



Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego im. Bronisława Czecha w Krakowie
University of Physical Education in Kraków, Poland

Studies in Sport Humanities

16

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University of Physical Education in Kraków, Poland

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Od redakcji

From the Editor



Studies in Sport Humanities (dawniej *Studia Humanistyczne*) to czasopismo naukowe, w którym publikowane są oryginalne prace dotyczące kultury fizycznej w ujęciu multidyscyplinarnym (m.in. z perspektywy historii, pedagogiki, socjologii, filozofii, psychologii, antropologii kulturowej, olimpizmu, teorii wy-

chowania fizycznego, teorii rekreacji i turystyki, nauk o zarządzaniu), a także: polemiki, recenzje książek, sprawozdania z konferencji i innych ważnych dla środowiska naukowego wydarzeń. Szczegółowe zasady dotyczące przygotowania tekstu, procedury recenzowania oraz innych wymogów redakcyjnych zawarte zostały w regulaminie publikowania.

W roku 2013 zmienił się tytuł czasopisma i częstotliwość edycji (teraz dwa razy w roku). Mamy nadzieję, że angielska nazwa, a także sukcesywne zwiększanie liczby tekstów publikowanych w tym języku przyczynią się do poszerzenia kręgu naszych autorów, recenzentów i czytelników. Liczymy również na popularyzację dorobku polskiej myśli naukowej w obiegu międzynarodowym i publikacje na naszych łamach najciekawszych opracowań autorów zagranicznych.

Wydawcą jest Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego im. B. Czecha w Krakowie. Czasopismo znajduje się na liście B czasopism naukowych Ministerstwa Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego, indeksowane jest też w bazie Index Copernicus International. Wersją pierwotną jest papierowa, wersja elektroniczna dostępna jest na stronie internetowej redakcji www.sporthishumanities.pl.

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, olympism, physical education theory, recreation and tourism theory, and management sciences). The journal includes book reviews, polemics, conference proceedings, and reports from other important scientific events. Detailed guidance for preparing text, procedures for reviews, and other editorial requirements are located in the publishing regulations.

The title of the magazine and frequency of edition (twice a year) has been changed in 2013 year. We hope that the English title and subsequent increase of number of articles published in that language will result with enlargement of the authors, reviewers and readers' circle. We count too on popularisation of Polish science achievements within the international environment and publications of the most interesting articles of foreign authors in our periodic.

The journal is published by the University of Physical Education in Kraków. 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. The original version is the hardcopy version, while the electronic version can be found on the editorial board's website: www.sporthishumanities.pl.

Editor-in-Chief

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

Associate Professor Halina Zdebska-Biziewska, Ph.D.

Dual Career Pathways: Psychological and Environmental Determinants of Professional Athletes' Development

Małgorzata Siekańska, Jan Blecharz

Psychology Department
Faculty of Physical Education and Sport
University of Physical Education in Kraków, Poland

Summary

The purpose of the study was: (a) to determine the process of dual career development (e.g., stages of development, turning points) and its relationship with the type of dual career pathway; (b) to investigate the relationships between some psychological determinants and the type of dual career pathway; (c) to investigate the relationships between environmental determinants and the type of dual career pathway; (d) to examine the relationships between the type of dual career development and the quality of life.

Data was collected using a semi-structured interview, The General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES), The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). Athletes ($N = 95$) were divided into three subgroups representing three types of dual career pathways: 1) Balanced and harmonious development – no conflict between sport and education perceived ($N = 40$); 2) Unbalanced development – orientation to sport development (at the cost of educational development) ($N = 34$); 3) Unbalanced development – orientation to educational development (at the cost of sport development) ($N = 21$).

The ANOVA analysis and χ^2 test yielded 19 statistically significant differences between the groups of dual career pathways as regards: athletes' family situation, the process of their development, self-efficacy, and the quality of life.

Keywords: professional athlete, dual career, athletes development

Introduction

To promote the dialogue between sport and education pathways in order to establish 'dual career' pathways for student-athletes the European Parliament embraced various policy actions [European Commission 2007, 2011]. However, there is still a need to:

- understand better the nuances of students-athletes optimal development,
- explore if the type of pathway is connected with specific personality characteristics,
- examine how athletes who represent different pathways of dual career development assess their quality of life,
- create a favourable environment for them.

Research on sport expertise reveals that professional athletes' development is a long-drawn-out process based on focused, conscious and systematic work [Ericsson et al. 1999]. One can divide it into several stages that are

typified by a variety of challenges and threats [Durand-Bush & Salmela 2001; Côté, Baker & Abernethy 2007; Stambulova, Stephan & Jäphag 2007; Stambulova et al. 2009; Côté & Abernethy 2012].

Challenges and threats are connected with transitions that may have a normative or non-normative character [Cecić Erpič, Wylleman & Zupančič 2004; Alfermann & Stambulova 2007; Stambulova et al. 2009]. Irrespective of the final consequences, they are usually accompanied by anxiety, uncertainty and an increased level of stress. They affect all athletes dealing with sports on a long-term basis who surpass successive stages of development. Each consecutive stage is associated with greater and more intense involvement in training and the development of skills enabling one to compete on higher levels than previously. That implies greater expectations and commitments.

Normative athletic career transitions are relatively predictable and possible to plan [Taylor & Ogilvie 1994;

Stephan et al. 2003; Park, Lavalée & Tod 2013]. They encompass the whole process of sports career development, including its termination and post-sport life. Research has shown, however, that athletes are mostly preoccupied with reaching the highest possible level and improving their results in order to live up to social expectations [Aquilina 2013].

The majority (60%) do not feel any need to plan their development after a sports career is over [North & Lavalée 2004; Park, Lavalée & Tod 2013].

Contemporarily, a growing interest is observed to search for psychological mechanisms of career planning [Cecić Erpič, Wylleman & Zupančič 2004; Torregrosa et al. 2004]. Researchers refer to social cognitive constructs such as self-efficacy and outcome expectancies [Stephan et al. 2003; Jolly 2008; Demulier, Le Scannff & Stephan 2013]. Self-efficacy is understood as the self-evaluation of one's abilities to complete a given task or accomplish a given level of performance and achievement [Bandura 1986; Lent, Brown & Hackett 1994].

Non-normative transitions are much less predictable, which makes preparing for them virtually impossible. On the one hand they cannot be planned, on the other each athlete may expect them sooner or later. Examples of such transitions are: transfer to another team/club, starting to collaborate with a new coach, or an injury [Blecharz 2008; Blecharz & Siekańska 2005]. The consequences of non-normative transitions are also hard to predict. They may involve temporary difficulties or pre-mature termination of a sports career and, as a result, searching for alternative objectives outside sport (e.g., education, work) [Corrado et al. 2012]. In the case of a student-athlete, combining education with sport may, on the one hand, be motivated by the urge to secure one's future after terminating sports career. On the other hand it can result from the need for overall development. It may also be an effect of expectations and pressure put on by significant people, e.g., family members. In such a situation the lack of a chance to explore and act independently combined with high activity and pressure from the environment contribute to the forming of the so-called foreclosed identity [Brzezińska 2000; Aquilina 2013].

The relationships between educational development of elite athletes and a sports career are determined by cultural context [Alfermann, Stambulova & Zemaityte 2004; North, Lavalée 2004; Stambulova, Stephan & Jäphag 2007; Caput-Jogunica, Ćurković & Bjelić 2012; Corrado et al. 2012; Henry 2013; Stambulova & Ryba 2013]. It is also well established that the development of a sports career takes place in a broader context linked to the stages of psychological, social, scientific, and professional development [Wylleman & Lavalée 2004; Wylleman, Alfermann & Lavalée 2004; Park, Lavalée & Tod 2013]. Studies have provided many examples of how the

exceptional demands of high-level sport can prevent athletes from engaging in a wide range of developmental tasks across their lifespan, including those that are important for being satisfied with essential areas of activity (i.e. school, work, family) and that are needed to form a mature self-identity [Adler & Adler 1985; Pinkerton, Hinz & Barrow 1989; Yopyk & Prentice 2005; Lavalée & Robinson 2007; Lally 2007; Krebs 2009; Romar 2012].

It is particularly related to the period of early adulthood (18÷35), i.e. the time when certain changes take place leading to the formation of a mature personality. As a result of undertaking certain actions a person recognizes their traits and explores the possibilities of active functioning in their surroundings. On these bases they make decisions as to their further conduct and the direction their life takes [Lally & Kerr 2005; Vilanova & Puig 2013]. This is when we refer to identity achievement. It is a situation of the greatest development potential. It provides a strong basis for making future important life decisions, including the ones related to education and profession. Such people are relatively immune to the influence of others and are not likely to break down under the influence of emotions. They will treat these emotions as challenges rather than obstacles hindering them from fulfilling their given goals [Brzezińska 2000]. The extent to which identity achievement is attained influences the psychological well-being of people in their mid-adulthood. Such persons are characterized by, among others, high personal control of own self-development, reflectiveness and low neuroticism. It creates favourable conditions to fulfil developmental tasks assigned to an adult [Gurba 2011].

The development of an athlete – irrespectively of their age and the stage of sports career – does not take place in a social void. The influence of parents and family has been confirmed by numerous authors [Wuerth, Lee & Alfermann 2004; Siekańska 2012]. The areas of parents' influence are determined by three major roles they play: 1) providers of support; 2) interpreters and commentators (the influence on forming of beliefs); 3) role models [Harwood, Douglas & Minniti 2012].

The roles enumerated have a particular context comprising of:

- 1) general characteristics of parents and family (e.g., education, socio-economic situation, the number of children, etc.),
- 2) characteristics of the child (e.g., sex, the position in the family when it comes to birth order, siblings, attitudes, abilities),
- 3) parents' general beliefs (e.g., relating to values, self-effectiveness, gender roles),
- 4) parents' opinions on children (e.g., expecting achievements, perception of child's abilities and interests, etc.).

Role-related actions taken by parents influence the beliefs and value system of a child as well as the objectives the child sets up, and their achievements [Fredericks & Eccles 2004]. Successful career transition goes along with a specific behaviour pattern of parents, yet mothers and fathers perceive their roles and influence differently [Wuert, Lee & Alfermann 2004]. Proper support and encouragement is needed before and after the transition. At each phase, both athletes and parents must adapt to meet different demands. Positive emotional support from parents increases the chances of reaching a higher career phase [Siekańska 2013].

The purpose of the study was both to become acquainted with, and to make comparison between, some psychological and social circumstances specific to different types of dual career pathways.

Before the study, the following objectives were formulated: (a) to determine the process of dual career development (e.g., stages of development, turning points) and its relationship with the type of dual career pathway; (b) to investigate the relationships between some psychological determinants and the type of dual career pathway; (c) to investigate the relationships between environmental determinants and the type of dual career pathway; (d) to examine the relationships between the type of dual career development and the quality of life.

Material and Method

Participants and Procedure

The names and contact to athletes were obtained via sports institutions, universities, and schools. Potential participants were invited to the research personally. During a short meeting they were introduced to the idea of the study, and the ethical issues were explained (voluntary participation, confidentiality in data treatment and presentation). The research was conducted individually (one-on-one) (approx. 70–100 min per each person) within 14 months (from February 2011 to April 2012).

Ninety five top athletes (50 males, 45 females; $m = 26,76$) including 21 Olympians, were invited to the study which was retrospective in character [Côté, Ericsson & Law 2005]. Participants represented 23 individual and team sports (e.g., track and field, fencing, wrestling, tennis, swimming, mountain biking, figure skating, ski jumping, snowboarding, motor sports, football, handball, basketball). The data was collected using a semi-structured interview.

All of the athletes who participated in the research:

- were adults (over 19),
- were identified as talents in a specific sports discipline in the past,
- practiced sports professionally (participation in competitions at the international level) until then or had practiced at least until 18 years of age,

- confirmed their skills by achievements, competing in their own or older age categories.

On the basis of the interview and qualitative data analysis the participants were divided into three sub-groups representing three types of dual career pathways:

1) Balanced and harmonious development – no conflict between sport and education perceived ($N = 40$); e.g.,

- My education was always as important as sport. I have never been in quandary. I love sport and I need education.

- I didn't miss anything important because of sport. I could continue my learning and complete higher education.

They perceive both educational and sport development as equally important (100%). They don't perceive schooling as sports career inhibitor (90%). They are satisfied with their education and/or academic degree (87.5%).

2) Unbalanced development – conflict between sport and education perceived ($N = 55$)

a) Orientation to sport development (at the cost of educational development) ($N = 34$); e.g.,

- *I am a champion because I have sacrificed everything to sport. I wanted to study but I couldn't because of my sports goals.*

- *I am interested in geography but it was impossible to combine studying and sport. I have tried for one month. In spite of my best endeavours I couldn't cope with it.*

They choose sport and perceive a sports career as being more important than educational development (100%). They pointed schooling out as one of the inhibitors of a sports career (76.5%). They feel overwhelmed by learning (71.5%).

b) Orientation to educational development (at the cost of sport development) ($N = 21$); e.g.,

- *I don't want to work in sport after termination of a sport career. I am interested in economics. I have to focus on my education.*

- *I gave up sport as I wanted to finish school.*

They perceive education as more important than sport (100%). They don't perceive schooling as one of the inhibitors of a sports career (66.7%). They perceive the school environment as rather unfavourable (teachers not so supportive and helpful – 85.7%, they feel overwhelmed by learning – 71.5%).

Instruments

The data was collected using a semi-structured interview and the following questionnaires: The General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES), The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS).

A semi-structured interview: consisting of a demographic survey (e.g., age, gender, parents' age, number of siblings, marital status, number of children, number of

coaches, education and academic degree, parents' education and academic degree, parents' vocation, the continuation of family tradition in sport practice, socio-economic status), and questions concerning the process of the athletes' development (e.g., main phases, pace of development, critical moments, persons perceived as important for career development, perceived coach's support, future plans, level of realization of one's potential in essential areas of activity, achievements in sport, achievements outside sport) [Siekańska 2013]. The data was transcribed.

The General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES): is a 10-item instrument that is designed to assess optimistic self-beliefs to cope with a variety of difficult demands in life. The scale was originally developed in German by Matthias Jerusalem and Ralf Schwarzer [Schwarzer, Jerusalem, Juczyński 2008]. The GSES explicitly refers to personal agency, i.e., the belief that one's actions are responsible for successful outcomes.

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS): is a short 5-item instrument designed to measure global cognitive judgments of satisfaction with one's life [Diener et al. 1985; Pavot et al. 1991; Pavot & Diener 1993].

The quality of life includes two aspects, i.e. subjective (being satisfied with oneself and one's life) and functional (being satisfied and self-fulfilled with essential areas of activity, i.e. in- and outside sport). The data was collected using SWLS and by assessing the level of realization of one's potential in sport (0%–100%) as well as the level of realization of one's potential outside sport (0%–100%).

Analyses

One-way ANOVAs were conducted to evaluate the relationships between the type of dual career pathway and the course of the developmental process (e.g., stages and critical moments), the level of self-efficacy, the quality of life, the level of competence, and environmental determinants (i.e., parents' age, number of siblings, number of children, number of coaches, perceived coach's support, number of persons perceived as important for career development).

The Hochberg's GT2 method was applied post-hoc to determine which differences in the subgroups were related to one another.

χ^2 comparisons together with repeated measurements were computed for nominal data (i.e.: education and academic degree, education and academic degree of the mothers of the respondents, vocation of the mothers, the level of competence, early specialization, exploration years, motives behind sport career termination). Ratio tests z with Bonferroni correction have been indicated in the percentage tables with subscripts **a** and **b**. The values of statistically significant differences have been marked with disparate letters, e.g., if one value is accompanied with **a**, than it is different from the value accompanied with **b**.

Results

The research allowed to determine the process of athletes' development (e.g., phases of development, turning points) and its relationship with the type of dual career pathway.

All the participants had been identified in the past as gifted in the sport that became their target discipline. All of them went through subsequent phases of sports development, i.e.: exploration years, phase of intensive commitment, up to the level of proficiency. Exploration (Since when? For how long?) comprises years of diversified activities, full of fun and enjoyment. Commitment (Since when? For how long?) is a stage focused on improving skills by systematic and deliberate practice. Proficiency (Since when? For how long?) means that an athlete participates in competitions at the international level and that sport becomes a dominating activity in the athlete's life.

Participants were asked about critical moments in their career development. Data analysis [Kvale 2004, 2010; Gibbs 2011] revealed turning points (two types) and crises in sports career development. Turning points include *positive experiences* (e.g., significant success; cooperation with a new coach; signing a contract) and *difficult experiences* that ultimately had positive consequences (e.g. injury, exhaustion, failure). Crisis points are perceived as negative experiences that increase the risk of premature resignation from sport (e.g. extremely difficult experience, uncontrollable circumstances, accumulation of difficulties, persistent stress).

The level of competence was assessed on the basis of sport achievements and the course of development at the highest, professional level of sporting competition. The following levels were distinguished accordingly:

1. Athletes Resigning Prematurely ($N = 20$) – in spite of high competence and the ability to participate in competition at the highest level, athletes decide to interrupt their sporting careers before the age of 30 years;
2. Athletes Waiting for Success ($N = 27$) – competence allowing them to participate in competition at the highest level and achievements at an earlier stage but still without achievements at senior level (age < 30);
3. Future Experts ($N = 26$) – single outstanding achievements and the possibility of further development (age < 30);
4. Experts-Champions ($N = 22$) – outstanding and repeated achievements (e.g. multiple medallists at the Olympic Games and world championships), practicing professional sport at least until the age of 30 years.

There are both quantitative and qualitative differences between the above listed levels of competence. For this reason – in order to ensure greater accuracy of the results – two types of analyses were used. In the first case the

competence is treated as an estimated variable [Cohen & Cohen 1975] (Tables 1, 2, 3), while in the second – as a nominal variable (Table 7).

Table 1 presents means, standard deviations, and minimum and maximum values of the variables that demonstrate significant differences F (Table 2) between three subgroups: *balanced development*, *unbalanced development-orientation to sport*, and *unbalanced development-orientation to education*.

Descriptive statistics for all participants and within subgroups – means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values.

Table 2 presents F values for psychological, environmental, and developmental conditions in three types of dual career development. A multivariate ANOVA showed that athletes representing different dual career pathways differed significantly in: age ($p = .018$), family situation (i.e., mother's age $p = .046$; number of siblings $p = .019$), the level of sport involvement after sport career termination ($p = .002$), the level of realization of one's potential outside sport ($p = .009$), general self-efficacy GSES ($p = .022$), satisfaction with life SWLS ($p = .009$), the stage of proficiency (i.e. since when? $p = .005$; for how long? $p = .022$), number of turning points – difficult experiences ($p = .029$), number of crises ($p = .029$), and the level of competence ($p < .001$). All statistically significant values are in bold (Table 2).

One-way ANOVA values for psychological, environmental, and developmental conditions in three types of dual career pathways.

To determine which differences in the subgroups were related to one another the Hochberg's GT2 method was applied post-hoc. Detailed results are presented in Table 3.

Research showed that athletes who represented *unbalanced development-orientation to education* were significantly younger ($p = .014$), had younger mothers ($p = .044$), started the stage of proficiency earlier ($p = .005$), and practiced sport at international level shorter ($p = .018$) than athletes from the *balanced development* group.

Furthermore, athletes *oriented to education* had a lower level of competence than the *sport-oriented* group ($p < .001$) and the *balanced development* group ($p < .001$).

They also declared a lower level of sport involvement after sport career termination in comparison to the *sport-oriented* group ($p = .010$) and *balanced development* group ($p = .003$).

Education-oriented athletes had fewer siblings ($p = .017$), reported lower self-efficacy ($p = .039$), presented significantly lower satisfaction with life ($p = .008$), experienced more turning points perceived as difficulties ($p = .029$), and more crises ($p = .026$) than the *sport-oriented* group.

The research also revealed that *balanced development* athletes presented a higher level of realization of their po-

tential outside sport ($p = .007$) in comparison with the *sport-oriented* group.

Sport-oriented individuals were characterised by a greater sense of fulfillment in sport than outside of it, while people from the remaining groups had a greater sense of fulfillment outside sport than in sport. The analyses additionally conducted within groups have shown that people of balanced development felt a significantly greater sense of fulfillment outside sport than in it ($M_{in} = 75.42$ vs. $M_{outside} = 83.13$; $p = .026$), sport-oriented persons displayed a tendency to have a greater sense of fulfillment in sport than outside of it ($M_{in} = 79.12$ vs. $M_{outside} = 69.94$; $p = .056$), while in the education-oriented group the difference did not reach the level of statistical significance ($M_{in} = 73.57$ vs. $M_{outside} = 79.19$; $p = .270$).

Besides statistically significant differences, the two following tendencies between subgroups were noted. Participants constituting the *balanced development* group presented a higher level of satisfaction with life than *education-oriented* athletes ($p = .069$), and a lower level of self-efficacy than *sport-oriented* athletes ($p = .072$).

For nominal data, χ^2 comparisons were computed. Significant differences between the subgroups emerged for: athletes' education and academic degree, education and academic degree of the mothers of the respondents, vocation of the mothers, the level of competence, early specialization, exploration years, and motives behind sport career termination. Detailed results are presented in Tables 4–10.

As to education and academic degrees, the respondents were divided into four groups: vocational education, high school graduates, undergraduates, and university graduates. The difference between groups regarding the level of education and academic degrees was statistically significant (Table 4). The data pointed out that most of *sport-oriented* and *education-oriented* participants received high school education. In the *balanced-development* group only every fourth had high school education.

Undergraduate education was the most popular in the *sport-oriented* subgroup. In comparison with the two other subgroups – *balanced development* and *education-oriented* – a significantly smaller number of *sport-oriented* athletes received university education.

A statistically significant difference was also observed in the education of the mothers of the respondents (Table 5). Nevertheless, analysis with a Bonferroni correction did not reveal particular differences among subgroups. Due to the fact that the general effect was significant, the description will be based on count proportions.

In the *school-oriented* group more mothers of the respondents had undergraduate education, graduate education, and doctoral degree. The proportions of a particular academic degree of the mothers in the *sport-oriented* group and in the group of *balanced development*

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for all participants and within subgroups – means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values.

Variables	Subgroups		N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Age	Balanced development		40	28.48	7.05	19	48
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	26.74	6.56	19	43
		Orientation to education	21	23.52	4.27	19	34
	Total		95	26.76	6.57	19	48
Mother's age	Balanced development		40	54.68	7.45	44	74
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	53.71	8.68	40	72
		Orientation to education	21	49.48	6.80	35	64
	Total		95	53.18	7.97	35	74
Number of siblings	Balanced development		40	1.23	0.66	0	3
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	1.50	0.75	0	3
		Orientation to education	21	0.95	0.67	0	2
	Total		95	1.26	0.72	0	3
The level of sport involvement after sport career termination*	Balanced development		40	1.70	0.46	1	2
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	1.65	0.65	0	2
		Orientation to education	21	1.10	0.94	0	2
	Total		95	1.55	0.70	0	2
The level of realization of one's potential outside sport	Balanced development		40	83.13	14.92	50	100
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	69.94	23.33	10	100
		Orientation to education	21	79.19	12.82	60	100
	Total		95	77.54	18.79	10	100
Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale GSES	Balanced development		40	31.15	3.53	23	40
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	32.82	2.77	28	38
		Orientation to education	21	30.62	2.92	23	36
	Total		95	31.63	3.24	23	40
The Satisfaction with Life Scale SWLS	Balanced development		40	23.45	4.39	15	31
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	24.59	5.38	12	34
		Orientation to education	21	20.52	4.13	13	27
	Total		95	23.21	4.91	12	34
III. Proficiency (Since when?)	Balanced development		40	18.45	2.30	14	24
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	18.82	2.29	15	28
		Orientation to education	21	16.81	1.97	14	22
	Total		95	18.22	2.34	14	28
III. Proficiency (For how long?)	Balanced development		40	8.50	4.88	1	20
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	7.35	5.23	2	21
		Orientation to education	21	5.05	1.94	3	8
	Total		95	7.33	4.69	1	21
Turning points – Difficult Experiences	Balanced development		40	.68	.69	0	3
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	.38	.55	0	2
		Orientation to education	21	.90	.94	0	3
	Total		95	.62	.73	0	3
Crises	Balanced development		40	.98	.83	0	3
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	.82	.76	0	2
		Orientation to education	21	1.43	.87	0	3
	Total		95	1.02	.84	0	3
The level of competence	Balanced development		40	2.93	.94	1	4
	Unbalanced development	Orientation to sport	34	2.74	.99	1	4
		Orientation to education	21	1.43	.60	1	3
	Total		95	2.53	1.07	1	4

Note: *The level of sport involvement after sport career termination: 0 – none or no plans yet; 1 – community service; 2 – professional

Table 2. One-way ANOVA values for psychological, environmental, and developmental conditions in three types of dual career pathways.

Variables	<i>F</i> (2,92)	<i>p</i>	η^2
Age	4.17	.018	.08
Mothers's age	3.19	.046	.06
Father's age	2.93	.058	.06
Number of siblings	4.14	.019	.08
Number of children	0.70	.500	.01
Number of coaches	1.02	.365	.02
Number of persons perceived as important for career development	0.55	.580	.01
Perceived coach's support	0.62	.541	.01
The level of sport involvement after sport career termination (0 – none or no plans yet; 1 – community service; 2 – professional)	6.40	.002	.12
The level of realization of one's potential in sport	0.89	.414	.02
The level of realization of one's potential outside sport	5.02	.009	.10
Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale GSES	4.00	.022	.08
The Satisfaction with Life Scale SWLS	4.91	.009	.10
I. Exploration (Since when?)	1.38	.257	.03
I. Exploration (For how long?)	0.90	.410	.02
II. Commitment (Since when?)	1.43	.245	.03
II. Commitment (For how long?)	2.24	.112	.05
III. Proficiency (Since when?)	5.68	.005	.11
III. Proficiency (For how long?)	3.96	.022	.08
Turning points	2.14	.124	.04
Turning points – Positive experiences	0.82	.444	.02
Turning points – Difficult experiences	3.70	.029	.07
Crises	3.69	.029	.07
The level of competence	20.46	<.001	.30

Note: *p* – significance. Values in bold are statistically significant.

are similar. In the *balanced-development* group half of the mothers had high school education.

The next batch of data concerned the vocation of the mothers of the respondents (Table 6). The difference between the groups regarding the type of vocation of athletes' mothers was statistically significant. In the *sport-oriented* group – in comparison with the two other groups – more mothers of the respondents had a sport-unrelated vocation. In the *balanced-development* group every sixth mothers had sport-related vocation. A similar proportion was observed in the *education-oriented* group.

The difference between the subgroups regarding the level of competence was statistically significant (Table 7). Among the *education-oriented* athletes there were no Expert-Champions and less Future-Experts than in the *sport-oriented* group and the *balanced-development* group.

The conducted studies also revealed differences between the subgroups in the course of sports career development.

The *education-oriented* respondents presented early specialization pathway (Table 8) more often than the *sport-oriented* and the *balanced development* groups. The difference was statistically significant.

The athletes were also interviewed as to the nature of their experience during the exploration stage (focus on one sport vs. involvement in several sports) (Table 9). The research showed statistically significant differences between the subgroups. The *balanced development* respondents more often – than the two other groups – had diversified activities in the exploration stage, but only in the case of the *sport-oriented* group was the difference statistically significant. Among the *sport-oriented* athletes more than half were focused on one sport early, which is three times more frequently than in the *balanced development* group.

Another variable taken into consideration was the motivation behind sport career termination (Table 10). The *education-oriented* athletes more often than other

Table 3. The Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test.

Variables	Factor level		<i>p</i>	95% confidence interval	
	1	2		Lower boundary	Upper boundary
Age	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.565	-1.87	5.35
		Orientation to education	.014	.78	9.12
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.200	-1.08	7.50
Mother's age	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.933	-3.45	5.38
		Orientation to education	.044	.10	10.30
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.151	-1.02	9.48
Number of siblings	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.253	-.67	.12
		Orientation to education	.381	-.18	.73
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.017	.08	1.02
The level of sport involvement after sport career termination	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.980	-.32	.43
		Orientation to education	.003	.17	1.04
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.010	.11	1.00
The level of realization of one's potential outside sport	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.007	2.96	23.41
		Orientation to education	.803	-7.88	15.75
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.189	-21.42	2.92
Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale GSES	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.072	-3.46	.11
		Orientation to education	.896	-1.53	2.59
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.039	.08	4.32
The Satisfaction with Life Scale SWLS	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.660	-3.81	1.54
		Orientation to education	.069	-.16	6.02
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.008	0.88	7.25
III. Proficiency (Since when?)	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.853	-1.64	.89
		Orientation to education	.022	.18	3.10
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.005	.51	3.52
III. Proficiency (For how long?)	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.629	-1.43	3.73
		Orientation to education	.018	.47	6.43
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.198	-.77	5.38
Turning points – Difficult experiences	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.223	-.11	.70
		Orientation to education	.548	-.70	.24
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.029	-1.00	-.04
Crises	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.810	-.31	.61
		Orientation to education	.119	-.99	.08
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	.026	-1.15	-.06
The level of competence	Balanced development	Orientation to sport	.746	-.32	.70
		Orientation to education	<.001	.91	2.09
	Orientation to sport	Orientation to education	<.001	.70	1.91

Note: *p* – significance. Values in bold are statistically significant.

Table 4. Education and academic degree.

Education and academic degree	Subgroup					
	Balanced development		Orientation to sport		Orientation to education	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Vocational	0 _a	0.0	1 _a	2.9	0 _a	0.0
High school	11 _a	27.5	24 _b	70.6	14 _b	66.7
Undergraduate	7 _{a,b}	17.5	8 _b	23.5	0 _a	0.0
Graduate	22 _a	55.0	1 _b	2.9	7 _a	33.3
Total	40	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0

Note: $\chi^2 = 30.07$; $df = 6$; $p < .001$
Cramér's $V = .39$

Table 5. Education and academic degree of the mothers of the respondents.

Education and academic degree of the mothers of the respondents	Subgroup					
	Balanced development		Orientation to sport		Orientation to education	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Vocational	5 _a	12.5	8 _a	23.5	1 _a	4.8
High school	20 _a	50.0	15 _a	44.1	7 _a	33.3
Undergraduate	0 _a	0.0	0 _a	0.0	2 _a	9.5
Graduate	15 _a	37.5	11 _a	32.4	10 _a	47.6
Doctoral degree	0 _a	0.0	0 _a	0.0	1 _a	4.8
Total	40	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0

Note: $\chi^2 = 15.57$; $df = 8$; $p = .049$
Cramér's $V = .28$

Table 6. Vocation of the mothers of the respondents.

Vocation of the mothers of the respondents	Subgroup					
	Balanced development		Orientation to sport		Orientation to education	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Sport-unrelated	33 _a	82.5	34 _b	100.0	17 _a	81.0
Sport-related	7 _a	17.5	0 _b	0.0	4 _a	19.0
Total	40	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0

Note: $\chi^2 = 6.96$; $df = 2$; $p = .031$
Cramér's $V = .27$

Table 7. The level of competence.

The level of competence	Subgroup					
	Balanced development		Orientation to sport		Orientation to education	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
1. Athletes Resigning Prematurely	3 _a	7.5	4 _a	11.8	13 _b	61.9
2. Athletes Waiting for Success	10 _a	25.0	10 _a	29.4	7 _a	33.3
3. Future Experts	14 _a	35.0	11 _a	32.4	1 _b	4.8
4. Expert-Champions	13 _a	32.5	9 _a	26.5	0 _b	0.0
Total	40	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0

Note: $\chi^2 = 33.49$; $df = 6$; $p < .001$
Cramér's $V = .42$

respondents – *balanced development* and *sport-oriented* – decided to resign from sport prematurely because of several reasons and new goals outside sport. In both the *sport-oriented* and the *balanced-development* groups, similar proportions were observed.

Discussion and conclusions

Cross-subgroup comparison

The results of the research described in this article include common features in the process of athletes' development and in the social environment as well as a num-

ber of differences between subgroups representing three pathways of dual career.

The common features cover the first two stages of development, number of turning points – positive experiences, some aspects of family situation (i.e., marital status, number of children, father's age, father's vocation, father's education and academic degree, the continuation of family tradition in sport practice, socio-economic status), number of coaches and persons perceived as important for career development, coach's support, and the level of realization of athletes' potential in sport.

Table 8. Early specialization.

Early specialization	Subgroup					
	Balanced development		Orientation to sport		Orientation to education	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Yes	10 _a	25.0	11 _a	32.4	17 _b	81.0
No	30 _a	75.0	23 _a	67.6	4 _b	19.0
Total	40	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0

Note: $\chi^2 = 19.25$; $df = 2$; $p < .001$
Cramér's $V = .45$

Table 9. Exploration years.

Exploration years	Subgroup					
	Balanced development		Orientation to sport		Orientation to education	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Focus on one sport	7 _a	17.5	18 _b	52.9	9 _{a, b}	42.9
Involvement in several sports	33 _a	82.5	16 _b	47.1	12 _{a, b}	57.1
Total	40	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0

Note: $\chi^2 = 10.63$; $df = 2$; $p = .005$
Cramér's $V = .33$

Tables 10. Motives behind sport career termination.

Motives behind sport career termination	Subgroup					
	Balanced development		Orientation to sport		Orientation to education	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Lack of sport goals	5 _a	62.5	4 _a	50.0	0 _b	0.0
Several reasons and goals outside sport	3 _a	37.5	4 _a	50.0	13 _b	100.0
Total	8	100.0	8	100.0	13	100.0

Note: $\chi^2 = 10.89$; $df = 2$; $p = .004$
Cramér's $V = .61$

The study revealed a distinctive characteristic of the developmental process, family situation and psychological functioning specific to each of the dual career pathways.

The process of athletes' development. When taking into account the age of starting and the duration of the first two phases of development, no significant differences were noted between the groups under the survey. The revealed differences concern the character and range of experiences in the exploration phase. Athletes representing both the *education-oriented* and the *balanced development* groups had an opportunity to try various kinds of sport and physical activities, but started professional training earlier than other respondents. This fact can draw heavily on the course of a future career, as the commencement of a particular training is associated with greater sacrifice (in terms of time and money), greater expectations and greater effort. Sports activity obtains a more serious character. Therefore the risk is higher of losing balance

between planned and structured actions associated with hard work on the one hand, and deliberate play accompanied by pleasure and joy on the other. Losing the balance between these two forms of activity may diminish the interest in doing sports or even contribute to resigning from it altogether [Côté & Hay 2002]. The explanation above is also supported by the fact that the respondents from the *education-oriented* group started competing at the proficiency level earlier, but their career in sport lasted for a shorter period of time.

The study conducted did not reveal any differences in reference to turning points perceived as positive experiences. The uncovered differences refer to difficult experiences and crises. *Education-oriented* athletes significantly more frequently than *sport-oriented* respondents were affected by situations accompanied with unpleasant emotions and situations demanding working out a new way of dealing with problems or asking for additional support. Overall, although not desirable (no-

body wishes for an injury or a failure after all), difficult experiences were regarded as important and valuable for development by the athlete. Comparing difficult experiences and crises, it can be stated that in the case of the former, the athlete focuses predominantly on finding solutions and possibilities to cope with the situation. After such an experience the athlete draws conclusions for the future, gains greater self-confidence and “strengthens the resources” [Blecharz & Siekańska 2007]. In the case of a crisis, on the other hand, an athlete considers the possibility of resigning from doing sport, or even decides to undertake relevant actions and – temporarily or permanently – suspends sports activity. As a result their career in sport is frequently pre-maturely terminated. Surveys on professional athletes have indicated that after the first crisis, 3.3% of athletes end sports career. This value soars if a second crisis is observed and reaches up to 50%. The next crisis is not accompanied with such a sharp rise. As many as 55.5% of cases end with resignation [Siekańska 2013].

Psychological determinants. Analysing the results concerning the reasons the sports career terminates, it can be noted that *education-oriented* athletes – contrary to the remaining respondents – never resigned due to the lack of sports goals. The reasons for resignation were complex and associated with lower general satisfaction with life and seeking new goals outside sport.

Interestingly, *education-oriented* individuals, although presenting significantly lower level of competence in sport than the *balanced development* and *sport-oriented* athletes, declare a similar level of the sense of accomplishment in sport. Due to the fact that all respondents were identified as budding talents in a specific sports discipline and due to the fact that the differences in accomplishment were revealed only at the highest level of sports competition, a lower level of competence and yet the feeling of sport accomplishment may result from a given structure of abilities and interests going beyond sport. The *sport-oriented* group is different, as focusing on sport and connecting it to a person's future is easily observed. It seems that what is relevant to explain the uncovered interdependency may at the same time be the way athletes perceive their own competence and the ability to cope. The belief in one's efficacy seems to be interesting in this context. Studies have revealed that, compared to the *sport-oriented* group, the *education-oriented* respondents have significantly lower conviction of their own efficacy, which informs about the extent to which they feel responsible for successful outcomes and about how they assess their abilities to cope with difficult situations and crises.

Environmental determinants. The results of the studies point to the existence of numerous interdependencies between family situation and the type of a dual career pathway. *Education-oriented* respondents were brought

up in families with a smaller number of children. This has a bearing upon the shape of social orientation and of particular traits, interests, ways of spending free time, communication skills and interpersonal relations [Sękowski & Siekańska 2008]. Earlier studies indicate that siblings, especially older ones, play a crucial role in shaping behaviours connected with doing sports [Côté 1999]. They can also provide additional support, which is particularly important in the context of coping with difficult situations and crisis moments.

No correlation between the age, occupation, and education of the father and the type of a dual career pathway on the other hand was detected. It was, however, revealed that mothers of *education-oriented* athletes are better educated than mothers of the remaining respondents, having much greater sports accomplishments. Similar results were obtained in a study conducted in Portugal. It was shown, among others, that better-educated parents have greater expectations when the sports future of their children is concerned [Gomes et al. 2009].

The quality of life. The quality of life encompasses general satisfaction with oneself and one's life (the subjective aspect) and the feeling of fulfilling one's abilities in sport and outside of it. The studies conducted have shown that all respondents present a similar level of satisfaction and self-fulfilment in sport ($m = 76.34\%$). The differences revealed refer to general satisfaction with life and the feeling of self-fulfilment outside sport. They are the most noticeable in the *sport-oriented* group, which declares the greatest satisfaction with life, the strongest feeling of self-fulfilment in sport and the weakest feeling of self-fulfilment outside sport. Moreover, only in this group was the value related to sport higher than the value referring to the remaining (i.e., outside sport) areas of activity. In the *balanced development* and *education-oriented* groups the differences between values were smaller. Summing up all the enumerated aspects of the quality of life it can be stated that the *balanced development* group is characterised by versatile and harmonious development. For the *sport-oriented* group the major area of developing personal potential and the source of satisfaction is sport. *Education-oriented* respondents are less satisfied with themselves and their life and display a tendency to seek goals outside sport. This may be connected with the consequences of difficult experiences and crises or the lack (or weakening) of belief in the possibility to obtain satisfying effects of activities undertaken in relation to sport.

Limitations of the study, future research and applications

One of the limitations of the study is its retrospective character. Respondents' memory selection and reinterpretation process could play a role in the results obtained. On the other hand the retrospective design in the current study was thought advantageous, as it allowed

the respondents to look back on their experiences from the perspective of a more mature personality [Lavalley & Robinson 2007].

It would also be recommended to survey a greater number of athletes, especially those representing the *education-oriented* pathway.

As far as future research is concerned, the analysis of the results obtained calls for, among others, further explorations of the psychological mechanisms able to explain the premature resignation at the stage of proficiency.

As one of the reasons of premature resignation is the prolonging conflict of important goals (e.g. further education, the willingness to set up a family), it is justifiable to conduct a study considering the sexes of athletes.

Studies on the correlates of psychological well-being suggest that demographic factors (e.g. marriage) may impact women differently than men [Diener, Lucas, Oishi 2004]. Presumably it is connected with the development of identity that is shaped according to different patterns in women and men. Women exhibit progress towards the identity achievement earlier. While male athletes treat assuming new social roles (e.g., marriage, setting up a family) as the beginning of "the stabilization" phase, females associate it with the potential necessity of making a choice and resigning from doing professional sport. A broader context of studies is also worth taking into consideration in order to connect the psychology of sport perspective with the approach offered by the psychology of individual differences. It would imply employing the whole range of abilities and interests, not only those directly relating to sport.

The obtained results have a practical application. They can help in better understanding of the psychological, developmental, and environmental factors that influence athletes' dual career and are favourable to the optimal development. They can also help to recognize agents that can increase the risk of premature resignation from sport (i.e., acceleration of development, early specialization, parents' influence).

The study supports a holistic approach in applied sport psychology that means treating athletes as individuals participating in many areas of life and belonging to different social environments.

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Pierre de Coubertin and His Relation to the Catholic Church

Alois Koch

Summary

Those who deal more closely with the person of Pierre de Coubertin (1863–1937) and with the Olympic ideology created by him, will come across his relations to representatives of the Catholic Church.

There is mostly pointed also to the fact that central statements of Coubertin about sport and Olympism developed in meetings with church representatives, for instance the Olympic motto “Citius, Altius, Fortius”, formulated by the Dominican Henri Didon. On the other hand there is often emphasized from the Catholic side, how one had nevertheless stood from the outset at Coubertin’s side, and had supported him in his ideas.

The text will describe the Catholic Childhood and Youth of Coubertin, his special relations to the Jesuits and his time in the Jesuits College in Paris. In a special chapter Coubertin take position on Sport as “Remedy” against sexual aberrations in the youth, very engaged discussed on the beginning of the 20st century. Coubertin and his relations to representatives of the Catholic Church, especially concerning his visit by Pope Pius X in the Vatican in 1905, will be overestimated by Olympic historians. Much more important is Coubertin’s views on Christianity and its relation to the body and to physical exercises in general including his interpretation of his “Muscle Religion” as an affront against Christianity. The author evaluated great German Olympic philosophers (e.g. Lenk, Wirkus, Malter). From special importance is Coubertin’s description of the *Muscle Religion* trough the participation of Arts in Olympism.

Keywords: Coubertin, philosophy, Olympism, Catholic Church

Preliminary Remark

Those who deal closer with the person of Pierre de Coubertin (1863–1937), the founder of the Olympiad of modern times, and with the Olympic ideology created by him, will come across his relations to representatives of the Catholic Church – particularly in the time when he began his project.

There is mostly pointed also to the fact that central statements of Coubertin about sport and Olympism developed in meetings with church representatives, for instance the Olympic motto “Citius, Altius, Fortius – Faster, Higher, Stronger”, formulated by the Dominican Henri Didon. Time and again there is referred also to Coubertin’s meeting with Pope PIUS X (1903–1914), who gave his “blessing”, as it were, to the Olympiad and to Coubertin’s conceptions. On the other hand there is often emphasized from the Catholic side, how one had nevertheless stood from the outset at Coubertin’s side, and had supported him in his ideas.

Hence it is worthwhile to examine closer this partial aspect – the relation of Coubertin to the Catholic Church – namely the question how this relation appears in Coubertin’s writings, and how it is understood there.

Could it be that he – at least in the starting time – only looked for and found in the representatives of the Catholic Church possible or actual confederates? Do not especially some of his statements about “religion” indicate that he had left the ground of the religion of his childhood and youth long since? Does not this dissociation manifest itself clearly in the setting up of the “muscle religion” of Olympism, with its “quasi-religious salvation promises”? [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 162]

With these questions is marked the course of the following considerations. Proceeding from Coubertin’s Catholic childhood and youth and his relations to representatives of the Catholic Church his views on the relation of Christianity to sport and sporting exercises are to be stated and critically examined, his ideas of a “muscle religion”, and finally his efforts to represent this “muscle religion” artistically.

