
- 33) Setting up of a roofed stage, flag masts and camera platforms on a pergola as well as a guest stand
- 34) Provision of additional security for the Olympic Stadium by a security firm
- 35) Ongoing services of a water and sewage system maintenance technician and execution of necessary water and sewage system connections
- 36) Bringing and placement, in the Olympic Stadium, of fences, toilets and washbasins for the sanitary point, as provided for in the project
- 37) Bringing and setting up of a tent with a floor for the purpose of arranging a café for VIPs
- 38) Execution of electric connections for the stage, start line, finish line and café
- 39) Meeting of all the organisers
- 40) Closing off of the marathon route in accordance with the decision on a specific use of roads
- 41) Artists' performances on the stage for event participants
- 42) Reception of VIPs, guests and journalists at the VIP café next to the finish line
- 43) Direct supervision over the marathon start line, finish line and stage
- 44) Medical services for the marathon provided by masseurs – 50 volunteers from the Academy of Physical Education in Wrocław, at the start line, finish line and route of the race
- 45) Medical services for the marathon provided by the Emergency Medical Service in Wrocław (6 ambulances), at the start line, route and finish line

- 46) Placement of a convoy of cars 50 meters in front of the contestants at the start, in an Olympic Stadium alley in the direction of Różyckiego Street in the following order: filtering pilot-Police radio car, marathon pilot, second pilot with a clock on the roof, principal referee
 - 47) Lining up of the contestants at the start of the marathon in the western alley in the direction of I.J. Paderewskiego Alley: at the start line – the disabled contestants on wheelchairs, 10 meters behind the start line – the marathon elite with start numbers from 1 to 100, with the other contestants lined up in designated time zones
 - 48) VIPs taking their seats on the stand next to the start line
 - 49) Placement of a convoy of cars behind all the contestants lined up for the start, including: an 'end of marathon' minibus, ambulances
 - 50) Start of an online broadcast of the start and, then, the race itself
 - 51) Provision of the Marathon Director's dispatch to the City Mayor on the readiness of the contestants, referees and organisers for the marathon start
 - 52) Solemn opening of the event by the Mayor of Wrocław.
- 3) Collection of fences and toilets from the route
 - 4) Tidying of the route and rubbish removal
 - 5) Dismantling of all barriers and road signs after the last contestant has finished his or her run
 - 6) Loading and carrying of all barriers and road signs to storerooms
 - 7) Social gathering of the organisers and guests at the VIP café next to the finish line
 - 8) Guarding of the café by security guards
 - 9) Dismantling of banners, advertisements and decorations
 - 10) Dismantling of the Olympic Stadium sound system
 - 11) Dismantling of own equipment, its removal to a storeroom
 - 12) Tidying of the Olympic Stadium and Academy of Physical Education facilities – used as part of event organisation
 - 13) Dismantling and removal of the stage, platforms, stand and other equipment
 - 14) Loading and return of rented banners and advertisements of sponsors, co-organisers and media patrons
 - 15) Loading and return of other rented equipment
 - 16) Return of the cars serving the marathon to the sponsor's hall
 - 17) E-mailing of a survey to the event participants, with the aim of obtaining opinions on its organisation
 - 18) Meeting of the 'Wrocław Marathon' management, event evaluation, discussion, drawing of conclusions.

B. Proceeding – implementation phase

This phase involves specific event implementation, from the start to the finish of the marathon by its participants.

- 1) Marathon start from the Olympic Stadium in the direction of I.J. Paderewskiego Alley.
- 2) Participants' run along the designated route – Wrocław streets, music band performances, monitoring of the race along the entire length of the route (safety, communication with institutions securing the race, inspecting the technical condition of all the composite elements of the race route along Wrocław streets)
- 3) 'Olympic Mile' Family Race – an accompanying event
- 4) Arrival of 'Wrocław Marathon' participants at the finish line: VIPs, Olympic Game participants and guests awarding medals at the finish line to runners finishing the race, giving out meals and refreshing drinks to contestants, physical therapy treatment for participants, drawing of a car and 20 notebooks among all of the marathon participants, collection of deposits by contestants upon presentation of the start number.

C. Exit – controlling phase

This phase includes logistic activities related to the end of the event.