The investigations are limited to a large extent to those writings of Coubertin translated into German. The biography of Marie Thérèse Eyquem [1972], which almost reads like a hagiography, has – as far as Coubertin’s life is concerned – only limited value, likewise the statements of Carl Diem on occasion of the 50th anniversary of the IOC 1944 in Lausanne [Diem 1965].

As Alkemeyer rightly states, the reader learns by them only quite conditionally something “about Coubertin’s situation in the social area of French society”, hardly something “about his position on the field of educational discussions at that time, about forerunners and contemporaries” etc. [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 42].

The more is spoken about Coubertin’s “vocation”, about the “prophetic power of his genius”, and about his “mental format of a universal historian”, in whom “the ruler of fate” – thereby probably God is meant – “united all those gifts that were necessary to recall one of the most shining thoughts of occidental culture ... into the light of the world” [Diem 1965, p. 7, 8 and 9]. It is anyhow high time to bring out his figure “from the sacral twilight” [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 44].

The writings resp. statements of Coubertin are quoted only with the respective abbreviations. These are to be taken from the bibliography.

For valuable references and information for my essay I return thanks to Professor Dr. Norbert Müller and to the archivist of the French Province of the Jesuits.

A Catholic Childhood and Youth

About Coubertin’s childhood (born in 1863) there exist apparently only few meaningful testimonies. He originated both paternal and maternal from an ancient stock, which – after the defeat of France in the French-German War 1870–1871 – mourned the good old days. One could not make friends with the Republic. Thereby one was in good society – for just the French Catholics were Royalists.

The Catholic religion was apparently natural for Coubertin’s family. About the mother is said that she was “extremely pious”, “Pierre had very soon understood that his mother professed her belief in a Credo at the dogmas of which there was no shaking” [Eyquem 1972, p. 21]. In another place is said, “Pierre was educated as Catholic and like his parents a faithful follower of the Pope, but in his way” [Eyquem 1972, p. 25]. But it is not told in what respect he was “in his way” a faithful follower of the Pope. It is indicated that he had been already as a small boy urged by his pious mother to “play mass”; but that he gave up “mass playing” when he noticed that his mother had gladly seen him as monk or priest.

But that the family seemed to be not so “completely” Catholic follows from some remarks. About a grandfather is said, he had been a freemason. That would mean that the grandfather was anti-clerical and anti-church, yes, perhaps even anti-Christian. The French freemasons’ lodges were still shaped by the thoughts of Enlightenment, and represented religiously a deism – hence a view of religion that rejected central Christian dogmas. If one bears in mind Coubertin’s later religious development, then one would almost like to assume that

these Enlightenment ideas in the family exerted a large influence on him.

That the religious attitude in Coubertin’s family was “strange”, follows from the fact that a grand-uncle from the mother’s side, who was priest, has been “outlawed” in the family.

This grand-uncle (he is named “this uncanny clergyman”) was a friend and pupil of de La Menais (1782–1854), who mutated from an ultramontan royalist to a liberal, yes, socialist Catholic, and had been inflicted several times with church sanctions, respectively indictments.

The judgement of the mother about this grand-uncle read, when the young Coubertin stood up to take care of his neglected burial place: “How useless, his eternal damnation is certain to us all!” [Eyquem 1972, p. 36] In Pouret’s opinion this uncle had fascinated Coubertin and inspired him to his “Novel of a Reconciled” [Pouret 1973, p. 85]

Hence one cannot help feeling that the young Coubertin grew up in a religiously conflict-loaded family. His “extremely pious” mother saw apparently therefore a way out in sending her son to a Jesuit College, to heal him so from his heretical opinions.

Coubertin’s Relation to the Jesuits

Coubertin was pupil of the Jesuits led by Saint Ignatius College in Paris, Rue de Madrid. Here he got – as Krüger means – a “one-sided education” [Krüger 1980, p. 522]. But it is not proved wherein this “one-sidedness” lay.

In Eyquem’s Coubertin Biography is indicated that he in the High School could “even be less himself than at home”; this is substantiated with, “it would not have been advisable to express one’s own ideas, yes, to express something independent at all” [Eyquem 1972, p. 33]. Here too, detailed references are missing.

Eyquem indicates then particularly that there was exacted from each pupil a “strict self-discipline, good behaviour and daily prayer”:

“There prevailed a moral that knew no difference with those who did good or bad, or thought it, a moral that anticipated already God’s judgment ... The doctrines of the church became the basis for everyone, and at any time the obligatory way of life ... The Jesuit Fathers insisted ... on dogmas, moral, manners and good behaviour.” [Eyquem 1972, p. 33–34].

What is meant by the cryptic suggestions about self-discipline, good behaviour, manners and moral, is not explained; also not, wherein the “critical state” of these educating principles lies.

About the Jesuit College Saint Ignatius in the Rue de Madrid for foreign pupils there is a detailed description by Delattre [1955, p. 1392–1422]. The institute existed from 1874–1908. For the erection of the necessary col-

lege buildings was intended – among other things – also a “gymnasium” (= “gymnase”). For the plays of the pupils on the campus there were available six “playgrounds” (= “cours”) on which the individual “departments” did their games; these were obligating for everyone.

The report of a former pupil names a set of plays: Catch, walking on stilts, wall ball, different “war games”, in the winter particularly skating on the frozen-over playgrounds [Delattre 1955, p. 1403]. Another former pupil reports: “I remember the frolicsome plays that we did with passion; and I am always surprised to hear, as today’s sportsmen explain solemnly, that the college pupils could not play” [Delattre 1955, p. 1403].

Perhaps this is a reference to the later devaluing public expressions of Coubertin about the “plays” at his college in the starting time of the institute. There is nevertheless an interesting reference to the “Baron de Coubertin” in the report of a former schoolmate from the year of his death 1937: “I see still before my eyes how Baron de Coubertin with outstanding clarity recited a fable of La Fontaine.” A further remark is probably just as informative, because it refers to the instruction in the old languages Greek and Latin,

for the imparting of which one exuberantly returns thanks [Delattre 1955, p. 1405]. Obviously here is related to Father Jules Carron.

Coubertin visited the College Saint Ignatius from 1875–1880. A document of the archive of the French Jesuit Province says, Coubertin had taken part in the “philosophy class” and completed it. For the pupils there was in the curriculum – apart from the plays in the spare time – no mandatory instruction for “physical exercises”, only a facultative offer for fencing and “gymnastic”. With security Coubertin’s appreciation of fencing is based on his participation in this facultative offer. But what the things named “gymnastic” really were cannot be found out. Nevertheless there were “plays” in the spare time obligatory for all pupils.

Considering the negative judgements in the biography of Eyquem and of historians about the school life in the College Saint Ignatius, one is surprised then to some extent, when, as it were, in the same breath is said Coubertin had marvelled at his teachers “above all their education, their educational skill, their piety and self-assurance”; they succeeded “with large power of persuasion”, “so that Pierre willingly followed them”; but “their example had changed nothing on him at all” [Eyquem 1972, p. 33–34].

He admired especially his teacher of many years in the humanistic subjects and in rhetoric, Father Jules Carron (1839–1923). He “exerted ... a very strong influence on him. He awoke in him the sense for measure, and the love for that country whose philosophers were poets, writers and artists, and which had been ready for the fall, in order to conquer then the whole world: Greece

– that country the discordant provinces of which were united peacefully by the call of one place only, by the call of Olympia” [Eyquem 1972, p. 34]. Pouret says that Father Carron had imparted to the young Pierre the knowledge “of the history of Greece and Rome, and with it a very solid classical education” [Pouret 1973, p. 81]; he had opened his eyes “for the beauty of the Greek culture” [Pouret 1978, p. 124].

Alkemeyer points to another “absurdity” in Coubertin’s relationship to the Jesuits. For Coubertin the British colleges were places of an exemplary permanent competition, of “a system of constantly revisable self-rating, according to the performance in the school hierarchies”; but what he named a “typical British idea”, this “meritocracy” (according to one’s merits), he got to know in his college in the Rue de Madrid; he has obviously integrated the “competition system dominant in Jesuit Colleges, and their elitism into his own reform proposals” [Alkemeyer 1996 a, p. 82].

At the age of twenty Coubertin went in 1883 to Great Britain, where he – probably by intercession of his former teachers – got to know different boarding schools of the Jesuits; about one of them – Diem calls it incorrectly “Jesus Kolleg” [Diem 1959, p. 9] – he writes in detail: “First I visited the Jesuit College of Beaumont in the neighbourhood of Windsor” [“Kampagne”, p. 12].

This boarding school of the Jesuits left a deep impression on Coubertin. He heard from a Polish friend, “that that aura of liberty and individualism, that began to spread over the English colleges had already reached Beaumont” [Eyquem 1972, p. 45]. From his friend he heard also that in the college newspaper the best swimmer was mentioned, who would get a price from the association of former pupils on occasion of a banquet: “A dozen of Jesuit Fathers will be present there, and by their humour and their free and easy nature they will certainly cause a sensation” [Eyquem 1972, p. 45].

Particularly the acquaintance with other British boarding schools, above all with the College of Rugby, which had been crucially moulded by the headmaster Thomas Arnold, inspired him for his own educational ideas. The sport at these schools became for him, as it were, the “means” to overcome the backwardness of the colleges in France. But by the pursuit of this aim there arose many difficulties for him. Just the church colleges closed to a large extent their mind to Coubertin’s reform ideas. Thus the Jesuits of his old college in the Rue de Madrid were deaf to his ideas:

“Of the Jesuit Colleges I knew that they observed the spreading reform with the largest aversion. Nevertheless I made the attempt with the day college in the Rue de Madrid, which I had visited. But I met an absolute ‘non possumus’. Yet the Jesuits fancied, which was by no means justified, to impart in their colleges the perfect physical training, because many of them took ea-

gerly part in the plays of their pupils. But they were not inclined to go beyond those childlike plays, and rejected in principle any sport done under the direction of pupils, because this would bear the consequence that the young people would meet by the contests with other young people who went to public or non-denominational schools” [“Kampagne” p. 19–20].

These statements show a Coubertin who was obviously annoyed about the fact that his educational ideas did not find applause in his old college. He acknowledged that the Jesuits took care of the physical training of the pupils. But the fact that one did not want to join public play and sport activities was for him the stumbling-block. He had no understanding for the HYPERLINK “<http://www.con-spiration.de/koch/english/feldkirch-e.html>” special way of the Jesuits’ boarding schools, which e.g. had also been taken in other countries [Koch 2003]. In no case however the refusal of Coubertin’s ideas can be interpreted as a general refusal of physical training or as body enmity.

It could also be possible that Coubertin regarded the “physical training” and the “childlike plays”, as they were usual in his old school, as not up-to-date, because he considered first of all the “combat-emphatic”, the “agonal character”, and the “nimbus of danger” of sport; therefore for him even gymnastics were only “disciplines hindering and restricting the individual action and efficiency”, respectively other kinds of sport [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 90–91]. Only the “sport” understood in this sense, hence the “pedagogy ... of the total risk” [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 96], had for him the characteristic of “productive pedagogy” (“Ol. Gedanke” p. 115).

Coubertin was convinced that “his” sport “was bound to an unbridled contest” and “lived from the freedom to let one’s steam off” [Lenk 1976, p. 405]. The “physical exercises” practised by the Jesuits in their colleges were therefore only “pastime” for him, whereas his “sport” must seem to his old teachers as an educational precarious thing, yes, as something that had to be rejected.

Sport as “Remedy” Against Sexual Aberrations in the Youth

At first sight it seems as if this section had hardly something to do with our actual topic, Coubertin’s relation to the Catholic Church. But that is not the case, because as one of the reasons why the accusation of disdain and enmity against the body is raised against the church, is repeatedly named its enmity against sexuality.

Therefore it does surprise when one finds in the educational writings of Coubertin, who would probably by nobody named ‘enemy of sexuality’, remarks which refer “moral” largely to the field of sexuality, and which say that the dangers of the sexual instinct were to meet by a “successful hygiene of spirit and body” [“Schule”, p. 159].

Coubertin expresses his views on this topic under the heading “moral instruction and religion”. There he writes: “Remarkable and too little noticed treatises have referred to the importance of this difficult problem. Each accumulation of boys harbours the danger of a premature awaking of the sexual instinct, according to a generally confirmed law (often observed by animals), and the danger is quintupled by stimulating the fantasy, done by today’s so widely spread pornographic publications, against which one cannot completely protect the youth. Climatic and race characteristics seem secondary, as one would like to assume, and the colleges in the north are not ahead to those in the south, as they allege so readily.

From the well-trying remedies supervision is one of the most ineffectual. As severe as it is, it will be broken. The fear of God in which the church colleges trust, does not work better. The bad habits flourish at those colleges just as well as at others, and it looks as if a certain mysticism would sometimes favour their developing. There are nevertheless remedies. The life of day-pupils is one of them, but only as long as the family – conscious of its responsibility – dedicates its whole attention to this part of its very delicate task, and does keep in mind the dangers of the daily way from the school to the parents’ house in a more or less spoiled atmosphere of a city.

Generally spoken, all the things suitable to fight boredom and anaemia, those two large promoters of immorality in colleges, are the best means against immorality. Nothing excels a healthy, balanced, cheerful existence. The importance of such a topic cannot be pictured in one volume, because it exceeds the task of this writing. If I touched it by the way, so only because I noticed everywhere that the evil exists, and that one takes the wrong steps by appealing to moral control in order to redress it, while the best means to oppose it is a successful hygiene of spirit and body” [“Schule”, p. 158 f].

In this opinion Coubertin is obviously affected by his view on education in English boarding schools. They were to him exemplary, while his judgement on French high schools was scathing. Thus Coubertin regarded the Rugby College, which had been moulded by the pedagogue Thomas Arnold, as an exemplary college. Arnold had succeeded in finding “the precise formulation of the threefold role of sport for the pedagogy: Its physical role consists in bringing the body into balance, to strengthen the muscles, to soothe the senses and the imaginative power” [“Schule”, p. 97]. This “calming down” of the senses and the imaginative power is certainly also differently interpreted. In reality Rugby was rather a “sexual concentration camp”, as Alkemeyer remarks;

Arnold, allegedly so liberally minded, was the advocate of a strict observance of behaviour, custom and moral: “His main enemies were called masturbation and homosexuality” [Alkemeyer 1996 a, p. 73].

Hence Coubertin's views of a sporting education refer not only to the body, but also to the "moral" – an opinion that runs at the bottom through Coubertin's entire educational thinking about the effect of body education; the sportsman trains together with the physical also a "mental-moral musculature" ["Schule", p. 110]. Only the control of the own "unsettled passions", above all of sexuality, would elevate man over the mere animal [Alkemeyer 1996 a, p. 97f].

Critical for Coubertin is above all the time of puberty, in which the juvenile has already the body of a man, but is still controlled and confused by "malicious instincts [cited by Alkemeyer 1996 a, p. 126]. It is necessary to overcome quickly this unstable condition, and to lead from the status of the still instinct-controlled boy to "true manliness".

Coubertin regarded as touchstone the probation in the sporting fight. In contrast to the amusements which "degrade" the young man, the pleasure of sport contributes to his perfection and refinement; therefore the sport is "so closely linked with moral" ["Ol. Gedanke", p. 105]. The discipline practiced in sport "does ... not ... bend and suppress the human instincts, energies and passions, but collects and canalizes them into the individual accomplishment of the tasks and examinations" [Alkemeyer 1996 a, p. 99]; the sport is "a school for a noble mind and for moral purity" ["Ol. Gedanke", p. 116].

These statements of Coubertin on "moral", respectively on the "dangers of the sexual instinct" for young people, are obviously common property of the contemporary pedagogy. These statements do hardly differ for instance from the opinions of Catholic pedagogues and moral theologians. For them too the sporting exercises are considered as a proven means against the dangers and aberrations of sexuality [Koch 2002 a, p. 82–86]. Hence this view is not only to be found by Christian authors. That Coubertin takes this view relativizes also his reproaches directed at Christianity, respectively the (Catholic) church that they devaluated the bodily-physical reality, and therefore also the physical exercises.

By Coubertin's statements about sexual moral something becomes clear yet, that determines his entire view of the aim of education. "Sport" is for him an "instrument" in the "service" of human formation. Hence it is about a "functional" understanding of sport activities. The actual characteristic of sporting activities, the play character, does not exist in this system of pedagogy. The fact that "physical exercises" feed on the impetus of life lies outside of this approach.

Coubertin and his Relations to Representatives of the Catholic Church

Obviously Coubertin tried during his whole life to find confederates for the realization of his reform ideas. From the representatives of the Catholic Church there are in

this connection to be named especially the Dominican Father Henri Marie Didon [Diem labels him incorrect "Jesuit": 1965, p. 22], Cardinal Merry Del Val, Permanent Under-Secretary under Pope Pius X, Pius X, and Cardinal Mercier of Mecheln. Only short mentioned are Cardinal Henry Newman, whom Coubertin met by his visit in England [cf. Eyquem 1972, p. 57], Pope Leo XIII (1878–1903), about whom is said however that "these things were totally foreign to his nature" ["Kampagne", p. 144], and Pope Pius XI (1922–1939).

Father Didon (1840–1900), in France a well-known writer and preacher [cf. Platz 1931], was probably the first notable church representative who entertained sympathies for Coubertin's educational ideas: "Only Father Olivier, ... director of the college of Juilly, and Father Didon showed cautious interest." [Eyquem 1972, p. 79].

Yes, Coubertin attributed the progress of sports in Catholic private colleges to Didon's influence, since he had become Rector of the college of Arcueil in the neighbourhood of Paris. On his visit in Arcueil 1891 Didon invited Coubertin to the foundation of the college sport association; both took part in the following "paper-chase" ["Schule", p. 50f]. "It was Father Didon who described the nature of sport with those three words, which he let embroider on the pennant of his school sport association in Arcueil: Citius, Altius, Fortius" [Eyquem 1972, p. 135].

Coubertin, as you know, suggested 1894 on the foundation congress of the IOC in Paris' Sorbonne successfully this motto. Two years later the first Olympiad in modern times took place in Athens, and Didon sat as honour guest beside the Greek king. In Athens he also preached at Easter day a much noticed sermon in the Catholic Church. He spoke therein of his admiration for the classical education of the Greeks; it included and taught the physical strengths. This education must enter again into the education of young persons [cf. Müller 1996, p. 57].

One year later Didon will be the celebrated orator of the Olympic congress of Le Havre. Coubertin reports that Didon "put lots of people into ecstasy by his flaming speeches – a special charisma of him" ["Erinnerungen", p. 53]. Topic of the "grandiose lecture" ["Kampagne", p. 107] were the character-moulding characteristics of sport – hence experiences gathered by him during his term of office in Arcueil: "The moral effect of physical exercises on children and young people, and the influence of effort on character formation and personality development" [Lochmann 2000, p. 15]

Whether Coubertin has been, as Müller means, "crucially moulded" by Didon in his educational ideas, especially in those concerning the sporting exercises, and whether Didon "supplied Coubertin with the model for his considerations about the importance of effort, self-conquest and persistence for the sporting contest, in

a word: about the moral forces of modern sport" [Müller 1996, p. 61], may be left undecided. But it is hardly imaginable, that Didon would have given his blessing to the inhuman consequences of sport, which are system-immanent to Olympism and which become more and more evident today but which originate without doubt in Coubertin's ideas:

"The attempt to impose on the combatant sport a guideline of obligatory moderation is a utopia. Its followers need unrestrained liberty. Therefore one has given them the motto: *Citius, Altius, Fortius*" ["Ol. Gedanke", p. 151]. "Hence yield to it, you disciples of unnatural belief in moderation: We will continue to put that motto into practice which Father Didon once gave his pupils on their life way, and which became the motto of the Olympic thought: *Citius, Altius, Fortius*" ["Erinnerungen I", p. 216].

Several times Coubertin reported about his Rome visit in 1905 [cf. Schwank 1979, p. 210–213, and 1996, p. 30ff]. On the one hand he was interested in the planned realization of the Olympiad in 1908 in Rome; on the other hand in (as he meant) a necessary acknowledgment of sport by the Catholic Church. Coubertin's interlocutor was first probably Cardinal Undersecretary of State Merry Del Val (1865–1930). Coubertin notes that the Cardinal had been a pupil of Eton ["Erinnerungen I" p. 77]; he had told him that Pope Pius X (1835 – 1914) had as archbishop of Venice acknowledged and promoted the performances of the Gondolieri; he had, shortly before Coubertin's Rome visit, also permitted a gym association, "to show him in the Vatican Gardens its abilities" ["Schule", p. 144].

Coubertin's alleged object by his Vatican visit was – as already mentioned – above all that the Catholic side should be interested in "pleading for the matter of sport, or in supporting its practice. The excommunication which had been inflicted formerly on the antique Olympiads – was it really directed against the pagan customs only?" ["Schule", p. 143] In his "Memories" is said that Coubertin had been interested in getting "from the Vatican the abolition of a kind of prohibition (interdict) which in many clerical circles had impeding effects in regard to sport pedagogy"; this aim has been "perfectly" achieved ["Erinnerungen I" p. 75].

Of course, here has to be noted that, as far as the antique Olympiads are concerned, not any excommunication has been inflicted (excommunication is inflicted on persons); the prohibition of the plays in Olympia comes from the Emperor Theodosius I (379–395). There is not any canon of a church synod that inflicts the plays with the anathema, but there are surely canons against the participation, respectively against those who take part in these plays. But also in modern times there is no church prohibition or "interdict" [so translated in "Erinnerungen" p. 70] regarding the sport pedagogy.

When Coubertin in this connection says, there is a "Bible word which can be interpreted as complete condemnation of sports", and quotes as authority the passage about the "haughtiness of the body" as "one of the worst sources of sin" ["Kampagne", p. 143], then there is at the bottom of it obviously a wrong understanding of the concerned text, or a wrong German translation [cf. Schwank 1979, p. 211, note 52]. At other places the words "life pride" ["Ol. Gedanke", p. 54] or "haughtiness of life" ["Schule", p. 93] are used by Coubertin.

St John's First Letter (2:16) speaks of the "lust of the flesh, the lust of the eyes, and of the boasting of life". Thereby "lust of the flesh" means in no way sporting exercises; not even the disorder and the endangering caused by the sensual animal instincts are meant [Coubertin calls them the basic dangers just of juveniles], but generally any action against God's commandments. Hence the quoted text is by no means directed against the "joy of life", which is – according to Coubertin – "the nature and characteristic of sport" ["Kampagne", p. 143].

In Coubertin's report about his Vatican visit is then said that Merry Del Val had spoken about "sport with the understanding of a man of world and of a grand seigneur".

Then is said: "Hence it was easy for me to get from the Pope words full of benevolent sympathy for the Olympic spirit revived again. Pius X seemed to be quite interested in the Roman Olympiad. There was no doubt that the Catholic groups of the Italian youth welfare organizations would have gotten permission for their participation" ["Kampagne", p. 144].

Similar one reads in the "Memories": "The head of the Catholic Church was interested in the plan of a Roman Olympiad and spoke extraordinarily kindly about it. He promised also a tangible proof of his feelings in the near future" ["Erinnerungen I", p. 77].

Whether Pius X however, as Coubertin writes many years later in 1929, did bless "my renewal founded on paganism", is a statement which can be duplicated only with difficulty ["Ol. Gedanke", p. 136]. In case Coubertin understood his demand for a "return to paganism ... as the cult of humankind, or better: as cult of this (earthly) life" ["Achtung", p. 22], and wanted and got for *that* the Pope's approval, then Pius X would have given up fundamental faith teachings. Coubertin obviously interpreted the "papal benediction", usual given at the end of an audience, as consent to the views represented by him – this is in no way justified.

There will be again told in detail about a high church dignitary, namely Cardinal Mercier (1851–1926), Archbishop of Mecheln, on the occasion of the Olympiad in Antwerp 1920. In the morning of the opening of the plays Cardinal Mercier held a service in the cathedral; but it was no public, obligating service for the participants.

Coubertin substantiated this procedure with the fact that an obligation could “displease mature men ...”. “But if one invited them outside of the plays to a celebration into the church, then we just granted religion – like all other moral strengths of mankind – a place within the Olympiad. But the celebration had to be neutrally in its form, in order to stand above all denominations. No mass, no marching in of priests into the sanctuary. The ‘De Profundis’ as remembrance hymn for those who had in the last four years dropped out, and the Tedeum as hopeful hymn for success. One could name them worldly hymns that gave opportunity to a beautiful musical reproduction.

A speech could follow, provided that it was free-thinking. This unusual program had a fast effect on spirit and heart of Cardinal Mercier. By the tragic fact that this time the list of the Olympic dead was so frightening long, the celebration became particularly large and solemn. I believe that all those who were present got a deep impression from the words which were spoken by the famous prelate and which were framed by the wonderful harmonious sounds” [“Erinnerungen I”, p. 160–161].

This passage from Coubertin’s “memories” betrays nevertheless loud and clear, which rank the “relations” to the Catholic Church had for him. It was opportune in those first years to win the representatives of a “large moral power within humankind”. This aspect was obviously crucial for Coubertin. He had long since left the ground of the religion of his childhood and youth. This is proven less by positive statements against clericalism and dogmatism especially in the Catholic Church, but rather by his views on religion in general.

In the light of those statements the representatives of the church appear therefore only as welcome confederates, as docile assistants in the pursuit of the Olympic ideas and as unsuspecting promoters of the Olympic ideology or “religion”. Only once Coubertin mentions a contact with the Vatican in April 1923: “The members of the IOC ... went into the Vatican. There their president after a previous long audience received from Pope Pius XI again the assurance that the Olympic thought had his whole sympathy” [“Erinnerungen I” p. 180]. But details of this “long audience” are not known.

Coubertin’s Views on Christianity and Its Relation to the Body and to Physical Exercises

Time and again Coubertin dealt in his writings with Christianity and its relation to the body and to physical exercises. As much as he on the one side speaks highly of individual personalities and representatives of Christianity because of their positive attitude, he has on the other side then an almost fundamental distrust – as he

expresses himself – of the Christian “doctrine”. Eyquem cites statements of Coubertin, that he “could hardly imagine a more backward and more intolerant program” [Eyquem 1972, p. 65]. This negative view of the Christian “doctrine” is most clearly expressed in his thoughts on “school, sport and education”. But also in many other places are critical expressions of Coubertin about this topic.

Coubertin treats the “history of humankind” in two chapters of the mentioned writing [“Schule”, p. 58–77]. The statements concerning our topic begin with the description of the situation of the Christians in the Roman Empire. There one is surprised by the following sentence: “Opinion and faith are free; the Christians too do enjoy the same liberty as the remaining people, and Christ takes his place in the Pantheon, if his followers are ready to grant a place in their services not just to the idols but to the emperor as living idol” [“Schule”, p. 65].

Apart from the philological question whether this sentence is to be understood conditional or as statement: The Christians were not ready in the first centuries to enter in any form into the emperor cult. The many martyrs paid with their blood and life. To sacrifice before the picture of the emperor was not an insignificant religious ritual for them (which could be done also by “atheists”); for them it was equivalent to apostasy from the Christian faith. Christianity did not understand itself primarily as “religion” (the Christians were suspected even of atheism and were accused of “irreligion”: cf. to it Ratzinger 1968, p. 118), but as “faith”.

In his overview about the medieval history the far-reaching influence of Christianity on man is hardly mentioned by Coubertin. That changes when he comes to speak about the Reformation. It read: The Reformation brought in its wake an opposite movement, namely “the establishment of the ‘Society of Jesu’ and the Council of Trent. The Council of Trent is perhaps one of the most important movements of modern times.”

It changed “religion, politics and philosophy as well as literature ... Against the exaggeration of the Reformation it set the exaggeration of a new dogmatic and irreconcilable Catholicism. It drove away the philosophers who had been up to then the worldly companions of theology. It created the index, this dungeon of thoughts, and the inquisition, this bloody parody on jurisdiction. Finally it killed the Greek genius, banished the orthodoxy into the Slav world, and let revive Latin influences, which were reflected in the following century in literary works of such beauty that the delighted world forgave them their emotionally coldness” [“Schule” p. 73–74].

The qualified and unqualified reproaches mentioned in these sentences, as it were, in one breath, can take away one’s breath. The Jesuit Order was in no way founded for the protection against the Reformation, although it carried later the “counter-reformation” decisively. The

oldest “index” of books inflicted with censure was published 1544 by the theological faculty of the Paris University; the Trent “index” dates only from the year 1564. The “inquisition” is not a “child” of the Trent Council, but came into being already in the time of the high Middle Ages; in 1231 it got by Gregor IX as its actual task the fight against the heretics.

In any case the inquisition can naturally be charged with much wrong, so the burning of Giordano Bruno and the condemnation of Galileo’s opinions. But what is meant with the killing of the “Greek genius” and the “emotional poverty” of the Latinists (the Latin Church?) as consequence of the Trent Council is nowhere verified.

Which concerns the philosophers who were “driven out” can hardly refer to Descartes, who was a quite faithful son of the church; and just as little to Blaise Pascal.

In the section “The Sport in the Change of the Centuries” [“Schule”, p. 86–100] Coubertin treats also the role of the (medieval) church. The “sport impulse” of human beings had met an “enemy” that was not less to be dreaded than the feudal exclusiveness: the church. “From the beginning Christianity has met athleticism with refusal” [“Schule”, p. 92].

“It filled people with more than disdain of their bodies, namely with disregard. It taught about this body not only that it was bad from the beginning, but that it was filled with sinful tendencies which were pitfalls for the soul ... Its teachings ... caused an imbalance in the human nature, the far-ranging consequences of which reach up to our days yet.”

These consequences showed themselves clearly in the “antagonism of spirit and flesh” [“Schule”, p. 93–94]. The “contempt” of the body, typical for the Middle Ages, was a “tremendous mistake” with not to be foreseen “scientific and social consequences” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 6]. For Coubertin it was quite certain anyhow “that Christianity was responsible for the division of man in body and spirit” [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 151]; it is about time, “after a long and body-hostile and spirit-directed ‘wrong’ age of ‘asceticism’ to realize the harmony of body and soul” [Wirkus 1992, p. 309].

That the Church Fathers rejected the late antique athleticism is an uncontested fact. With this refusal they were in “good society” – for instance of a Seneca or a Marc Aurel. Their refusal was thereby however primarily for the cult of idols, which was e.g. connected with the antique plays, but also for the brutal and degenerate business of the gladiators. That they condemned therefore also body care and physical exercises, yes, even called the body in itself wicked, is not only an unproven assertion, but has to be decidedly rejected on grounds of the evidence of the Christian literature.

What is more, if there are statements of Church Fathers and church writers with a body-devaluating tendency, then the reasons for this undervaluation of the

body lie precisely in the Greek-Platonic understanding of the body, in no case however in the Biblical view. There the human being is seen in its oneness and wholeness [cf. for this Koch 1965 and 1978]. The body undervaluation, which is quite present in Christianity up to our time, is to be attributed above all to the “Greek genius” sworn to by Coubertin. His reproach:

“One cannot put for centuries the fleshly human being under a ban, and then assume the child would not suffer under this constant curse. One cannot declare humility, obedience and self-degradation to corner pillars of the progress of humankind, without steering pedagogy into an unnatural direction” [“Schule”, p. 23], (*this sentence*) is directed against Coubertin himself; this view is, by the way, in clear contrast to his opinions (stated above) about human sexuality and the education of children and young people, where clearly an “antagonism”, yes, even a “dualism” is held.

As for the Middle Ages, there Coubertin’s judgements are wrong. The different “physical exercises” were deeply rooted in people’s life and were cultivated over centuries. Hence the human body was “neither ... rigorously negated and on principle despised”, but also not, “in the sense of a much later time, regarded as a value in itself” [Körbs 1938, p.11]. Obviously Coubertin did not know the corresponding facts or ignored them. In each case his negative judgements about the Middle Ages show that his historical knowledge is doubtful and betrays clearly the dependence on anti-Christian prejudices of the time being.

Here are added and commentated still other statements of Coubertin, which shall prove his view of a sport and body-hostile Christianity, respectively church.

In 1895 he writes in the “bulletin” of the IOC: The antique “athleticism let degrade itself to get into the Roman circus arena. Christianity finished it” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 8]. Similar it read later, “Christianity extinguished finally the flames on its (*i.e. athleticism’s*) altars” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 129]. The Greek “athleticism” and the Roman “circus” were two completely different things. That is by the way also the reason why the Greek “athletics” survived the Roman “circus” – for instance in the “Olympiads” living on in the neighbourhood of Antiochia in Syria.

In connection with his visit by Pope Pius X in the year 1905 Coubertin writes that there existed a “Bible word which can be interpreted as complete condemnation of sport”; as proof he cites the expression “pride of the body”, “one of the worst sources of sin” [“Kampagne”, p. 143].

A speech in 1918 in Lausanne reads likewise, “Christianity has given athleticism ‘the mortal blow’”. Then he says: “It is remarkable to see that the church ... showed itself severe toward the physical culture, for it pursued here the source of that ‘pride of life’ which the scripture

condemned” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 53f] Above [p. 47] has been stated already that this interpretation does by no means justice to the matter treated in the text.

In the same speech of Coubertin is said further: “The sport impulse would have spread in the Middle Ages over whole Europe. But it was oppressed by feudalism, and after the church had broken away from chivalry, it returned again to its distrust of physical culture in which it seemingly noticed a dangerous forerunner of independent thinking” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 55].

How far the church (just in the high and late Middle Ages it was a very heterogeneous creation – according to the countries in which it existed) had in the physical culture to fear a “dangerous forerunner of independent thinking”, one were glad to hear. But there are no adequate proofs, because there are none.

The time of Renaissance was deeply moulded by Christianity and nevertheless not an enemy of “independent thinking” [cf. Körbs 1938].

That Coubertin criticizes the Christian view of the body, respectively its body undervaluation is indisputable. In many details this criticism is certainly also correct and qualified. He does it however on the background of his own clearly dualistic view of man’s bodily being. Characteristic for that is this statement:

“Spirit-soul and character are riders who ride the animal body that is stronger than they, and to the arbitrariness of which they would find themselves delivered, if they would not bridle it with an art that suffices to steer and tame its strength” [cited by Malter 1971, p. 28, note 42].

Even clearer, and more shocking reads another text: “Now flesh, feeling and instinct gain the victory, now it is gained by spirit, will and consciousness; because exactly these two despots are fighting in us for the first rank, and their quarrel tears us often up in a cruel way” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 127]. Also Plato could not have formulated the anthropological dualism more clearly.

Malter refers in this connection to the origin of this view, hence from where this dualistic conception of human nature comes. Coubertin was rooted in the Cartesian view: “His considerations” were “always lead by Descartes’ duality of *res cogitans* and *res extensa*”; the “unity of man” was “a totality consisting of two parts” [Malter 1996, p. 9]. Hence one demanded the “harmonization” of body and spirit:

“Not according to the subjective intention, but probably to the matter in question Coubertin’s ‘Olympism’ is the doctrine of ‘brotherhood between spirit and body’. Hence the attempt to overcome the Cartesian despair at a seemingly indissoluble affair – the separation of *res cogitans* and *res extensa* – by practising (*sport*); Sporting activities offer people the possibility to bring to an end this separation of body and spirit”: “Sport can impart the experience of a completed harmony between spirit and body.” The “eurhythmics of life” is the bodily-

delightful experiencing of that desired harmony, “an experience of earthly bliss, a paganism which has to retain humanity, because it represents an ideal of human life fulfilment” [Malter 1996, p. 10–11].

Whether Coubertin’s conceptions of a “harmony between spirit and body” and of a “eurhythmics of life” lead nevertheless to a “cult of the body”, hence “get stuck in the body cult”, one may differ in opinion. Laudable is at any rate Coubertin’s conviction that the sportsman is a “human being of discipline and knows the borders of mere sensual happiness”; the sport saves from “the intellectual-arrogant contempt of the body, and what is more, from the destruction of body and spirit by sensual pleasure” [Malter 1996, p. 14–15].

Coubertin’s “Muscle Religion” – an Affront Against Christianity

As you know, Coubertin understood Olympism as “religion”: “The first and substantial element of the old as well as of the new Olympism is: to be a religion” [“Erinnerungen I”, p. 217]. Yes, he calls Olympism a “philosophical religious doctrine” [cited by Eyquem 1972, p. 243]. The members of the IOC represent for him a “collegium of priests”, that has however to keep its independence and may neither let itself be guided “by a flat pursuit of profit nor by artificial cravings for acknowledgment” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 143 f].

But this view of Olympism as religion does not drop “from the sky”; it is rather prepared in his thinking, i.e. in his mental development. Hence it is appropriate to take first notice of Coubertin’s view on “religion” generally. Important statements are in his contribution “Moral Instruction and Religion” [“Schule”, p. 150–159].

In his understanding of “religion” he is obviously crucially influenced by August Comte (1798–1857) and Hippolyte Taine (1828–1893), who lectured at the “College for Political Sciences” in Paris and was a representative of “applied positivism” [Boulongne 1996, p. 39]; at this “school” Coubertin got his academic formation.

For Coubertin it is necessary to direct the view not “rigidly to the religion familiar to him”; he had to shake “the barriers into which the churches tried to restrain the thirst for knowledge”. As chains proved for him the church “doctrine” or the “dogma”, as it is expressed especially in the “Credos”; they are too close “for a half-way emancipated thinking, and for research: For people with a free spirit the doors of the houses of God closed. ... They do no longer try to get into the places of worship but meet all around. There some of them erect lonesome altars. ... The service to the ‘universal God’ is born.”

This change, comparable to an earthquake, had happened by the influence of science, and had not stopped before the churches. “Here does not emerge a new religion, but new views of religion and its practice, new

kinds of faith and hope.” In any case, one can see “the strengthening and renewal of the religious feeling, a fact the importance of which for pedagogy may not be ignored” [“Schule”, p. 150–152]. Into which “direction” the effort is to go, Coubertin says in the following sentence:

“I do not belong to those who believe that mankind can get along without religion. I take the word here in its most general sense, not as belief in a certain form of the divine reality, but as turn to the ideal of a higher life, as the desire for perfection” [cited from Eyquem 1972, p. 109].

For the education of the juvenile conscience above all “the idea of God, in its superabundance and its natural purity” is indispensable. This “moral instruction” may however in no way be guided “by the dogmatic teaching method of the church. ...

It is not his task to enumerate dogmas and even less to compare them with each other”; what young people need is “a clear and worthy representation of moral, based on the idea of God” [“Schule”, p. 157]; a “moral instruction under exclusion of the idea of God” is impossible [“Schule”, p. 196].

These statements of Coubertin about “religion” are not the attempt to define “religion” from “religious contents”, but rather from its “functions”. For him above all the imparting of moral belongs to these “functions”; from this viewpoint the Christian religion can only appear as a “divine educational establishment”. Hence it is not the duty of the priest “to preach the gospel but to preach the moral law”; in this task he may not let himself be lead “by the dogmatic teaching method of the church” [“Schule”, p. 157]. The Christian religion is reduced for Coubertin to the love of one’s neighbour. Eyquem writes in her biography: “Love of the neighbour is the mainstay of Coubertin’s whole work. He is deeply moulded by Christ’s teachings, even if he makes reservations to what has become of it in the course of time” [Eyquem 1972, p. 126] He does not want to be argued out of acknowledging “the good that the spirit of the gospel created in regard to the social reality” [“Achtung”, p. 29].

Here it becomes clearly recognizable how Coubertin is coined by the ideas of the French “Enlightenment”. The Christian revelation religion had lost for him all “supernatural” elements, and is limited to a few, rationally comprehensible and approachable truths, namely first to the existence of a God, who is understood as the highest and infinitely good being, and as guarantor of moral, and then to the obligation of all people to love and respect each other. Religion and Christianity have for Coubertin only a “social integration value” [Alkemeyer 1996b, p. 76].

Characteristic in this connection is also Coubertin’s view of the nature of the Christian churches. For him it seems to be a fact that the churches (like all “religions”) developed on the ground of the “Dead cult”: There was

only one cornerstone, only one principal stay, namely the Dead cult. All institutions – dogmas, rites, priests – strive for this aim, to draw time and again strength there” [“Achtung”, p. 17]. Thus this “Dead cult” implies “the highest religion of mankind, it stands above all churches ... and neither logic nor reflection, nor any discovery can stand their ground against it” [“Achtung”, p. 16]. “A church is a union of people who are united by hope.” This “hope for a subsequent existence” is the “large reservoir of religious thinking” [“Achtung”, p. 18]. Also the Christian religion with its different ramifications is the materialization of that thinking.

To this view of Coubertin is to be said first: There is a large difference between the “hope for an eternal life”, as it is characteristic for Christianity, and the “Dead cult”. This is – at least in the modern religion sociology – understood as “ritual actions on dead human beings” and as “post-mortal ritual veneration” [Bürkle 2001, p. 127]. In this sense the “Dead cult” has certainly a great importance in many religions, particularly in the “nature religions”, the more so as to the dead is attributed an importance for their descendants. Of course, the Christians too kept the memory of the dead in honour, for instance by the celebration of the “All Soul’s Day” or “Memorial Day”. The reference point or the actual “reference person” of the Christian faith is however not a dead body but a “living person”. Therefore Coubertin’s thesis that also the Christian religion originated in the Dead cult finds no support in the modern religion sociology.

It is to be pointed to a further important difference of “Olympism” to Christian thinking yet. The historical understanding in Christian thinking is “linear”, “eschatological”: The historical time moves toward an end. But Coubertin’s historical understanding is “cyclic”: “The affinity to a ... revolving time model is unmistakable” [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 154]. One could interpret therefore this view as a relapse into mythic thinking. In “Olympism” appear – in view of disenchantment and differentiation, rationalization and mechanization – “the longings for a remythologization” [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 161–162]. The “mythic thinking” is represented “by the course of the stadium, a course that returns to its beginning” [Gebauer 1996, p. 15].

In Coubertin’s statements about “religion” appears a fundamental difference of thinking. “Religion” is for him primarily – as has already been explained – a “religious feeling” which manifests itself in “rituals” and “ceremonies”, not least in the love of one’s neighbour.

The concept “religion” includes however more, and something else. “Religion” is a way of human existing by the relation to a last “sense reason”, which as the creating and sense-giving absolute reality concerns the interpretation of all beings. This existing by a ‘sense reason’, experienced and accepted as “absolute”, respectively “unconditioned” valid, corresponds to the existential reference

to a “sphere of the absolute”. In this sense also “atheistic” world views are to be understood and named as “religion”, if they want to impart to their “faithful” a “sense of life”.

Here has also to be pointed to an important fact. Christianity did not define itself with the term “religion” (as it e.g. applies to Greece and Rome), but with the term “faith” [cf. Ratzinger 1968, p. 25].

“Religion” and “faith” are in no way identical. The Christian “faith” does not exist primarily in a system of rites and behaviours which express a “religious feeling”; it means rather the option that the reality which makes possible a true human existence is a personal vis-à-vis who revealed itself in Jesus of Nazareth and with whom the believer gets in touch.

Coubertin’s “religion” or “Olympism” has nothing to do with the Christian view of religion and faith; one may not lose sight of that, as it apparently happens by Hörmann [1968] [cf. Spitzer 2003, p. 68–69]; it gets along without “transcendence”, hence “without a revealing God”. What Coubertin understands “as religion must be considered as an atheistic atrophy stage of a phenomenon that has been handed down within the history of civilization” [Stygermeer 1999, p. 157].

We meet these ideas of Enlightenment also after the French Revolution, e.g. by Augustus Comte who wanted to establish his sociology as a “human science similar to religion, and as the crown in the hierarchy of all sciences” [Weis 1995, p. 139], and who had a large influence on Coubertin with his “religion of humanity”. The admiration of the “great nature” of humankind stood in its center. This “religion” (Comte speaks of the “religion terrestre”, hence an “earthly religion”: Malter 1971, p. 19) serves the acting of people for the public weal, for which he used the expression “altruism”. By it becomes clear the close “relationship” of Coubertin’s “sport religion” with Comte’s conceptions of a “civil religion”.

Coubertin followed Comte just in the view that the morbid condition of society could only be overcome when people in a “full altruism” place their strengths to the service of the whole: “The society of the future will be [HYPERLINK “http://www.con-spiration.de/texte/english/structure.html”](http://www.con-spiration.de/texte/english/structure.html) \l “love” altruistic or it will no longer exist: one has to choose between altruism or chaos” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 142]. In another place Coubertin speaks of the “cult of the present life” [“Achtung”, p. 22]:

“The cult of the earthly-bodily existence, which consists in the effort and in the meditation of this effort by means of imagination, gets the character of a happening from which salvation is hoped by the enhancement of life” [Malter 1971, p. 21].

This view of “religion”, as it can be seen also by Coubertin [cf. Koch 2002b, p. 93–94], manifests itself in its understanding of Olympism as “religio athletae” [“Erinnerungen I”, p. 218]. He recommended to a secularized world the “continuation of the service at the again light-

ing up Olympic fire” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 133]. Characteristic is also his “Ode to the Sport”, in which the “religion of muscle power” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 47], hence of a biologism of Darwinian coinage, is clearly expressed. Coubertin is in no way interested in any kind of transcendence, but in the “cult of man”:

“There is “a paganism – the true one – from which mankind will never free itself and – I dare the seeming blasphemy – from which a release would by no means be good: I mean the cult of the ‘human being’, of the human body, of spirit and flesh, feeling and will, instinct and consciousness” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 127].

One gets indeed the impression, as if even the mention of God’s name in the early years (as the “reason” of any moral) was later replaced by the cult of the “human being”: man should be for man “the highest being”. To adapt the sport religion of neo-Olympism to the modern times “Coubertin replaced the gods of the antique by myths of the modernity: on the one hand by ‘nation’, on the other hand by the universal concept ‘highest being=human being’. In neo-Olympism sport is interpreted by Coubertin simultaneously as service for the ‘native country, the race and the flag’” [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 179–180]:

“There is only one cult that can cause today a durable connection of the citizens, namely that which will develop around the sporting exercises of the youth, the symbol of the unrestricted survival of the race and the hope of the nation” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 67].

Do such expressions not arouse the impression of a proximity to an intolerable “social Darwinism”? If the unrestricted “fight for existence”, the “struggle for live” is proclaimed [“Kampagne”, p. 146], where remains then an area for the unfit, the failures and losers yet? Are “full human beings” only those “who in measuring their abilities in the contest with nature and their peers will stand their ground?” [Herms 1997, p. 66]

The Presentation of the “Muscle Religion” in Art

In Coubertin’s view of religion became apparent that he was not so much interested in the development of scientific or philosophical “teachings”. For him “the aesthetic expression and the cult rituals and symbols of the Olympic ceremony were far more important than precise definitions of the ‘Olympic idea’”. For this reason he set highest value on the “chapter about the ceremonies” and the “splendour ... of a powerful symbolism” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 40].

But how can be represented this hope to heal by sport a society threatened by degeneration, and with it the “cult of the ‘human being’”? For Coubertin therefore “the chapter about ‘ceremonies’ is ... one of the most important that we have to arrange” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 40].

According to his opinion this is only possible by the interaction of the arts. He sees in the different arts the guarantee to save the Olympiads “from the everyday life of life purposes, dissonances and discordant notes”; the “plays” should penetrate the place and the people with a spiritual strength “that fills everything and makes divine the whole” [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 149–150].

In the first place Coubertin has in mind thereby architecture; he demands the spatial separation between “altis”, i.e. the holy district, and the “profan city”, as it was realized already in the antique Olympia [“Ol. thought”, p. 29]. Architecture should attract “the visitors like a place of pilgrimage”, and should inspire “reverence” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 27].

Whether and to what extent Coubertin was independent in regard to the “Olympic ritual” and his “ceremonies” or was influenced by contemporary, especially sociological ideas cannot be proved in detail. But fact is that there are not only striking parallels in the “pseudo liturgies” of the French Revolution [cf. Pieper 1964, p. 97–104] or in August Comte’s “Religion of Humanity”, in the centre of which stands the ritual veneration of the “great being”, of mankind [cf. Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 163–167]. Above all there are parallels with the sociologist Emile Durkheim (1858–1917).

For him symbols and rites have a great importance for each society. “Only by symbols, rituals and collective customs ... can be given to an otherwise abstract community a sizable reality” [Alkemeyer 1996 A, p. 168].

Among the different arts Coubertin intended an important role for music in the Olympic ceremony. Hence it is not by chance that Coubertin found crucial suggestions for it by Richard Wagner (1813–1883). As you know, he was deeply impressed by Wagner’s music dramas. In 1904 Coubertin did not participate in the Olympiad in Saint Louis. Instead he was with his wife in Bayreuth, and became enthusiastic at the “deeply moving sounds” [“Erinnerungen I”, p. 70] of Wagner’s “Lohengrin”. Hence Wagner’s music dramas inspired him for his conceptions of Olympic “ceremonies”. Obviously he had a liking for the “Wagnerian aesthetics” – for him “a dogma that gets more and more convinced followers” [“Ol. Gedanke”, p. 42].

That means for Alkemeyer: “In deliberate contrast to a word- and writing culture led by the intellect, Coubertin designed the Olympic ceremony therefore as Wagnerian synthesis of the arts. In Wagner’s Bayreuth ... the ‘Olympic horizon’ had opened to him for the first time before his mental eye”. [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 148].

Wagner intended and aimed at “an alliance of art and cult”; for him it was a matter of a “lively represented religion” [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 151]. Here lies the origin for the arrangement of the Olympic ceremony.

No wonder that Coubertin was deeply impressed by the opening ceremonies of the Olympiad 1936 in Berlin,

shaped by the National Socialists. Already in the forefield of the Berlin “plays” he said to Diem in September 1934, “that he could rely for the time being only on Germany as guardian of Olympism, because it alone would understand the Greeks and would create the new man” [cited by Lennartz 2000, p. 211].

After the Olympiad he said enthusiastically that it had been illuminated “by Hitler strength and discipline” – so in his vote of thanks to the Berlin organizers [cited by Gebauer & Wulf 1996, p. 251]. Hence it does also not surprise that Coubertin suggested to the Reichssportführer (*leader of the German sports*) von Tschammer and Osten in March 1937 to “establish an institute in Germany, to which he wanted to leave his letters, recordings and manuscripts about Olympism and the plays” [so Diem by Lennartz 2000, p. 219]:

“I believe that a Centre of Olympic Studies would help ... more than anything else to keep alive and to promote my work, and to save it from wrong tracks, as I fear they might happen” [cited by Lennartz 2000, p. 219 and 242].

The suspicion is not unfounded. All these expressions revealed an essential relationship between Olympism and National Socialism, respectively between those two ideologies [cf. also Teichler 1982]: “They met in the adoration of the body.” [Gebauer & Wulf 1996, p. 16].

Recapitulatory Valuation

Upon the background of the statements just made in the last section are to be evaluated the single aspects treated in the preceding chapters.

Obviously Coubertin has already early given up the faith of his childhood and youth. So it is quite astonishing that he did not know or ignore e.g. the Christian doctrine that God’s creation as whole is good, hence also the human body. Responsible for that could primarily be his study at the “University for Social Sciences”. He admits: “I left the university as an enlightened spirit” [cited from Eyquem 1972, p. 64].

Coubertin was pupil of the Jesuit College Saint Ignatius in the Rue de Madrid in Paris. By his former teachers he met deaf ears with his ideas of “school sport” and “physical culture”. One gets the impression that he to all those who did not agree to his educational opinions imputed a fundamental refusal of body care and physical exercises. Add to this that the concept “sport” was (and is) so imprecise that by it could be understood very different exercises, plays and competitions. Just Coubertin is a good example for the fact that the most different forms of physical exercises – particularly in the first years of his “campaign” – were termed “sport”. That his former teachers did not want to “give their blessing” to everything is therefore quite understandable. Thereby one should also consider that Coubertin’s “evaluations” of the

plays in the Jesuit Colleges were made from the distance of twenty five years.

Contrary to the Jesuits who obviously did not share Coubertin's view of "sport", he praised several representatives of the Catholic Church, particularly the Dominican Henri Didon and Pope Pius X. In them he found – that was his impression – promoters and advocates of his educational ideas about school sport and sport in general.

But to find out which "motives" both sides had in their meetings is very difficult. The suspicion that Coubertin looked for allies for his efforts cannot be denied. One has nearly the impression he had "pocketed" the representatives of the church for his movement. This assumption is also suggested by the statement of Carl Diem, Coubertin's personal friend, that Coubertin had been a clever tactician; he had been blessed with the "smartness of an advocate", and had skilfully "camouflaged" his projects [Diem 1971, p. 1136]. What is more, Lämmer says Coubertin had "in a mixture of cleverness and romantic glorification ... straightened the antiquity so as he needed it for his noble aims" [Lämmer 2003, p. 136].

Reversely one can certainly assume that Didon and all the more Pius X did probably not see what really mattered to Coubertin; that they understood by "sport" something else; that one wanted to "attach oneself" perhaps from opportunism to the Olympic movement, in order not to lose the connection to the modern time. But at any rate, one cannot duplicate Coubertin's statement from the year 1929, that the Pope had given his blessing to his "renewal based on paganism" ["Ol. Gedanke", p. 136]. Then indeed Weis would be right with his remark that Christianity had obviously no longer protested "against the modern humanistic athletic neo-paganism" [Weis 1995, p. 139]; it had betrayed and forgotten the overcoming of the mythical thinking of antiquity, reached by many fights and victims.

At many points becomes clear: the Olympism, as Coubertin wanted and understood it, does not know transcendence in the Christian sense. Christianity and the Christian churches with their faith convictions are therefore by Coubertin in increasing measure misunderstood, yes, even clearly refused. To call him even a "convinced Christian" [see Stygermeier 1999, p. 158], is therefore impossible. The Christian transcendental thinking is foreign to him; yes, he stands in a clear "opposition to the genuine religiosity of transcendence" [Wirkus 1990, p. 119].

This fact of an internal distance to Christianity cannot be overlooked. "In Olympia the people celebrate themselves. A religion without God leads to the divinization of man and its performance." [Moltmann 1989, p. 435] The Olympic top-performance sportsmen are therefore for Coubertin "the earthly representatives of the highest being of the Olympic muscle religion"; they

are the "icons", the "incarnations", the "sample copies" of mankind" [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 182]. "Sport is transfigured ... to the source of all good deeds, to the spring of beauty and justice, courage and honour, fertility and progress, peace and joy" [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 87] This "message", this "sporting gospel" ["Ol. Gedanke", p. 52], this "model of modernity which should get a sense causing function" [Alkemeyer 1996b, p. 79], is unacceptable not only for Christians.

That Coubertin possessed "the mental format of a universal historian" as Diem writes [1965, p. 8], seems quite doubtful when one reads his historical studies dealing with the valuation of body care and physical exercises. His statements have substantial shortcomings – not only because he could not know some research results yet, for instance Körbs' studies about the Middle Ages and Renaissance [Körbs 1938], but also for the reason that he mostly did not prove his assertions.

There is e.g. no text of a Christian writer of the antiquity and the Middle Ages, that says that the human body is in itself bad or wicked. One fails to see in this connection the appropriate detailed authorities, and the naming of the authors who represented these "doctrines". Obviously Coubertin dealt "very freely with the historical truth, partly from ignorance, partly from calculation" [Lämmer 2003, p. 135].

Coubertin's sweeping statements disqualify him therefore as historian. He got his 'knowledge' seemingly only from a – also for the historian doubtful – secondary literature. Yet the source material would have been at his disposal, especially the Christian texts of the first millennium in the Migne volumes. In this connection the statement is of interest that Coubertin's knowledge of the Greek antiquity consisted "obviously substantially from the Greek and Latin school reading, the rhetoric and history lessons at the Jesuit College in Paris" [Müller 1997, p. 7]. Diem already had noticed by a visit in Lausanne: "The library is rather thin – only a large chest of drawers" [cited by Lennartz 2000, p. 202].

Obviously Coubertin is so prepossessed in favour of his Enlightenment prejudices that he is unable critically to question or verify his judgements. History is apparently for Coubertin only interesting as "instrument of a present-referred moral-social activism", hence in its "usability for the present" [Malter 1971, p. 4], and thus only as "means" to justify his reform ideas, in particular his Olympism: "To celebrate the Olympiad means to appeal to history" ["Ol. Gedanke", p. 154]. The characterization just of this procedure by Wirkus is therefore correct: "Coubertin's conception of history is from the beginning 'coloured' by his aim utopia" [Wirkus 1992, p. 308]. He was not interested in a rational analysis of facts, but in changing the existing conditions. He is "pragmatist and voluntarist" [Wirkus 1990, p. 112], who as a "reviver ... did only obey his instinct that was even more

powerful than his will" [cited by Zentner 1935, p. 45]. This characterization too refers to an internal relationship with National Socialist conceptions.

With his historical judgements about religion and Christianity in general and about the valuation of the body and the physical exercises above all by the Catholic Church, Coubertin influenced and moulded generations of sport scientists. Here has certainly to be named Carl Diem. But even still in recent time the long-known thesis of a body-hostile Christianity is repeated; so when Jacob denounced "the still today substantial body hostility" especially of the Catholic Church [Jacob 1994, p. 210]. It is time to dissociate oneself from those inappropriate sweeping statements. Still the false conclusion is drawn, the lower valuation of the human body (*in relation to the spirit or soul*) meant contempt of the body or hostility against it, and therefore the condemnation of physical exercises.

One is unable to resist the impression that Coubertin – convinced of the "gospel" of Olympism, and seeing himself in the role of the "preacher" – saw his mission therein to convert everybody to the "universal religion of Olympism". He knew only "confessors". The sceptics and doubter, the denier of his "gospel" are 'sentenced': they did not recognize the signs of the time.

Finally there suggests itself still another conclusion. If in the few points addressed in this essay, already several errors, misunderstandings and unproven statements are evident, then that may be the case in other problem fields too.

It is time to make this critical "stock-taking" of Coubertin's thinking. By it would also be seen that the founder of the modern Olympiad had neither the quality of a "genius", nor that of a "universal historian". [cf. Diem 1965, p. 7–9]

Then his figure will step out "from the sacral twilight" [Alkemeyer 1996a, p. 44].

He will appear then as a man who – despite his due to present-day conditioned conceptions and ideas, yes, despite various mistakes – was one of the great activators for the cultivation of physical exercises and today's sport.

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Olympism and Olympic Education in Poland – State of Art

Michał Bronikowski*, Małgorzata Bronikowska**

* Department of Methodology of Teaching Physical Education
Eugeniusz Piasecki University School of Physical Education, Poznań, Poland

** Department of Olympism and Ethnology of Sport,
Eugeniusz Piasecki University School of Physical Education, Poznań, Poland

Summary

Paper describes situation of research studies, educational and organizational activities concerning Olympism and Olympic Education undertaken in Poland in the last two decades.

It begins with a short outline of selected historical facts on developing Olympism in Polish political and social circumstances, coming to the definition of Olympism and Olympic education from Polish perspective. In the next paragraphs authors describe programmes, activities, and other initiatives related to promotion of Olympic idea in educational contexts. This part provides also critical revision of teaching resources available for teachers, educators but also institutions dealing with youth sports. Finally, there are the most important research findings concerning various age categories, presented in table in a concise form.

Keywords: Olympism, Olympic education, state-of-art.

Introduction

The official definition of Olympism and Olympic education from the IOC Charter is widely recognized and accepted in Poland:

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 fundamental ethical principles [Olympic Charter 2013].

Żukowska [1994] sees Olympic education as a process which needs to be considered at two different levels: I) as a part of overall preparation system for the Olympic Games happening in the cities (more often countries) or organizing particular games; II) as a part of general education system aimed at self-development of certain (Olympic) standards of behaviour in youth achieved by an integrated, reflective teaching of values.

Lipiec [1999, 2007] extends this definition when he says that modern Olympism covers all facts in the domain of human physicality, ranging not just over the 'territories' mapped with the Olympic logo, but also far beyond the notion of sport (Olympic sport), over the

whole 'land' of human physical culture. He also warns against misinterpreting sport education and Olympic education. Those two pathways in educations can only be put together (or parallel as complimentary forms of education) if they are built around the same universal values that apply to all domains of human activity and if they comprise the same behaviours. However, if sport education shifts away from universal values, creating 'a zone of sport-specific regulations' which does not apply to the life outside the sporting arena, it teaches young athletes that there are two levels of norms and values. If we expect them to behave accordingly to Olympic one which is Fair play as a code of behaviour we need to deliver it to them first. One can easily observe that sport education tends to be less demanding in cultural, moral and social aspects but more demanding in biological ones. Therefore, it is no wonder that youths often choose to follow the 'winning at all cost' Lombardian philosophy of playing and strict sport competition with a final segregation on winners and losers that drains the rest of their motivation, disabling them to climb the 'steep hill' of universal values. Thus there is a space for Olympic education, which includes the need for education around the universal values (peace, love, solidarity), through those values and to the Olympic values like excellence, respect

and friendship in mutual understanding, truly universal in their humanistic sense.

More recently Pawłucki [2007] has described Olympic education as a part of ‘Olympic culture’ into which a child is initiated by a teacher in the early phases of education. Later, the responsibility for education according to Olympic, universal, values is shared between teachers and pupils to engage them their self-development. Therefore Olympic education needs to be designed in a way to provide parallel Olympic-related experience and critical reflection about it whilst taking into consideration the phases of pupils’ development. On the other side there is also a School Olympic Club “Jantar”, which exemplifies Olympic education in the most practical way – through the Olympic journey from one Olympic game to another always with a group of school children from the small rural village of Racot, Poland (this will be described in more detail later in the chapter).

Historical record of Olympic education in Poland

The historical roots of Olympism in Poland can be traced back to 1924, when the term first appeared in the weekly sports magazine “Stadjon”. It described (modern) Olympism as something which happens not only once in a four-year interval of the Olympic Games, but also as a direction in which sport should be developed if one wants to provide athletes and sportsmen with the ability and knowledge to participate in international competitions, and yet win [“Stadjon” 21 VIII 1924, no 34, pp. 2–3, after Lipoński 2000, p. 15].

However, information about the Olympic Games had been published in local newspapers even earlier. News from 1896 Athens Games were printed in Kraków’s newspaper “Czas”, and information from 1900 Paris Games in “Przegląd gimnastyczny”. That was in Galicia then under Austro-Hungarian jurisdiction. In Poznań (known then as Posen under German control) information about the first Games were published in “Dziennik Poznański”, “Kurier Poznański” and in the German-language “Posener Tageblatt”. But information about 1900 Paris Games was published only in “Posener Neueste Nachrichten”. Later, from the next Olympic games on, more information started appearing regularly in “Kurier Poznański” [Ziółkowska 1994].

Although it was only the information concerned competitions and results, it is possible to say that before 1919, when the Polish Olympic Committee was formed (after Poland gained back its independence in 1918) there was some social awareness about the Olympic Movement among Polish society. But there was no attention paid to Olympism nor Olympic Education. The only cause for interest was participation in the Games to mark the re-appearance of Poland on the world political

map. It even became the main reason for organizing Polish Olympic Committee which was first called the Committee for Preparation of the Polish Delegation for Participation in Olympic Games (Games of Antwerp 1920). Unfortunately the Committee did not manage to send any Polish athletes to the Games in Antwerp). In December 1919, the Committee was re-named the Polish Committee of the Olympic Games, to be finally called Polish Olympic Committee in October 1924.

In 1916 *Młodzież polska a igrzyska olimpijskie* (Polish Youth and Olympic Games), the first book concerning Olympic matters, was published in Polish in Warsaw by Biernacki. In the book, the author tried to encourage the Polish youth to participate in a big sporting event, such as the Olympic Games were considered to be at that time already. Two years later (1918) a magazine, “Sport Polski” was launched with the purpose of promotion of sports, especially Olympic sports.

It is worth to say that from the very beginning, the Polish Olympic Committee paid special attention to the connection between Olympism and art, believing that this is one of the ways of developing appreciation for the mind and the soul and an aesthetic for the beauty united and developed harmoniously through body movement. Officially from 1928 to 1948 Poland participated in every Olympic Art Competition gaining altogether three gold, two silver, and three bronze medals along with eleven other awards*. Those prizes were gained by the most outstanding Polish artists (poets, composers, architects, painters) who promoted the ideals of Olympism in Polish society. Interestingly, the Polish Olympic Committee was one of the very few committees who carried on with the Olympic Art Content when it was cancelled from the official Olympic programmes. It was (and still is) considered as an important part of sound human development on the base of humanistic, universal values. In 1969 an international painting contest ‘World of Peace’ was organized by Polish Olympic Committee, which gathered paintings from 1200 children around the world. Still today, a Wawrzyn Olimpijski (an Olympic laurel) prize is given once in a 4-year Olympic cycle to the artists and creators of best art and cultural works, who at the same time distinguish themselves with an exceptional attitude towards universal values (thus concerning also in Olympic values).

* We need to emphasise the name of Antoni Wiwulski – Polish architect and sculptor, who declared Polish nationality and as such took part in the first Art Competition of the Olympic program at the Olympic Games in Stockholm in 1912. Medals were awarded in five categories (architecture, literature, music, painting, and sculpture), for works inspired by sport-related themes; see in: K. Furtak, *Olimpijczycy 1924–2006 z Politechniki Krakowskiej*, Muzeum Politechniki Krakowskiej, 2012.

Infrastructure of Olympic education

The main Centre of Olympic Education is located in the offices of the Polish Olympic Committee in the Polish capital of Warsaw. Within the legal structure of the Polish Olympic Committee there is one sub-committee called the Committee of Culture and Olympic Education. The aims of this committee are the following: i) organizing art and literature contents and exhibitions, music concerts and meeting with book writers on the humanistic topics related to universal, Olympic values and ideals; ii) supporting the participation of young Polish artists in international events connected to and developing the Olympic idea; iii) supporting the publication of materials and books that spread the Olympic idea, but also supporting activities and initiatives of local and regional centres of Olympic movement as well as organizing the annual award contests for the best cultural and pedagogical achievements in Olympism.

The Olympic Education Centre co-owns one of the floors of the Olympic Committee building, where permanent Olympic exhibitions and parallel thematic exhibitions are arranged accordingly to the needs and calendar of Olympic activities and are organized by the Museum of Sport. There is a system of organized visits operated, aimed mainly at school classes and kindergartens with such class topics as: 1. A long time ago in Ancient Olympia, 2. In the magic land of five Olympic rings, 3. A seven Olympic wonders route, 4. Mysterious winter Olympic adventure. These are also available for individual and also disabled visitors. These visits are called Olympic classes at the Olympic Centre and are run by the staff of the Olympic Committee and Museum of Sport. Olympic education materials are also available to be downloaded from the Polish Olympic Committee web-site (www.pkol.pl).

There is also Polish Olympic Academy located which was established in 1984. It has 35 members and there is also a Young Members faction for all those under 35 years of age, with experience in Olympic educational programs at International Olympic Academy in Olympia in Greece. The Polish Olympic Academy deals with Olympic education, regularly organizing various activities and supporting activities organized by its members at their respective universities, academic centres and schools (such as Olympic Day runs, Olympic School Days).

There are also Olympic Clubs. In 1997 there were 33 Olympic Clubs, but the number has increased since then and currently there are 205 registered regional Olympic Clubs whose members actively promote Olympic values in their respective local settings. They include former and present Olympic athletes, officials, school youth and distinguished representatives of regional and local municipalities.

Olympic education and the PE curriculum

Before 1985 the educational system in Poland was centralized. This was based on the idea that all settings and all pupils should be considered the same across the country therefore they should get the same knowledge and skills at the same levels of education. Thus all school curricula had been standardized up to the same criteria of an 'average setting'.

The situation wasn't good even until quite recently: 40% of schools did not have their own sports gym, and 75% of physical education classes at primary school children (7–10 years old) were conducted in school corridors [Osiński 1999]. At present there is a sport gym, artificial football pitch in almost every town and village (football fields were built in the governmental program 'Orlik 2012' as one of the initiatives for Euro Championships held in Poland and Ukraine) and 1500 new indoor swimming pools. In 1996 a new policy on physical culture was launched by the Polish government. It planned to change the previous 3×45 minutes a week system of physical education to 5×45 minutes a week. Later, the government withdrew this plan due to financial problems, but a 4×45 minutes a week system was introduced shortly after this in 1999. This (and also a need to adjust the Polish system to the requirements of the Bologna agreements) called for a reform of the whole system of education.

In 1999 administrative, but also curricular changes were introduced and more curricular flexibility was given to the teachers and schools. It was the teachers who took over the responsibility for programming curricula to adjust it to the individual needs of pupils and setting opportunities available at particular schools. This has since caused a lot of problems, though. It transpired that teachers, who for many years used to be given standardized, one-size-fits-all curricula, appeared to have lost their skills in devising new ones. And there were only a small number of new curricula for physical education available on the market. Only two of them included issues concerning Olympism – *Wychowanie fizyczne z elementami edukacji olimpijskiej dla gimnazjum* (Physical education with Olympic education for junior school) [Bronikowska, Bronikowski 2004] for 13–16 years old and *Wychowanie fizyczne z elementami edukacji olimpijskiej dla liceum* (Physical education with Olympic education for secondary school (16–19 years old) [Bronikowski 2003].

After a 10-year period, in 2009 there was a new reform of the education system introduced in Poland, which concentrated mainly on curricular and quality changes. The new curricular document, "Podstawa programowa" (National curricula), detailed basic requirements for each school subject. A new organizational system of physical education was introduced with 2x45

minutes in the daily timetable and additional 2x45 minutes during extra-curricular time (but the form of activity may be chosen by the pupils from the range provided by a school authority at the beginning of the school year). The contents concerning Olympism have been included at the second level of education (primary school grades 4–6, pupils aged 10–13). Now, a PE teacher is obliged to teach his/her pupils about the regulations concerning “fair play” and abiding by the rules, accepting referee’s decisions, appropriate behaviour after the game as well as appropriate behaviour at sporting events. At the next level of education (grammar school grades 1–3, students aged 13–16) students are supposed to learn about the Olympic symbols (flag, five rings, anthem and torch) and apply “fair play” in their activities. Further to this, a special emphasis is placed on dealing with emotions in winning and losing.

At the level of secondary education (high school grades 1–3, students aged 16–19) Olympic problems are introduced through discussions on ethical aspects and consequences of using doping, as well as the unethical behaviour of sport hooligans. Students are also required to recognize a difference between professional sport and sport for all.

A manual using the abovementioned suggestions has been prepared and published in Poznań by Bronikowski and Bronikowska [2010]: *Edukacja olimpijska – poradnik dla gimnazjum* (Olympic education – a teacher’s manual for grammar school) – this will be described about later on.

Olympic education extra-curricular activities

The Department of Olympism and Sport Ethnology of the University School of Physical Education in Poznań was the main partner in the Lifelong Learning Programme entitled: „Olympism and the integration of young people in education“ (2010-1-PL1-COM13-11564 1). As a Comenius sub-programme Regio Partnerships, the programme needs cooperation among different institutions. In this sense, the leader and the organiser of the project was the Poznań City Council (Urząd Miasta Poznania) cooperating with Poznań’s grammar schools and “Start” – the Disabled Sport Association (which arranges the sport culture of disabled people in the city and prepares Paralympic athletes and their spectators). In this project Poznań cooperated with partners from the region of municipality of Kyustendil (Община Кюстендил) in Bulgaria together with the respective institutions. The main aims of the project were based on the values and principles of modern Olympism. The University School of Physical Education was responsible for research implementation programme introducing Olympism classes to groups of students aged 13–14 in both: theoretical and

practical way in schools taking part in the project. It also organized lectures and a conference entitled: “Olympism as an universal idea for living” as well courses for teachers, coaches and other institutions familiar with the field. Olympic education with its values was used as a tool for the harmonic development of a person in order to influence the form and to shape a peaceful society which takes account of the human pride for the social integration of healthy citizens with those, mentally and physically disabled teenagers and for the improvement of sustainable environment. The project activated also contain the elaboration and the promotion of the morally enhanced physical education program and integrated sport games (old – traditional and new – modern ones) in Poland and Bulgaria, and the preparation of young people for Euro 2012. One of the elements of the programme was a integrative summer camp for group of students (able and disabled) from Poznań and Kyustendil, which took place in Bulgaria in the summer of 2011. As a final remark an international conference was organized focusing on fair play and sportsmanship. Kostantinos Georgiadis – the dean of the International Olympic Academy in Olympia was invited, as a visiting professor, to present two lectures to young participants shortly before and in correlation with Euro 2012 in Poznań.

There is also an education panel called Akademia Mistrzów Sportu – Mistrzów Życia (Academy of Sport and Life Heroes), [www.amsmz.webd.pl] which is a voluntary non-governmental organization that gathers PE teachers, sport coaches and officials, as well as members of local and regional governments and other institutions. It is a ‘travelling’ sporting academy reaching the most remote destinations on the educational map of Poland. This organization starts up conferences for its members in different regions of the country inviting distinguished scholars and Olympic champions who present their expertise and talk about the Olympic experiences in their respective fields and sport disciplines. The idea of these conferences is to stimulate local centres (often far from the main academic or sport centres) and to enrich the skills of teachers and coaches working with school-aged youth. Since there are Olympic champions invited to speak, Olympism often appears on the conference agenda and also later during unofficial post-conference conversations and meetings and this is an exceptional occasion for those teachers and youth coaches to speak face to face with their Olympic heroes. This often ends in extending an invitation to those Olympic champions to the most remote schools and children from rural, often less developed areas.

Olympic education as a part of non-school based youth sport programmes

The main stream of activities in non-school Olympic education is directed at the preparation of Polish youths to participate in the European Youth Olympic Days. It was 15 Polish young athletes who were sent to 1st Winter Olympic European Youth Olympic Games in Aosta (Italy) in 1993 and it was 26 young athletes for the 2nd Summer European Youth Olympic Games in Valkenswaard (Holland) in 1993. After Jacques Rogge – IOC President, formally announced plans for the Youth Olympic Games at the 119th IOC session in Guatemala City on 6 July 2007 [IOC 2007] the program was developed blending sport, culture and Olympic education. Three years later in 2010 there were organized the very first Youth Olympic Games (YOG) for young outstanding athletes from all over the world. For that reason Polish Olympic Committee nominated 44 young sportsmen to YOG in Singapore, where they won 2 gold, 2 silver and 5 bronze medals taking also part in different kind of workshops (team building, culture) and labours there. Since then the YOG has been organised every two years (regarding ‘summer’ and ‘winter’ games) respectively in Innsbruck (2012) and Nanjing (2014).

The Polish Olympic Committee also organizes a day called Olympic Picnic, which is extensively advertised on national TV channels and by printing folders and brochures. This event involves former and present Olympic athletes and it is organized and open for the public with free entry. There are usually several activities organized on the basis of Olympic sports (like ergo-meter rowing or cycling and some fun activities for children and their parents). During that event everyone has the chance to talk and even compete against their Olympic heroes, there is also some time to take pictures and there are other discussions about active lifestyles.

There are also several out of school programmes based on Olympic ideals amongst which the most outstanding are the following:

1. School Olympic Club “Jantar” – founded in 1987 in a small rural school in village of Racot (30 km from Poznań) by a PE teacher (and later headmaster and now a member of Polish parliament) sports enthusiast Wojciech Ziemiak. The mission of the club was to send a selected group of school students from Racot to each Olympic Games hosting city to support Polish Olympic athletes. For the very first time members of the “Jantar” went to Barcelona 1992 Olympic Games and since then no Olympic Games (summer and winter) have gone by without Racot’s young voices and passion in hearts Olympic fans. The activities of this school Olympic Club also include the organization of National Inauguration of Olympic Days, Olympic Day Runs

(since 1994 there have been 20 events organized). “Jantar” also invites Olympic and other famous sport athletes (159 sportsmen have been invited to Racot over the year, most of who have been Olympic medallists) and organizes excursions for children enabling them to participate in Olympic Picnics organized annually by the Polish Olympic Committee in Warsaw. The activities of “Jantar” have also included several visits to Rome and Vatican to see former Pope John Paul II. The School Olympic Club “Jantar” has also organized several workshops and conferences concerning Olympic matters for teachers and officials on the premises of the school. Students from Racot’s school have also been to the Olympic Museum in Lausanne (Switzerland) and met several times with Presidents of the International Olympic Committee (Samaranch, Rogge). They had also the chance to be hosted in the premises of International Olympic Academy in Ancient Olympia in 2004 during Athens Olympic Games.

2. Project What does Fair play mean to you? – This project, coordinated by the Polish Olympic Committee Fair Play Club and the University School of Physical Education in Warsaw, gathered 3500 answers in 1994 and 4,500 answers in 1996 from youths aged 11–17 years. Later this concept of this project was used in collaboration with partners from Polish Football Association and supported by one of the Olympic sponsors – SNICKERS. The idea of playing fairly was presented at 30 youth football competitions annually (years 2000–2003) and emphasized by careful refereeing system with ‘fair play’ rankings for the teams and individual players who committed the least fouls. The project involves teachers and youth coaches as well as parents and officials who are all made responsible for maintaining the fair behaviour of all parties involved in the tournaments. In 2002 a 4-minute video “Fair Play” was made and sent to over 100 School Youth Sport Clubs.

3. Project Promotion of Fair play code in sport and education – was coordinated by Żukowska and the Department of Social Sciences of University School of Physical Education in Warsaw. This project lasted for 12 months in 1996 and was focused mainly on promotion fair play in school pupils/students, their parents and teachers. Also 3 codes with ethical principles in sport (for athletes, coaches and sport officials) were produced as an outcome and fair play awards were given and ‘a gentleman of sport’ was appointed yearly.

4. Project I am fair – coordinated by University of Łódź with partners from Łódź City Municipality and Police, the Ministry of Sport and Tourism, the Ministry of Domestic Affairs and the Polish Olympic Committee. This project, started in 2010 and finished at the end of 2011, involved two local football teams Widzew

and ŁKS. It is being run in selected grammar schools of deprived areas of the industrial city of Łódź, which is strongly divided and often provokes tensions, aggression and incidents of hatred between the young supporters of each team. In the project specially designed content is delivered to students during special ‘morally enhanced’ physical education classes, where 13–16 years old students learn how to behave fairly during sporting events. The project has been covered in local media, at various pedagogical conferences as well as on the web-site [www.uml.lodz.pl/miasto/edukacja/projektjestemfair]. Finally the project was concluded with a monograph book summarising the results of the programme and giving examples and solutions of best practice for teachers and educational authorities (published in Polish and English). The City Council of Łódź was also responsible to organize an exhibition with films, souvenirs and pictures from the project in their municipality.

Olympic education as a part of PE teacher and sport coach training

There are eight major public universities of physical education (in Polish: Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego) and twenty-nine private higher education colleges that running PE teacher training courses in Poland. Out of the total thirty-seven Higher Education Institutions, twelve runs sport courses for coaches. Olympism, as a regular module, is currently taught at only two of them, namely the University School of Physical Education in Poznań and in Gorzów Wlkp., where this subject is taught to the first year students of undergraduate degree in thirty hours module consisting of thirty hours of lectures and fifteen hours practice (4 ECTS). In Poznań the subject is taught by Wojciech Lipoński, Małgorzata Bronikowska and also Michał Bronikowski, all of whom are lecturers at the International Olympic Academy in Olympia, Greece. There are special guidebooks *Olimpizm dla każdego* (Olympism for everyone), [Lipoński 2000] and practical manuals *Edukacja olimpijska dla gimnazjum poradnik dla nauczycieli* (Olympic education – a teacher’s manual for grammar school) [Bronikowski, Bronikowska 2010] for students of the subject. A module is also run for international students of Erasmus exchange programmes.

However, it is worth mentioning that Olympism is also a facultative (optional) subject with fifteen hours of lectures and fifteen hours of practice for undergraduate students at the University School of Physical Education in Warsaw (4 ECTS). Similarly it is a facultative module (2 ECTS) at the University School of Physical Education in Wrocław with ten hours of lectures and twenty hours of practice. In Wrocław the subject is taught by a former Polish Olympic Champion in 50 meter rifle shooting, Renata Mauer-Różańska.

Olympic education within further education/training programmes and activities

The Polish Olympic Committee organizes an biennial national competition called “the Youth Fraction” (Pol. Koło Młodych) to select the best students to be sent to study courses at the International Olympic Academy in Ancient Olympia in Greece. This is mainly due to the works and sessions of the Polish Olympic Academy whose members vote for the potential student-candidates after a short presentation of their achievements in the promotion of Olympism. An important role in promoting Olympic education outside institutionalized context of universities and Polish Olympic Committee is played by the Polish “Fair Play Club”, which has initiated a numerous campaigns and contests for youth concerning physical activity, sports and fair play behaviour, cooperating closely with the European Fair Play Movement [Żukowska 2005].

Olympic education modules of teaching/training in schools and sport clubs

There are suggestions of the cross-curricular use of Olympism in school teaching. Żukowska [2010, p. 156] points at the following cross-curricular areas in which Olympism could be easily interwoven into the teaching of other subjects:

- In Polish Language classes introducing examples of literary output awarded at Olympic art competitions such as: the volume of poetry by Kazimierz Wierzyński entitled *Olympic Laurel* (awarded a gold medal at the Olympic Games in Amsterdam in 1928 at the Art and Literature Competition),
- Introducing the history of sport into the subject of general/universal history (e.g. the role of sport in ancient Greece, the participation of Olympic patriots in the fight for the independence of Poland during the World War II),
- other subjects, such as art (drawings related to sporting themes, Olympic posters, Olympic mascots),
- sport and Olympic elements that support classes of geography (indicating the cities of the world that hosted Olympic Games, as a starting point to discuss the geography of a given country),
- increasing interest in learning foreign languages by introducing subjects and texts related to Olympic sports, and also fostering cooperation between foreign languages and physical education teachers.

In school (and out of school) youth sport there is no direct contact with Olympic education except for the basic information in the rules and regulations of most of school sports on abiding by the rules and maintain-

ing fair play behaviour during and after the school, both within the school and during intra-school system of competitions.

Olympic education materials, papers, publications, posters

Most of the educational material concerning Olympic education is advertised through the web-site of the Polish Olympic Committee [www.pkol.pl] in the folder education (also available in English). The page includes a list of educational activities offered by the staff of the Olympic Educational Centre. Some of the interactive teaching materials (presentations, publications, selected educational material, and conference and other Olympic-related materials) are also available to be downloaded. This page also contains programs and lessons of Olympic education provided by specialists and teachers. There is also a sub-folder called ‘Zone of knowledge’, which contains information about the most fundamental Olympic issues such as the origins of the Olympic Games, an explanation of Olympic symbols and ceremonies, the Olympic Charter and selected aspects concerning Olympic law, information about the Olympic Movement structure and about congresses and conferences. All this is enriched with colourful graphics and pictures related to the subject.

Among educational initiatives undertaken by the Polish Olympic Committee was the publication of a manual for physical education teachers concerning Olympic education. *Edukacja olimpijska dla gimnazjum* (Pol. Olympic education for grammar school) [Bronikowski, Bronikowska 2010]. It includes ready-to-use lessons’ units including the following topics: The history of Olympic Games together with mythology, ancient ethics and traditions; the history of the revival of modern the Olympic Games with attention paid to the reviver Pierre de Coubertin; the concept of fair play, sporting heroes and Olympic sports as well as some classes for English language classes built on the issues of Olympism. This manual is also available on the web-site of the Polish Olympic Committee (in the PDF format) for teachers and youth sport coaches to download and use in their schools [www.olimpijski.pl/Media/files/edukacja/materialy/Edukacja_Olimpijska_internet_v_20.pdf].

Recently another educational book has been published by Polish Olympic Committee – *Blyszczący statek powietrzny. Pierre de Coubertin o sporcie i olimpiźmie* (Eng. Gleaming airship. Pierre de Coubertin on Sport and Olympism) [Deberny, Płoszaj, Firek 2013]. The book aimed for school aged children is written in convention of a story telling with interesting Olympic facts interwoven into the flow of action. There are a lot of children hand-drawn pictures and contents concerns such important Olympic matters as pursuit of excellence, fair play

and spirit of sportsmanship, Olympic symbols, as well as some facts from life of Pierre de Coubertin – founder of Modern Olympic Games.

The Polish Olympic Committee also releases posters concerning Olympic education. The latest one named ‘the Fair Play Code of behaviour’ was supported by Polish Fair Play Club and SNICKERS [2009].

Olympic education new media tools and web pages

Development of high definition technologies has led to an increase of new media tools used for informative but also educational purposes. A majority of recent Polish publications concerning the Olympic Games are equipped with a CD containing all the photos and films. The Polish Olympic Committee runs its own web-site [www.pkol.pl] with folders like: I) Olympic Games, II) Olympic Athletes, III) Olympic Education, and IV) the Polish Olympic Committee structure. The page is full of up-to-date information, enhanced with films and various picture galleries. There is an easy access pathway to most present (YOG Nanjing 2014, WOG Sochi 2014) and future events (Rio 2016).

There is also a national system of junior (15–18 years old school students) competitions called Ogólnopolska Olimpiada Młodzieży (Eng. National Olympic Youth Games, NOYG) in most of the Olympic sports organized annually in a different city. The idea of the NOYG and the results are always available at the web-sites. The most recent was organized in Wrocław in 2014 [www.sport.wroclaw.pl].

Results and findings

Major findings from various research projects have been categorised according to the age-category and presented in table 1 with the names and dates of the particular study.

Findings from the above mentioned research and studies, based on experimental pedagogical design, have been implemented into the daily teaching routines of the schools where the projects were held and were also presented to academic circles at various national and international conferences.

Concluding remarks

Olympism has been studied and researched in numerous ways and for a long time in Poland. The range of research items cover the axiological and philosophical foundations of Olympism, searching for historical roots of the fair play concept going back into medieval times and looking through the most valuable masterpieces of mainly Anglo-Saxon (or even Gaelic) written sources. In-

terestingly, the humanistic sense of Olympism was also sought in the analysis of Polish (and world-wide) poetry and prose. Values have also been an important issue of research both in their universal, philosophical dimension and in their application in modern realities in the sense of their awareness in various age and profession groups. The moral aspects of Olympism have also been studied,

with special emphasis on social consequences of behaviours not abiding social and thus sporting rules. Shortly before Euro 2012 this issue has been seriously investigated in various contexts and in relation to Polish football, which suffered a corruption scandal 1990–2000 and more recently the misbehaviour of football fans or rather hooligans.

Table 1. Most important findings from various research in Poland.