- 1) Dismantling and collection of equipment from the route and its storage in the Olympic Stadium
- 2) Dismantling and collection of route markings and their storage in the Olympic Stadium

4. Discussion

Organisation improvement should be aimed at obtaining and extending a competitive advantage. One of the management models that is meant to accomplish that purpose is benchmarking. The 'Wrocław Marathon' organisers try, albeit to a still limited extent, to apply that methodology, e.g. by systematically monitoring the achievements of Poland's biggest marathons, observing competitions conducted by others and attempting to apply some of the solutions used. They follow the data that appear on the Internet and compare the results, e.g. those relating to the dynamics of the growth of the number of contestants, which reflects the popularity of the race.

The phases presented above appear in the organisation of big sports events, such as the 'Wrocław Marathon'. The project is carried out by a group of persons, divided into teams. Each of them attends to the work assigned to him or her. Organising a marathon requires a proper project manager, the person responsible for task planning and allocation – the Marathon Director. It is him or her who presents a framework plan of actions, coordinates them, determines work stages and strives to ensure that the project is completed according to the budget planned. He or she is also a mediator. The position of project manager requires that, in addition to classic competencies, such as management skills across

typical functional areas, i.e.: strategy determination and decision making, planning, organising, motivating and rewarding as well as controlling, he or she should also exhibit leadership competencies, communication skills, appropriate personality traits and, most of all, expertise.

A project manager, in this case – the Marathon Director, is also a coach. During that process individuals focus on skills that enable them to effectively achieve the results that are of great personal importance to them. An individual selects the aspect on which the cooperation is concentrated, while the coach listens, shares his or her observations, asks questions and presents ideas and principles that may help generate possibilities and identify actions.

After each 'Wrocław Marathon' event, the organisers performed an internal evaluation of it, pointing to its strengths and weaknesses. This means that the organisers keep on monitoring the event and react to the shortcomings revealed. They also take due note of any modern requirements.

The structure of the 'Wrocław Marathon' event, its implementation and monitoring are based on the project activities model referred to as Mass Sports Event Organisation (*Organizacja Masowych Imprez Sportowych – OMIS*), which consists of three mutually connected elements: Planning – Organising – Controlling. All of the organisational phases required a detailed plan and, subsequently, the allocation of tasks to individual teams and, within those teams, to specific persons. All the processes were meticulously scheduled, creating a system of feedbacks between individual processes. The organisers made efficient use of tools offered by marketing and logistics and of basic IT programs, typical for project management tasks.

Proper preparation for crisis management is an important element of organising a mass event. It requires the prediction of potential threats, their causes, effects and, most importantly, a way of avoiding them altogether or mitigating their consequences. The 'Wrocław Marathon' organisers, relying primarily on their own experience and drawing conclusions from other events of this type, specified the types of threats, organised them into a hierarchy and indicated measures that could prevent them. From the perspective of the current international (global) situation, a threat that, until recently, has been purely hypothetical in Poland – a terrorist attack – is becoming real and will require the employment of special measures by the relevant services and marathon organisers. It is also important to take account of the essential role of information in crisis management and to train relevant persons accordingly.

Based on the surveys completed among 'Wrocław Marathon' contestants, one may create a profile of such a contestant. For 60.51% of those surveyed, a significant element is the atmosphere during the marathon; for 34.87% of the respondents, it is important to be able to have a good time in the company of persons with similar interests. More than half of those surveyed stated that running a marathon was the culmination of a long peri-

od of leading a healthy lifestyle. Tourist attractions are not particularly important for the average Polish marathon runner and Wrocław race participant; what matters is the race, with sightseeing providing an extra value. Long-distance races are preferred mostly by men, who accounted for 84% of the 2015 PKO Wrocław Marathon contestants. The participants of the last 'Wrocław Marathon' were, in their majority, no newcomers, having already completed several races of this type. They gave as the most important sport-related reason for their participation – a wish to complete another marathon and an intention to improve their personal best result. For them, the competitive aspect – winning a prize for the victory or a place in the general classification or an age category – is not an important motive. Almost 60% would want to win a prize for participation – in the draw among the participants.