Age category	Positive	Negative	Research
Children	60% – fair play is very important in life 50% – you can win playing fair	50% – you can accept breaking the rules 10% heard about Pierre de Coubertin	Umiastowska 1999
	60% believe Olympism develops the body and mind 58% believe Olympic education is the best way to teach values	50% – doesn't know what fair play is and cannot see any connection with Olympic Games Little or no progress in moral development in judgment, motivation and intentions in control groups (both genders)	Bronikowski et al. 2006
Teenagers	93% believe in the promotion of fair play 50% see fair play as a code of sporting behaviour against an opponent and 16% associate it with abiding by the rules	30% – Olympic games do not help in promoting fair play 80% – rejects fair play in sport and see no connection with health	Żukowska 1996 Bodasińska, Bodasiński 2001
	70% disregard athletes trying to win at all costs 64% associate Olympism with the Olympic Games and appreciate it 64% the Olympic Games promote fair play 58% fair play in Olympic sports influences behaviour of school pupils	67% did not learn any information about Olympism in school 63% has no information on the Olympic Charter 52% interested in results, incidents and tragic events about the Games 37% the Olympic Games create nationalism and tensions between nations	Nowocień 2001
	60% (girls), 40% (boys) – changed their attitude and behaviour after a program of Olympic education	80% (girls), 55% (boys) – breaking the rules is OK if it helps you to win 43% (girls), 55% (boys) – do not understand fair play and cannot give any examples	Bronikowski 2003
	Significant changes in moral judgment, motivation and intention in a majority of pupils from experimental groups (both genders)	Little or no progress in moral development in judgment, motivation and intentions in control groups (both genders)	Bronikowski 2006

Age category	Positive	Negative	Research
Older age groups	30% – there is a chance for fair play in sport 40% – fair play is a form of sporting behaviour 3% – have their own experiences of fair play behaviour in life	10% – moral deprivation in sport 26% – in sport health is at risk 51% – sport eliminates the weakest 28% sport promotes only the best and the toughest 80% – see negative situations during the Olympic Games 65% – associate the Olympic Games with nationalism and hate 30% – do not see any examples of fair play in daily life	Derbich 1993 Dąbrowska 1994 Derbich 1996

There have been a lot of smaller scale investigations on the awareness, attractiveness and use of fair play codes of behaviour in particular sports and school settings including the physical education context. Some of those have turned into real pedagogical field experiments with parallel interventions and control groups examining the effectiveness [e.g. Żukowska 1996; Nowocień 2001; Bronikowski 2003] of various didactic approaches (which, being introduced along changing political and social circumstances in Poland, brought a lot of information about changing moral and social standards and values). All these research initiatives were undertaken to help identify examples of best practices in delivering Olympic ideals and values to young people through school educational system, although it should be noted that emphasis was laid on application of those values to youth in sport clubs as a main target to be aware of Olympic values due to competitive character of their institutions. The findings and conclusions drawn from research studies were later used to create Olympic education programs adjusted for the conditions of particular schools. Researching Olympism was also associated with concepts of health in youth, especially in relation to youth sport (young athletes' health and coaches' attitudes to doping and other risk-bringing behaviours). There was also a study on Olympic knowledge and its associations with physical fitness and lifestyle, which was a part of the wider European project "Physical fitness, sporting lifestyles and Olympic ideals: cross-cultural studies on Youth Sport in Europe" which was coordinated by Essen University Research Pool and Willibald Gebhard Research Institute from Germany. This project gathered partners (and data) from eight European countries, unfortunately the Polish side did not delivered data on time and was not included in the final report from the cross-cultural studies.

Research on Olympism has become a topic of several doctoral and post-doctoral dissertations and numerous masters theses at different universities in Poland (tab. 1). So one can say this is rapidly growing domain of humanistic research.

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The YMCA's International Mission and Its Link to the Olympic Movement

Tomáš Tlustý

Department of Kinanthropology and Humanities
Faculty of Physical Education and Sport
Charles University in Prague

Summary

The submitted paper discusses the YMCA in relation to the Olympic Games. To a certain degree, this organization, which focused not only on physical education and sport, did influence the Olympic Games. New sports emerged within its physical education facilities and, often thanks to the efforts of this association's physical education secretaries, gradually became Olympic sports. Although the YMCA's physical education programme was not aimed at developing top individual sportsmen, many of its members managed to qualify for the Olympic Games. YMCA physical education functionaries were highly professional, some of them even being requested to prepare and lead individual national teams at the Olympic Games. The work of the YMCA was very highly regarded by the International Olympic Committee, which showed its appreciation by twice awarding them the Olympic Cup. Period archive materials, magazines, and news reports which have not been systematically researched to date, as well as other sources, were used to create this contribution

Keywords: activity, match, sportsmen, results, functionaries

Introduction

The YMCA or Young Men's Christian Association is primarily an organization uniting people of Christian faith. However, its programme was by no means directed only towards faith. The basis of the work of the YMCA was its so-called "Four-way programme", which included religious, social, educational, and physical education activities [Riess, pp. 65–68].

The organization came into being in London in 1844, when it was established by sales clerk George Williams. At the very beginning, the YMCA had mere 12 members and was established as an amateur missionary organization, a lay apostolate for young people. George Williams wanted to offer young people the possibility of spending free time whilst focusing on Christian principles. Although the YMCA was originally solely made up of a group of enthusiasts, the association began to spread quickly through London, England, and very soon into other countries around the world.

It particularly flourished in the United States of America. It was there that it most likely saw the greatest expansion of its physical education programme. The first local organizations in America were established almost

simultaneously in Boston and Montreal in 1851. There, the YMCA had a sufficient base for its work in the field of physical education and sport and a number of new sports emerged, some of which became Olympic sports [Konečný 1930, pp. 28–30].

In 1852 Williams spent time on business in Paris. Here he initiated a meeting of local pastors, who, thanks to his subsequent financial aid, established the YMCA in Paris, later spreading from here into Holland and Germany.

However, the YMCA's physical education programme was not aimed at developing top individual sportsmen. In contrast, the YMCA tried to create opportunities for the largest possible number of participants to do sport. Despite this, its ranks boasted a large number of individuals who qualified for top sports events such as the European Championships, the World Championships, and even the Olympic Games.

Members of the YMCA made efforts to introduce new sports into this top sporting occasion, to help national Olympic Committees prepare individual sportsmen for the Olympic Games and possibly also to provide financial support to the sportsmen themselves in order to enable them to cover participation fees [Constable 1999, pp. 127–152].

The YMCA and the pre-war Olympic Games

As previously mentioned, the YMCA probably experienced its greatest expansion in the field of physical education and sport in the US. In this respect, the American YMCA surpassed its ideal to a certain degree. Its activity there was linked to many universities and colleges. Some of the most well known are Springfield College, Northeastern University, San Francisco's Golden Gate University, and Michigan's State University [Schroeder 1926, pp. 7–9].

The most famous of them is probably Springfield College, where a YMCA physical education department was formed and where one of today's very popular Olympic sports – basketball – came into being. In 1891 Professor J. Naismith came up with the idea as a way to relieve the monotony of individual sportsmen's winter preparation as well as to make his students come to the gym. The game had simple rules and J. Naismith used peach baskets instead of the baskets we know today.

The invention of this new sport became inspiration for many other physical education functionaries. It is almost unbelievable that four years after basketball was founded, not far away in the Springfield metropolitan county town of Holyoke, YMCA member William G. Morgan invented another new game which he called "mignonette". The game was supposed to be a less demanding form of entertainment for older pupils. However, it kept its name for only one year, being renamed "volley-ball" by physical education professor A.T. Halstet [Pávek 1964, pp. 365–368].

In 1896 the first Olympic Games were held in Athens. Clearly, these two sports would not be introduced there just yet. For a long time, volleyball was played in the US purely for pleasure. However, things began to change in 1904, the year the Olympic Games were first held on American soil, in the city of St. Louis. It was here that the YMCA was given the possibility and freedom to arrange its sports events. Two days were designated for their sports activities but in the end they were not able to fit them all in, and all their events were re-scheduled into several other days [Matthews 2005, p.104].

This led to the first basketball tournament taking place within the Olympic Games, being played on July 13 and 14. A gymnastics championship was the next YMCA event to be held on July 18, and the following day it arranged a handicap meeting, followed by a championship meeting on August 20th [Mechikoff, Estes 1993, pp. 114–115].

However, the basketball tournament was not an official part of the Olympic programme. This game was only included as an exhibition sport and only American teams took part in the 1904 Olympic tournament, three of them having been put forward by the organizers of

this event – the YMCA. So for the first time teams like YMCA Chicago, YMCA St. Louis, and Buffalo German YMCA, the tournament favourite, struggled for victory at the Olympic Games. Buffalo German YMCA players confirmed their role as favourites (*see* Figure 1) and dominated the tournament [http://hoopedia.nba.com/index.php?title=Buffalo_Germans].

However, it would be wrong to say that YMCA members did not intervene in the main programme of the Olympic Games. Several athletes who were members of this now international organization soon became American Olympic competitors. Athletics was a relatively popular sport among its members, demonstrated within the Olympic Games. Albert Johnson of the St. Louis YMCA tried his luck in the shot put and hammer throw. He came sixth in both disciplines [Matthews 2005, p. 136]. However, it has to be added that only eight athletes took part in the shot put and there were only six participants who competed in the hammer throw.

Another YMCA athlete achieved an even better result in the 100 metres. The whole competition began with three heats, from which the two fastest sprinters qualified for the final. One of those who qualified was a member of Louisville YMCA – Nate Carmell. He went on to run the final in 11.2 seconds, which brought him second place. In the final, it was a marginal victory for American Archie Hahn, who was only 0.2 seconds faster than Carmell.

Clearly the best placing of a YMCA member was achieved by one of the athletes from the local association in Cambridge in the state of Massachusetts, Thomas J. Hicks (*see* Figure 2), who became Olympic marathon winner, despite appearing to be on the brink of collapse ten miles to the finish and having to be administered strychnine [Kronika 1996, p. 27]. Thomas J. Hicks finished the race, totally exhausted and under the support of his managers, in a time of 3:28:53. At the finish line, he had to be handed over to doctors for treatment [Matthews 2005, pp. 140–145].

However, he had not been the first to cross the finish line. American Fred Lorz was the first to finish in the difficult conditions of the Olympic marathon, partly run



Figure 1.



Figure 2.

along paths through fields. However, he spent most of the route being driven in a car, which he got out of and ran across the finish line. However, his swindle was later revealed by the referees, who then disqualified him.

The YMCA and its sportsmen thus made quite a name for themselves during the first American Olympic Games. The YMCA even prepared its own commemorative medals for its events (see Figure 3). Besides those, the YMCA also prepared badges for Olympic officials (see Figure 4).

Four years later, the Olympic Games were held in London. The YMCA was just as active here. The national physical education director of the YMCA in Canada – J. Howard Crocker – travelled to the scene of the IV Olympic Games as manager of the Canadian Olympic team [Constable 1999, p. 136].

The YMCA also boosted its reputation at the 1912 Stockholm Olympics. This Christian organization had already become a relatively active association in Sweden. Four of its gymnasts participated in the Olympic Games there, winning gold medals in the team competition. This was a relatively big surprise, as gymnastics was not one of the most popular sports pursued in this organization [Yttergren, Bolling 1912, p. 106].

Sportsmen and the YMCA all had to wait until 1920 for their next turn to participate in the Olympic Games. The 1916 Olympics in Berlin were cancelled due to the outbreak of the First World War, but after the war the YMCA began to spread from the US to Central European countries.

However, the 1920 Olympics were preceded by a relatively significant event. During the First World War,



Figure 3.



Figure 4.

YMCA physical education director Elwood Brown had worked in France, where he had been responsible for entertaining American soldiers. Here, he played an important role in organising the Inter-Allied Games, held in Paris in 1919 to honour the Allies' victory in the First World War.

Pierre de Coubertin was so delighted with the organization that he sent its programme to the organizers of the first post-war Olympic Games, held in Antwerp in 1920. Apart from this, Pierre de Coubertin came to the conclusion that the YMCA physical education programme conformed to Olympic goals and may be very useful. He also went on to summon Elwood Brown to speak at three International Olympic Committee sittings in 1920, 1921, and 1922 [Constable 1999, pp. 147–148].

The Central European YMCA and inter-war Olympic Games

During the First World War, a relatively large number of foreign YMCA workers appeared on the battlefields and in the prisoner-of-war camps of the Allied armies, not only organizing reading rooms, tearooms, and canteens for soldiers but also offering them activities to make use of their free time, which soldiers were keen to accept [Hlaváč 2010, pp. 5–8]. This is how the association became acquainted with the Czechoslovakian legionnaires, who it accompanied to Czechoslovakia after the war, after an agreement between the American and Czechoslovakian Ministry of Defence. It was through the army that the YMCA also made its way into newly-established Poland at the end of the First World War, when having



Figure 5.

been asked by Józef Haller* it accompanied Polish troops home [*Polska* 2003, p. 2].

Local YMCA organizations soon began to emerge in both states, where sports and hiking divisions and sections were established in the course of time. “American” games, track and field events, weightlifting, boxing and wrestling, and canoeing began to be pursued by its members, and permanent summer camps began to be established. However, the YMCA always made efforts to offer possibilities to do sport not only to its members but also to the largest possible number of people interested.

Its international character was highly significant for the development of physical education and sport. The YMCA sent its workers abroad to various sports courses and on their return these people could pass on their experience gained in many countries of the world where various kinds of sports took place at different levels. Many workers hence attended the YMCA’s international physical education college in Springfield. František M. Marek from the Czechoslovakian YMCA attended it, for example, later going on to play an important role in the development of basketball in Czechoslovakia. J. First also did – later becoming a big promoter of American sports [National Archives in Prague, collection: YMCA, No. of the cardboard: 4, signature: 8]. Ferenc Hepp, an example from the Hungarian YMCA, studied there and became the “father” of Hungarian basketball and later a member of the basketball Hall of Fame [Turcsányi 2009, pp. 3–9].

There were indeed a lot of students who attended this physical education institution. The Springfield YMCA physical education college was hence instrumental in developing physical education and sport in various

* Józef Haller de Hallenburg was a Polish general. During the First World War in 1916, he became commander of the Polish Legion’s 2nd Brigade. In 1918, he was put in charge of the 5th division of Polish Fusiliers. From March 1918, he commanded the 2nd Polish Corps. In May 1918, his corps was smashed by German troops. Józef Haller returned to Moscow and then left for France, where he took charge of the newly-formed Polish army. In 1919 he returned to Poland with the so-called Blue Army.

countries around the world. It was very highly regarded, demonstrated in 1920, when, to its great honour, it was awarded the Olympic Cup [Kössl 1981, p. 66].

In inter-war Czechoslovakia, YMCA physical education functionaries achieved considerable trainer and manager qualities. Evidence of their high level is the fact that the YMCA physical education secretary was commissioned to prepare the Czechoslovakian athletics team for the Olympic Games in Antwerp [Bosák et al. 1969, p. 168]. Paris, and subsequently even for the Olympic Games in Amsterdam [National Archives in Prague, collection: YMCA, No. of the cardboard: 1, signature: 1, YMCA v prvním desetiletí 1921–1931]. The most distinctive figures to work in the field of physical education and sport in the YMCA in the inter-war period were František Miloslav Marek, and Czech-Americans Josef (Joe) Antonín First and Jan Ámos Pipal.

The preparation of individual Olympic teams by YMCA sports functionaries was relatively common at that time. For example, the Indian, Italian, French, Greek, and Mexican Olympic teams were led by them [Johnson 1979, pp. 163–166].

On March 14, 1920, after an initiative by J.A. Pipal, track and field games were held in front of the Czech Joint Stock Brewery, as part of the many preparations (*see* Figure 5) for the coming Antwerp Olympics. The programme of events included the 100 metres, shot put, long jump, high jump, 4×100m and 4×400m relays, triple jump, pole vault, and javelin. Women ran a shorter 60-metre race. The winners were awarded special medals engraved “Preparation for the Antwerp Olympics”. The main organizer of these games was F. Přemyl and the YMCA. Enlisted competitors had to take part in compulsory training sessions. The first took place 14 days before the actual opening of the games, on Tuesdays, Thursdays, Fridays, and Sundays in the artillery barracks’ riding school on the outskirts of Prague [Štumbauer 1992, p. 228].

As preparations for the Olympic Games were concluded, J.A. Pipal chose 26 competitors and, with the help of the YMCA, had tents built for them at Letná, providing full board. As Czech athletes left for the Antwerp Olympics, Prague was shown volleyball for the first time (*see* Figure 6).

Although Czech athletes did not achieve significant success, the best of them – Václav Vohralík – coming fourth in the 1500 metres, Pipal mobilized the entire athletics movement in Czechoslovakia, reflected in the clubs’ considerable future activity. He gained money by cooperating with representatives of the American YMCA who were working there [www.atletika.cz/o-nas/historie/prvni-republika]

The YMCA was already active in Poland at that time as well. In 1920, YMCA instructor Captain Burford introduced himself in Kraków, taking an interest in the preparation of the Polish football team for the peak of its season,



Figure 6.

that of course being the first post-war Olympic Games in Antwerp. However, in the end, Poland did not take part in the Antwerp Olympics and could only hope that it would manage to guarantee its sportsmen a place in the following Olympic Games [*Przegląd* 1923, No. 11, p. 6].

In 1922 a problem arose in Poland. For financial reasons, the participation of their sportsmen in the 1924 Olympic Games in Paris came under threat. Poland apparently had neither the money to prepare their sportsmen nor to pay for their participation fees in Paris. For that reason, the International Olympic Committee suggested asking the American YMCA for help, knowing its inclination for sport. Finally, Polish sportsmen did get to take part in the Olympic Games [*Przegląd* 1922, No. 15, p. 4].

In Kraków, Captain Burford hence took to preparing footballers for the coming Olympic Games, which were of course the first the Polish football team was to take part in. However, the Poles did not achieve any great success there [*Raz...* 1936, No. 27, p. 4].

In 1922, news of the prepared Central European preparatory Olympic Games, which were supposed to take place in 1923 in Prague, began to spread in Poland. The YMCA had apparently been put in charge of these preparatory games [*Przegląd* 1922, No. 8, p. 3]. However, this statement was proven to be untrue. This news began to spread via the YMCA but in Paris, where the next Olympic Games were to take place, they knew nothing of this project, nor did the International Olympic Committee, which began to determine the source of the news. An analysis of correspondence between Paris, New York, and Warsaw was carried out. After the whole affair had been explained, several Central European countries sent a message to Paris, vociferously protesting against the YMCA exceeding its authority [*Przegląd* 1922, No. 11, pp. 4–5]. It was thought that it had either served as advertising for this organization or it had been the product of individuals who had some kind of outside goals.

However, the truth is that Chairman of the Czechoslovak Olympic Committee – Jiří Stanislav Guth-Jarkovský had approached the “Presidium of the Council of Ministers of the Czechoslovak Republic” asking them to apply at the 1920 International Olympic Commit-

tee sitting in Antwerp for the 1924 Olympic Games to be held in Prague [National Archives in Prague, collection: Předsednictvo ministerské rady, No. of the cardboard: 222, Jiří Guth-Jarkovský Presidiu Ministerské rady 17.3.1920]. However, the Ministry of Finance did not approve this proposal and the “Presidium of the Council of Ministers of the Czechoslovak Republic” decided to oblige this authority [National Archives in Prague, collection: Předsednictvo ministerské rady, No. of the cardboard: 222, Ministerstvo financí Presidiu ministerské rady 16. 4. 1920].

In the middle of November 1923 there was a lecture at the Kladno YMCA on the coming Paris Olympics and the history of the Olympic Games [*Sport* 1923, No. 47, pp. 8–10]. Jiří Stanislav Guth-Jarkovský came here to lecture. This was also the year when J. First, who was already a member of the Czechoslovakian Olympic Committee and a whole range of other institutions at the time, was appointed head of physical education for the entire Czechoslovakian YMCA [First 2011, p. 151].

The following year brought the spirit of the Olympic Games. Paris had been commissioned to hold the Summer Olympic Games. Czechoslovak athletes had to be well prepared for the peak of the season. The main coach of the Czechoslovakian athletes was Lewis W. Riess, who had been working in Czechoslovakia since 1922 as YMCA director of physical education [Marek 1923, 1(6), pp. 167–169]. In this respect, Lewis W. Riess had great incentive and made efforts to do everything within his powers to achieve success at the Olympic Games. He and his colleague F.M. Mark even travelled to the scene of the Games at their own expenses. They continued their efforts to help the Czechoslovakian team in Paris, both during training, at the stadium, and in every other possible way [*Sport* 1924, No. 4, pp. 1–2].

Czechoslovakian YMCA athletics divisions were represented at these Olympic Games by Karel Nedobitý. This significant České Budějovice athletics functionary (České Budějovice YMCA coach) participated in the 5-kilometre race but was eliminated in the heat.

The Polish YMCA was also represented, indeed very successfully. For Poland it was their historic first Olympic Games and their very first Olympic medallist was a member of the Polish YMCA.*

* It probably concerned Major Adam Łukasz Królikiewicz, who came third in show jumping at the 1924 Paris Olympic Games. After the First World War, a number of servicemen from the Polish army became members or honorary members of the Polish YMCA. One of the first was Józef Klemens Piłsudski. On the same day Polish cyclists gained second place in the pursuit race. However, Adam Łukasz Królikiewicz was the first to receive a medal. *Polska YMCA 1923–2003*, Polska YMCA, Warsaw 2003, p. 8.



Figure 7.

In 1925 coach Kazimierz Laskowski shared in the preparation of Warsaw boxers, not only YMCA ones, raising several local boxing stars [*Stadjon* 1926, No. 7, p. 12]. He himself experienced many clubs as both coach and competitor, the YMCA being one of them. At the 1928 Olympic Games in Amsterdam, he was a member of the bronze-medal team of Polish fencers [www.databaseolympics.com/players/playerpage.htm?ilkid=LASKOKAZ01, Accessed 15th October 2013]

Archery was another Olympic sport which was popular within the YMCA, thanks to whom it spread to Czechoslovakia. It was inseparably connected to summer camps, where this sport had been introduced and highly promoted by J. First.

At the 1928 Olympic Games in Amsterdam, the Czechoslovakian YMCA was again represented by Karel Nedobitý. However, this long-distance runner did not achieve any great success at these Olympic Games either, coming 17th in the 5-kilometre race.

On the July 30, 1928, the YMCA was highly honoured to discover that the International Olympic Committee had passed a resolution on the 1929 Olympic Cup (see Figure 7), attributing it for the second time to the YMCA, its physical education college in Springfield having received it in 1920. The YMCA received a letter from the International Olympic Committee, signed by its chairman at that time, Henri de Baillet-Latour: "I have the honour to announce that the Olympic Cup for 1929 has been awarded to the World YMCA Committee. I wish the World YMCA Committee sincere pleasure from the above message. It is acknowledgement of its achievement in the field of physical education and sport around the world. The International Olympic Committee would like to take this opportunity to express its gratitude for the unwontedly valuable cooperation which your organization never refused." This was highly appreciated by the World YMCA Committee, awarding a whole range of sports activities that the YMCA pursued on a global scale [*Stadjon* 1928, No. 35, p. 4].

An IAAF (International Association of Athletics Federations) conference was held in Warsaw in early De-

cember 1935, its members paying a visit to the YMCA building, in which they spoke of the state of preparation of individual sports venues at the coming 1936 Winter Olympic Games, hosted in Germany's Garmisch-Partenkirchen [*Raz...* 1935, No. 50, p. 3].

The Olympic Games in Berlin were of course the highlight of the 1936 season. A huge achievement for the Warsaw YMCA was the qualification of two wrestlers who had started out their wrestling career in the Warsaw YMCA, A. Rokita and Z. Szajewski [Kałamacka 1992, p. 206]. Greek-Roman bantamweight wrestler Rokita lined up for his first bout in Deutschland-Hall on Thursday August 6. He had a good start to the tournament, beating his first opponent, the Belgian Gilles, in 5 minutes and 53 seconds [*Ilustrowany Kurier* 1936, No. 219, p. 21]. Szajewski started out well too, winning on points in the first round against Ethiopian Hass. However, both wrestlers lost in the second round to Norwegians. Rokita was defeated by Ivar Gunnar Stokke and Szajewski lost to Arild Dahl [*Ilustrowany Kurier...* 1936, No. 220, p. 23].

YMCA physical education functionaries made repeated efforts to get "its" games into the Olympic programme. William Renato Jones, another graduate of the Springfield YMCA school of physical education, one of the founder members of the FIBA (Fédération Internationale de Basketball Amateur) and later European Secretary of the World Alliance YMCA in Geneva, was one of those instrumental in getting basketball into the 1936 Berlin Olympic Games. In addition, he helped to establish the European and World Basketball Championship [Grasso 2010, p. 182]. Apart from basketball, the YMCA made efforts to get "its" second sport into the Olympic Games – volleyball. It made its first attempt of all in 1912 [Johnson 1979, p. 241]. Other attempts were to follow but volleyball wasn't included in the programme of the Olympic Games until much later – at the 1964 Olympic Games in Tokyo [Perútká 1982, pp. 601–602].

Basketball being included in the programme of the Berlin Olympic Games was clearly a great encouragement for all of this organization's players. A number of this organization's players appeared in the Czechoslovakian national team. František Píček, Alois Dvořáček, Ludvík Dvořáček, Josef Moc, Josef Klíma (see Figure 8), Ladislav Trpkoš, and Ladislav Prokop all played for YMCA basketball teams. In the first round, Czechoslovakia defeated Hungary by default, as the Hungarian team pulled out of the Olympic tournament before it had commenced. The following YMCA members – Píček, Klíma, Moc, and Trpkoš – scored in the first actual Olympic tournament match, in which Czechoslovakia lost to Switzerland 25:12 (13:4). Due to their defeat, Czechoslovakia had to play a match against the home basketball team to keep them in the competition. The Czechoslovakian national team included A. Dvořáček, L. Dvořáček, Klíma, Trpkoš, and Prokop this time and managed the match,



Figure 8.

winning 20:9 (11:5). This result moved the Czechoslovakian team into the third round to play against Uruguay. Indeed, that was where Czechoslovakia came to a halt, losing 28:19 (14:8). Klíma, Pícek, Prokop, and Trpkoš played in the last Olympic tournament match [*Protein* 2006, No. 6, p. 16].

Poland's YMCA also had its share of top basketball players. Two of them were similarly nominated for the team to play basketball for Poland at the 1936 Summer Olympic Games in Berlin [*Sprawozdanie zarządu* 1937, Polska YMCA, Kraków 1937, p. 52]. The first of them was Paweł Stok, but he was to play only three matches in the tournament. In the first match of the tournament, which Poland played against Italy, he was a substitute. In the end, however, he still got to play in the match, significantly reducing his team's defeat to 44:28 (25:12). Despite the short time he spent on court, he became his team's best scorer, shooting seven baskets [*Ilustrowany Kurier* 1936, No. 220, p. 23]. Following this performance, for which he was highly praised, he was chosen to play the next match in the first team.

As a result of their defeat, Polish basketball players had to begin preparing for the next match, where their future in the tournament was at stake. However, they were lucky to obtain a "free draw" and proceeded to the second round without a struggle. In the match against Japan, P. Stok had already been selected for the first team and demonstrated his basketball talent. Shooting 11 baskets, he was his team's best scorer, despite having injured his knee during the course of the match. However, he didn't manage to prevent Poland's 43:31 (23:13) defeat.

Another member of the Polish YMCA to play for Poland was Edward Szostak. He was involved in one match

fewer than P. Stok in the tournament. He was selected for the team during the match against Japan, when he had lined up as a substitute [*Kurier*... 1936, No. 32, p. 2].

Stok was one of the best Polish players in the third match too, which Poland played against Latvia. Poland coped well in the match and achieved its first victory of the tournament, winning 28:23 (14:12) [*Ilustrowany Kurier* 1936, No. 223, p.18]. Neither Stok nor Szostak were involved in Poland's next match, where they defeated Brazil 33:25 (17:10) [*Ilustrowany Kurier* 1936, No. 224, p. 21].

In the following match, the Poles were to play against Peru. However, the match did not take place as the Peru team retreated from the Olympic Games in protest against the German authorities intervening in the football tournament.* For Poland, this meant a sure place in the semi-final and a match against Canada. Not one of the members of Kraków YMCA scored in this match [*Ilustrowany Kurier*, 1936 No. 225, p. 18]. Poland experienced one of its weakest moments and lost 42:15 (25:6).

Their last match followed, deciding whether Poland or Mexico would take home the bronze medal [*Ilustrowany Kurier* 1936, No. 226, p. 20]. It didn't come off for the Poles in the end, defeated by Mexico 26:12 (23:8), perhaps also due to their very poor first half performance. E. Szostak tried hard to help his team during the match [*Ilustrowany Kurier* 1936, No. 227, p. 20].

Thus, Poland did not achieve its dreamt-of medal success and had to make do with fourth place. Still, it has to be said that Paweł Stok was one of the best players in the Olympic tournament. The medals were handed over to the tournament's best teams by the inventor of basketball himself – James Naismith.

The Olympic basketball tournament was organized by F.M. Marek, who was presented with a commemorative bronze medal by the German organization committee for his dedication whilst preparing the tournament. F.M. Marek was also commissioned to make an official speech to open the tournament. Apart from that, he was asked to lecture on his impression of a model youth leader within a European context at a meeting of American coaches [*STAR* 1936, No. 33, p. 8].

* The Peru football team met Austria in the quarter final of the Olympic tournament. They had been losing 0:2 but they managed to level the score in the last 15 minutes of the match. During extra time Peru managed to score two goals, meaning a 4:2 victory for them. However, the Austrian team lodged a protest claiming that the Peru team had tried to manipulate the Austrians before the match and that spectators, including one with a revolver, had run onto the pitch before the match had ended. For that reason, the match was ordered to be replayed in an empty stadium. However, the Peru team left Berlin in protest against the decision. D. Lennox, *Now You Know (Big Book of Sports)*, Dundurn Press, Toronto 2009, p. 242.

Czechoslovakia representative Ladislav Trpkoš also participated in the following Olympic tournament, held 20 years later in London due to the outbreak of the Second World War. At the 1948 Olympic Games in London, he came in seventh overall with the Czechoslovakian national team [www.sports-reference.com/olympics/athletes/tr/ladislav-trpkos-1, accessed 6th October 2013]

As the Second World War approached, the YMCA gradually began to reduce its activities in Czechoslovakia. In 1943 the YMCA was banned in Czechoslovakia. After the Second World War, the YMCA resumed its activity in Czechoslovakia. However, it again ceased activity under duress in 1951 and, having unsuccessfully attempted to “re-establish” in 1968, it didn’t resume activity until 1990. An independent Czech YMCA was established in 1992 as the Czechoslovakian Federative Republics were about to split.

A similar fate was met by the Polish YMCA. It was also banned during the Second World War. However, this organization was not totally dissolved, as the Polish YMCA was relocated to London during the war, after which it also resumed activity, only to be dissolved in 1949 and had to wait until 1990 to be re-established [ymca.pl/html/polska/index.php, accessed 16th Oct 2013].

Today, the YMCA is the oldest and, with its 45 million members in 124 countries, largest worldwide youth organization [www.ymca.cz/info-o-ymca/historie/, accessed 16th October 2013]

Conclusion

The YMCA is a long-serving international organization which, despite its wide aims, has significantly contributed to the development of physical education and sport in many countries around the world. New sports have emerged from its physical education amenities, gradually becoming Olympic sports, often thanks to promotion by YMCA members.

Its physical education workers have achieved high standards in their field, becoming untiring promoters of physical education and sport. Some of them have also prepared national teams for the Olympic Games.

A number of members who did sports actively or went through the sports sections and divisions of the YMCA also qualified for the Olympic Games. The best of them even stood on the victory rostrum.

The YMCA, or its physical education institutions, has been highly acknowledged twice, being awarded the Olympic Cup.

In inter-war Czechoslovakia and Poland, this association very rapidly built high quality sports facilities that many other organizations or clubs could only “quietly envy”. However, you did not have to be a member of the YMCA to use these facilities and almost everyone could take advantage of them.

After basketball was included in the programme of the Olympic Games in Berlin, several members of this organization became members of the Czechoslovak and Polish basketball teams. What is more, physical education director of Prague YMCA – F.M. Marek – was commissioned to organize this basketball tournament.

With the approach of the Second World War, the YMCA gradually began to limit its activity in certain countries and was later even banned. After the Second World War, the YMCA resumed activity in Central Europe. However, its existence did not last long, again being banned in the early 1950s. It was not permanently restored until the 1990s.

However, YMCA members did not manage to continue their tradition of sporting achievement from the inter-war period [This study emerged in the framework of the PRVOUK, No. 39.]

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Manager in the Organization

(Based on Women's Basketball in Poland)

Katarzyna Krężel

Summary

To varying degrees, managers have an undeniable impact on the proper functioning of sports organizations, which is why they must possess a number of skills necessary for the proper performance of the management process. These include technical, interpersonal, conceptual, diagnostic, and analytical skills. To be able to meet the needs of its members and customers, sports organizations must employ managers capable of being good leaders and fulfilling the interpersonal, information, and decision-making roles. This paper makes a distinction between the profile of the sports manager and sports agent in women's basketball clubs. Interviews with Wisła Can-Pack general manager Piotr Dunin-Suligostowski and licensed sports agent Patrycja Czepiec-Golańska were very helpful in showing the correct picture of basketball club structure and the challenging areas of the positions of sports manager and sports agent.

Keywords: sports organization, sports manager, sports agent, skills, roles

Organizations have an undeniable impact on the lives of every man, human personality, and behaviour. They are present in our lives and are also ubiquitous in sport.

To be able to take part in sports, we become members of sports clubs, sections, and sports centres that offer services related to physical activity. As Kazimierz Doktor writes "organizations performing in the field of sports, become groups of deliberate and planned actions, they have shaped internal governance structure, the social norms regulating the behaviour of members, certain degree of activity formalization, relative isolation from the environment" [Doktor 2005, pp. 10–11].

It seems that all kinds of organizations are characterized by the same features, but sports organizations are unique and have parameters that are unique for them only. First of all, no one can be compelled to belong, and so the decision on membership is voluntary. In sports organizations, all decisions are taken democratically, so that the statute, resolution, and even the most ordinary decision becomes one for which majority of members had voted. A strong sense of inner belonging and intimacy, which are today replaced by the commercialization of sport, are an asset to the oldest clubs and sports associations. Just like the goal of all other organizations, the primary goal of sports organizations is to meet the needs of their members [Doktor 2005, p. 11].

The person responsible for implementing the management process in the organization is the sports manager. His or her duties include managing human and physical resources, and making decisions concerning the fi-

nanacial and information resources. If decisions are to be effective and relevant, the manager must understand the environment of organization from which all of the resources managed by him or her come. The analysis of emerging trends, economic changes, and various kinds of crises, has an impact on a manager's work, which is unpredictable, as it involves many factors with little or no impact [Griffin 1996, p. 40].

The purpose of this paper is to present the sports manager's and sports agent's functions in women's basketball. It directly refers to the role played by the sports manager in the sports organization, and sports agent in the lives of basketball players, and depicts how their cooperation looks like. My own passion for basketball and the fact that it is a huge part of my life were the factors that led me to raise the subject associated with this sports discipline.

To implement the theme of the paper, I used content analysis in the field of organization and management (mainly from the sociology of organizations). No less important was the source of interviews with people performing managerial functions in one of the best basketball clubs in Poland.

Profile of the sports manager

The management process consists of four basic functions. The first is planning and decision-making, which involves the definition of objectives faced by the organization and how to most effectively implement them. The second is to organize, which is finding the best method of activity and resources coordination. Another function

is to lead people so that they are motivated to work. The last function is to control, which is a continuous analysis of current activities and progress achieved. It often happens that the above features do not occur in the same order, but rather occur at the same moment and become intertwined [Griffin 1996, p. 40].

To fulfil the above functions, it is essential for the manager to have basic skills such as: technical, interpersonal, and conceptual. Technical skills include the knowledge necessary to fulfil the duties and responsibilities of the organization. The manager is expected to have a Master's degree in the field he or she works in. Of course this knowledge will be supported by the experience gained during the work. Technical skills are incremented by the manager, as well as representatives of other professions, by climbing the career ladder. The higher they get, the better the skills and qualifications get [Griffin 1996, p. 55].

Interpersonal skills are the ability to make contact and communicate with another person or group of co-workers. This is a very important skill for a manager to can effectively motivate subordinates. Similarly to the ladder of technical skills, the higher the position, the greater the social skills and expectations in communicating with employees or managers of equal rank [Griffin 1996, p. 56].

The last are conceptual skills, which are based on the ability of abstract thinking. A manager with this skill is able to look at the organization as an integrity He or she sees and understands how the organization works and what impact it has on the environment. Additional skills that lead the manager to success are diagnostic and analytical skills. They provide an immediate response for an unusual (positive or negative) situation and allow the manager to take appropriate action. With this capability, the manager is able to determine the problem, diagnose it, and solve it effectively [Griffin 1996, pp. 56–57].

The manager of a sports organization makes decisions on all three levels of management: operational, tactical, and strategic. This is a highly qualified person who has knowledge not only of physical culture, but also economics and psychology. The title "manager" can be applied to many people who differ in their scope of responsibilities, and as such, a manager can be called: a person taking care of sport facilities or a team, a person organizing sport events, a person managing human resources and responsible for the transfer of players or coaches. More rarely, the role of a manager is fulfilled by a coach, although this is a person with no adequate training and experience in the management field [Perechuda 2003, p. 76].

In the sports organization, in the era of the commercialization of sport, the manager should demonstrate extraordinary professionalism. The manager should become a link between the management of the club, its staff, players, and sponsors, which is why negotiation

skills, proper communication, being fair and objective, and acting in accordance with moral principles are so important. The last feature is particularly important when a manager manages the transfers, the area that is often ruled by money, and can lead to perdition of ethical values [Perechuda 2003, p. 76].

Today, when the sports market is dominated by sponsors, the goal of the manager is to keep sports organization cohesive. Sponsors try to use their position to force clubs to make transfers that correspond with their will. The role of the manager in this situation is to be a mediator between the management of the club and its vision and sponsors, who are the main decision-makers in matters of budget, and who have the right to impose their own requirements and team vision. Good manners, the ability to think strategically, and professionalism allow the manager to manage the sports organization at a high level.

Functions and tasks of the manager in an organization

The roles, tasks, and functions of a manager are to some extent determined by the place that is occupied by the manager in the structure of the organization. His or her first and primary task, regardless of their place in this structure, is to be a person who has command over a group of people and supervises their work, which is consistent with being a leader. "Leadership is the unconstrained directing and coordinating the activities of members of an organized group to achieve group goals. However, leadership as an attribute is a set of personal characteristics attributed to those who are perceived as using such effects successfully" [Sikorski 1999, p. 83–84]. A manager, who is a leader, is a person who inspires the employees. Therefore, he or she must consciously build his social roles, as subordinates unconsciously imitate his or her behaviour.

The functions and behaviour of a manager consist of responsibilities, tasks, roles, and the previously mentioned skills. No matter what place is occupied by the manager in the organization's hierarchy, at all levels he or she must fulfil the roles, which divide as follows: interpersonal roles, informational roles, and decision-making roles [Griffin 1996, p. 53].

Interpersonal roles consist of three functions that can be performed by a manager: the representative role (representing the company, its reputation), the leadership role (supervision, training, and motivating subordinates), and the connecting role (mediating inter-organizational relations) [Griffin 1996, pp. 52–53]. The sports organization manager must fulfil the representative role by acting as a representative in all kinds of celebrations and ceremonies. It is also being a leader who must be able to motivate subordinates to work, players to achieve the highest sports disposition, coaches to be effective, and managers of sports facilities to prepare the gym for sports

events. To meet the needs of the interpersonal role, the manager of the sports organization must be a linkage between people. This feature is particularly useful during the transfer period, when the administration of the sports organization has its own idea of the team composition, and sponsors have a different vision. The manager's job is to mediate in communication between these groups, so they find a common understanding and a solution that will be the best for the sports organization.

The information role divides into: observer function (collecting the information from the internal and external environment of the organization), promoter (presentation of new ideas), and spokesperson (communication of information to the external environment, such as other consumer groups and businesses) [Griffin 1996, pp. 53–54]. In the informational role, the manager needs to assess, for example, the economic situation in the country. He or she has to be able to analyse the market situation and respond to it in due course. Furthermore, the manager must acquire different types of information from players, coaches, and management, which may, for example, improve the image of the team, make the team better, and ultimately improve the functioning of the sports organization. As a propagator and spokesperson, the manager presents various initiatives, provides information to the media on behalf of the organization, and makes explanations of situations or athletic performances.

The last of the manager's roles is a decision-making role, which is to be an entrepreneur – a person responsible for: initiating changes, combating distortion in law violation, managing resources (human, financial, physical, information) and negotiating [Griffin 1996, pp. 53–54]. As an entrepreneur, the sports organization manager's task is to develop new ideas that will affect the image of the team and the organization. This can often be different marketing campaigns designed to encourage viewers and fans to participate in sport. For instance, it is the sports manager's responsibility to organize camps for children with the participation of professional players. Such an event is a big attraction for young sports fans; at the same time it also encourages them to engage in sports and shows the competition and the players' everyday work routine. The other task of a manager in a sports organization is to resolve conflicts that often arise due to the specificity of the sports organization, which employs large human resources. It is these resources in particular and also financial resources that must be managed by the sports manager. When negotiating contracts and agreements, the manager needs to have information on the organization's budget, in order to offer an agreement that is satisfactory for the player and adequate to the player's abilities, but will also not exceed the budget of a sports organization.

All of the above-mentioned roles are interrelated. Information roles result from interpersonal roles, and the

existence of decision-making roles would not be possible without information roles. The task of the manager is to manage the organization so that it can satisfy the needs of both its members and customers.

The sports manager's place within the organization's structure

The manager, to be able to shape the organization in a proper way, has at his or her disposal six elements which are called construction activities: workplace design, workplace grouping, establishing the relationship of subordination, balance of power in the organization, activities coordination, and the diversification of positions [Griffin 1996, p. 329].

The first of these elements – workplace design – is nothing more than the manager determining the responsibilities of the employees within their workplace. With the growth of the organization, the possibility of the manager monitoring all of the employees decreases. Therefore, workplace grouping, which is another of the elements shaping the organization, is an essential task that must be conducted by the manager. The workplace grouping is executed in a logical order, and created sections are subordinated to the new managers, who are responsible for supervising the newly established groups [Griffin 1996, p. 330, 336].

Another element of building the organization is to establish a hierarchy between the workplaces and determining their mutual dependence. The hierarchy of subordination distinguishes two factors according to which the classification is established: the command unity (all employees are subordinated to one boss), the scalar principle (power is linear from the lowest to the highest position) [Griffin 1996, p. 341, 345].

The balance of power in an organization challenges the manager in two areas: delegating authority and decentralization. During the process of delegating, the manager assigns some of his responsibilities to subordinated employees. This process is done in three steps: the transference of responsibility to a subordinate, an employee receiving the authorization to perform a task, and completing the task by the employee and being accountable for it to the manager. The continuous process of delegation of responsibilities to managers at lower levels is transformed into decentralization, in which the relationship between the manager and the employees are democratic [Griffin 1996, p. 348].

Coordinating the activity performed by the manager is to consolidate the activities of various departments of the organization. This process is essential because the actions of particular departments of the organization are interdependent [Griffin 1996, p. 351].

The diversification of positions is the last of the elements, which creates the structure of the organization.

These positions are divided into linear and staff positions. Linear positions are responsible for achieving the goals of the organization, and could be, for example, managers or directors. Employees in staff positions are those whose experience, acquired knowledge, and support are supposed to assist and help the employees in the linear positions [Griffin 1996, p. 353].

Depending on the level in the organization, managers can be divided into top-level managers, middle-level managers, and front line managers. Top-level managers are those who are responsible for the proper functioning of the organization, set the goals, and represent the organization at various types of celebrations and business meetings. They are responsible for the overall strategy of the company. Managers who belong to this group are: presidents, vice presidents, and directors. Middle-level managers are the most numerous group, which includes management positions. This group of employees is primarily responsible for achieving the objectives set by top managers and overseeing the work of line managers. At the lowest level are the employees, whose task is to control the work of subordinates working at the executive level [Griffin 1996, p. 46].

The structure of the sports organization can be divided into three levels: strategic, tactical, and operational, which are very similar to the managerial levels previously described. The top-level managers do their work at the strategic level of the sports organization, where the key decisions concerning the team are made. For example, the managers who work at the highest level are responsible for transfer related decisions, the preparation and sale of sports events, and the proper management of the organization, ensuring it is stable and developing well. The managers working at the tactical level are mainly accountable for encouraging the players and coaches to work hard and professionally. It is necessary to create a prominent sports event that is also an attractive commodity for the fans and spectators. It is also the responsibility of the mid-level managers to take care of and provide a good atmosphere in the club, as it has a huge impact on the players' and team's image in the media. The last task of the mid-level manager is to make sure that all of the sports facilities are well maintained and prepared for the players. All of the managers' functions intertwine and complement each other, as this is the only way to achieve success. At the operational level the managers are responsible for the proper preparation of coaches, so they can effectively educate players [Perechuda 2003, p. 78].

The managers who work at the operational level seem to have a particularly important impact on the sports education of youth. This is exactly when coaches are supposed to be well prepared, able to share their knowledge, and teach the sports chosen by children. The operational level is less visible in senior sports, where players are required to possess well-trained skills and are also paid for

playing. At this level, both coaches and players are fully professional and aware of their responsibilities. This is when sport becomes a job, not only a pleasure and hobby.

The role of the sports agent in the women's basketball club

Currently, women's basketball clubs are highly diversified in terms of organization and represented skills. First, this is caused by the league, in which all of the teams participate, as well as by the economic situation. In Poland, the highest and most prestigious women's basketball league is the Basket Women's League (BLK).^{*} The level below is the second division league under the patronage of the Polish Basketball Association, in which there are teams with limited opportunities for advancement to the BLK. This limitation is mainly due to the financial situation of the clubs, and the reluctance of potential sponsors to advertise through sport. The BLK, although it is the strongest women's basketball league in Poland, is characterized by great diversity, which is visible at the organizational and financial level of the clubs and also at the presented sport level.

In the world of basketball, mid-table teams are perceived as a very similar and aligned. They have similar budgets, are well organized, and have good sports skills. In the contest between them, it is hard to indicate the winner, and "the disposition of the day" becomes crucial. Teams competing for the top positions in the BLK are characterized not only by a high budget, and hence class athletes, but above all by the organization of clubs, which is at a very high level.

The main person responsible for the high-level organization of the club is the manager. The skills of the basketball club manager are not different from those of the manager of other organizations; therefore technical, interpersonal, and conceptual skills are required. "Sports managers are different from business organizations' managers because of the strong orientation on people as task performers and members of the club" [Doktor 2005, p. 61]. In the basketball club, the manager has more responsibilities than in other organizations, and they are conditioned by the structure of this type of club, in which there are fewer employees hired and its activities are focused within one or two basketball teams. This means that the manager makes decisions at all of the management levels: operational, tactical, and strategic. Of course, the general manager of the basketball club has associates responsible for implementing the tasks entrusted to them, but all the decisions and actions take

^{*} Basket Women's League (BLK) – (formerly Polish Women's Basketball League) is the central level and the highest in the hierarchy of women's basketball games in Poland. The winner of this league becomes the Polish Champion, while the weakest teams are delegated to the second division.

place under the control of the manager. This is the case in Wisła Can-Pack Kraków – a team in the Polish Championship, whose general manager is Piotr Dunin-Suligostowski.

The conversation conducted with him confirmed the importance of substantive knowledge, tacit knowledge, and technical skills, which are by Stoner [1997, p. 33] “the ability to use the methods, techniques and knowledge in a specialized area”. According to Stoner, to be a very good basketball club manager, it is necessary to have the knowledge about the sport, but also the psychology, economics, and trends that are currently ruling all of the markets (interview with Dunin-Suligostowski, dated February 27, 2012). As pointed out by Kazimierz Doktor [2005, p. 61], “the type of sports activity sets rules for the selection and conduct of managers in the sport, and because of familiarity with the sports side (identified with training) is the main feature on the list of determinants of the characteristics of an ‘ideal’ manager”. Previously gained experience is transformed into tacit knowledge that the general manager is able to dispose of and use at work, so that the organization of the club and all the activities and projects can function impeccably. Tacit knowledge is extremely valuable, and according to the Japanese approach to knowledge management “is highly personal and hard to formalize, which makes it difficult to communicate or share with others. This category of knowledge includes subjective insights, intuition and hunches. Furthermore, tacit knowledge is deeply rooted in both individual action and experience, as well as individual ideals, values or emotions” [Nonaka & Takeuchi 2005, p. 25].

Piotr Dunin-Suligostowski also mentioned how important interpersonal skills are for the manager of Wisła Can-Pack Kraków. Stoner defines them as “the ability to cooperate with other people, understanding them and motivate both individually and collectively” [1997, p. 33]. In an interview, the general manager of Kraków’s team said that in order to achieve the goals, consistent cooperation between the administration, manager, coaches, and athletes is necessary. Certainly, establishing relations both within the club and with its surroundings is not easy. Each person means a new approach, a new system of values, new beliefs and behaviours, and therefore it is important to find a way of motivation and agreement, so that all who create the club and cooperate with it have similar beliefs and views. In the top women’s basketball club, it is important to have highly developed cooperation at all levels, so that it is all consolidated into one to create a well-functioning mechanism. The coach needs to have a common understanding with the players to enable them to trust him and fulfil their duties. He also needs to be able to communicate with the manager, as this defines the composition of the team, and with the management team who decides his salary. Players should also work well with

the administration and manager, who largely have an impact on their social and living matters. In addition to the above-mentioned, the basketball club must establish good relations with sponsors, media, fans, managers of sports facilities, and the part of society influenced by players’ interaction with children or meetings in hospitals and orphanages (interview with Dunin-Suligostowski, dated February 27, 2012).

Conceptual skills are also highly important – “the ability to coordinate and integrate all the interests and activities of the organization. They are associated with the perception of the organization as an entirety, understanding the interdependencies that occur between its parts and predicting how a change in any of its parts will affect the whole” [Stoner 1997, p. 33]. In the basketball club, conceptual skills most often relate to the construction of the team, when the general manager must consider which athletes are relevant to the concept of the team, and which are not. Conceptual skills also relates to planning the budget, which among other things is the collaboration with sponsors and sports agents that represent the interests of athletes, and HR concepts – organizing various meetings, camps for children, and planning matches and television broadcasts. Referring to the definition of Stoner’s conceptual skills, the manager of the basketball club must be able to coordinate all the activities that have or will have an impact on the functioning of the club, its good reputation, and positive image.

In this section of the paper, we meet the title “sports agent” for the first time. In the world of sport, the person who represents the interests of the athletes is called a “sports agent”. In the basketball club, the primary task of the sports agent is to find a proper team for the player and negotiate the contract. The sports agent is responsible for communication with the team management, the manager, and coaches, if the need arises. Another duty of the sports agent is to take care of the positive image of the represented player, and in some cases agents also take care of the financial matters of the represented player, such as investment and tax settlements, although such cases in Poland are rare. In exchange for the offered services, the sports agent generally receives between 4–10% of a player’s contract, the amount of which is paid by the club. In Poland, the most famous sports agent is Patrycja Czepiec-Golańska, who represents 22 basketball players. For the offered services she generates 10% of the contract value.

The specificity of the sports agent’s work in women’s basketball

In Polish basketball there are currently four sports agents licensed by FIBA*: Patrycja Czepiec-Golańska, Arkadiusz

* FIBA – The International Basketball Federation (fr. Fédération Internationale de Basketball) – an association of national organizations, which governs international competition in

Brodziński, Grzegorz Piekoszewski, and Paweł Majewski [http://www.fiba.com/basketball_agent, June 8, 2013]. Today, a sports agent is also called a manager and the names are used interchangeably by players, clubs, the club manager, and the whole of the basketball “environment”. To be able to distinguish between a manager and the profile of a sports agent – referring to a person representing the interests of the athletes and cooperating with clubs just from this side – I will use the name “sports agent”.

During the interview, Patrycja Czepiec-Golańska very broadly defined the specifics of the sports agent job, which according to her are primarily associated with “contracting” players, and hence preparation of the contract, which will apply to both the athlete and the club [interview with Czepiec-Golańska, dated April 9, 2012]. However, the sports agent’s job consists of a series of responsibilities and activities that must be completed in order to achieve the final establishments. First of all, an important part of the sports agent’s work is the continuous and impeccable cooperation with the general managers of teams and mutual analysis of the season. It is essential for the agent to be aware of the club’s expectations from the represented players, but also of the financial and organizational situation of the potential employer. The other, equally important part of the sports agent’s work, is the very good cooperation with the players whose interests are represented. Such cooperation guarantees proper assessment of the potential of a basketball athlete and her personality. Only when the agent fulfils his or her duties, is he or she really able to satisfy both parties, which finally leads to contract athletes who meet the expectations of the team, and find a club that will suit the needs of the athletes. It sometimes happens that during the season, either the player or the club is dissatisfied, and then the duty of the sports agent is to find a solution to the existing problem. This can be made by being a mediator, although it is sometimes not enough and the task of the sports agent is to terminate the contract (usually by agreement of both parties) and re-find a club for the athlete, if there are no further transfer restrictions.

Undoubtedly, the skills of the sports agent and manager are very similar, and thus, according to what was written in the earlier part of this paper, they are divided into technical, interpersonal, and conceptual skills. The technical skill of the sports agent in women’s basketball primarily is the substantive knowledge about basketball, economic, labour market and legal basis. Solid tacit knowledge is also very important because it may give a competitive advantage. That is why it is very important for a manager to learn from their own experience

and have the ability to draw conclusions. The interpersonal skills are perhaps the most important part of the sports agent work, as without the ability to establish contacts with the basketball environment, good communication, and cooperation with the players and clubs, the job of sports agent would fail to meet its expectations. Relationships are the basis for the work of a sports agent, and without them this work would be impossible. The last type of skills are the conceptual skills that help the sports agent to build a basketball team and find a team for the athletes. Without this skill, a sports agent would have no ability to correctly assess the needs of the basketball market and would not be able to make a proper analysis of the needs of the athletes. Conceptual skills allow the sports agent to integrate the interests of both players and clubs.

These skills should be supported by the ability to be a good mediator, negotiator, and mentor, the ability to motivate, being responsible, objective, and acting in accordance with moral principles. In women’s basketball, but also in all other sports, it happens that conflicts arise (e.g., an athlete does not meet up to expectations, has problems that adversely affect the sports disposition). In such situations, it is important that the sports agent becomes a mediator between the parties and is able to solve their problems. A mediator is a person who can manage the conflict and remain impartial during conversations. However, being a good negotiator seems to be even more important than being a good sports agent. “Negotiating a contract by a sports agent is to use communication skills, conflict resolution, and reaching mutual satisfaction” [Stoner 1997, p. 521]. Negotiation is a complex communication process that requires a lot of patience, as it usually consists of several “rounds”. It is a quite complicated process that depends on several factors, such as: the perception of the parties’ interdependence of interests, mutual trust or lack of it, communication skills such that the other party has accepted the presented point of view, the personality of the negotiators, and their goals and interests [Stoner 1997, p. 523].

According to Patrycja Czepiec-Golańska, it is also important to be a mentor for her players, to be able to steer their careers in the right direction [interview with Czepiec-Golańska, dated April 9, 2012]. Her idea of cooperation and good substantive care is similar to the view described by Krzysztof Klincewicz [2008, p. 16], for who the concept of mentoring is the “transfer of a less experienced employee under a mentor’s supervision”. According to Klincewicz, the task of the mentor is to give good advice to the subordinate, answering questions, dispelling all doubts, and providing guidance. Mentoring by a sports agent in women’s basketball can be particularly important for young athletes just entering the market of professional basketball. Thus, the experience, knowledge and care of Patrycja Czepiec-Golańska can properly steer

basketball. FIBA defines the international rules of basketball, specifies the equipment and facilities, regulates transfers of players between clubs, and controls the nomination of international referees. Founded in Geneva in 1932.

an athlete, as well as allow her to quickly familiarize herself with the labour market. In the case of athletes who are shaped and experienced, the mentor's role is limited to providing an overview of the situation on the "professional basketball" market and providing guidance in choosing a club, which will be represented by the player [interview with Czepiec-Golańska, dated April 9, 2012]. The ability of the sports agent, which in some ways is related to the ability of being a good mentor, is the ability to motivate. As noticed by Doktor [2005, pp. 28, 32] "Motivating individuals is to stimulate their choice of one of many alternative variants of behaviour, such as taking a voluntary decision to enter a sports club and the training regime in the selected discipline" and according to sport psychologists is the "first cause of spontaneous behaviour or conscious action." A sports agent as a good mentor should be able to motivate his or her subordinates not only to work hard and make sacrifices, but also towards a healthy lifestyle, regularity, responsibility, and faith in their abilities. All of these factors have a huge impact on the presented sports level, and are undoubtedly a measure of success. According to Kazimierz Doktor [2005, p. 40] "in modern sport, athletes appreciate the achievements of motivation, have a strong desire to be better in the competition, [...]. The theme of fame and a strong desire to elite social affiliation are also precious ingredients of motives to play sport and the personal agreement to the very early and hard practices and numerous austerities". With all these skills that shape the profile of the sports agent, it is important for the sports agent to be a responsible person. This responsibility should manifest itself in organizational matters, which is in search of players for clubs and clubs for players, in purely legal issues that are related to signing the contract, and in moral matters, which is fair control over the careers of athletes in accordance with the applicable rules.

The areas of managerial challenges in the management of a women's basketball club

The areas of managerial challenges are directly related to the previously described roles of manager: interpersonal, informational, and decision-making. Mentioned by James Stoner [1997, p. 30], management practice is based on the versatility that should describe managers. Versatility is the ability to fulfil each of the above roles, especially during interpersonal relations. As noted by Piotr Dunin-Suligostowski, general manager of Wisła Can-Pack Kraków, the manager's job in a sports club consists of a series of obligations starting with the club's transfer politics, budgeting and control of the budget, and ending in the sphere of marketing and logistics [interview with Dunin-Suligostowski, dated February 27, 2012].

As a part of the interpersonal role, the representational function performed by a manager primarily aims to influence the good image of the basketball club. This can be achieved by good cooperation with media, which, as Piotr Dunin-Suligostowski said, is not easy, as it is the media who have the tools necessary to create a positive or negative image [interview with Dunin-Suligostowski, dated February 27, 2012]. A manager who manages a sports club should become a link with both the inner club as well as with the external environment. For the basketball club to have a good reputation, the manager must almost perfectly interact on many levels, such as: club management, athletes, coaches, sponsors, marketing, and sports agents. Especially difficult seems to be the cooperation with sports agents, through which the finalization of contracts is held, and with sponsors, with whom mutual agreement should be found on the objectives of advertising and sports. Therefore, it is important for the manager to be a so-called link between them, as only then will good communication and the relationship between the structures of the club and its external environment be possible. The last of the three activities performed by the manager of the basketball club in the context of the interpersonal role is being a leader. A well functioning basketball club, both in terms of organization and sport, is the best proof that the manager faces the challenge of being a good leader. When this is so, then he or she becomes a role model for other employees, and having their appreciation and respect, it is much easier to lead the club.

The sports agent also has to fulfil his or her interpersonal role activities. As a person who represents the interests of athletes, the sports agent should fulfil this function impeccably, as he or she represents the athlete and her expectations for the club. The way the conversation is led and the offer is presented are extremely important, as these affect the image of the player. Just as the manager takes care of the good image of the sports club, so the sports agent with his or her representativeness should take care of the athlete's image. By leading the conversations on behalf of the athletes, the sports agent becomes the link between the basketball player and a club. Previously described as "being a mediator" by a sports agent, is also a form of mediation between a club and the player, which is frequently met in conflict situations. Good organization and self-supervision make up the leadership tasks of the sports agent. They are not quite as distinctive as in the case of the club manager; but the type of work performed, and the differences in the activities and responsibilities of the manager and the sports agent determine this.

One of the biggest challenges in the area of the interpersonal role is being a spokesperson for the sports club, the observer and the promoter. In the basketball club, being a spokesperson is particularly important in deal-

ing with the media, which as previously mentioned is not easy. Therefore, it is important that the manager of the basketball club, by being a carrier of information to the external environment, makes the correct selections, and flow of information that can be provided. This has a substantial impact on shaping the positive image of the club, and thus promotes the team and sponsor. Capitalizing the information from the external environment is also extremely important, as it gives the basketball club the possibility to adapt to the market requirements, the Polish Basketball Federation,* FIBA, and to have the correct response to the transfer movements of other clubs. As a good observer, the sports manager of a basketball club should notice any changes in the economic situation, both on the domestic and sports market, although this skill should be used not only in the financial sphere. It may also prove to be extremely useful during the transfer period, when the sport disposition of players should be observed. As a result, the sports manager builds his or her knowledge about the athletes whom the club are interested in for the new season. This knowledge can be used while talking with coaches, management, and sponsors about the future team.

In the case of the sports agent, the information role is primarily limited to the role of observer, through which the agent has a very good understanding of the “basketball” market. By having adequate knowledge of the athletes, the sports agent is able to meet the expectations of the club in terms of the offers of the represented players. In fact, he or she has a wide range of represented athletes, which allows the basketball club to choose the best option that will fit into the establishments and concepts of the team. The sports agent, due to made observations and acquired information, is able to find so-called “free” players – those whose interests are not represented by any agent. It gives the agent the opportunity to sign a contract with that player, to represent her in front of the clubs that are interested in her services. In professional basketball there are practically no renowned players who are not be related to any of the sports agents, and therefore “seeking” “free” athletes is limited to the young and talented basketball players who are perspective for both sports agent and basketball clubs.

The manager’s decision-making role seems to be associated with the greatest responsibility, as it consists of resource management, initiating changes, combating distortion in violation of the law, and negotiation. Resource management is a broad concept, under which the sports manager needs to manage the human, financial, physical,

and information resources. A basketball club is an organization in which the implementation of tasks and goals – hence obtaining sponsors, reputable coaching staff and athletes, and a positive image – depend on the players’ sports disposition. As seen, a human being is a tremendously important factor in a sports organization; therefore, it is an extremely important challenge for the sports manager to be able to properly manage human resources. Along with the coaches and management, the manager has to put together a team that will fit the concept of the club, not only in terms of sport, but also character. When building a team for the next season, the manager must remember not to exceed the budget of the club, which is directly related to financial management. Another important challenge for the manager is to initiate changes. In order to do this it is necessary to make analyses that may indicate the poorly functioning structures of the club, and the role of a manager is to spot these “weak points” and attempt to make some changes. Marketing campaigns often seem to be very challenging in women’s basketball. Today, when basketball is not the most popular discipline in Poland and lacks international success, it is difficult to count on the support of the fans without a well-prepared marketing campaign. The success of the team is a condition to attracting fans, but the publicity of information about players or running a website cannot be forgotten, as such policies maximize the marketing objectives and increase the audience. Of course, besides the marketing problems, a club experiences many others, which often relate to: changes in personnel, logistics, and budget, which are also problematic spheres in other organizations, although the ability to innovate and implement the changes is beneficial for their image. The role of a negotiator, which is a part of the decision-making role, has special importance for the sports manager when negotiating sports and sponsorship contracts. As noted by Piotr Dunin-Suligostowski, obtaining a sponsor is a huge challenge due to the general economic situation, as sponsors do not want to direct the financial means towards sport, but rather towards other advertising purposes [interview with Dunin-Suligostowski, dated February 27, 2012].

A difficult economic situation also makes it hard to negotiate contracts with basketball players, which among other things has resulted in the introduction, by the BLK, of rules that limited the playing time of Polish players, and hence the amount of their contracts. Negotiations with the best Polish players are not easy for the manager and club, as these are the players who value their skills, so finding an agreement that will satisfy both parties is also not easy. The final step of the manager’s decision-making role is to prevent the interference of violation of the law. In every club, an athlete signs the rules of the club with the contract, obligating her to follow them, and in the event of non-fulfilment of its provisions (e.g., being late or absent for practice), the manager together with the

* Polish Basketball Association – (pl. Polski Związek Koszykówki) nationwide sports association with its location in Warsaw, founded in 1957, functioning on the Polish territory, with legal personality, is the only representative of the men’s and women’s basketball of all age categories, at home and abroad.

club's management have the right to draw up the consequences. Similar law enforcement also takes place at higher levels of club management, for instance, on-time salary transfers and the enforcement of sports and sponsorship agreements. In clubs that have a good reputation, infringing situations are very rare, although quite often they happen in the clubs that have poorly functioning organization.

The sports agent mainly represents two out of four functions of the decision-making role: managing human resources and negotiating. According to Patrycja Czepiec-Golańska, finding a job for a player is not easy, primarily due to the economic situation. The ability to negotiate a satisfying offer largely depends on the basketball player herself and the level of presented skills in the previous season [interview with Czepiec-Golańska, dated April 9, 2012]. In the position of sports agent, the ability to make a fine selection of a player that will fit the club's "philosophy" is very important and only possible due to gathered knowledge and experience. By managing player resources, the sports agent should be able to analyse and predict what quality the selected athlete will bring to the team. The factors that make the manager's negotiations with agents difficult constitute the same difficulty for the sports agents, and their role is to use such arguments to convince the club to accept the offer. During negotiations, this offer will change, but the most important is that both parties are satisfied: the club with the amount of money that needs to be paid to the player without exceeding the budget, and the player with the salary adequate to her skills. Immediately behind the agent's job there is a law office, through which the agent has control over all contracts of the players and also supervises the proper execution of the agreement by both sides. In case of legal irregularities, the agent has the opportunity to intervene, although if this does not bring the desired results, the case is usually forwarded to FIBA, for the federation to impose sanctions against parties violating the law.

Conclusion

Proper organization management is the condition under which organization is able to function well. It is essential in the pursuit to achieve the desired objectives, and consequently – the success, which is followed by substantial benefits. The person who is largely responsible for this is the manager. It is no different in sports organizations. It seems, therefore, that the question of the validity of this type of discussion is only a rhetorical question. In professional sports, clubs operate like businesses, and their goal (beyond generating performances at the highest level) is to make profits. In this context, the role of both manager and sports agent seems to be invaluable.

In women's basketball, the sports agent's work seems to be particularly challenging due to the economic situ-

ation, the average in comparison with other countries' level of training for young people and BLK regulations regarding the number of Polish players on the floor during the match, and hence the influx of young athletes, for whom playing in extra league teams is an important factor in the development of a basketball career. Observing the Polish reality, the number of young basketball players in the BLK does not increase regularly, and hence the sports agent working with the extra league clubs, primarily represents mature athletes who already have a good reputation. While today it is related to income, the question remains, how will the situation of sports agents look in a few years when the successors of players currently spending lots of time on the floor are needed, and whose position is not threatened by the influx of the "young force" to the BLK extra league.

Perhaps this is a factor that decides that there are very few licensed agents in women's basketball. Being a good agent is associated with having good knowledge of the basketball market, but also with the relevant character to help in the proper performance of the work and good management of the careers of athletes.

We can only hope that any type of regulation and the influx of young and talented athletes will have a future impact on the work of sports agents, who not only guide the sports careers, but also contribute to the image of Polish women's basketball.

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Personal and Social Determinants of Active Ageing: The Case Study of the Jagiellonian Third-Age University Students

Waldemar Makuła

Department of Theory and Methodology of Physical Education
Faculty of Physical Education and Sport
University of Physical Education in Kraków

Summary

The aim of the research was to show the attitudes of the Jagiellonian Third-Age University students towards active ageing and its personal and social conditions. The findings can be used in postulated permanent physical education, as well in social initiatives directed to health prophylaxis of seniors. During the research the Scheler value scale (with the analysis accent put on physical culture values), as well the author's questionnaire of attitudes towards the body values and the behavioural inventory have been used. The basic data distribution statistics have been evaluated, too. The seniors esteem health value and present positive pro-health attitudes, however the part of them expresses the inconsistent views in terms of the cognitive and affective attitudes' components. Irrespective of the differences in the motives and forms of movement choices made by the women and men, the most of them undertakes active relaxation. The polled treat their modest finances as the basic barrier stopping their participation in physical culture. The findings confirm the rank of education in strengthening seniors' attitudes towards the body vital value, especially within the cognitive and affective components, however do not confirm the assumptions about their uniform character. On the current state of these attitudes the different respondents' life experiences have had a significant influence.

Keywords: active ageing; health values and attitudes, health prophylaxis, physical culture

Introduction

The issue of health-enhancing physical activity regarding the medical and social consequences of the seniors' participation in physical culture [Ailshire, Crimmins 2011; Nowocień 2012; Żukowska 2012] is treated nowadays as one of the core ageing problems [Rastogi Kalyani, Corriere, Ferrucci 2014]. According to D. MacAuley [2000], many older women in the developed countries grapple, due to their physical strength decrease, with the limitations in terms of daily activities. This author underlines the fact that the studies on physical activity also cover the problems regarding the prevention of lifestyle diseases and treatment resulting from the contemporary man's wrong everyday habits. He highlights at the same time the benefits of well being, which can be derived from exercise by a man at any stage of his life and informs that older people's cardiovascular capabilities designate how they realize their daily activities. In his opinion, the physical exercise intensity is the only modifiable variable, because of the biological relationship between the

risk factors and their revealed effects to health. Similarly, P. Astrand [1994] encourages participating in the regular movement that improves functioning of human body systems. Therefore, physical education addressed to 'students of late adulthood' [Pawłucki 2013] regarding the ability of choosing physical effort suitably to human health needs and capacities allows to strengthen positive attitudes towards the body exercises among seniors. Many researchers [Damush, Perkins, Mikesky et al. 2005; Makuła 2007], when analysing the different determinants of active ageing, are in fact convinced about the key role of the permanent and affirmative attitudes [Wahl 2010] to physical culture values [Baker, Meisner, Logan et al. 2009; Yasunaga, Togo, Watanabe et al. 2008].

Therefore, in the social dimension initiating actions in the field of preventive health, which are used among other things, in the creation of appropriate conditions for active recreation for seniors is of great importance. The accepted indicators assist in those opportunities' evaluation. For instance, the Global AgeWatch index [2013] referring to such the domains as the income secu-

riety, health status, employment and education, and environmental support reveals the differentiated situations of seniors all over the world in 2013. The fulfilment of the requirements corresponding to the basic healthy ageing determinants such as life expectancy, psychological well-being, educational attainment and physical safety decides on the index's value and informs in effect about the rank of the various countries in their approaches to the older people. Poland is ranked with the value of 45.9 at the sixty-third place in the world. This result indicates the need for more intensive creation of favourable surroundings, greater social engagement to enable Polish seniors wider than their current participation in the offers of active recreation as well as diagnosing the older people's attitudes towards the health value as the primary determinant factor in healthy lifestyle.

The problem of searching the seniors' attitudes towards health, also those of them who study at the Jagiellonian Third Age University and their participation in physical activity fits into this postulate's assumptions [*Older people, sport and physical activity: a review of key issues* 2004, *Healthy ageing – a challenge for Europe* 2006, *Global elderly care in crisis* 2014, *Improving the health of older Indigenous Canadians* 2013, *How to cope with an ageing population* 2013].

The research procedure

Problems

In order to obtain the answers on the character of the seniors' attitudes towards active ageing the following research questions have been formulated:

1. What the attitudes of the seniors towards the typical values of physical culture have been revealed in the study?
2. Which of the motives that influence the respondents' participation in physical activity are the most popular?
3. How intensively do the surveyed seniors practice physical exercises today in their spare time and how intensively did they practice them in the past?
4. Which of the barriers to physical activity are dominant amongst the Jagiellonian Third Age University students?
5. What the differences, based on the respondents' sex, are referring to their attitudes towards active ageing?

Methods

The questionnaire of attitudes and the senior's behavioural inventory constructed by the author, as well as Scheller's values scale proposed by Piotr Brzozowski were used while investigating the seniors' demeanours towards active ageing. The attitudes' questionnaire allows to lead the analysis on the distinguished in this article subcategories

of health in terms of the cognitive, affective and behavioural structural factors that decide about its intrinsic cohesion. The behavioural inventory enables highlighting the motives influencing seniors' decisions to undertake exercise, identifies the movement forms acknowledged by them in their youth and examines their self-esteem considering their current physical fitness level.

From amongst all fifty items on the scale, the merely values like physical fitness, strength and agility (it means in kinesiology the ability to move quickly and easily) have been taken into account, while investigating. Each value can be evaluated in the score range of 0–100 points. Attributing a score greater than 50 points to a value indicates an increase of interest in the value, while a score lesser than 50 points corresponds to a decrease of interest in it. Counting the basic statistics of distribution has allowed showing the differences of the distribution of values between the respondents' groups.

The respondents' characteristics

A long-term research conducted with the seniors studying at the Jagiellonian Third Age University in Kraków (the survey was also carried out with other students representing the similar academic institutions in Poland and abroad) had been finalized in 2009. The polled students are a group of active university graduates who constantly acquire new information and abilities and in that way take part in lifelong permanent education. The basic information concerning the surveyed seniors from Kraków has been shown in Table 1. Women dominate in the structure of the polled respondents, same as it has place in the widespread investigations' results of many authors cited in the further part of the paper. Those aged 51–60 are the majority in the group of female respondents. However, more older men proportionally belong to the group of respondents in the age bracket 61–70. Thus, the answers received from the older women and men who are aged between 50 and 70 are characteristic for the polled respondents in the presented research.

Results

Health and lifestyle of the Jagiellonian Third Age University students

Keeping a certain way of life by one [Sekuła 1991] determines the prevention of their health. The investigated seniors, who acknowledge their health problems, evaluate their current health status as not very good or acceptable. The women more critically evaluate their present health status. About two-thirds of the men are rather satisfied with health they possess. Also, according to the opinion of more than half of the men, they had no serious health problems in the past. A similar opinion on that topic is expressed by a slightly smaller percentage of the women.

Table 1. The research sample of the older respondents.

Age (in years)	Women and men together (82 = 100%)	Women (68 = 100%)	Men (14 = 100%)
50 minus	2 (2.44%)	2 (2.94%)	–
51 – 60 yrs. of age	38 (46.34%)	36 (52.94%)	2 (14.29%)
61 – 70 yrs. of age	39 (47.56%)	29 (42.65%)	10 (71.43%)
71 – 80 yrs. of age	2 (2.44%)	1 (1.47%)	1 (7.14%)
80 plus	1 (1.22%)	–	1 (7.14%)
An average age	61.56	60.66	65.93
Median	61	60	63.50
Mode	63	60	63

The findings concerning the healthy mode of life, but with an exclusion of the respondents' engagement in physical activity show that:

1. the majority of the respondents declaring alcohol consumption assess their alcohol intake as lower than normal, while one fifth of the polled declare abstaining from alcohol – just a few women evaluate consuming alcohol by them as being normal;
2. most of the seniors do not smoke cigarettes at all, whereas only the women are those who daily smoke more than five cigarettes – they smoke them for several years and even for a few decades;

3. the respondents eat meals regularly, most often three during a day.

The revealed results concerning the declared by the respondents the hygienic behaviours convince that health – independently of the self-esteem of its current and past status – is an appreciated value by them. In the significant majority they try to conduct a lifestyle appropriate for own health.

Health attitudes

According to the assumptions of social psychology [Reber 1995] on the interrelationships between values and

Table 2. Seniors attitudes' cognitive factor.

Statements	Seniors by gender	Scale explanation (%)				
		Strongly agree	Agree	No answer	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Health is one of the most important values, independently of circumstances.	Together (N = 82)	91.46	7.32	0	0	1.22
	Women (N = 68)	89.71	8.82	0	0	1.47
	Men (N = 14)	100	0	0	0	0
One appreciates health only in the face of illness.	Together (N = 82)	34.15	52.44	1.22	12.20	0
	Women (N = 68)	36.76	48.53	1.47	13.24	0
	Men (N = 14)	21.43	71.43	0	7.14	0
An active and hygienic mode of life is a basis for good health.	Together (N = 82)	67.07	28.05	3.66	1.22	0
	Women (N = 68)	64.71	29.41	4.41	1.47	0
	Men (N = 14)	78.57	21.43	0	0	0
Everyday observance of hygiene rules has a minimum effect on one's health.	Together (N = 82)	9.76	7.32	1.22	28.05	53.66
	Women (N = 68)	10.29	8.82	1.47	29.41	50
	Men (N = 14)	7.14	0	0	21.43	71.43

Tabela 3. Affective factor of the attitudes towards health.

Statements	Seniors by gender	Scale explanation (%)				
		Strongly agree	Agree	No answer	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Good health has an advantageous effect on one's self-image.	Together (<i>N</i> = 82)	93.90	6.10	0	0	0
	Women (<i>N</i> = 68)	92.65	7.35	0	0	0
	Men (<i>N</i> = 14)	100	0	0	0	0
Good health does not enhance one's outlook on life.	Together (<i>N</i> = 82)	7.32	18.29	10.98	26.83	36.59
	Women (<i>N</i> = 68)	18.82	17.65	10.29	29.41	33.82
	Men (<i>N</i> = 14)	0	21.43	14.29	14.29	50
People enjoy opportunities to improve their health and prevent illness, regardless of age.	Together (<i>N</i> = 82)	50	37.80	7.32	4.88	0
	Women (<i>N</i> = 68)	45.59	41.18	8.82	4.41	0
	Men (<i>N</i> = 14)	71.43	21.43	0	7.14	0
Seniors demonstrate a neutral attitude to their health in contrast to young people.	Together (<i>N</i> = 82)	2.44	13.41	3.66	35.37	45.12
	Women (<i>N</i> = 68)	1.47	13.24	4.41	35.29	45.59
	Men (<i>N</i> = 14)	7.14	14.29	0	35.71	42.86

attitudes, the appreciation of the health value can be expressed by the seniors' positive attitudes towards that value. According to I. Ajzen [2008], attitudes not only determine the undertaken actions by seniors, but also reflect the characteristic for them types of behaviour. When considering this dependency, the individual components of the respondents' attitudes towards health have been analysed on the basis of the obtained results in the survey. The cognitive factor of the attitudes shows the respondents' beliefs in regard to the postulate of undertaking the care of own health and carrying out by them the healthy mode of life (Table 2). Almost all of the respondents highlight the significance of health, irrespectively of the diverse life circumstances. Similarly, nearly all believe that active and hygienic style of life strengthens that value. Slightly fewer respondents are convinced that man appreciates health, particularly in the case of disease risk. The majority of the surveyed seniors discards opinions negating the benefits of daily hygienic rules. However, every fifth woman would accept those.

The affective component revealing the respondents' emotional involvement defines the relationship between owning good health and being satisfied with life. (Table 3). Nearly all the seniors recognize and confirm the occurrence of this relation, and the significant number of them positively evaluates the health attitudes presented by their mates. Nevertheless, many persons including

more than one third of the women do not agree with the statement that obtaining by man the vital benefits for his organism causes the increase of human optimism. On the other hand, also the same respondents persuade that life satisfaction observed in people of different ages is due to the potential for health improvement opportunities.

The attitude's behavioural factor, which expresses the disposition to undertake actions for the sake of health, concerns among others the willingness of the respondents to start regular physical activity (Table 4). The seniors declare readiness to exercise. Hence, they consistently express their wish to participate in health prophylaxis by taking part in exercise (for instance in marching forms) instead of use of tonics. However, they count also with the possibility of adverse effects of physical exercise for own organism.

Undoubtedly, the seniors present the positive health attitudes; although in the approaches of many of them to some issues, for instance those related to the affective attitudes' factor, one can notice the antinomies. Compared to the cognitive and emotional components, one can also notice an interesting fact of allocating by the respondents a higher rank to the attitude's behavioural factor, which describes their inclination to start health-related physical activity, though in the structure of the declared attitudes the cognitive and emotional factors are not in each case coherent.

Table 4. Seniors attitudes' behavioural factor.

Statements	Seniors by gender	Scale explanation (%)				
		Strongly agree	Agree	No answer	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I am ready to begin regular exercising to support my health.	Together (<i>N</i> = 82)	32.93	56.10	6.10	4.88	0
	Women (<i>N</i> = 68)	35.29	52.94	5.88	5.88	0
	Men (<i>N</i> = 14)	21.43	71.43	7.14	0	0
I try to avoid any exercise because I am afraid of its adverse effects on my health.	Together (<i>N</i> = 82)	4.08	2.44	1.22	47.56	43.90
	Women (<i>N</i> = 68)	4.41	2.94	1.47	44.12	47.06
	Men (<i>N</i> = 14)	7.14	0	0	64.29	28.57
Walking, even in a bad weather, is more advantageous for health than use of tonics.	Together (<i>N</i> = 82)	70.73	25.61	1.22	1.22	1.22
	Women (<i>N</i> = 68)	69.12	29.41	0	1.47	0
	Men (<i>N</i> = 14)	78.57	7.14	7.14	0	7.14
It is better to err on the side of caution and avoid the risk of catching a cold by walking in the open air.	Together (<i>N</i> = 82)	4.88	4.88	1.22	34.15	54.88
	Women (<i>N</i> = 68)	4.41	5.88	1.47	33.82	54.41
	Men (<i>N</i> = 14)	7.14	0	0	35.71	57.14

The approach to the physical culture values and motives for participation in physical activity

One of the indicators of factual human interest in active recreation is the realisation of physical activity values [Znanięcki, Thomas 1958; Znanięcki 1973; Zdebska 2012]. Declared by the respondents the affirmation of the values of physical culture located at the scale reveals the seniors' desire to achieve them within the work on own body (Table 5).

According to the results, the majority of the surveyed women and men appreciate the physical culture values in the following order: physical fitness, agility and physical strength. The results' distribution is highly asymmetric (left-hand) in the case of physical fitness and agility and slightly asymmetric in the event of physical strength. It means that somewhat more than half of the respondents count with the value of physical strength, while the vast majority of them esteem physical fitness and agility. The sizes of the coefficient of variation (exceeding 20%) obtained for each of those values indicate on a large discrepancy in the respondents' assessments [Pociecha 2002; Ferguson, Takane 1997]. The closest among them are the positive assessments attributed by the seniors to physical fitness. The respondents most often attribute to that only value the maximum number of points, too. The visible differences between the women and men are revealed in turn in their attitude to the value of physical strength. The men appreciate to the bigger

degree this value. Compared to granting most frequently by the women the described value 50 points, the men attribute mostly 80 points (out of 100 possible points on the scale) to that value. The size of the coefficient of variation is also significantly lower for this value in the men than in the women.

Presented earlier in the text the seniors' health attitudes are not only the results of recognized by them human movement values, but are also associated with the structure of the behaviour motivation performed by them in physical culture. According to more than half of the respondents, the opportunity of ensuring the every day smooth functioning of an organism is a leading reason for undertaking physical exercise. Another quite important motive both for the men and women is their conviction about the effective impact of exercise on slowing involution processes. Besides the shown motives, the other characteristics for the women relate to the development of health and maintaining well-being through the movement, and for the men to the need for movement and sense of the duty of conducting in this way the care of the body based on their education in the youth at home and school. The reasons related to the desire to maintain the slender figure and the ability to reduce stress are of some importance, especially for the women. All previously mentioned the motives determining the share of the respondents in physical culture are of intrinsic character. The extrinsic one related to the fashion for

Tabela 5. The physical activity values' rank and statistics for the frequency distribution

Seniors	Values	Score		Statistics			
		50–100	Less than 50	Median	Mode	Coefficient of variability (%)	Skewness
		%	%				
Together (<i>N</i> = 79)	Fitness	87.34	12.66	71	100	32.17	-1.17
	Agility	60.76	39.24	60	80	47.83	-0.98
	Strength	59.49	40.51	50	50	57.12	-0.04
Women (<i>N</i> = 66)	Fitness	86.36	13.64	70	100	32.80	-1.20
	Agility	60.61	39.39	50	80	49.53	-1.01
	Strength	57.58	42.42	50	50	60.99	-0.12
Men (<i>N</i> = 13)	Fitness	92.31	7.69	80	100	26.92	-1.02
	Agility	61.54	38.46	80	80	36.59	-0.83
	Strength	69.23	30.77	70	80	33.37	-0.89

movement has no importance to the surveyed women and men. It should be thus stressed that the main motives deciding about the seniors' participation in physical effort are the intrinsic ones of a utilitarian character; the health and hedonistic reasons are also important for the women, same as the habitual reason is valid for the men.

Physical activity

As it was already signalled in the work, the analysis of the seniors' participation in physical activity [Nowak, Doupona 2000; Kozdroń 2006] shows how the values of physical culture can be realized in practise. The largest number of the older people (almost half) evaluates the level of currently undertaken by them physical activity as moderate. A similar number of the respondents declare their current participation in physical activity of high or low intensity. In regard to the men, taking into account their past in the period up to 24 years of age, more than two-thirds of them declared conducting physical activity at a very high level. Almost half of the men reported that they participated in exercise with the same intensity at the age bracket of 25 till the beginning of aging. After 24 years of age had also increased the percentage of the men participating in moderate, and after 45 years of age in low physical activity. Currently, the largest percentage of the men declares conducting physical activity of high and moderate intensity. Meanwhile, most of the women – though proportionately less than the men – declared the lead in the period to 24 years of age of physical activity on a high, and very high intensity level. One third of the women informed about conducting the intensive

physical exercise after 25 years of age to the origins of aging, and half of those surveyed admitted that after 25 years of age they undertook moderate or low physical activity. Currently, half of the women declare the participation in moderate physical activity, and the others in similar proportions indicate a low or high intensity of exercise.

The respondents learned the following forms of movement during school education in their youth: the basic of gymnastics, team sports, and athletic exercises like running, jumps and throws. However, the movements acquired by the seniors outside the classroom were mostly cycling, dancing, hiking and swimming. Whereas winter sports (skiing and skating) were not as popular. The women during their extracurricular activities in the youth eagerly studied dance forms and participated in hiking the mountain, while the men assimilate the skills of swimming, skating, and dance elements. Today, the most popular types of physical activity of older people are different forms of walking. In addition to the walks the women prefer swimming, gardening and cycling, and the men prefer to work on the plot, running and winter activities (mainly skiing). Most of the respondents currently do exercise several times a week, or occasionally. Some of them, however, undertake daily exercise. In contrast, nearly one-fifth of the women and men surveyed are not engage in physical activity at all.

With the exception of one woman, the other respondents express their satisfaction with the currently undertaken physical activity and the presented level of physical fitness. From among them, nearly two-thirds of

the women and more than two-thirds of the men is fully satisfied, while the remaining respondents admit that they could be, to a greater extent, involved in physical activities in order to strengthen their own condition. In the presented issue slight differences due to the sex of the respondents refer to a larger group of the women, who want to practice harder. For most of the older people the essential barrier to active recreation are too meagre finances. The other barriers of lesser meaning for the women are the family and work responsibilities, limited access to sports and recreational facilities, and lack of interest in active recreation in the living environment. The men point at the similar, with the exception of daily duties, difficulties. It can therefore be concluded that the main obstacle preventing the surveyed seniors from participation in physical activity are insufficient funds, though as it had been earlier shown, the seniors' attitudes towards active recreation were positive.