The contestants evaluated the race organisation. Very good marks were given to the operation of the race bureau (71.54%), competition atmosphere (74.62%), race start (63.33%), race route (68.21%), aid stations along the route (76.67%) and race finish line (64.6%). A similar number of participants regarded the start package as very good (49.74%) or standard (47.95%). The organisation of 3 activities was regarded as standard: the Pasta Party event (60.51%), cheering along the route (51.79%) and post-race recovery (63.31%). Organisation was only rarely evaluated as bad. The highest percentage of negative marks was received by the Pasta Party organisation (14.62%) and post-race recovery (8.97%).

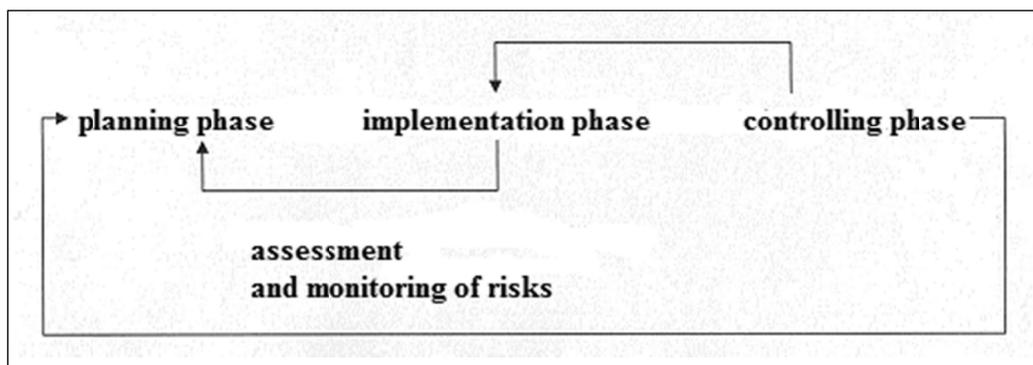
The above data demonstrate that, out of the 10 event organisation elements evaluated, 6 received a very good mark from more than 60% of the runners and 3 were evaluated as standard. The bad organisation mark appeared relatively rarely. Its presence does, however, give an idea of which elements are the weakest and which of them need to be improved.

1. Conclusions

1) The mass sports event project model resulting from this study is as follows:

As may be seen, a mass sports event project includes the following phases: planning, implementation and end. Through feedback, one must, on the one hand, continuously monitor elements of risk in the implementation phase (first feedback loop) and, following the end phase, perform an evaluation, with a view to introducing changes in the next planning phase.

2) A sports event, such as a marathon, has all the features of a project; therefore a project management methodology may be applied to its implementation, with its PRINCE2 variety, which the 'Wrocław Marathon' organisers try to use, being particularly useful here [29]. The project discussed has a clearly marked beginning and end and a defined timeframe and is managed in such a way as to ensure that its end result is full completion and satisfaction – for the con-



Drawing 1. Reference model of mass sports event organisation project, source: own research.

- testants, spectators and organisers. The project participants are familiar with its goal, are capable of implementing it and are assigned specific tasks for which they bear responsibility. There are procedures and operational mechanisms in place that are needed to carry it out. Models of inter-team communication and of documentation have also been developed.
- 3) An analysis of the organisation of successive 'Wrocław Marathons' reveals relevant processes and operational techniques that are used to implement a mass event. We see here an efficient employment of the basic model of organising that sports event, developed as a result of the organisers' experience. They also enrich their work with new methods and tools.
 - 4) The positive sides of organising the 'Wrocław Marathon' are: a stable source of finance, a prestigious general sponsor, Internet advertising, the organisers' extensive experience in implementing this type of spectacle, efficient execution of all of its phases, the team's enthusiasm and readiness to take on new challenges and the atmosphere during the race.
 - 5) The following aspects need to be refined: event popularisation by national media, acquisition of an even greater number of significant media patrons, seeking sponsors (they are still few), specialised preparation of a plan with relevant forces in order to avoid a terrorist attack, which is a real threat in today's Europe, making the start package more attractive, addition of other accompanying events and their proper advertising, preparation of a more effective advertising campaign for the race, targeted at foreign runners, improvement of the Pasta Party organisation and making that event more attractive, making use of IT technologies that are more up-to-date than a Grantt chart and participation of relevant project participants in professional training on PRINCE 2, Benchmarking and Coaching.

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