Discussion

Persistent attitudes shape not only human motivation to act, but determine its nature [Krajewski 1996]. Based on the presented results that concern the attitudes towards health of the students from Jagiellonian Third Age University one can note that the majority of them understand the importance of preventive health in the conduct of a hygienic lifestyle, in which human movement plays an important role. Orsega-Smith and others [2008] indicate the prophylactic benefits of exercise for older people, such as, *inter alia*, obtaining a good physical and mental health, preventing cancer, osteoporosis and diseases of a psychological nature typical of old age. According to various authors, the refrain from exercising results not only in the deterioration of health, but is associated with incurring additional economic costs to society, while it is possible to prevent diseases [Orsega-Smith, Getchell, Neeld et al. 2008; Kostka 2007; Getzen 2000].

The surveyed seniors vary by sex in their approaches to the level of exercise-performed intensity, similarly as it takes place in their assessment of the physical culture values. In addition to the indication by both groups on physical fitness as the dominant physical culture value, the men appreciate higher the value of physical strength than agility, while the women refer to both of them in the same way. Since the realization of the physical strength value depends to a greater extent on the intensity of effort than is the case with work on agility that is why one can expect more acceptance of intense exercise among the men than women. Meanwhile, the women will, in accordance with the obtained results, reveal their interest both in strength and stretching-coordination exercises. Regardless of the differences shown in the views of the women and men on the stated problem, one should point at the fact of understanding by them the

dependence between exercising the body and improving physical fitness.

The gathered results convince, moreover, that taking into account the seniors' individual needs for movement (e.g. some seniors believe that exercising more often than in the past makes sense, although at the same time are satisfied with possessed physical fitness,) is a necessary condition of programming the effective exercises for them. But since currently not all the respondents (one-fifth) declare their regular participation in physical activity, as well as the active seniors are rather willing to undertake moderate exercise, this constitutes an important premise for determining for the elderly the recommended exercise intensity. The proper selection of exercises in terms of the real human physical effort capacities [Bouchard, Shephard, Stephens 1994] that corresponds to the seniors' interests in movement helps them in reaching the concrete health benefits. The relatively small physical effort like 15 minutes exercise a day or 90 minutes exercise per week [Chi Pang, Jackson Pui, Min Kuang et al. 2011] can already bring a man the certain health effects [Shimada, Ishizaki, Kato et al. 2010; Takata, Ansai, Soh et al. 2010; Kalache, Keller 2004].

The results of the presented survey reveal the necessity of paying more attention to strengthening the cognitive and affective factors in health attitudes of the seniors. In contrast, a positive surprise is an affirmative sign of the behavioural component of the presented by them attitudes. It informs about the seniors' determination to participate in physical activity. It seems especially important to strengthen responsibly the motivation of older people to do exercises in such a way that allows them to understand the importance of hygienic mode of life in which physical activity plays a big role and recognize the basic rules of their safe participation in physical exercises [Hoffman 2005]. The mismatch in the case of active seniors of the exercises' forms and intensity to the real possibilities of human organism, and consequently its overloading by too heavy physical effort may cause injuries and even permanent disorders, instead of the expected health benefits. When it comes to strengthening the emotional component of the attitudes, the cited results incline to formulate the thesis that the attractiveness of useful for seniors exercises, such as those that increase the power of the major muscle groups and enable conducting daily activities [Puggaard 2008] can also significantly influence on life satisfaction of the older people.

The step to facilitate the respondents their full participation in physical culture, when taking into consideration their favourable relation to an active rest expressed in the behavioural factor, would be exempting the seniors from fees for the recreational offers [Kalache 2010; Bartlam, Bernard, Liddle et al. 2012]. The only fee reduction will not in any way improve for most of them their current situation of an access to sports and recreational

facilities, because irrespective of the nature of the active leisure offer they bear the costs of purchase of the necessary sports equipment. Those costs, as the recognized gerontologists inform, are not the most important item in the expenses of Polish seniors [Trafiałek, Kozieł, Kaczmarczyk 2009; Trafiałek 2006], but are, according to the apprehension expressed in the study by the respondents from Kraków, the additional burden on their budget. Creating the opportunities for joint exercise in peer groups would be also good encouragement, especially for those of the seniors who do not show much interest in active leisure [Orsega-Smith, Getchell, Neeld et al. 2008]. In a wider perspective, reducing barriers hindering the older people to undertake life activities, also those related to active aging, and then diagnosing health profiles [Thøgersen-Ntoum, Barkoukis, Played et al. 2011] and preparing attractive fitness programmes available for the elderly [Chodzko-Zajko, Sheppard et al. 2005], becomes currently a project necessary due to the increasing rank of aging in society.

Recapitulating, it is worth noting that forming the positive attitudes towards health, not only among the seniors' population, but also amid the youth, gives great opportunities to realize them currently and in the future [Mrazek, Fialova, Bykhovskaya 1998; Makuła 2000, 2003]. On the other hand, the positive impact of active seniors on the behaviour of people from their nearest environment, including young persons, is in light of the assumptions of the model educational method equally significant. As the research results convince, also presented in this work [Kowalczyk 2012; Umiastowska 2012; Kowalska 2012], universities of third age, as well as other competent social institutions involved in the care of the elderly seem to be the relevant centres that responsibly undertake this type of ventures.

Conclusions

The following conclusions have been formulated in the work:

1. The researched seniors try to maintain a healthy lifestyle through avoiding stimulants and undertaking exercise. They appreciate health and present the positive attitudes towards this value. They attribute a higher rank to the behavioural factor of their health attitudes compared to these attitudes' cognitive and affective components – some of the respondents' opinions relating to those components are inconsistent.
2. Although the utilitarian reason is a basic motive inclining all of the respondents to take part in physical activity, the vital and aesthetic in case of the older women and the habitual in case of the men are also the incentives of big importance.
3. Compared to the fact of undertaking by the respondents in the earlier periods of life physical activity of

high intensity, the majority of them currently participate in moderate physical exercise. Despite the fact that the seniors had acquired in their youth the motor skills, mainly in the field of team sports, gymnastics, athletics and dance, they are currently interested primarily in such forms of the movement as walking, swimming, working on the plot, biking and skiing, in which they can participate throughout the year.

4. The revealing differences between the men and women regarding their participation in physical culture refer to their self-assessment of presented today level of fitness, the rank of the certain motives inducing them to undertake active recreation and preferred by them the forms of movement.
5. Due to the fact that the dominant barrier, against the remaining obstacles, hindering the investigated seniors their participation in physical activity are modest finances, one should not only strengthen the incentive of older people to exercise and provide them with attractive exercises, but create the conditions for free access to sports facilities and organized recreation.
6. Since the investigated seniors, despite of acquiring the basic sports movements at school in their youth, currently undertake the activities of physical recreation, it is important to combine to a greater extent than before teaching young generations under physical education the movement forms with the explanation of their meaning for man's health prevention.

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The Theatre of School Life: The Burning-out Teacher Seen from the Perspective of the Actor, the Audience (His Students), and the Spectator (Sometimes Accidental)

Maria Brudnik-Dąbrowska

Department of Theory and Methodology of Physical Education
Faculty of Physical Education and Sport
University of Physical Education in Kraków

Burned out workers do not have the heart to do anything, [...] not even to work diligently in an ordinary eight-hour day. [...] If they are left with any strength, they will use it to hide their burnout or at least to attempt to do so. Yet, they will not be capable of doing any actual work. [...] Burned-out workers usually quit [...]. Sometimes they stay with the company as the living dead.

DeMarco [2005, p. 77]

Summary

Objective: to show the phenomenon of burnout in a physical education teacher from a triple perspective – PE teacher, pupil (student), and outside observers of the teacher's work performance (a teacher, a research worker). Based on the literature on burnout and stress associated with working in a school setting, the papers quote expressive statements of participants in and observers of the process of teaching-learning. The author has adopted a hermeneutic viewpoint: the results of qualitative studies (such as the focus group, narrative interview) have been supplemented by the results of quantitative studies (such as categorized observation); at the same time, the report is based on a metaphor of a social interaction as a dramatic performance.

Keywords: physical education teacher, professional burnout, qualitative studies

The syndrome of professional burnout is presently treated as a common phenomenon. It predominantly affects social workers and representatives of the world of business, who are exposed to chronic psychological stress while performing their professional duties. Burnout is most commonly defined as the “psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a decreased sense of self-achievement, which may develop in individuals who work with other persons in a specified manner” [Maslach 2000, p. 15].

The syndrome of professional burnout is constituted by three co-existing dimensions. These are emotional exhaustion, a negative assessment of one's accomplishments at work, and depersonalization, equated with cynicism in contact with one's wards or customers. Numerous investigators emphasize the association between burnout syndrome and depression [cf: Papastylianou, Kaila,

Polychronopoulos 2009, p. 308]. Capable of leading to symptoms typical of depression, burnout syndrome may be treated as a sub-depressive state. The afore-mentioned association has been verified in longitudinal studies of teachers, at the same time excluding the inverse relationship [Shih, Noh, Jang, Park, Lee 2013].

Burnout syndrome is characterized by a specific, three-dimensional structure. The “axial” dimension of the syndrome reflects increasing emotional exhaustion of the burning-out individual [Maslach, Schaufeli, Leiter 2001, p. 402]. Emotional exhaustion is manifested in chronic fatigue and lack of energy accompanied by a sense of using one's resources necessary to fulfil one's professional role without any possibility of their replenishment. The workers feel as if they are lacking in vital force and competences allowing for good adaptation to on-going demands of their work environment [Tuchol-

ska 2009, p. 22; Leung Lee 2006*). A sense of “emotional emptiness” develops, which is associated with apathy or irritability. An emotionally exhausted individual is not capable of fulfilling his role, also in the private sphere of his life [Jackson, Maslach 1982, p. 69; Mikkelsen, Burke 2004 in: Innstrand et al. 2008, pp. 3–4; Farber 1991 in: Lisowska 2012, pp. 38–39].

A negative assessment of one’s accomplishments is associated with belittling one’s achievements by an individual who is disappointed with the reality of his/her profession. It is a derivative of a loss of sense of fulfilling one’s obligations, which once, at the beginning of the career, were executed with complete involvement, often-times with a sense of mission. Individuals that used to feel satisfaction of completing some task no longer treat such a situation as an accomplishment. “It is as if their senses were blunted and they became blind to their success” [Mann 2000, p. 126].

Depersonalization as a dimension of burnout is manifested through modes of behaviour in interpersonal contacts. Protecting himself from increasing stress, the individual gradually “loses his humanity” – his sensitivity to the needs of others that is inherent in his professional role. Such person starts to treat his wards, students, customers, and people in his closest vicinity in an impersonal way. He/she does not notice their feelings and needs, while he/she treats problems they are unable to cope with as well-deserved punishment.

The phenomenon of burnout is more common in ambitious individuals, who put passion into their work and whose conduct is guided by ideals. Individuals who become emotionally involved in implementing their tasks and encounter difficult to surmount obstacles on their career path meet with failures, in spite of their efforts and considerable work output [Pines 1996, p. 83].

Excessive involvement results on the one hand from unrealistic and exaggerated expectations and an urge to prove oneself. The other element in this case may be perfectionism combined with an excessive sense of responsibility for the work performed. Such an attitude towards professional duties, when the workload is heavy, leads to a slow exhaustion of strength. A state develops that may be termed “a crisis of fatigue, reaching the endurance limit”,** denoting a lack of strength.

As it has been stated by Sandrin [2006, pp. 58–59]: “Burnout affects individuals who plunge into their work

with utmost enthusiasm, the best people. The point is that for too long a time they have been exposed to situations characterized by a strong disequilibrium between demands and possibilities. Ideals are merely ideals; they have nothing in common with the actual reality. Such people lack balance between what their profession demands and the way their work is really organized.”

The burnout syndrome is a derivative of chronic psychological stress. In view of the character of their work and the coexisting high social expectations, a high risk group for developing symptoms of burnout are teachers. A teacher, who – in keeping with his professional role – carries out didactic, educational, and tutorial tasks, most often works in a hurry, frequently in circumstances that are inadequate to the needs. He is obliged to continuously extend his knowledge and follow changes in the education system. He should be knowledgeable about the changing world of student values and student expectations with respect to their school and to know student subcultures. Teachers are obliged to require knowledge about their students, their values, and observe the changes with a regular process of diagnosing the situation of what is important for youth today. Unfortunately, teachers, especially PE teachers, are rare to seek for individual professional development which often leads to a lack of new ideas, as well as new practical and methodological solutions [Kosiba 2009, pp. 169–188], and it becomes a major source of professional burnout.

A teacher works in a situation of constant social exposure, aware of his responsibility for the development of his students. Facing his audience, like an actor on the stage, he is subjected to continuous observation. Knowing he should be an important person for his students is an additional mental burden. A teacher is evaluated by his students – during the lesson or various school events – similarly as he is assessed by parents, fellow-teachers, and superiors.

In view of the character of the subject, the situation of a physical education teacher is special, as he simultaneously works on the personalities and psychophysical development of his students. Aiming at meeting the immediate needs of his pupils in the sphere of psycho-physical development, the teacher at the same time prepares the children for caring for their health, agility, and construction of their bodies after they graduate, using in the process physical and social means in parallel. While attaining the goals of physical education, particular attention is paid to shaping an appropriate system of values and key competencies of the pupils, including the fair play attitude in the course of sports competitions and daily peer interactions.

Research studies found that performance-goals (i.e., goals focused on normative competence) were positively related to several moral variables, such as the legitimacy of injurious acts, approval of sportsmanlike behaviour,

* Leung and Lee [2006 p. 138] found that the exhaustion dimension of burnout predicted teachers’ intention to leave the profession; “In the USA, emotional exhaustion was one of the predominant factors affecting teachers’ intention to quit their profession [...], but in both the Dutch and the Israel samples such a relationship was not found” [Leung, Lee 2006, pp. 130–131].

** The quotation mark denotes a statement made by a burned-out teacher [Bibik 2010, p. 47].

verbal/physical aggression [Dunn, Dunn 1999, pp. 194–198; Kavussanu, Roberts 2001, pp. 48–51], and antisocial judgments and behaviour [Sage, Kavussanu, Duda 2006, p. 145 (abstract)].

Kouli and Papaioannou [2010] investigated the association between the achievement of goals* in multicultural PE classes and found that the ego-orientation and the class performance-oriented climate were positively linked with a lack of desire to interact with members of other ethnic groups. Intervention in PE classes for improving task-orientation and decrease ego-orientation of high school Spanish students may help prevent racist behaviour and promote respect between different cultural groups [Cuevas, Pastor, Gonzáles, Gill 2010, p. 37].

In the process of preparing the student for life-long participation in physical culture, a teacher uses his body as a “tool”. Moreover, he is aware that he should be – in the true sense of the word – “a living example of physical culture” at school. He needs to accomplish this goal not only through the system of values he propagates, but also through his appearance and comportment. While younger children treat their teacher as an oracle, adolescents increasingly more critically observe and evaluate their teachers. Adolescents often play a specific “game” with their teachers and in a “test of strength” demonstrate their “youthful independence” and dislike for school as an institution.

While studying the burnout syndrome, cross-sectional quantitative studies using a self-description questionnaire are commonly employed; longitudinal studies are less frequent. In the first years of investigating the phenomenon of burnout, the predominant method of material collection was qualitative investigation – an interview or a case study.

As it has been stated by Babbie, “The advantage of field studies is the presence of the observing, thinking research worker at the site of the events. [...] They are the

* Two orthogonal goal perspectives are assumed to operate in achievement contexts such as sport: *task goal* orientation and *ego goal* orientation. The task-oriented individual tends to use self-referenced criteria to judge competence and feels successful when he or she has learned or mastered a task. The ego-oriented person tends to use other-referenced criteria to define success and judge competence, as he or she feels successful when he or she has outperformed others. When ego orientation prevails, the athlete is motivated to demonstrate superiority, usually in the form of winning. When winning is at stake, the ego-oriented athlete will be tempted to choose a behaviour that helps accomplish this goal, even if the behaviour is not congruent with his or her moral ideas. When task orientation prevails, the athlete is concerned with the task, not with the self. The motivational goal in this case is doing one’s best and fulfilling one’s potential. Because the level of competence is judged with respect to self-referenced criteria, cheating and aggressing against another to demonstrate competence in the normative sense is irrelevant [Kavussanu, Roberts 2001, pp. 38–39].

most effective when employed to investigate subtle nuances in attitudes and behaviour, and to study social processes over time” [Babbie 2004, pp. 331–334] – the syndrome of professional burnout seems to be a matter of such delicacy and complexity, difficult to grasp and interpret. In the opinion of George Herbert Mead, a representative of symbolic interactionism, results of survey research, although easier to process, ignore the meaning that may be ascribed to a given event by a given person, while participant observation allows for discovering in what way people interpret the world [Szacka 2003, p. 128].

Pedagogical activities of a teacher are communication-associated activities on an individual and collective scale. The process of teaching-learning is a series of interactions between teacher and students occurring in a class. Interaction is a process of “interpreting meanings, deciphering intentions and mutual adjustment of participants” [Szacka 2003, p. 128]. Erving Goffman, employing the dramatic approach in symbolic interactionism, was of the opinion that in the interaction process, we deal with contents that are conveyed by an individual by means of verbal and nonverbal symbols, and with impressions, which are consciously or unconsciously evoked by an individual [Goffman 1981, p. 52; in: Szacka 2003, p. 128]. He used the metaphor of a theatre,** pointing to problems which are solved by a participant in an interaction when he presents his activities to other participants. Individuals participating in an interaction are described as actors.

Burnout affects individuals who are exposed to psychological stress predominantly resulting from numerous, strenuous interpersonal contacts. Hence, while discussing the problem of burnout among teachers, it is worthwhile taking into consideration the perspective of both the teacher (“actor”) and the student, for whose development and preparation for adult life the educator is responsible.

While reviewing the literature on burnout among physical education teachers with respect to qualitative studies, it has been possible to find only scarce reports based on the said methodology.

A report of studies (focus group method) performed among Venezuelan PE teachers was published by Baños, Pañego, and Herrero [2008]. Selected statements recorded during meetings of two focus groups with a total number of 22 physical education teachers shall be further employed in the present paper. The remaining reports by Bibik [2010], Strycharska-Gać [2009], and Kopciwicz [2011] addressing a more broadly understood problem and not necessarily the professional group of physical ed-

** Goffman described the activities of a participant in an interaction as a “performance”; he also spoke about the “stage” where the performance was presented and the “backstage” where it was prepared [Goffman 1981, p. 52, in: Szacka 2003, p. 128].

education teachers have allowed the phenomenon of burnout syndrome from the perspective of the individuals involved in the “performances” of the “theatre of school life” to be additionally illustrated.

The objective of investigations carried out by Bibik [2010] was to gain knowledge of and to understand the experiences of burned-out individuals – teachers, psychologists, and therapists. Having diagnosed burnout syndrome, the author conducted focused interviews with individuals affected by the syndrome [Bibik 2010]. Kopciwicz [2011] addressed the subject of managing the class by the teacher – the subject of her studies were methods of repressing girls from junior high and high schools. Such situations were registered that students of an educational university perceived as the most degrading school experiences. The respondents independently selected the event; the analysis was based on transcribed interviews ($N = 145$; 2003–2009). On the other hand, Strycharska-Gać [2009] analysed statements of teachers of various subjects on “My job, my suffering”.

In an attempt at illustrating burnout syndrome among physical education teachers based on the results of qualitative studies, the present author has employed the Goffman dramaturgical perspective. In view of the specific character of the pedagogical work, the perspective is triple:

- of the “actor” – the teacher performing in the “theatre of school life”;
- of the student – a member of the “audience”, who at the same time is a participant in the “drama” being performed;
- of the observer – a teacher or research worker who follows the “drama” as a “spectator”.

The perspective of the “actor” – the physical education teacher:

The burnout process exerts a destructive effect on the professional condition of teachers, regardless of the discipline of knowledge they represent.* A teacher, unable to

* Work at school may be accompanied by difficulties, which at times adversely affect the teacher’s professional development. According to Wilski [2011, p. 339, 364], a teacher with a developmental personality (a creative individual, planning his professional career, pursuing his goal to the benefit of himself and his professional environment), when faced with considerable costs of coping with difficulties, may lose the purpose of his pedagogical work. Under unfavorable conditions of the pedagogic work, there is a possibility that – losing the purpose of his work, enthusiasm and creativity – the teacher will be transformed into a *drifting personality*. A teacher with a drifting personality uses the competencies he has acquired in the course of previous development, while, when implementing ongoing tasks, he ceases to be creative, at the same time losing the ability to understand the sense of his activity, which results in progressive disheartening. In case a teacher finds valuable purpose in his work, after which

cope with specific chronic stress, increases his efforts in order to overcome difficulties; thus, his work is increasingly more arduous. With increasing fatigue and successively a folding – in consequence of the progressing syndrome – fan of professional competencies of the teacher [Wilski 2011, p. 362], indifference or excessive irritability develop, as well as cynicism in interpersonal contacts. The effectiveness at work dramatically decreases.

■ A statement by a physical education teacher (length of service: 3 years**); (narrative interview) [Strycharska-Gać 2009, pp. 29–30].

“In the morning, I get up headachy and still sleepy; I have no appetite. Driving to work, I keep analysing, devising how to have a free day: perhaps by faking being ill, inventing some serious family problems, some kind of training course, etc. It’s all to keep away from my work ... When I open the door to my school, I am even more stressed out and the perspective of six hours spent with adolescents makes me frustrated – I don’t even feel like answering their ‘good mornings’. What is the most tiring is not thinking of new activities so that the students could be satisfied, although lately, I have not been caring for that: I simply throw them a ball and tell them to play either basketball or volleyball. When they are dissatisfied with my ideas, I propose graded physical fitness tests. It works – the students are forced to play ball and I drink coffee, read newspapers and check my watch to see when the lesson ends. And so it has been for a long time. Fortunately, my private life is OK, although there are moments I would like to be alone” (translation from Polish: Szydłowska).

Another quotation reveals the conscious cynicism of a burned-out female teacher in her contacts with students (no information available on the subject she teaches).

■ A statement of a teacher of re-socialization facility; (structured interview) [Bibik 2010, p. 48].

“... I dealt with them as if I were dealing with inanimate objects, which would come and go. I can look at them as at some building blocks and say: it’s your problem, I love snide remarks, ridiculing them at the class forum, [...] when I am angry with the class, I am capable of deliberately seeking revenge. This is great fun for me;

he is willing to strive, there is a chance he will again become a developmental personality. Otherwise, there is a risk of his developing burnout syndrome.

The phenomenon of burnout may result in transforming a teacher with a drifting personality into an individual with a reactive personality (pragmatism, an attitude directed towards obeying the rules and suppressing any activities in students that go beyond standards, resistance to being different or to spontaneity). This type of personality is usually encountered among employees that went into the profession by accident.

** The statement of the teacher suggests the *drifting personality*; in the group of Polish PE teachers, the first crisis in their pedagogical work that results in their developing symptoms of burnout syndrome appears approximately in their seventh year of working at school [Brudnik 2004, p. 12].

I become involved and cannot stop myself” (translation from Polish: Szydłowska).

Students expect the physical education teacher to provide them with an interesting and diversified offer during the lesson, with moments of relaxation and fun in a pleasant atmosphere. On the other hand, at school, situations occur, as recounted by students, which provoke the question of whether a teacher who behaves in such a way is an individual who practices the profession by accident or a thoroughly burned-out individual.

The perspective of the student – a member of the “audience”:

The student, performing on the “scene” of the “theatre of school life” participates in a “performance” within the scope determined by the teacher, being at the same time a member of the “audience”. The “audience” closely follows the behaviour of the teacher, the way he interprets a given situation and the way he plays his social role in everyday interactions.

In studies carried out by Kopciwicz [2011], a case was registered of implementing the physical education programme in a ritual way (statement I.). A female teacher, working in a manner completely disregarding prospective objectives of physical education, treated her students instrumentally and at the same time in a derogatory manner. Another quotation (statement II.) is a drastic example of the destruction of the dignity of a female student – a lack of tolerance for her apparel and appearance. At the same time, the teacher demonstrates aggressive animosity towards youth subcultures, manifested in systematic humiliation of the student.

■ Statements of students describing the behaviour of teachers at school (physical education lessons in high school) [Kopciwicz 2011, p. 148, 145] (translation from Polish: Szydłowska).

Statement I (transcription of interview; number: 33):

“– My physical education teacher was constantly taunting me that my tits were large, bazooms – as she said. She called us hussies, top-heavy lassies. She ordered us to do exercises in artistic gymnastics wearing very tight shorts, even when we had our periods. We were supposed to be slender and virginal, as she said.

– What was the reaction of the students?

– Everybody was silent. Everybody was afraid even to breathe when she was screaming. By the way, I myself felt awful when she screamed at other girls. I was awfully ashamed, but it didn’t occur to me to open my mouth. When the physical education lesson was near, I wanted to vomit, some girls fainted – it was a real horror.

– Did you try to get someone interested, like for example your parents?

– Several times I talked about these situations with my mother, but somehow I felt awkward to say that the teacher was laughing at my bosoms. It was embarrassing!

– So your mother did not know about the teacher making remarks about your body?

– No, unfortunately she did not.

– And your form master?

– Several times we complained to her, but each time she would say that it was not possible, we were most likely exaggerating and she blamed the puberty period. I think it was something like teacher solidarity, as she never lifted a finger to solve the matter.”

Statement II (transcription of interview; number: 40):

“– The physical education teacher openly ridiculed me during the lessons – she poked fun at my appearance, loose garments, coloured hair, and my pierced tongue. During the classes, she used humiliating epithets while talking to me: hermaphrodite, dyke, loon, freak. Once, on the first day of spring, she thought up some races and sports competitions to prevent us from escaping from school. I have always been good at races so I decided to participate. Unfortunately, it appeared she was to referee. I won the race, got a prize and a medal. I was standing on a special dais. When the applause died down, she approached me. I thought she was going to congratulate me, but she only said: “such hermaphrodites as you should never win”.

– What?!

– I cried and I repeated what happened to my friends. One of them said if I did not report it at school, she would.

– And did you?

– Yes, I reported it to my form master, but she could do nothing about it.

– Why?

– Because nobody had heard it but me”.

Irrespectively of classes organized for pupils, teachers employed in university-affiliated schools also work with students, preparing them for their respective professions. Below, the reader will find reflections of a member of a focus group who recounted the course of his teaching internship supervised by a burned-out teacher [Baños, Pañego, Herrero 2008, p. 14].

■ Teacher’s statement (transcription of a recording; I. 3/5/2001)

“When I was doing my teaching internship, my tutor was completely burned out. She said so openly, she saw no problem in admitting it. She asked to be transferred to early school education, she requested it many times, but they did not agree, and she used to say she did not like physical education lessons ... And you know, it was a total failure. When we were having our internship, we were conducting lessons with all groups, but she ... We were told she would probably quit. They already warned us. And she constantly missed classes. She did not treat children too well, either; there were days when the kids were doing whatever they wished and other times, she would come angry and take it out on the children, screaming at them, etc.” (translation from Spanish: Szydłowska-Rivero).

While analysing the phenomenon of burnout, a method that is relatively rarely employed consists of assessing burnout in an employee by his “customers” (immediate recipients of services), by the managers of the company, or by an observer. The research perspective was employed in their diagnosis of burnout among teachers by Tatar and Yahav [1999], Evers and Tomic [2003], Evers, Tomic and Brouwers [2004], as well as Bragante [2005]. All the above investigators employed a modified Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) [cf.: Tatar, Yahav 2004, pp. 460–461, 462].

Israeli junior high pupils ($N = 297$) analysed behaviour of their teachers and the majority of them (58%) regarded psychophysical exhaustion to be a typical symptom of burnout; 17.5% of the investigated pupils pointed to lack of involvement during school work [Tatar, Yahav 1999, p. 463]. More than 60% of the pupils described burned-out teachers as individuals who made an impression (“frequently” or “always”), that “working with pupils for a full day is oppressive”, they “feel ‘wiped out’ at the end of the day”, and “feel that teaching is turning them into impatient persons” [Tatar, Yahav 1999, p. 461].

On the other hand, Italian high school students did not perceive clear symptoms of burnout in their physical education teachers. In the opinion of the students, teachers employed by private schools were to a higher degree satisfied with their jobs [Bragante 2005, pp. 57–58].

The interpretation of events in the “theatre of school life” is different, depending on the participants of the teaching-learning process. The teachers – “actors” – and the student “audience” somewhat differently perceive interactions occurring at school and ascribe different meanings to various events.

The perception of burnout level in the opinion of the teacher often differs from the assessment made by his students. The phenomenon has been supported by study results [Evers, Tomic 2003; Evers, Tomic, Brouwers 2004]. While verifying the hypothesis, the statements made by junior high students who found symptoms of burnout in teachers having to cope with student misbehaviour were contrasted with the results of burnout self-description (MBI) presented by the teachers. The youth more clearly perceived the tendency towards depersonalization, as well as increasing negativism and loss of sense of work in their teachers. In comparison to the statements of the teachers, the students were prone to judge their competences in coping with misbehaviour in the group as poorer [Evers, Tomic, Brouwers 2004, p. 139].

The perspective of the observer – a teacher, a research worker

A physical education teacher – an “actor” in the “school theatre” – is subject to social exposure in a way that is immanent to the role he fulfils. The activities and behaviour

of the teacher are observed and judged not only by his “audience”. His methods of working, the way he manages the group, his attitude towards students and his appearance are evaluated – especially during classes held on the sports field – by “spectators”. These are other teachers (of the same or different subject), the principal, parents, passers-by, or a research worker who analysed the work of a teacher for research-associated purposes.

The process of managing a class at school occurs through imposed rules and a system of penalties and awards. The teachers define the rules and determine the order; in this way, each of them participates in the process of defining acceptable student behaviour and determining penalties for non-adherence. In view of the dimension of control, the role of the teacher is inevitably a confrontational role. Such a definition of the role is additionally fed by colleagues in the teacher staffroom, whose judgment of the quality of work performance of a give person are formulated as his abilities to discipline the students [Coffey, Delamont 2000, in: Kopciewicz 2011, p. 90].

Below, the reader will find a portrayal of a burned-out teacher, who – in view of his deficit of social competences – is unable to effectively manage the group [Baños, Pañego, Herrero 2008, p. 15].

■ Statement of a physical education teacher (focus group; subject: causes of burnout among physical education teachers; transcription of a recording; I. 3/5/2001).

“Well, I can give an example of a burned-out teacher. So, he also teaches in high school and by definition this is much more difficult. Anyway, he lacks social competences with respect to his students, as instead of chumming up with them a little ... well, I don't know ... even give them some free time or something in order to try to befriend them, he would all the time take them to see the principal, and surely, he lost his authority with them, because the matter wasn't like an actual situation; all the time he would take them to see the principal and he lost control and even violence developed between him and the students, the students and him, which really ended very badly. It is in this example that I see lack of social competences and the ability to cope and engage in a discussion with them [the students], their caregivers or whoever is needed” (translation from Spanish: Szydłowska-Rivero).

Perception of the work of a teacher as stressful to a large degree results from everyday professional interactions. Most commonly, these are difficult situations in the class – unwillingness to study and misbehaviour. Physical education teachers, especially females, having to deal with obstructing work and lacking in respect student behaviour, become emotionally exhausted and begin to lose the sense of their work and the sense of self-confidence; male teachers put a distance between themselves and misbehaving students [Brudnik 2008, p. 27].

Mancini [Mancini, Wuest, Vantine, Clark 1984] analysed the skills and tools of junior high school physical education teachers ($N = 6$) with diagnosed burnout syndrome. The investigated individuals were subjected to categorized observation (five work days); a trained observer registered categories of the activities of the teacher and students, as well as interactions occurring during the lesson (the Flanders method).

Burned-out teachers were found to less frequently award their students, either by praising them verbally or by non-verbal communication. They less easily accepted the ideas of children and noted their efforts while trying to meet the demands. The manner of communication of the teacher with his students was characterized by distance and indifference. Physical education teachers manifesting symptoms of burnout conveyed less information during the lesson. They more rarely started conversations and were less willing to individually work with a student [Mancini, Wuest, Vantine, Clark 1984, p. 34].

During her studies in the United States, Henninger [2007] defined two opposite types of physical education teachers: *lifers* and *trouper*s (job service: above four years). The following methods were used in the survey: diagnostics poll method, sentence completion test, and structured interview. The skills and tools of the investigated teachers ($N = 9$) were analysed based on categorized observation of the activities of the teacher and students during the lesson (one work day), determining the type of interactions. The assessment included such phenomena as the level of involvement, interactions with fellow-teachers and school administration [Henninger 2007, p. 130].

Died-in-the-wool teachers – *lifers* – fulfil their obligations with enthusiasm, really believing they are capable of effecting change. The *trouper*-type of teachers seem to be burned-out – they work half-heartedly; they believe that whatever they do, their work will not bring any effects, act by fits and starts at the moment of a sudden burst of energy, but soon return to the safe “rolling with the punches” attitude [cf: Henninger 2007, pp. 138–139].

For *trouper*s, students played an entirely different role in their daily teaching. Students’ lives, beliefs, and behaviour were viewed as barriers to teaching, whereas students’ energy and enthusiasm were often perceived negatively as disruptions to the learning process [Henninger 2007, p. 135].

■ Joan (job service: 10 years; transcription of interview)

“I can’t teach these kids boundaries ... self-responsibility ... self-control; I can’t. I’m competing against TV... against music... so I can’t compete and that is what education in the city is up against. No way. No way, it’s not going to happen.”

In place of ending notes

Long-term work overload in teachers leads to their starting to manifest symptoms of burnout. The process is self-perpetuating, it puts in motion the spiral of loss suffered both by the students and the teacher. A burned-out teacher can provide neither support nor example. “Who we are and what we do in class dramatically affects the individuals we teach. The content and form of our statements, our body language, our facial expressions – from pursing our lips and knitting our brows to smiling – affect the atmosphere in the classroom” [Nakamura 2011, p. 63], and at the same time the effects of teaching.

The phenomenon of burnout facilitates reduction of professional competences of a teacher. In the opinion of students observing their teachers during lessons,* the process of burnout may be inhibited by improved behaviour of students towards their teacher. According to Israeli junior high students, burned-out teachers should leave the profession, whereas it is the responsibility of the principals to effect improvement of work conditions for teachers [Tatar, Yahav 1999; p. 463, 464].

Young people expect their teachers to offer interesting classes and partnership-based relationships, although they themselves often behave immaturely. They count on attention from the teacher, peace, and tolerance – also in the case of their lifestyles. In this context, uncompromising statements given by junior high students are not surprising; the students suggested quitting working at school as a solution of problems of burned-out teachers, who had lost the purpose of their work.

The present article is only a handful of reflections on the costs associated with the emergence of burnout syndrome among physical education teachers. Each work environment, including the school as an institution that is highly organized based on education regulations, is specific. Similarly, each teacher is a unique individual. In this context, it can be only suggested what counteractions may be undertaken by the teachers – “the actors” of the “school theatre” – or “the director of the play” – the principal of the school, when they observe the folding – with the emergence of burnout syndrome – of the fan of a teacher’s professional competencies.

In the present situation of the employment market, resigning from teaching or a tried teacher, disillusioned with the school reality, changing profession most often is not a feasible solution. Thus, individuals branded with the syndrome continue working; despite their best efforts, they do not find – or driven by inertia that is an indispensable element of burnout syndrome – they do

* An open question: “What is the best way on the part of students, teachers, and the principal to limit and cope with burnout syndrome among teachers?”

not look for any acceptable alternatives,* or a way to help themselves.

The problems of burnout are complex. The syndrome appears on the plane of interpersonal contacts, both in the case of sources of emotional pressure and with respect to methods allowing for coping [Maslach 2000, pp. 27–28]. In theory, the syllabuses of pedagogical universities and the cycle of professional internship periods prepare graduates for facing the challenges posed by their future work.** Teacher candidates, similarly to teachers undergoing postgraduate education training, can learn the kinds of strategies that allow them to reduce burnout and construct a better working environment fit. Both the learning and use of the strategies is highly embedded in a school's social interactions [Pietarinen, Pyhälto, Soini, Samela-Aro 2013].

Treatment of the fully symptomatic syndrome requires long-term collaboration with a therapist. It is not easy to cope with burnout when the consequences of the syndrome are already noticeable. Therapy is additionally hindered by the reality of the professional environment, since as long as the burned-out individual continues working, he is at risk of exposure to subsequent stressful situations [Mielczarek 2006, p. 476].

In the therapy of the initial stages of the syndrome, good results are brought by active recreation (physical activity!), adherence to the principles of mental hygiene combined with the occasional help of a psychologist, when needed. Burnout usually affects individuals whose expectations of themselves are high. These are more frequently low seniority employees, who do not believe in their abilities, avoid difficult situations and do not try to face them [Mielczarek 2006, p. 476]. When the first signs of burnout syndrome appear, it is important that the teacher realizes there is alternative possible behaviour, while one's pursuits are relative and the strict self-expectations ought to be loosened. A successful form of reducing the syndrome is support from one's friends and superiors and directing one's activities into another sphere.

Similarly as representatives of other professions, physical education teachers are unwilling to look for support in their superiors.*** Inferiors are aware that conveying information about problems and reporting their needs may indicate lack of competencies, in consequence resulting

in dislike of the superior. In the opinion of the managerial staff, talking to an employee on difficulties associated with his work oftentimes leads to escalation of demands; hence, it is better not to deal with such matters, saving one's time and at the same time maintaining mental comfort [Paszowska-Rogacz 2010, pp. 122–123].

Sharing the emotions that accompany the situation at work – at the same time gaining support without the risk of being evaluated – is possible through group therapy. In the opinion of Wilski, a chance of reducing the emerging symptoms of the syndrome, at the same time reducing the risk of inhibiting professional development, is provided by teachers participating in Balint groups [cf.: Wilski 2011, pp. 367–371].

Making school principals aware of the fact, it is worthwhile, however, considering the results of a national survey carried out among physical education teachers (2007–2008; $N = 1563$). It was demonstrated that the position of the subject at school determined the course of burnout process at all stages when the process was investigated as a four-phase model (Brudnik, unpublished).

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* See: Brudnik [2014, in press], *Mobbing in a workplace setting* (p. 9).

** See: Wontorczyk & Brudnik [2012], *Cechy temperamentu jako predykatory wypalenia zawodowego u nauczycieli wychowania fizycznego* [Temperament traits as predictors of professional burnout in physical education teachers], *Psychologia Społeczna* [Social Psychology], Vol. 8, No 1, 96–110; pp. 105–107.

*** Only 23% of physical education teachers signal to their principals the emergence of difficulties at work [Brudnik 2003, p. 39].

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Formal and Legal Analysis of Sporting and Recreational Events on the Basis of Sporting and Recreational Festivities “For a Child Smile” Organized by The University of Physical Education in Kraków

Paweł Ochwat, Elżbieta Szymańska

Department of Theory and Methodology of Physical Education
Faculty of Physical Education and Sport
University of Physical Education in Kraków

Summary

A decreasing level of physical activity connected with civilization facilities is an irreversible process. The only countermeasure to this negative tendency, which leads to diseases and ailments caused by lack of physical activity, may be an increasing popularity of sporting and recreational activities. It is difficult to imagine forcing adult people to physical exercise with administrative constraint, though. Such countermeasures are only possible in reference to children and teenagers.

Nevertheless, there is a form of physical activity which combines voluntary physical activity, integration of generations, positive emotions in the atmosphere of carelessness with forming habits of active leisure. This is a sporting and recreational or tourist event, which may be attended by everybody irrespective of their age, sex, social status or physical fitness. A typical event of this kind is sporting and recreational festivities. Adverse tendencies connected with lack of exercise pose new challenges for instructors, coaches and teachers. They should have the ability to organize and encourage participation in recreational events. Students of the University of Physical Education in Kraków are prepared to organize leisure time for children and their parents. As a part of their course in organizing sporting and recreational events, students obtain essential theoretical knowledge of regulations and methods of financing sporting and recreational events. However, what remains an essential issue is practical skill necessary to organize and host such events, including festivities. The main effect of students' practical training (as part of the course) is organizing sporting and recreational festivities “For a Child Smile”. The event gathers about two thousand children and teenagers from Kraków schools. For the participants organizers prepare games, numerous agility and dance shows, as well as small gifts and prizes. Preparation of such an event requires experience and knowledge from head managers who supervise students before, during and after the event.

Experience gained by the students is useful in later work, as praxiological cycle (diagnosis, prognosis, planning, realization and evaluation of effects) should describe each deliberate activity of a man.

Keywords: festivities, physical activity, recreation, sporting and recreational events

Introduction

Physical activity serves a contemporary man not only to stimulate their development but also to keep their body in good shape for the whole life. All forms of physical activity are a chance, and at the same time, a condition to reach that goal. In the era of technological development preparation of a man to take a life-long care of their physical fitness acquires particular significance. Limited physical activity in our everyday life should force us to plan our

leisure time in a way that will provide us with an amount of activity sufficient for normal functioning of motor organs and body systems. Comfort of human life depends immensely on the level of everyday physical activity.

Physical reaction is the kind of reaction in which physical activity is the basic means of regeneration and improvement. According to Maciej Demela, physical reaction due to its preventive and therapeutic qualities is becoming more and more frequently a duty of a contemporary man, a duty to himself and to the society as

a whole [1]. Biological evolution of a man does not keep up with revolutionary changes in living conditions. 100 years ago 90% of energy was expended during work to power muscles, whereas today, in developed countries, this is merely 1%.

Numerous researches prove that even short-term limitations in physical activity leads to far-reaching structural and functional changes in human organism. As Nazar suggests, a contemporary man inherited genome which originated and developed in conditions in which obtaining food required an intensive and long-term effort. The process of adaptation to those conditions resulted in development of physiological mechanisms determining the ability to overcome extensive effort and at the same time facilitating storage of energy in form of fat. Therefore, human organism has natural tendency to obesity [2].

Decreasing participation of physical activity in productive behaviours, which results from development of civilization, is an irreversible process. As Grabowski claims, the only way to prevent its negative effects may be an increasing participation in sporting and recreational activities [3]. However, the problem is that we cannot force adult people to physical activity with administrative constraints in order to prevent civilization diseases. Such countermeasures are only possible in reference to children and teenagers through compulsory P.E. classes. And since the classes are compulsory, their effectiveness in terms of developing motricity, physical abilities and attitudes towards their fitness may vary. Therefore, according to the modern doctrine, the main objective of physical education is to support physical and motor development, and health as well as preparation of young people to maintain and further develop those qualities in their future lives. The results of affecting the organism with physical means are morphofunctional changes (an increase in body weight, strength, efficiency and body immunity). A set objective of pedagogical impact on personality is to stimulate inclinations to certain prosocial and prosomatic behaviours through realizing their importance and forming a positive attitude towards them.

Scientific research proves that neglects in biological development resulting from the lack of activity in youth cannot be made up for in further life. Other researchers point out that even intensive training in youth will not provide permanent morphofunctional changes in organism which would endure without taking exercises until later years [3]. What is essential, permanence of the effects of physical education in the form of "mental care about the body" is not determined by body function and fitness, but attitude towards the body and its needs, which results from the impact on personality. Physical education, in its broad meaning, should satisfy immediate needs of children and teenagers in terms of somatic and motor development (since neglect in this area cannot be made up for), as well as prepare them to maintain

and further develop those qualities in future life, as they constitute wealth for the whole life. Physical reaction is most frequently seen as a way to prevent negative effects of civilization, in reference to teenagers and adults especially when the obligation to take part in physical education classes expired (usually a period after school-leaving exams). However, we should not disregard the significance of active forms of leisure time for children who both at school and at home spend most of the day sitting. Preparation for physical activity in leisure time is one of the objectives of physical education in its forward meaning. Physically active leisure concerns not only working adults or teenagers, but it also should be seen as obligation aimed with a due care at children.

Nowadays, when interpersonal bonds are loosening, which projects on social and mental health of the society, forms of physical activity which support strengthening bonds in groups and integrating them acquire considerable significance. Perfect examples of such forms of activity are sporting and recreational festivities. Games which make up the festivities should be selected in such a way that all people, irrespective of their age and level of psychophysical fitness, could participate in them. Physical activity accompanied by atmosphere of fun favours fulfilling all objectives of recreation.

The most frequently enumerated functions of active recreation are as follows:

1. Prevention and therapy of civilization diseases (health function)
2. Reducing tiredness after work (regeneration function)
3. Relieving stress, tension and burdens of modern life (social and affiliation function)
4. Satisfying needs of self-realization (self-expressive function)
5. Compensating defects of everyday life (compensatory function)
6. Preventing aging process (anti-involution function) [4].

With age compensatory function acquires more significance as spontaneous physical activity decreases and its quality and quantity deficit deepens. Therefore, a contemporary man needs all forms of physical activity, realised in various forms of participation in physical culture, which provides required amount of physical activity, and at the same time contributes to development of their physical, mental and social health.

Appropriately selected programme of sporting and recreational festivities, and the range of recreational games in particular, should favour fulfilling the above-listed functions of recreation, as well as be attractive and accessible to each participant [5].

Organizers of sporting and recreational events are responsible for preparing all forms of games and activities which involve physical movement, including recreation, sport and tourist games, "which a man undertakes will-

ingly, in their leisure time for regeneration, pleasure and self-development, health creation” [6].

An essential part of sporting and recreational events is its ability to gather a large number of people who, in the atmosphere of enjoyment and for pleasure, do together various tasks requiring physical movement. Such situations facilitate bonding process of the participants and group dynamics stimulates the activity. Moreover, in those sporting and recreational or touristic events everybody can participate irrespective of age, sex, level of psychophysical fitness and intellectual ability. A properly selected programme of the event should allow all participants to take part in all competitions and attractions [7].

There are many kinds of sporting and recreational events such as: recreational field events, sporting and recreational events, inter-school sports competitions, recreational leagues, trips, camping tours, sailing camps and many more. Among the above-mentioned events a particular attention should be paid to sporting and recreational festivities since they gather a substantial number of participants who, in the atmosphere of enjoyment, do various tasks involving physical activity. One of the major advantages of sporting and recreational festivities is lack of limitations in terms of age, sex, marital status or physical fitness and intellectual abilities. Usually tasks involving physical activities are based on natural forms of movement, such as running, jumping, throwing, climbing, crawling, etc. Those exercises positively influence participants' health condition through stimulating cardiovascular and respiratory systems, as well as improving metabolism, regenerating physical and mental strength which encourages further exercises and studying.

Sporting and recreational festivities perform more functions than those related to health and creating positive attitudes towards physical activity, just to mention: integration of different social groups, promotion of leisure time culture, educational impact (e.g. the idea of fair play), promotion of various forms of recreational activity, promotion of sports equipment, or promotion of e.g. clubs, schools, companies, etc. [7]

Since this kind of sporting event presents numerous advantages it seems expedient to take a closer look at such an event organized in Kraków's AWF (commonly used Polish abbreviation for The University of Physical Education in Kraków).

Preparation and staging of such an event requires a lot of effort, organizational skills and experience. Description of particular stages of festivities organization is based on sporting and recreational festivities “For a Child Smile” organized in The University of Physical Education in Kraków. This event has been organized annually for more than 20 years on the premises of Kraków's AWF. Two to three thousand of children and teenagers take part in the festivities every year and each year there are about 40 different games involving physical activity

prepared for them. Usually the event takes place at the beginning of June, on Child's Day. During the festivities participants take part in both individual and team competitions prepared by academic teachers and students of physical education.

For many years festivities “For a Child Smile” were organised as a part of “Games involving physical activity” classes taken by first year undergraduate students of Physical Education. For the last three years the event has been organized as a part of another subject “Sporting and recreational events organization” taken in the first year of postgraduate courses.

Research methods and techniques

The article is an attempt to present the sporting and recreational festivities “For a Child Smile” in historical, organizational and legal context. Therefore, the authors applied research methodology typical of historical research.

In the research the authors analysed mostly written sources, such as documents, acts, chronicles, reports, regulations, diplomas, announcements, notices and correspondence concerning preparation and staging of the festivities. They also used iconographic sources such as photographs, posters, films and video cassettes. In order to complete the research, the authors interviewed people who were involved in preparation of the festivities throughout the years or cooperated with organizers. For this purpose, a qualitative field research in form of interviews was applied. There should be also mentioned that the authors, and the main managers, gathered information from participants' observation.

Analysis of organization of sporting and recreational festivities “For a Child Smile”

Historical analysis. The beginnings

The University of Physical Education in Kraków has been organizing sporting and recreational festivities “For a Child Smile” for 23 years now, aiming the event at pupils of primary and middle schools from Kraków area. In the first years the festivities were called “Muddle for 13 Smiles”, where number 13 symbolized the number of competitions prepared for the festivity.

The originator and the first organizer of this event was mgr Edward Skrętowicz, a former employee of Section of Methodology of Physical Education and Placements of AWF in Kraków, who organized the first festivity in 1988. Since the year 2000 the management group was joined by various employees of Section of Methodology of Physical Education and Placements, and for six years now Kraków's festivities in AWF have been managed by dr Paweł Ochwat and mgr Elżbieta Szymańska, the authors of the present report.

The first events in 1980s. had a form of contests and competitions during which schools competed against each other in various sporting competitions. One of the purposes of the festivities was, and still is, preparation of university students for work at school, which should lead to forming among children a habit of active leisure in fresh air and showing how simple devices and equipment can be used to organize games and spend time in an interesting way [7]. In the first events only two schools participated. Then, for few years, those festivities were organized by university students for university students. In 1994 the academic teachers of Section of Methodology of Physical Education and Placements created a new formula for the festivity, which has been in use until the present day. In the early years participants were limited only to the primary pupils from Nowa Huta (a district of Kraków), but after a while the range of schools taking part in the event expanded on schools from the city and area of Kraków. These are mostly schools which cooperate with Kraków's AWF, and to be more precise with Section of Methodology of P.E. and Placements, in terms of student placement, training courses for teachers, etc. But also schools in which AWF graduates are employed as they know the festivities from their university times.

In the past, the festivities were exclusively sporting and recreational events. With time though, the formula expanded on other tasks such as the university promotion, elements of sponsorship appeared as well as some shows and performances.

At the beginning the event took place on the main field of athletics stadium, but in later years it was moved to green areas in front of the university buildings. The festivity takes place mostly on sunny days and is staged in the open area of green belt. So far in the long-standing tradition of festivities, the organizers were lucky about the weather conditions. If the weather was not favourable, the event was moved to a sports hall, which unfortunately involved reducing number of competitions. However, such situation took place only once.

Until 2008 responsibility for organization of the festivity fell on students of the first year – under the supervision of the main manager – as part of their "Games involving physical activity" classes. The preparation process ran according to the following plan: students presented draft of competitions, if it was attractive and fulfilled the condition of accessibility for the participants, we started joint efforts to prepare equipment and the students staged that competition during the festivity. The number of festivity game stands fluctuated from several at the beginning to about forty at present. Later on, the formula of the festivity was enhanced with various shows, such as ballroom dance, gymnastics, martial arts, climbing, bike trial, archery and other sports disciplines. Those shows were participated by our students as well as children and teenagers from schools which took part in the festivity.

Organization and programme analysis of the festivity

Currently, since 2009, preparation of the festivities is a part of Organization of sporting and recreational events classes in first year of both full-time and extramural postgraduate studies. The main objective of the subject is practical preparation to organize various sporting and recreational events in school. As a part of the subject students obtain theoretical knowledge on organization, legal conditioning and marketing of such events. In the second half of the term students are divided into groups which are assigned particular tasks in order to plan, prepare, stage and finish the event.

While planning particular sporting and recreational competitions the key role is played by the students themselves who prepare and present their ideas to the whole group. Next, based on the method of brainstorming presented ideas are creatively verified. During such classes, the rule is that there are no bad or ridiculous ideas, that all suggestions and proposals carry a potential which can be turned into a real plan. Since the festivities are organised on non-profitmaking basis, it is impossible to use expensive and complex equipment. Thus, while working on students' ideas for competitions we apply the 70% to 30% rule, which means that about 70% (majority) of the competition constitutes the idea, and the rest 30% is equipment. What is most important, the competition must be interesting and appealing for the children. Examples of such competitions can be found at the end of the article. All of them use simple everyday items like soap, blocks, inner tubes, etc. Those items together with interesting and funny rules of the games make up indispensable part of festive competitions.

Alongside the works on competitions there are formed three sections, each of which is responsible for different tasks:

1. Technical and sports section which prepares and stages games during the festivities.
2. Economic and financial section which is responsible for raising funds and prizes.
3. Organization and marketing section which prepares posters, takes care of sound and staging the event as well as does all the assigned tasks during preparations to the festivities, at the festivities and after they finish.

The whole organization process, for which students are trained, is based on the principles of praxiological cycle. Its main points are: diagnosis, prognosis, planning and programming the event and then action and its evaluation. The organization process is divided into three stages: preparatory stage, stage of realization and final stage. Each of them is further divided into organization phases, which should be organized and realized in particular order. All of the organization phases should be logically connected. Therefore, all the undertaken actions should be sufficiently determined and ordered in a schedule.

During organizational activities, to ensure their smooth course, it is crucial to use and obey the following rules: the rule of rational division of work, the rule of concentration, the rule of harmonization, the rule of prioritising, the rule of decentralization and the rule of exception [8].

Preparatory actions are done simultaneously in all sections. All students are obliged to – regardless of the section – to suggest a game or competition for the festivities, take active part in the event and prepare an exemplary letters to obtain honorary and media patronage as well as sponsors.

Specific tasks of the technical and sports section are:

1. Preparation of a schedule for particular activities and tasks.
2. Preparation and printing of the rules for each competition.
3. Preparation of the calendar of the event.
4. Preparation and planning of the evacuation routes.
5. Preparation of the stage, music for shows and performances.
6. Ensuring safety during shows (police shows and others).
7. Preparation of a detailed emergency plan (plan “B”) in case of unfavourable weather conditions.
8. Organizing the work of security and internal car parks.
9. Logistic support, distributing prizes to the proper stands.

The organization and marketing section deals with:

1. Designing the poster (printed and electronic version).
2. Obtaining permits from particular companies for placing their logos on the posters.
3. Preparing invitations for schools participating in the festivities.
4. Preparing invitations for VIPs.
5. Placing the posters on websites.
6. Providing medical security (ambulance).
7. Organizing shows and performances.
8. Organizing the opening and closing of the event.
9. Preparing and hosting the festivities with a DJ.
10. Distributing prizes (gadgets) to proper stands during the festivity.
11. Submitting an application to Association of Artists and Composers (ZAIKS) for the permit to play music during the event.
12. Preparing letters of gratitude to sponsors, media patrons and VIPs for engaging in our undertaking and support for the festivities.

The tasks of economic and financial section are among other:

1. Conducting talks with companies on financing the event.
2. Obtaining funds from sponsors.

3. Obtaining prizes from sponsors: gadgets, sweets, promotional materials, sports equipment, juice, mineral water.
4. Preparing letters to particular companies and institutions.
5. Cooperation with Department of Organization of Events and Promotion of AWF in Kraków.

After doing all the above-mentioned preparatory actions before the event, on a day prior to the festivities students take part in a briefing with the managers and at the same time instructors of “Organization of sporting and recreational events” classes. This is the moment when all the details are specified, stands are assigned to each competition and students take all the equipment necessary to stage the event from the storehouse. On the day of the festivities the stands are put up, the stage is prepared for the shows and prizes are delivered to the proper stands so that everything is ready an hour before the opening time, i.e. before 10 a.m.

It should be assumed that at present each festivity involves around 40 competitions and games, both team and individual. The event is supported from the beginning to the end by 2 or 3 students per stand, depending on the size and complicity. Their duties involve putting up the equipment, keeping order, proper refereeing, and if it is necessary keeping the score. The range of games during the festivities is wide. To introduce their specificity, some of them are presented at the end of the present work.

The organizer prepares the opening ceremony, which is honoured with the presence of sportsmen, scientists or politicians. During the festivities, dance, gymnastics and other fitness shows take place at the same time in different parts of the premises. For the last two years festivities has been joined with Malopolska Beach Volleyball Tournament which is participated by middle and secondary school students.

After closing the festivities our students do the cleaning, secure and hand over the equipment which was used during the event. All the actions are supervised by the organizers. The closing of the festivities does not finish the actions of particular sections. As part of the post-event activity, sections prepare and deliver letters of gratitude to people and institutions involved in organizing the festivities.

Concept and mission of “For a Child Smile” festivities

The managers also cooperate with units not connected with the university. If mission and objectives of an institution coincide with the objectives of the organizers, such cooperation complements the formula of the event. Just to mention cooperation with the Voivodship Police Headquarters in Kraków whose priority is, among others, a so-called “soft prevention”, i.e., preventing dys-

functional behaviours of children and teenagers. The police participate in the festivities by doing a test required to obtain bicyclist's licence (entitling to ride a bicycle on public roads) and improving bicycling skills, shows of equipment and operation activities, as well as doing quizzes on safety for children and teenagers.

Sometimes the festivities were joined with an event or anniversary important for Kraków's AWF. At those times the programme of the festivities was modified to emphasise that particular occasion and the event developed a theme. We organized big events on the 70., 75. or 80. anniversary of the university together with Radio Kraków, but also an event to celebrate the Millennium or Polish access to The European Union. In 2004, which was announced the European Year of Education through Sport EYES, "For a Child Smile" festivity was joined with the Malopolska Mathematics Competition. Together with Polish Association of Mathematics Teachers we prepared 10 games for groups of four participants: children and teenagers from primary, middle and secondary schools of Malopolska region. The competitors had to solve maths problems on an appropriate level while doing games involving physical activity. Apart from that they could take part in 30 other festivity games not connected with the maths competition.

We also organized anniversary festivities devoted to the work of such prominent personages as dr Henryk Jordan, or the patronage of our University Bronisław Czech. On 18th May 2007, the 100th anniversary of dr Jordan's birthday, the creator of Dr. H. Jordan's Playground in Kraków and co-originator of a modern concept of theory of physical education in Poland, apart from 30 other competitions, we reconstructed and played 10 games that were popular hundred years ago in Dr. H. Jordan's Playground. In 2008, on the 100th anniversary of Bolesław Czech's birthday, our patron who was a great skier and patriot and died tragically of emaciation in concentration camp in Auschwitz, the authors of the programme prepared several competitions which referred to winter sports and, as every year, more than 30 other festivity games. The event was honoured with the presence of popular sportsmen who represent Poland in winter sports, among others Jagna Marczulajtis and Kamil Stoch.

In the year of Millennium organizers planned an undertaking unique both in terms of programme and involvement of other practical sections of our University. Apart from the Section of Methodology of P.E. and Placements, other sections were engaged in preparations: Section of Gymnastics, Dances-and-Music Forms, Alpine as well as Folk Dance Group of Kraków's AWF. The shows were organized on the main field of the stadium and about 200 students took part in them, most of whom were students of physical education. In the shows there were also involved sportsmen studying at our Uni-

versity, among others the winners of Climbing World Championship and bike trial.

Formal and financial analysis of "For a Child Smile" festivities

An average budget of the festivities, summing up organization, technical and production costs, is rather low and amounts to 1,000–5,000 PLN, calculated for 2,000 participants. The upper limit is reached if the event is connected with an anniversary or memorial.

It should be mentioned that the university bears costs connected with the event that may not be obvious at first. These are: preparation of the grounds where the festivities takes place, sports equipment that belongs to the university, labour costs of the workers who help with organizing the event e.g. workers from carpentry workshops where majority of the equipment used during the festivities is produced, administrative workers who secure and prepare the event (mowing the lawns, hedges, securing car parks, preparing the information boards).

The other funds are obtained by the organizers from sponsors. The ability to obtain funds for organizing events in sport and recreation is a skill essential for managers-to-be. Therefore, one of the tasks for students is obtaining sponsors and donators. If students find a sponsor, further talks are conducted by the managers. All funds for the event are deposited on the bank account of the university. The main manager of the event has access to those funds.

The main manager is responsible for the purchase of the equipment needed for preparation of the event. He or she places an order for the purchase of needed things in the supplies department or buys them him/herself in shops or at the manufacturers. Unfortunately, obtained funds cannot cover all expenses; therefore we usually use the equipment available at the university. Most of the equipment made in university's carpentry workshops and by students, is reused after the event during games involving physical activity classes and subsequent festivities.

The event is not additionally insured as the participants are school students who are already insured against effects of accidents and participation in the event itself is a part of an organized trip outside school.

Usually "For a Child Smile" festivity is a closed event as the participants are children and teenagers from schools invited by the organizers. But on few occasions the event was open to all who wanted to take part in it. The open festivities enjoyed immense popularity and were organized on Saturdays so that they could be attended by parents with their children. These are multi-generational events which are attended by children, teenagers, parents and frequently by grandparents too.

A crucial element from the marketing point of view is advertising in media. These are traditional media (the

press, radio, television) as well as the Internet. It is particularly significant for the promotion of the University's actions in the area as well as for sponsors whose logo is placed on the poster advertising the event. The posters are prepared in printed and electronic versions. The latter is placed on the university website and websites of the institutions involved in organizing the event. It is also an opportunity for sponsors, honorary and media patrons to create the image of institutions supporting worthy causes: integration, health and social causes.

Conclusions

The sporting and recreational festivity "For a Child Smile" in The University of Physical Education in Kraków presents values which are most important and beautiful in sport and recreation: the enjoyment derived from physical activity and the opportunity to succeed for all participants. Children who participate derive pleasure and enjoyment from doing sport and recreation, and get the opportunity to achieve success. They have the opportunity to compete with peers in spirit of fair play. Children who are disabled or physically less fit can integrate with children who are fitter. Through participation in competitions they develop motor and physical abilities and broaden knowledge on presented games and sports disciplines. Professionally prepared performances and shows not only make the event more attractive but also give chance for young sportsmen to present themselves to the wider audience. During the festivities participants have the opportunity to meet their sports idols. Children playing together integrate with their peers but also their teachers and parents, which is important for the educational and social reasons.

AWF through organizing the sporting and recreational festivities "For a Child Smile" promotes itself as a University which actively works for the area and which professionally prepares its students for the career not only in teaching but also in various companies. Undoubtedly, that image is enhanced by cooperation with such institutions as the City Council, the Police or Fire Department and contacts with media. What also seems crucial is bet-

ter and wider cooperation with companies and businessmen, many of whom are graduates of AWF or its supporters.

Students, due to organization of sporting and recreational events classes and participation in the process of preparation, realisation and closing the event, are well prepared to organize sporting and recreational events on their own, especially in school context. They learn how to plan strategically and programme the event as well as they acquire skills of negotiation and promotion.

We pay a lot of attention to prepare future teachers for work with children, which sometimes requires a lot of time, resources and energy. What is most important, this job allows reaching the set goals and brings satisfaction and enjoyment for the children, teenagers and their future teachers. Because it is all about finding the way to physically active, healthy and joyful life of young generations, which finds expression in a child's smile, bringing satisfaction to all involved in this undertaking.

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Sędzia jako kreator widowiska sportowego w piłce siatkowej

The Volleyball Referee as a Sporting Show Creator

Anna Bodasińska

WWFiS Biała Podlaska
Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego Józefa Piłsudskiego w Warszawie

Summary

The objective of this paper was to evaluate and describe the volleyball referee's role and competence as a sporting show creator. The material for empirical analysis was obtained by examining a group of 50 active volleyball referees. A questionnaire form was used in the study, which was conducted in 2013. In the opinion of the respondents, a volleyball referee performs the role of a sporting show creator. The role is particularly visible when fulfilling the function of the first referee. The qualities that make a sporting show out of a volleyball match are the presence of spectators and fierce competition between teams. The examined referees consider their effect on a sporting show to be significantly smaller than that of the players and spectators. A volleyball referee is perceived as a person who performs a supervising and disciplinary role during a sporting show. Among the abilities needed by a referee to be in charge of a sporting show, the respondents enumerated: mental resilience, decisiveness, good reflexes, knowledge about the sport, and fairness. One in three examined referees spoiled a sporting show by making a wrong decision.

Keywords: referee, sporting show, creator, volleyball, match

Streszczenie

Celem niniejszej pracy była ocena i charakterystyka roli oraz kompetencji sędziego piłki siatkowej jako kreatora widowiska sportowego. Materiał do analiz empirycznych uzyskano w wyniku badania grupy 50 czynnych sędziów piłki siatkowej. Narzędziem zastosowanym w niniejszej pracy był kwestionariusz ankiety. Badania przeprowadzono w 2013 roku. W opinii badanych, sędzia siatkarski pełni rolę kreatora widowiska sportowego. Rola ta uwidacznia się szczególnie przy sprawowaniu funkcji sędziego I. Cechy konstytuujące mecz siatkarski jako widowisko sportowe to obecność kibiców oraz występowanie zaciętej rywalizacji między drużynami. Badani sędziowie oceniają swój wpływ na widowisko sportowe jako znacząco mniejszy niż wpływ zawodników i kibiców. Sędzia siatkarski jest postrzegany jako osoba pełniąca w trakcie widowiska sportowego rolę nadzorczą i porządkową. Wśród kompetencji potrzebnych sędziemu do prowadzenia widowiska sportowego badani arbitrzy wymieniają: odporność psychiczną, zdecydowanie i refleks, wiedzę dotyczącą dyscypliny oraz sprawiedliwość. Co trzeciemu z badanych sędziów zdarzyło się popsuć widowisko sportowe błędną decyzją.

Słowa kluczowe: sędzia, widowisko sportowe, kreator, piłka siatkowa, mecz

Wstęp

Mnogość obecnych w literaturze definicji słowa 'kreator' pozwala na dostosowanie tego pojęcia do specyfiki pracy sędziego siatkarskiego. Uwypuklając najistotniejsze elementy tychże definicji, na potrzeby niniejszej pracy termin ten ujęto w następujący sposób: „kreator to osoba tworząca coś, ustanawiająca czy wprowadzająca pewne działania czy zjawiska, ukierunkowane na osiągnięcie zamierzonego celu” [Kopaliński 2007].

Nie ulega wątpliwości, że w czasie meczu sędzia siatkarski przyjmuje określoną rolę w zakresie czuwania nad właściwym przebiegiem spotkania. W zakresie jego obowiązków znajduje się kontrola nad grą i wszystkim co z nią związane. W jego rękach spoczywa nadzorowanie meczu siatkarskiego – widowiska sportowego [Gorący 2005, s. 25; Wierzbicka 1993, s. 43–50].

Warto zatem zwrócić uwagę na wartości, którymi winien charakteryzować się sędzia siatkarski – kreator widowiska sportowego.

By móc w sposób sprawny i zorganizowany prowadzić mecz siatkarski, sędzia powinien posiadać takie cechy jak: dobry wzrok, zdolność koncentracji, nienaganna prezencja, wysoka kultura osobista, umiejętności dyplomatyczne z domieszką poczucia humoru, zdecydowanie i refleks, odporność psychiczna, oraz, co najważniejsze, powinien lubić swój zawód [Richardson 1991, s. 3; Gorący, Jeż 2007, s. 27–31].

Praca sędziego (sędziowanie) jest czynnością, która wymaga nieustannego doskonalenia, tak samo jak ma to miejsce w przypadku zawodników. Aby osiągnąć wysoki poziom tej umiejętności, nie wystarczy jedynie uczestniczyć w dużej liczbie meczów siatkarskich. Do uzyskania odpowiednich kompetencji potrzebna jest wiedza i doświadczenie. Można je zdobyć dzięki obserwacji bardziej doświadczonych sędziów. W początkach kariery pomocne w tym względzie jest posiadanie wzoru do naśladowania. Dzięki radom bardziej doświadczonych kolegów kształtują się umiejętności i poszerza się wiedza dotycząca tajników sędziowskiej profesji [Richardson 1990, s. 2]. Sędziego można nazwać „graczem bez piłki”, który na równi z innymi uczestnikami widowiska sportowego odczuwa psychiczne wymagania meczu i zmuszony jest podejmować szybkie i właściwe decyzje oraz posiadać zdolność koncentracji [Richardson 1990, s. 2].

Wśród ważnych cech, którymi charakteryzować się winien sędzia siatkarski jest wygląd. Dobrze zbudowany, o nienagannej prezencji arbiter jest znacznie lepiej postrzegany przez uczestników widowiska sportowego niż ktoś, kto swoim nieschludnym wyglądem i brakiem zdecydowania budzi niechęć [Kostrzewski 1995, s. 30–33].

Nie bez znaczenia pozostają także głos i sposób przekazu informacji, które są ważnymi elementami w relacjach z trenerami i zawodnikami. Dlatego też sędzia nie powinien okazywać zdenerwowania i niepewności w głosie, gdyż może to niekorzystnie wpłynąć na przebieg gry [Kostrzewski 1995, s. 30–33].

Istotna wydaje się również koncentracja, czyli „zdolność kierowania swojej uwagi na rzeczy najważniejsze w chwili podejmowania decyzji w czasie meczu” [Richardson 1990, s. 9]. Można jej się nauczyć, należy też ją świadomie kształtować, ponieważ jest szczególnie ważna w obliczu trudnych sytuacji pojawiających się podczas spotkania siatkarskiego. Takie czynniki jak panujący w hali sportowej hałas oraz zachowanie innych uczestników zawodów mogą powodować obniżenie poziomu koncentracji, co może mieć niekorzystny wpływ na przebieg widowiska. Tylko skoncentrowany sędzia może w sposób efektywny i konsekwentny kierować grą [Ziobler 1990, s. 7–8].

By uniknąć nieporozumień i móc w łatwością dążyć do wyznaczonego celu, jakim jest stworzenie z meczu siatkarskiego widowiska sportowego, sędziego musi charakteryzować również konsekwencja w realizacji ustalonych standardów [Kowalczyk 1993, s. 36–39]. Ma to szczegól-

ne znaczenie w pierwszych minutach spotkania, „gdyż są one wskazówką dla trenerów i zawodników dotyczącą interpretacji przebiegu meczu przez sędziów” [Richardson 1990, s. 9]. Konsekwentne postępowanie arbitra staje się bardziej przewidywalne, co może pomóc w dostosowaniu się zawodników do ducha walki sportowej.

Niektórzy autorzy sugerują, że sędziego powinien cechować także zdrowy rozsądek. Nie jest wskazane sztywne trzymanie się przepisów i bycie jedynie ich egzekutorem. „Praktycznie mówiąc, sędzia obowiązkowo musi poświęcić błąd techniczny dla czynników propagandowych. To jest właśnie sztuka dobrego sędziowania!” [Jasiński 2005, s. 12].

Na sylwetkę dobrego sędziego składają się również takie cechy jak: wrażliwość, pewność siebie i wiara we własne możliwości. Do jego zadań nie należy szukanie popularności czy aprobaty, a jedynie sumienne wykonywanie swojej pracy. Dlatego też wysoki poziom tych cech nie pozwala sędziemu zwątpić w swoje umiejętności i utratę obiektywizmu [Richardson 1990, s. 9].

Nie bez znaczenia jest również umiejętność współpracy z partnerami w ramach komisji sędziowskiej. W celu stworzenia zgranego zespołu sędziowie przed meczem powinni ustalić wszelkie zasady współpracy. W ramach przygotowania przedmeczowego winni omówić potencjalne sytuacje, które mogą zdarzyć się w trakcie rywalizacji sportowej i wynikające z nich problemy. W piłce siatkowej przygotowanie przedmeczowe zostało formalnie przewidziane. W oficjalnym ceremoniale zawodów, na 15 minut przed spotkaniem, po losowaniu, sędziowie I i II udzielają sędziom liniowym, sędziemu sekretarzowi oraz obsłudze boiska instrukcji i wskazówek, dotyczących sprawowanych przez nich funkcji [Czyżniewski 1992, s. 36–39].

Zatem od sędziego siatkarskiego wymaga się posiadania licznych kompetencji zarówno na płaszczyźnie fizycznej, jak i psychicznej. To od niego w dużej mierze zależy, czy mecz siatkarski będzie prawdziwym widowiskiem sportowym, czy też jedynie zwykłym spotkaniem dwóch rywalizujących drużyn. Dlatego ważne jest, by sędzia, wykorzystując swoją wiedzę i umiejętności, w sposób świadomy i zaplanowany prowadził mecz, dążąc do stworzenia widowiska, któremu nadaje wysoką rangę bez względu na poziom sportowy jego uczestników.

Cel pracy. Materiał i metody badań

Na bazie zebranych materiałów sformułowano cel pracy, jakim była ocena i charakterystyka roli oraz kompetencji sędziego piłki siatkowej jako kreatora widowiska sportowego. Do zajęcia się niniejszą tematyką skłoniła autorkę chęć zgłębienia tego mało poruszanego przez polskich badaczy zagadnienia. Przegląd literatury pozwala wysnuć przypuszczenie, iż problematyka związana z aktywnością sędziów siatkarskich jest mało popularna.

W badaniach zastosowano metodę sondażu diagnostycznego z wykorzystaniem kwestionariusza ankiety pt. „Rola i kompetencje sędziego piłki siatkowej jako kreatora widowiska sportowego”. W jego pierwszej części znalazła się instrukcja wypełniania kwestionariusza. Drugą część stanowiło 19 pytań dotyczących zagadnień związanych z problematyką badań. W trzeciej części umieszczono metryczkę pomagającą zebrać podstawowe dane o badanych, takie jak: płeć, wiek, wykształcenie, zawód, staż sędziowski, klasa sędziowska oraz pełnione dodatkowe funkcje (zawodnik piłki siatkowej, trener piłki siatkowej czy gracz rekreacyjny w piłkę siatkową).

Materiał do analiz empirycznych uzyskano w wyniku badania grupy 57 czynnych sędziów piłki siatkowej, przy czym w tym miejscu należy zaznaczyć, że do analiz wykorzystano 50 kwestionariuszy. Odrzucono bowiem ankiety wypełnione w sposób niekompletny. Materiał badań zbierany był podczas rozgrywek siatkarskich na różnym szczeblu zaawansowania sportowego (rozgrywki młodzieżowe województwa podlaskiego, lubelskiego i świętokrzyskiego, III liga mężczyzn – województwo lubelskie, II oraz I liga kobiet i mężczyzn – województwo mazowieckie).

Tak zebrane dane pozwoliły na stworzenie charakterystyki badanej grupy.

86% badanych stanowili mężczyźni. Wiek badanych wahał się w granicach 21–73 lata. Połowa badanych była między 20 a 30 rokiem życia. Ponad $\frac{3}{4}$ badanych osób miało wykształcenie wyższe. Co ciekawe, wśród respondentów nie było osób z wykształceniem niższym niż średnie. Spośród badanych 60% posiadało I klasę sędziowską, ponad $\frac{1}{4}$ legitymowała się II klasą sędziowską, 15% posiadało zaś klasę związkową. Analiza danych pokazała także ogromne zróżnicowanie w długości stażu sędziowskiego, który wahał się w granicach od 3 do 50 lat. 50% badanych posiadało staż sędziowski, który mieścił się w przedziale 3–8 lat. Największą grupę stanowiły osoby z 10-letnim stażem sędziowskim (15%). Co trzeci

badany sędzia to nauczyciel. Ponad 25% respondentów to studenci. Pozostała część reprezentowała zawody takie jak: konstruktor, ratownik medyczny czy ekonomista. 60% sędziów to gracze rekreacyjni w piłkę siatkową. Około 25% deklaroowało bycie czynnym zawodnikiem. Szkoleniem zajmuje się ponad 30% respondentów.

Dane empiryczne, uzyskane w wyniku badania opisywanej grupy, poddano obróbce jakościowej i ilościowej. Analizę podporządkowano przyjętym problemom badawczym i przeprowadzono ją przy użyciu pakietu statystycznego SPSS Statistica. Mając na uwadze humanistyczny charakter niniejszych badań – stroniąc od „kwantafrenii” [Pawłowski 1986, s. 210] – w ilościowym opracowaniu zebranego materiału empirycznego zastosowane zostały podstawowe obliczenia statystyczne.

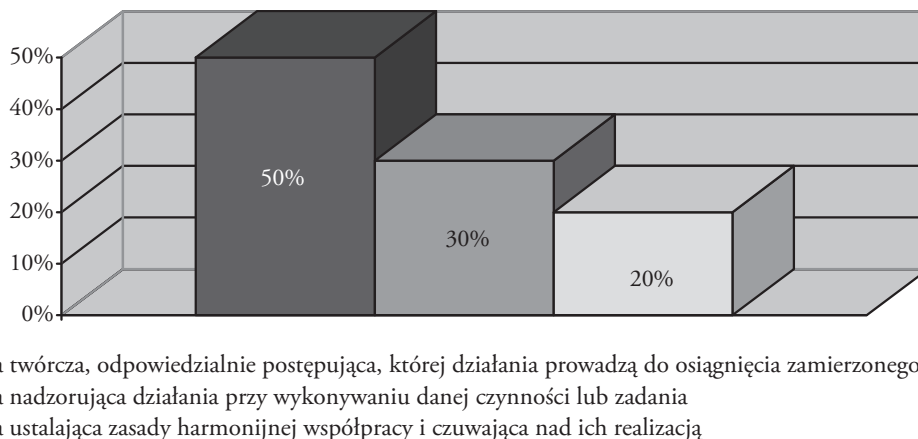
Badanie przeprowadzono w roku 2013.

Analiza wyników badań

Arbiter siatkarski z racji swojej roli ma pełną władzę egzekwowania uprawnień nadanych mu przez przepisy gry, w związku z oceną przebiegu prowadzonych przez siebie zawodów. Jego decyzje mają charakter ostateczny, dlatego musi on być zdecydowany w swoich działaniach oraz przekonany o ich słuszności. Nie każdy kandydat może zostać dobrym arbitrem piłki siatkowej, a jedynie taki, który posiada określone predyspozycje.

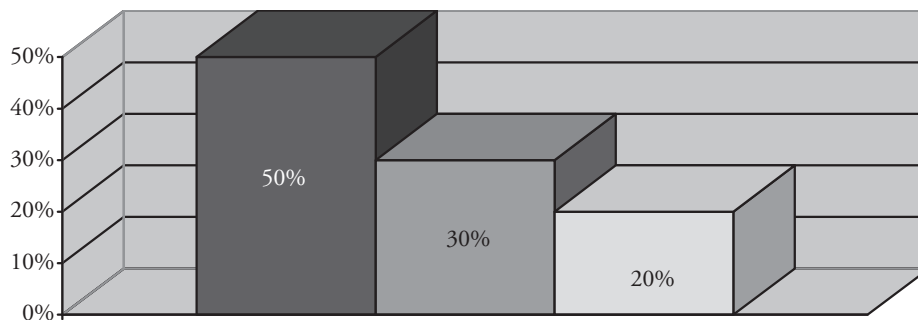
Analizę wyników badań rozpoczęto zatem od ustalenia rozumienia terminu ‘kreator’ przez sędziów piłki siatkowej. Zebrane dane przedstawia wykres 1.

Sędziowie siatkarscy rozumieją ten termin jako osobę coś tworzącą, postępującą odpowiedzialnie, której działania prowadzą do osiągnięcia zamierzonego celu (50%). Co trzeci sędzia uważa, że rola kreatora polega na nadzorowaniu działań przy wykonywaniu danej czynności lub zadania (30%). 20% respondentów sądzi, że kreator to osoba ustalająca zasady harmonijnej współpracy i czuwająca nad ich realizacją. Można więc stwierdzić, że



Wykres 1. Znaczenie pojęcia kreator w ocenie badanych.

Źródło: opracowanie własne



- zdarzenie społeczne o charakterze rozrywkowo-rekreacyjnym, zaistniałe z racji organizowanej rywalizacji sportowej, przebiegające według ustalonych reguł
- wydarzenie w postaci meczu, meetingu, wyścigu, spotkania, rajdu i innych zawodów, przebiegające w określonym miejscu i czasie
- wytwór przemysłu sportowo-rozrywkowego, którego celem jest zaspokojenie oczekiwań publiczności

Wykres 2. Znaczenie pojęcia widowiska sportowego w ocenie badanych.
Źródło: opracowanie własne

w ocenie sędziów, kreator jest osobą odpowiedzialną za tworzenie widowiska sportowego, ustalenie zasad współdziałania, nadzorującą ich przebieg i dbającą o realizację ustalonych celów.

Drugim, istotnym terminem z punktu widzenia problematyki pracy było pojęcie widowiska sportowego, a precyzyjniej: sposób, w jaki definiują ten termin sędziowie piłki siatkowej (wykres 2).

Dla połowy sędziów widowisko sportowe to zdarzenie społeczne o charakterze rozrywkowo-rekreacyjnym, zaistniałe z racji organizowanej rywalizacji sportowej, przebiegające według ustalonych reguł, co jest tożsame z definicją zaproponowaną przez Matusiewicza [1989, 1998]. Co trzeci sędzia (30%) uważa, że widowisko sportowe to wydarzenie w postaci meczu, meetingu, wyścigu, spotkania, rajdu i innych zawodów, przebiegające w określonym miejscu i czasie. 20% ankietowanych utożsamia widowisko sportowe z wytworem przemysłu sportowo-rozrywkowego, którego celem jest zaspokojenie oczekiwań publiczności.

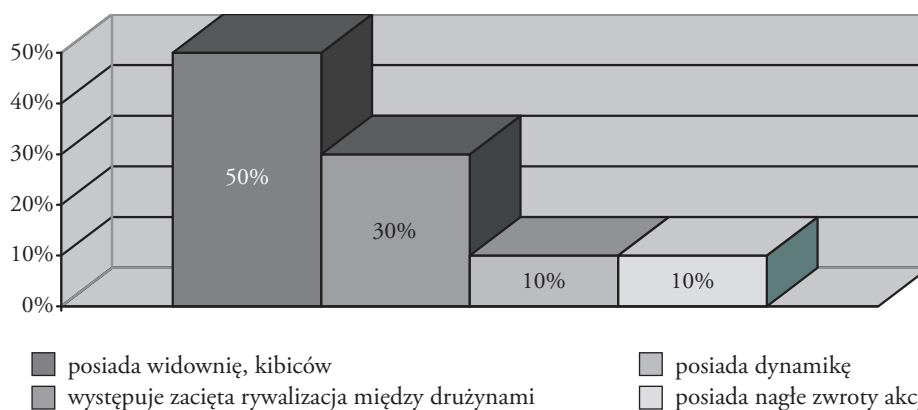
W tym kontekście interesujące wydaje się być przeanalizowanie cech, które według sędziów charakteryzują mecz siatkarski jako widowisko sportowe (wykres 3).

Dla połowy sędziów (50%) mecz siatkarski jest widowiskiem sportowym, gdyż posiada widownię, kibiców. Co trzeci respondent (30%) zwraca uwagę na potrzebę istnienia zaciętej rywalizacji między drużynami. Sędziowie pomijają z reguły takie cechy widowiska sportowego jak dynamika meczu (10%) czy nagłe zwroty akcji (10%).

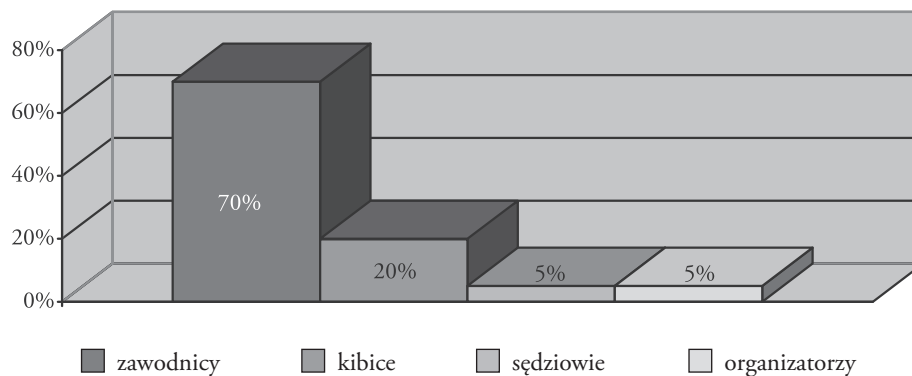
Analiza danych zgromadzonych na wykresie 4 wskazuje z kolei, że w ocenie sędziów widowisko sportowe w największym stopniu tworzą zawodnicy (70%) i kibice (20%). Rola sędziów i organizatorów jest według nich marginalna (na poziomie 5% w każdej z grup).

Ciekawe rezultaty przyniosły natomiast badania ocen sędziów dotyczących wpływu wyżej wymienionych grup na przebieg widowiska sportowego (wykres 5).

O ile – w opinii sędziów – to zawodnicy tworzą widowisko sportowe, o tyle ich wpływ na jego przebieg nie

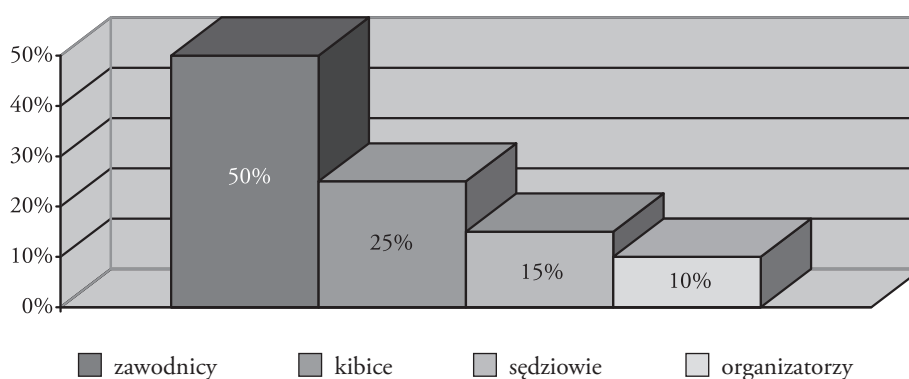


Wykres 3. Charakterystyka meczu siatkarskiego jako widowiska sportowego w ocenie badanych.
Źródło: opracowanie własne



Wykres 4. Twórcy widowiska sportowego w ocenie badanych.

Źródło: opracowanie własne



Wykres 5. Wielkość wpływu na widowisko sportowe poszczególnych jego twórców w ocenie badanych.

Źródło: opracowanie własne

jest już tak bardzo oczywisty (50%). Zmniejsza się także rola kibiców w tym aspekcie (25%). Elementy te współwystępują ze wzrostem znaczenia sędziów (15%) i organizatorów (10%) dla przebiegu widowiska sportowego. Przypuszczać można, że wzrost znaczenia sędziów w przypadku przebiegu widowiska sportowego jest spowodowany potrzebą utrzymania porządku w trakcie jego trwania.

Kluczowe z punktu widzenia tematu pracy jest zatem pytanie: Czy sędzia pełni rolę kreatora widowiska siatkarskiego (tabela 1).

Analiza danych wskazuje, że ponad $\frac{3}{4}$ badanej grupy zgadza się z omawianą tezą.

Poczucie większości badanych daje zatem podstawę sądzić, że sędziowie siatkarscy chcą decydować o przebiegu widowiska siatkarskiego.

W dalszej części analizy zbadano, która z funkcji komisji sędziowskiej pełnionych w trakcie meczu jawi się badanym jako wywierająca największy wpływ na kreowanie widowiska sportowego (tabela 2).

Zamieszczone powyżej dane zdają się potwierdzać wszelkie przypuszczenia: to sędzia I, spośród wszystkich członków komisji sędziowskiej, wywiera największy wpływ na przebieg widowiska sportowego – taka jest opinia niemal wszystkich badanych sędziów (96%). Można zatem przyjąć, że obsadzanie sędziów w tej funkcji wymaga od organizatorów widowiska sportowego sięgania

Tabela 1. Sędzia piłki siatkowej jako kreator widowiska siatkarskiego w ocenie badanych

Odpowiedzi	Badani	
	N	%
Tak	38	76
Nie	12	24
Nie mam zdania	–	–
Ogółem	50	100

Źródło: opracowanie własne

Tabela 2. Rola poszczególnych funkcji sędziego i jej wpływ na przebieg widowiska sportowego w ocenie badanych

Funkcja	Badani	
	<i>N</i>	%
Sędzia I	48	96
Sędzia II	2	4
Sędzia liniowy	–	0
Sędzia sekretarz	–	0
Ogółem	50	100

Źródło: opracowanie własne.

Tabela 3. Funkcje sędziów preferowane przez badanych

Funkcja	Badani	
	<i>N</i>	%
Sędzia I	40	80
Sędzia II	8	16
Sędzia sekretarz	2	4
Ogółem	50	100

Źródło: opracowanie własne

Tabela 4. Preferencje sędziów co do poziomu trudności pełnienia poszczególnych funkcji

Funkcja	Badani	
	<i>N</i>	%
Sędzia I	25	50
Sędzia II	15	30
Sędzia liniowy	–	–
Sędzia sekretarz	10	20
Ogółem	50	100

Źródło: opracowanie własne

po autorytety i silne jednostki, zdolne do autentycznej współpracy w atmosferze prawdziwej życzliwości, wyposażone w szereg zdolności i umiejętności.

Dalsze analizy zmierzały do określenia najbardziej i najmniej preferowanych przez sędziów funkcji w składzie komisji sędziowskiej (tabela 3).

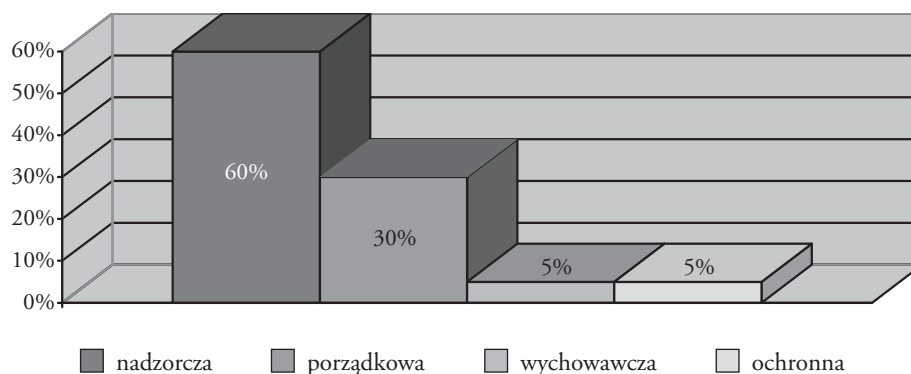
Funkcją, w której 80% badanych sędziów czuje się najlepiej, jest sędzia I. Swój wybór badani argumentowali faktem, że funkcja ta łączy się z większą odpowiedzialnością i większym prestiżem.

Respondenci, którzy najlepiej czuli się w roli sędziego II (16%), argumentowali z kolei swój wybór przede wszystkim mniejszym zakresem obowiązków, sędziowie preferujący funkcję sekretarza (4%) odnosili się zaś w równej mierze do kwestii zakresu obowiązków, jak i zdobytego w tym obszarze doświadczenia, które wpływało na preferowanie przez nich właśnie tej funkcji.

Zestawienie preferencji badanych sędziów co do funkcji sędziowskich, które charakteryzują się najwyższym stopniem trudności, zawiera tabela 4.

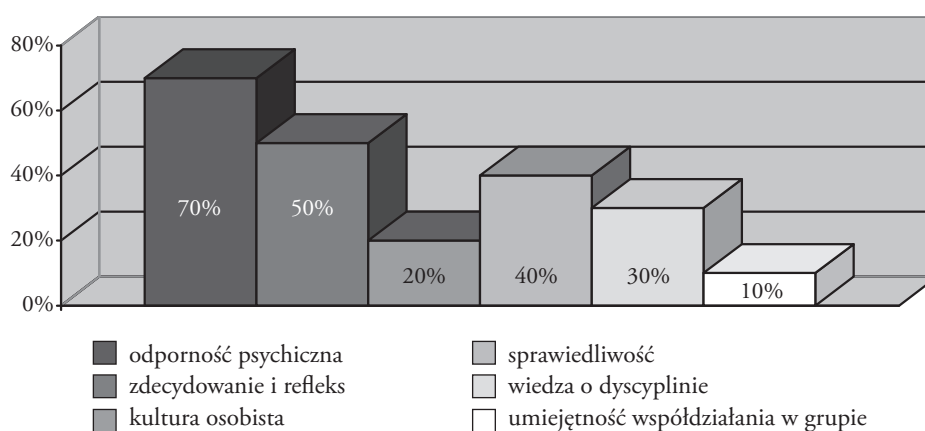
Co drugi respondent (50%) wyraża przekonanie, że najwyższym stopniem trudności charakteryzuje się funkcja sędziego I, argumentując to większym zakresem odpowiedzialności, obowiązków i stresu. Niejednokrotnie spotykamy się z sytuacją, gdy kibice gloryfikują osobę sędziego I, a kiedy indziej kwestionują jego kompetencje, a niestety często te dwie skrajności dotyczą tej samej osoby w przeciągu krótkiego czasu. Dzieje się tak, ponieważ fani dokonują w większości oceny normatywnej, biorąc pod uwagę tylko kryteria sukcesu lub porażki ich zespołu [Sas-Nowosielski 2008, s. 70].

Osoby, które niechętnie wypełniają obowiązki sędziego II, sędziego liniowego czy sekretarza, także odwołują się do zbyt dużego zakresu obowiązków. 30% respondentów wyraża niechęć do pełnienia funkcji sędziego II, argumentując to zbyt wysokim stopniem wymagań związanych z pełnieniem tej funkcji. 20% sędziów niechętnych do pełnienia funkcji sekretarza przedstawia kilka czynników, wśród których najczęściej wskazywany jest brak doświadczenia.



Wykres 6. Znaczenie poszczególnych funkcji sędziowskich w widowisku sportowym w ocenie badanych.

Źródło: opracowanie własne



Wykres 7. Cechy szczególnie potrzebne sędziemu do prowadzenia widowiska sportowego w ocenie badanych.

Źródło: opracowanie własne

W pytaniu dotyczącym realizacji funkcji kierowniczych widowiska siatkarskiego sędziowie w większości wskazali na funkcję nadzorczą (60%). Co trzeci respondent podkreśla natomiast znaczenie funkcji porządkowej (30%). Funkcja ochronna i wychowawcza znalazły uznanie jedynie u 10% respondentów. Ocena realizacji tych funkcji (w mniejszym bądź większym stopniu) świadczy o braku bierności w zachowaniu sędziów podczas uczestniczenia w widowisku sportowym. Przypuszczać można, że wywiązywanie się sędziego z tejże funkcji, a tym samym akceptacja jej przez innych twórców widowiska, świadczy o istotnej roli sędziego w kreowaniu widowiska sportowego (wykres 6).

W prowadzonych badaniach podjęto także próbę wyodrębnienia tych cech sędziego, które wydają się być szczególnie potrzebne do kreowania widowiska sportowego.

Zestawienie opinii sędziów w tym temacie zawarto na wykresie 7.

Zgromadzone dane pozwalają wysnuć przypuszczenie, że w ocenie respondentów, sędziego powinna cechować duża odporność psychiczna (70%) oraz zdecydowanie i refleks (50%). Powinien on być osobą sprawiedli-

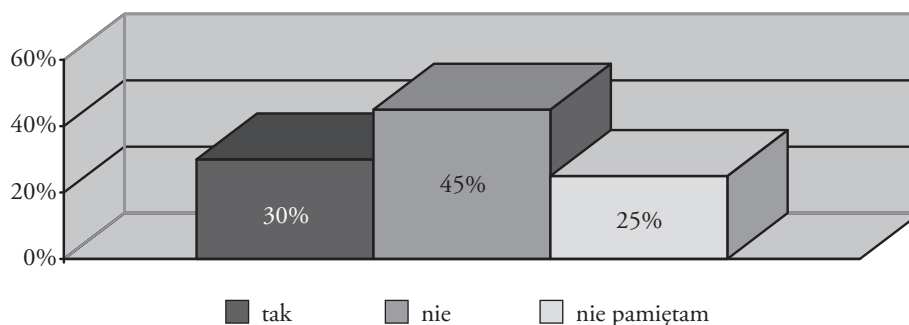
wą (40%), posiadać wiedzę o dyscyplinie (30%), wysoką kulturę osobistą (20%) i zdolność współpracy w grupie (10%).

Uzyskane wyniki wskazują zatem, że sędziowanie powinno być oparte na merytorycznej wiedzy o dyscyplinie, właściwym stosunku do wykonywanej pracy i innych ludzi oraz do siebie samego.

Ostatnim elementem dotyczącym bezpośrednio roli sędziów w widowisku sportowym było sprawdzenie ich odczuć odnośnie do sytuacji, w których swoimi decyzjami negatywnie wpłynęli na poziom widowiska sportowego (wykres 8).

Jak pokazują dane, prawie co trzeci sędzia przyznaje się do zepsucia swoją decyzją widowiska sportowego, 45% zaprzecza, jakoby taka sytuacja miała miejsce. Ostateczne wartości nie są jednak możliwe do precyzyjnego określenia, ponieważ co czwarty respondent nie był w stanie przypomnieć sobie, czy kiedykolwiek zepsuł widowisko sportowe.

Wśród respondentów, którzy przyznali się do zepsucia widowiska siatkarskiego, 80% stanowią osoby, które podjęły błędną decyzję w trakcie spotkania.



Wykres 8. Ocena destrukcyjnej działalności sędziego w widowisku sportowym.

Źródło: opracowanie własne

Tabela 5. Ocena zdenerwowania sędziów przed meczem

Odpowiedzi	Badani	
	<i>N</i>	%
Tak	5	10
Nie	15	30
Niewielkie zdenerwowanie	12	24
Zależy przed jakim meczem	18	36
Ogółem	50	100

Źródło: opracowanie własne

Tabela 6. Zbieranie informacji na temat drużyn uczestniczących w widowisku siatkarskim w ocenie badanych

Odpowiedzi	Badani	
	<i>N</i>	%
Tak, zbieram zawsze obszerne informacje	12	24
Tak, ale tylko podstawowe	20	40
Wiem, jaką nazwę ma zespół i kiedy odbywa się mecz	15	30
Nie	3	6
Ogółem	50	100

Źródło: opracowanie własne

W toku dalszych analiz zbadano specyfikę pracy sędziego przejawiającą się w zbieraniu informacji dotyczących sędziowanych drużyn, odczuwania zdenerwowania przed meczem i tłumaczenia się z podjętych decyzji.

U 36% badanych sędziów poziom zdenerwowania zależy od specyfiki meczu. Można przypuszczać, że istotnymi w tej kwestii czynnikami mogą być: klasa rozgrywek, ranga meczu, pełniona funkcja, płeć zawodników, poziom umiejętności reprezentowany przez drużyny czy obecność na meczu sędziego kwalifikatora. Niewielkie zdenerwowanie deklaruje 24% respondentów, a co trzeci badany twierdzi, że nie odczuwa zdenerwowania przed meczem. Uzyskane wyniki wskazują zatem, że zdenerwowanie jest nieodłącznym uczuciem pracy sędziego, które prawdopodobnie wywołuje w arbitrach swoistą odpowiedzialność za jakość widowiska sportowego.

Wyniki badań dotyczące zagadnienia zbierania przez sędziego informacji na temat drużyn uczestniczących w widowisku siatkarskim przedstawiono w tabeli 6.

Przygotowując się do meczu 40% badanych zbiera podstawowe informacje dotyczące drużyn, którym będą sędziować. Niemal co trzeci respondent wie tylko, jak nazywają się zespoły i gdzie odbędzie się mecz, natomiast 24% badanych sędziów zbiera obszerne i wyczerpujące dane o sędziowanych drużynach.

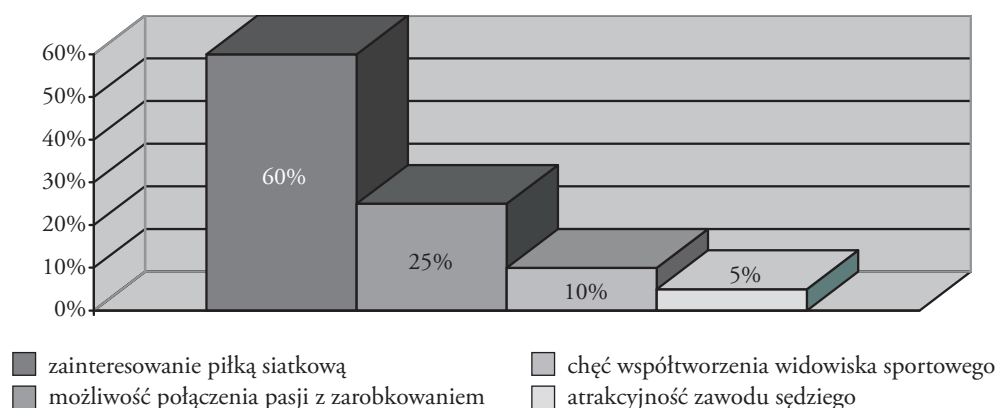
Znaczny odsetek sędziów interesujących się zespołami, którym będą sędziować zawody, świadczy z pewnością o dużej świadomości i odpowiedzialności respondentów w zakresie współtworzenia widowiska sportowego.

W kolejnej analizie zbadano reakcję sędziów (związaną z tłumaczeniem) na podjętą, zdaniem innych uczestników widowiska sportowego, błędną decyzję (tabela 7).

Tabela 7. Tłumaczenie po meczu kontrowersyjnej decyzji w ocenie badanych

Odpowiedzi	Badani	
	N	%
Tak	3	6
Tak, ale tylko wtedy, gdy zostaną o to poproszony	27	54
Czasami	10	20
Nigdy nie tłumaczę się z podjętych decyzji	10	20
Ogółem	50	100

Źródło: opracowanie własne



Wykres 9. Motywy podjęcia zawodu sędziego.

Źródło: opracowanie własne

54% badanych sędziów tłumaczy swoją decyzję po kontrowersyjnej sytuacji jedynie wtedy, gdy po meczu zostaną o to poproszeni. Co piąty respondent robi to tylko czasami. Taka sama grupa badanych nigdy nie tłumaczy się z podjętych w trakcie meczu decyzji. Można zatem przypuszczać, że odczucia sędziów (większości mężczyzn) w tym względzie uzależnione są od wolicjonalnych cech płci. Mężczyźni z natury „żądni” władzy przyjmują krytyczne uwagi trenerów i zawodników jako coś sprzecznego z ich przekonaniem o kreowaniu widowiska siatkarskiego.

Interesujących danych dostarczyło badanie motywacji respondentów do podjęcia zawodu sędziego (wykres 9).

Zainteresowanie piłką siatkową było głównym czynnikiem podjęcia aktywności sędziowskiej dla 60% badanych. Niemal co czwarty badany dostrzega w sędziowaniu możliwość połączenia pasji z zarobkowaniem. Tylko 10% badanych podjęło pracę sędziego ze względu na chęć współtworzenia widowiska sportowego, a 5% z powodu atrakcyjności zawodu sędziego.

Podsumowanie

Temat niniejszej pracy koncentrował się wokół roli i kompetencji sędziego piłki siatkowej jako kreatora widowiska sportowego. Celem poznania naukowego uczy-

niono tu charakterystykę funkcji i cech arbitra jako osoby odpowiedzialnej za jakość widowiska.

Na bazie przeprowadzonych analiz stwierdzono, że w ocenie sędziów kreator jest osobą coś tworzącą, odpowiedzialnie podejmującą wszelkie działania, które winny prowadzić do osiągnięcia zamierzonego celu.

Z kolei termin ‘widowisko sportowe’ jest rozumiany jako zdarzenie społeczne o charakterze rozrywkowo-rekreacyjnym, zaistniałe z racji organizowanej rywalizacji sportowej, przebiegające według ustalonych reguł. Dane te potwierdzają więc trafność definicji widowiska sportowego zaproponowanej przez Matusiewicz [1989, 1998].

Wśród cech charakteryzujących mecz siatkarski jako widowisko sportowe badani sędziowie wymieniają m.in. obecność widzów, kibiców oraz istnienie zaciętej rywalizacji między drużynami. Koresponduje to z faktem, że w ocenie sędziów – to właśnie zawodnicy i kibice tworzą widowisko sportowe. Oni również wywierają największy wpływ na jego przebieg; rola organizatorów i sędziów jest w ocenie badanych zdecydowanie mniejsza.

W tym kontekście interesujący wydaje się fakt, że ponad $\frac{3}{4}$ respondentów uważa, iż arbiter siatkarski pełni rolę kreatora widowiska sportowego. Można więc przypuszczać, że zadanie sędziego sprowadza się do działania, które nadzoruje przebieg walki sportowej. Potwierdzeniem założenia jest również to, że według badanych

najistotniejszą funkcją sędziego w widowisku sportowym jest funkcja nadzorcza.

Warto też zaznaczyć, że w ocenie badanych, najbardziej znaczący dla przebiegu widowiska jest sędzia I. Co ciekawe, to w tej roli 80% sędziów czuje się najlepiej. Kojarzą oni bowiem tę funkcję z większą odpowiedzialnością oraz z większym prestiżem. Ten duży zakres odpowiedzialności jest jednocześnie przyczyną sprawiającą, że dla połowy arbitrowców rola sędziego I jawi się jako najtrudniejsza.

W toku dalszych analiz zbadano także cechy sędziego, które wydają się być szczególnie przydatne do tworzenia widowiska sportowego. Są to: odporność psychiczna, refleks i zdecydowanie, sprawiedliwość, wiedza na temat dyscypliny, wysoka kultura osobista i umiejętność współpracy w zespole.

Zatem można przypuszczać, że rola sędziego w kreowaniu widowiska sportowego wydaje się być bardzo ważna. Koresponduje to z faktem, że 1/3 sędziów ma poczucie, że zepsuła widowisko sportowe, a 36% arbitrowców denerwuje się przed niektórymi meczami. Być może poziom zdenerwowania przed meczem wiąże się właśnie z widowiskowością spotkania. Zdenerwowanie może pojawiać się również przy zaistnieniu kontrowersyjnych sytuacji w meczu. Jak pokazują badania – 54% arbitrowców jest gotowych wytłumaczyć trenerowi i/lub kapitanowi swoją decyzję, gdy zostaną o to poproszeni.

Ciekawym zagadnieniem wydaje się być kwestia radzenia sobie ze zdenerwowaniem przed meczem. Być może zbieranie podstawowych informacji na temat drużyn, których mecz sędzia będzie sędziował (co czyni 40% sędziów), sprawia, że sytuacja staje się bardziej przewidywalna, co wtórnie obniża poziom stresu. Hipoteza ta wymaga jednak dalszej weryfikacji.

Analiza wyników badań wskazała również na czynniki motywujące do podjęcia zawodu sędziego. Dla większości badanych czynnikiem tym było zainteresowanie piłką siatkową, a co czwarty arbiter motywowany był sposobnością połączenia w działalności sędziowskiej własnych zainteresowań z możliwością zarobkowania. W tym kontekście nie dziwi fakt, że większość sędziów angażuje się w inne aktywności związane z piłką siatkową: sędziowie często są także graczami rekreacyjnymi, zawodnikami i/lub trenerami.

Na koniec warto zwrócić uwagę na ograniczoną liczebność badanej grupy: oczywiście, że jej zwiększenie wpłynęłoby na kształt i jakość prowadzonych analiz, umożliwiając stworzenie precyzyjniejszego i bardziej adekwatnego do rzeczywistości obrazu sędziego – kreatora widowiska siatkarskiego.

Wnioski

Dane zgromadzone w wyniku przeprowadzonych analiz pozwalają na wysnucie następujących wniosków:

1. W opinii badanych, sędzia siatkarski pełni rolę kreatora widowiska sportowego. Rola ta uwidacznia się szczególnie przy sprawowaniu funkcji sędziego I.
2. Cechy konstytuujące mecz siatkarski jako widowisko sportowe – to obecność kibiców oraz występowanie zaciętej rywalizacji między drużynami.
3. Badani sędziowie oceniają swój wpływ na widowisko sportowe jak znacząco mniejszy niż wpływ zawodników i kibiców. Prawdopodobnie wiąże się to z faktem, iż kibice w głównej mierze przychodzą, aby obejrzeć mecz i kibicować zawodnikom, a nie przyglądać się działalności arbitrowców.
4. Sędzia siatkarski jest postrzegany jako osoba pełniąca w trakcie widowiska sportowego rolę nadzorcą i porządkową.
5. Wśród kompetencji potrzebnych sędziemu do prowadzenia widowiska sportowego badani arbitrowcy wymieniają: odporność psychiczną, zdecydowanie i refleks, wiedzę dotyczącą dyscypliny oraz sprawiedliwość. Wniosek ten wskazuje na potrzebę organizowania kursów i szkoleń, umożliwiających arbitrom rozwijanie wymienionych kompetencji.
6. Co trzeciemu z badanych sędziów zdarzyło się popsuć widowisko sportowe błędną decyzją. Wydaje się więc istotne, by uświadamiać arbitrom ich wpływ na widowiskowość meczów siatkarskich i kształtować odpowiedzialność za jego przebieg.
7. Ponad 1/3 respondentów denerwuje się przed niektórymi meczami. Z tej perspektywy, istotna wydaje się być dalsza diagnoza poziomu i znaczenia odczuwanego przez sędziów stresu.
8. Przygotowując się do meczu, uczestnicy badania zbierają podstawowe informacje na temat drużyn, którym będą sędziować.
9. Większość badanych sędziów po kontrowersyjnej sytuacji zaistniałej w trakcie trwania meczu tłumaczy trenerowi i/lub kapitanowi drużyny swoją decyzję, jeśli zostaną o to poproszeni. Taka postawa zdaje się korzystnie wpływać na wizerunek sędziego w opinii pozostałych uczestników spotkania sportowego.
10. Podjęcie pracy sędziego często wynika z zainteresowania piłką siatkową. Także większość badanych sędziów wykazuje aktywność pozasędziowską na gruncie piłki siatkowej.
11. Przeprowadzone analizy pozwoliły na sporządzenie portretu sędziego siatkarskiego jako kreatora widowiska sportowego, określenie jego roli i kompetencji w tym aspekcie. Nie ulega wątpliwości, że z racji, iż badania miały charakter typowo eksploracyjny, przedstawione dane wymagają dalszych, głębszych analiz. Ciekawe rezultaty z pewnością przyniosłoby zbadanie związku między poszczególnymi zmiennymi.

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Formy edukacji sportowej w kontekście pedagogiki klasycznego liberalizmu we współczesnym świecie

Forms of Sports Education in the Context of the Pedagogy of Classical Liberalism in the Modern World

Bartłomiej Chrzanowski

Instytut Pedagogiki
Uniwersytet Jagielloński

Nie można sprawiedliwie ocenić charakteru jakiegokolwiek narodu bez zbadania, jakiego rodzaju sporty najczęściej uprawiają jego przedstawiciele. Wojna, polityka i inne nieprzewidywalne okoliczności mogą w różnych okresach dziejów wywoływać różnice światopoglądowe, kiedy jednak panuje pokój i naród nie potrzebuje zakładać żadnej maski, możemy obserwować jego najbardziej prawdziwe oblicze i oceniać naturalne predyspozycje jego obywateli.

Joseph Strutt

Sport and Pastimes of the People of England, 1810

Summary

This paper concerns sports education and its potential contribution to liberal education in modern times. The article considers two forms of sports education: Olympic and mercantile. The Olympic form of sports education postulates the full development of the human potential – which is reminiscent of the orientation of John Stuart Mill. Unfortunately, this idea cannot exist as a method to achieve a success – which is the most important value for the mercantile form of sports education. This second view has features in common with the assumptions of John Locke's education philosophy – where one of the main goals is the ability to survive from the reality trap, which life is imbued with. The mercantile form of sports education, however, without Olympic ideas, can lead people to their fall. The article highlights differences in forms of sports education and their practical value in providing the postulates of liberal education in the present pedagogical reality.

Keywords: liberal education, John Locke, John Stuart Mill, the forms of sport education, olympic form of sport education, mercantile form of sport education

Streszczenie

Artykuł odnosi się do sportowej edukacji oraz potencjalnego wkładu, jaki może ona wnieść do pedagogiki klasycznego liberalizmu. Rozważania dotyczą dwóch form sportowej edukacji: olimpijskiej i merkantylnej. Edukacja olimpijsko-sportowa postuluje pełny rozwój ludzkiego potencjału – co zbieżne jest z poglądami Johna Stuarta Milla. Niestety, idea olimpizmu nie może funkcjonować jako metoda osiągnięcia sukcesu – który jest wartością najwyższą w świetle edukacji sportowo-merkantylnej. Ta druga forma edukacji sportowej zawiera elementy występujące w założeniach pedagogicznych Johna Locke'a, dla którego jednym z ważniejszych celów było uświadczenie wychowanka o czekających na niego w życiu zagrożeniach. Artykuł podkreśla różnice zachodzące pomiędzy oboma formami edukacji sportowej oraz ich praktyczne zastosowanie w realizowaniu pedagogiki klasycznego liberalizmu w teraźniejszej rzeczywistości pedagogicznej.

Słowa kluczowe: pedagogika klasycznego liberalizmu, John Locke, John Stuart Mill, formy edukacji sportowej, edukacja sportowo-olimpijska, edukacja sportowo-merkantylna

Wczesna faza oświecenia to dla kultury fizycznej bardzo specyficzny okres – dzieło Kartezjusza *Człowiek. Opis ciała ludzkiego* stanowi początek postrzegania ciała jako maszyny. Myśl tę rozwinął – z pominięciem już pierwiastka duszy inspirowanej przez Boga – lekarz Julien Offray de la Mettrie. Ateistyczna koncepcja organizmu zbudowanego z „wzajemnie nakręcających się sprężyn” wywarła silny wpływ na rozwój nauk empirycznych – skutkuje to dzisiejszym postrzeganiem wychowania fizycznego i sportu jako płaszczyzny badań biomedycznych [Lipoński 2012, s. 347–348]. Można wręcz odnieść wrażenie, że humaniści traktowani są w tej dziedzinie jako badacze drugiej kategorii. Rozwijający się w dobie oświecenia kapitalizm i towarzysząca mu industrializacja miast spowodowały pogorszenie warunków życia, stając się bezpośrednią przyczyną kiepskiej kondycji zdrowotnej ówczesnych ich mieszkańców. O ile samo dostrzeżenie tego problemu zawdzięczać należy medycynie i biologii, o tyle promowanie pewnych nawyków zdrowotnych bez udziału mistrzów pióra, potrafiących zaszczepić ważną myśl, byłoby trudne. A za taką osobę niewątpliwie uchodził John Locke, przedstawiciel pedagogiki klasycznego liberalizmu.

„Zdrowy duch w zdrowym ciele – oto zwięzłe, lecz pełne określenie szczęśliwego stanu na tym świecie” – brzmi pierwsze zdanie *Myśli o wychowaniu* [Locke 1931, s. 5]. Poruszenie już na samym początku kwestii związanych z cielesnością człowieka dowodzi, z jak wielką wrażliwością i troską podchodzi Locke do wychowania cielesnego. Zafascynowany historią o kapiącym się w ziemi w lodowatej wodzie Senece oraz przypominający informacje o cudownych efektach takiej praktyki Locke [1931, s. 8] zaleca hartowanie organizmu tą metodą od najmłodszych lat. Nie może zabraknąć przy tej czynności nauki pływania, która to umiejętność w skrajnych sytuacjach może uratować życie. Godny przypomnienia jest fakt, że w starożytnej kulturze rzymskiej (którą angielski filozof uważał za wzór) brak tej zdolności wyróżniał osoby źle wychowane [tamże, s. 11].

Hartowanie ciała to również dbałość o skromność posiłków – do pewnego wieku pozbawionych mięsa. Jego późniejsza obecność w jadłospisie jest jak najbardziej dopuszczalna, ale też w stosunkowo małych ilościach i bez przypraw. Celem prostoty posiłków, składających się głównie z chleba, jest nieprzyzwyczajanie człowieka do smaków, których nadmierna ilość może przynosić poważne zaburzenia organizmu. W dodatku taka postawa kształtuje pozytywny nawyk jedzenia dopiero w chwili nasilającego się głodu. Zwolennikami właśnie takiej diety byli i filozof Seneka, i cesarz Oktawian August, których przywołuje Locke [1931, s. 14–17]. Z punktu widzenia rozwoju rekreacji ruchowej warto odnotowania są zalecenia co do charakteru i celu, jaki miała ona pełnić w życiu kształtującego się dżentelmena. Ruch na świeżym powietrzu ma nie tylko wzmocnić organizm, ale przede

wszystkim odciążyć umysł od nadmiaru pracy. Zalecany jest wręcz przesyt rekreacji, prowadzący aż do znużenia wysiłkiem. Zapewni to promowanie nawyku sięgania po książkę – właśnie poprzez tak określoną drogę, zdaniem Locke’a, młodzież ma docenić wartość nauki i korzyści z niej płynących [tamże, s. 133–139].

Co zwraca uwagę w *Myślach o wychowaniu*, to wyraźny dystans autora wobec tradycyjnych w tamtych czasach form wychowania fizycznego, do jakich historycy sportu zaliczyliby jazdę konną i szermierkę. Pierwsza spośród wymienionych umiejętności jest – zdaniem Locke’a – wyraźnie przeceniana w procesie wychowania. Postulowane jest zagospodarowanie tego czasu na opanowanie bardziej pożytecznych życiowo zdolności. Oczywiście ostateczna decyzja w tej kwestii należy do rodziców [tamże, s. 217–218].

Z większym sceptycyzmem odnosi się autor *Myśli o wychowaniu* do nauki szermierki – jest „dobrem ćwiczeniem dla zdrowia, ale niebezpiecznym dla życia” [tamże, s. 218–219]. Z przenikliwą znajomością natury dorastającego i mało odpowiedzialnego młodzieńca John Locke przedstawia negatywne konsekwencje obecności tej sztuki w procesie kształcenia: „Zaufanie w tę umiejętność może skłonić tych, którzy sądzą, że nauczyli się używać swej szpady, do mieszania się w zwady. Ta zarozumiałość sprawia, że często są oni, bardziej niż potrzeba, przykrzy na punkcie honoru lub drobnych, albo wcale nieistniejących zaczepek” – celnie argumentuje [tamże, s. 218–219]. W dodatku człowiek niewykazujący wielkich zdolności we władaniu szpadą, raczej unikać będzie ciągłego wchodzenia w konflikty. Dla potrzeb samoobrony zalecana jest raczej nauka zapasów – jeśli „mamy się jakoś zabezpieczyć przeciw takim przypadkom i [...] ktoś ma przygotować swego syna do pojedynków, to o wiele bardziej wolałbym, by mój syn był dobrym zapaśnikiem niż lichym szermierzem” [tamże, s. 218–219]. Pojedynki bez broni mają mniej ofiar – użyteczność takiej formy rozwiązywania konfliktów staje się bezpośrednią przyczyną włączenia, kosztem szermierki, sztuk walki (czyli sportu) do procesu wychowania. Pogląd ten zyskał entuzjastów – już w XVIII i XIX wieku boks był jedną z umiejętności wymaganych właśnie od dżentelmenów [Lipoński 2012, s. 406 – 408].

Autor *Myśli o wychowaniu* traktował kulturę cielesną jako fundament ludzkiej egzystencji – miała pomóc utrzymać organizm w zdrowiu. Współczesny dorobek nauki uznaje to stanowisko za oczywisty truizm. Jednak co przykuwa uwagę w poglądach Locke’a, a jest stosunkowo rzadko eksponowane, to postrzeżenie przez niego zdrowia jako wartości autotelicznej (co stanowi delikatne wyłamania się z poglądów przepełnionych utylityzmem). W artykule *Thus I Think* John Locke opisał zestaw dóbr gwarantujących szczęście i przyjemność. Wśród nich znajdują się: wiedza (*knowledge*), dobre imię (*reputation*), nadzieja na wieczne szczęście (*the expectation of eternal*

and incomprehensible happiness in another world), czynienie dobra (*doing good*) oraz zdrowie (*health*), dzięki któremu możliwe jest odczuwanie cielesnej rozkoszy [Locke 1664, za: Goldie 1997, s. 296–297]. Sport stanowi zatem niezbędny składnik w życiu człowieka.

Nie sposób zweryfikować, na ile powyższe myśli Locke'a zainspirowały późniejszych pedagogów do zwracania szczególnej uwagi na ten aspekt oddziaływań, zwłaszcza że o kulturze fizycznej w wychowaniu mówili już starożytni Grecy i Rzymianie. Nie wolno też zapomnieć o azjatyckim spojrzeniu na aktywność fizyczną, która traktowana była przede wszystkim jako forma medytacji. Sporą rolę odegrały średniowieczne obrządki kulturowe i swoiste dla każdego regionu świata gry ludowe. Na znaczący rozwój kultury cielesnej w czasach nowożytnych wpłynęło pojawienie się ruchu gimnastycznego (przełom XVIII i XIX wieku) oraz powrót w 1896 roku do igrzysk olimpijskich.

Twórcy nowożytnych igrzysk, z baronem Pierrem de Coubertainem na czele, uczynili ze sportu cel sam w sobie – uczestnictwo nastawione na osiąganie coraz to lepszych rezultatów. Proces samodoskonalenia jednostki zawarty został w motcie „szybciej, wyżej, mocniej” (gr.: *citius, altius, fortius*) i stał się najważniejszym aspektem udziału w zawodach [Bronikowska, Bronikowski 2009, s. 38]. Wzorem stała się grecka kultura fizyczna, w której nacisk kładziono na harmonijny rozwój człowieka. Uosobieniem cenionego tam piękna i dobra, tzw. *kalokagathii*, był wielki myśliciel Arystokles – znany bardziej pod przydomkiem Platon (co najprawdopodobniej znaczyło „szerokoplecy”). Najsynniejszy uczeń Sokratesa atletyczną budowę ciała zawdzięczał swoim sportowym pasjom, do których zaliczyć należy m.in. przynoszące mu spore sukcesy zapasy. Tak więc postępowanie zgodne z olimpijską doktryną należy rozumieć jako pracę uwzględniającą całość ludzkiego potencjału.

Zaowocowało to ważnym dla pedagogiki faktem – spośród sześciu fundamentalnych zasad olimpizmu zapisanych na Karcie Olimpijskiej aż cztery z nich dotyczą procesu edukacji człowieka. Zaliczać do nich należy:

1. postulat harmonijnego oddziaływania na kształtowanie człowieka,
2. koncepcję perfekcji przez wyczyn, gdzie wynik sportowy jest stawiany na równi z rezultatami fizycznymi i estetycznymi,
3. nacisk na łączenie aktywności sportowej z realizowaniem zasad etycznych – uczestnictwo jako cel zawodów rozgrywanych w duchu *fair play*,
4. kształtowanie relacji między przeciwnikami na bazie pokoju zawartego na czas igrzysk [Błajet 2012, s. 32].

Rywalizacji sportowej towarzyszyła uczciwość – przejawy wszelkiego kręactwa kończyły się jawnym potępieniem zawodnika przez wystawienie mu pomnika hańby (*zanes*), który stawiano w specjalnej alei znajdującej się

obok stadionu [Bronikowska, Bronikowski 2009, s.: 24]. Ten absolutny brak tolerancji dla kłamstwa poparty budowaniem „wrażliwości na wstyd i niesławę” oraz pielęgnowaniem naturalnej potrzeby bycia chwalonym można odnaleźć również w poglądach Johna Locke'a. W jego odczuciu zwracanie szczególnej uwagi na próbę oszustwa miało przynieść wymierne efekty w postaci wychowanka wkomponowanego w społeczny ład [Wrońska 2012, s. 136].

Idea perfekcji płynąca z postulatów olimpijskich bliższa jest spojrzeniu drugiego reprezentanta pedagogiki klasycznego liberalizmu – Johna Stuarta Milla. Traktował on edukację jako cel pracy wychowawczej – wykształcenie jednostki prowadzić miało do chęci ciągłego rozwijania jej zdolności i umiejętności [tamże, s. 179]. Postawa ciągłego powracanie do nauki wydaje się być zbieżna z fundamentem olimpizmu – postulatem uczestnictwa. Mill, mimo ogromnej wrażliwości na estetykę, nie pisał o kulturze cielesnej tyle co jego poprzednik – Locke. Można jedynie domniemywać, że człowiekowi wychowywanemu w XIX-wiecznej Anglii na bazie kultury greckiej (już jako dziecko mówił i pisał po grecku) przesłanie edukacji sportowo-olimpijskiej z pewnością byłoby bardzo bliskie.

Współcześnie olimpizm, choć piękny i podniosły w swym przekazie, traktowany jest jako specyficzna forma apelu skierowanego do osób uczestniczących w rzeczywistości sportowej – celem jest pobudzanie szlachetności drzemiącej w rywalizujących zawodnikach. To droga „doskonalenia osoby ludzkiej wiodącego ku prawdzie, dobru i pięknu” oparta na „pedagogice nadziei i pedagogice rozwoju przez radość” – wyjaśnia Krzysztof Zuchora [2009, s. 241]. Niestety wartości olimpijskie, choć obecne w świecie sportu, wcale nie mają zapewnionej tam wyłączności. Coraz częściej do głosu dochodzi świadomość, że – jak zaznacza Zuchora – zostały one narzucone tej przestrzeni z zewnątrz [tamże, s. 241].

Olimpijska refleksja przepelniona jest filozofią perfekcjonizmu – pokrywa się zatem z poglądami zafascynowanego grecką kulturą Johna Stuarta Milla. Ale dla zawodników wyczynowych może sprawiać wrażenie zbyt ogólnej. Nie zostały w niej bowiem zawarte żadne wskazówki dotyczące metody osiągania sukcesu. Choć ciężko byłoby zakwestionować obecność idei *fair play* we współczesnym sporcie, to wydaje się, że refleksji pedagogicznej ucieka inny ważny aspekt sportowego współzawodnictwa – zwycięstwo. I związane z tym metody wychowania. Sport kładzie ogromny nacisk na realizowanie konkretnego celu – osiągnięcie wyniku. Może to mieć nieodłączny związek z jego korzeniami – pierwsze wzmianki o pewnych formach aktywności, które mają wiele wspólnego ze współczesnym rozumieniem sportu, można odnaleźć jeszcze przed pojawieniem się greckiej myśli olimpijskiej.

Pierwotne gry służyły doskonaleniu umiejętności niezbędnych do prowadzenia wojen i polowania. Grecja taki obraz współzawodnictwa odrzuciła, ale powrócił on

w starożytnym Rzymie – ćwiczenia i zabawy rekreacyjne poza bramami miasta określano terminem *disporte*. W przeciwieństwie do kultury podbitego narodu „Rzym nie pozwalał na luksus «marnotrawienia» sił ludzkich na cele sportu igrzyskowego” – objaśnia specyfikę czasów historyk sportu Wojciech Lipoński [2012, s. 132]. Warto zaznaczyć wyraźny dystans, a nawet brak zaufania Imperium Rzymskiego do greckich wzorów wychowawczych: wprawdzie dzieci nauczone były przez znakomicie wykształconych Greków, ale to kształcenie (łac. *doctrina*) w żadnym wypadku nie mogło ingerować w przestrzeń wychowania fizycznego. Pedagogiczne postulaty dotyczące formy uczestniczenia w rywalizacji sportowej postrzegane były wręcz jako „nazbyt zniewieściale i zliberalizowane” – ich wprowadzenie uniemożliwiłoby pokonanie potencjalnego przeciwnika oraz utrudniało rozwój i utrzymanie granic Imperium [tamże, s. 134]. Właśnie dlatego proces wychowania (łac. *educatio*) fizycznego obywatela rzymskiego rozpoczynał się od 17 roku życia i był w pełni powierzany armii [Bartnicka, Szybiak 2001, s. 42–50].

Wojsko, aby utrzymać optymalną formę fizyczną, korzystało ze sportu – w zamian sport sięgał po wojenne legendy. Organizowane na ówczesnych arenach igrzyska z udziałem gladiatorów były inscenizacjami znanych i ważnych dla historii bitew. Odrzucono olimpizm na rzecz brutalnej i zmilitaryzowanej siły. Przepętniona okrucieństwem i bezkompromisowością rywalizacja realizowała cel, jakim było zabawianie tłumu – dzięki zrealizowaniu zasady „chleba i igrzysk” sprawiał on (tłum) wrażenie znacznie spokojniejszego. W ten właśnie sposób sport stał się zwyczajnym towarem na sprzedaż (łac. *mercari*): poprzez właściwe używanie sportu jako widowiska władza ma zagwarantowany spokój.

Przepętnione cwaniactwem współzawodnictwo w okresie średniowiecza próbowano złagodzić wprowadzając wywodzącą się z rycerstwa postawę *fair play*. Niestety nie zmieniło to znacząco charakteru rywalizacji – dżentelmeńskie uczestnictwo zawsze w końcu zastępowano atrakcyjniejszą, bo nastawioną na sukces rozgrywką z udziałem ludzi maksymalnie zdeterminowanych. Z czasem bezwzględny i nieakceptujący porażek wymiar sportu doprowadził do wytworzenia nadmiernych oczekiwań względem uczestników. Bliżej czasów nam współczesnych ich sukces zaczął przekładać się na pieniądze – kibiców i sponsorów [Rutkowska 2011].

Przy tak ogromnym nacisku na wynik realizowanie postulatów „zawodnicy pierwsi, wygrywanie drugie” staje się, zdaniem praktyków, wyjątkowo trudne [Martens 2009, s. 32–34]. Presja rodzi zachowania dewiacyjne – przejawiające się między innymi w postaci cynicznej kalkulacji (*faul taktyczny*). Koncentrowanie się na mozolnym budowaniu sprawności fizycznej umożliwiającej osiągnięcie sukcesu zostaje zastąpione (w myśl zasady „zwycięzców się nie sędzi”) kunktatorstwem i przy-

zwoleniem na oszustwo. Każda luka w regulaminach gry może doprowadzić do zachowań niezgodnych z ich literą, wręcz sprzecznych z intencjami ludzi, którzy je tworzyli. W ten właśnie sposób szlachetna edukacja sportowo-olimpijska (czyli udział i samodoskonalenie) ustępuje miejsca nastawionej tylko na zwycięstwo edukacji, nazwijmy ją, sportowo-merkantylnej.

Wydaje się, że ta druga forma (sportowo-merkantylna) edukowania zawodnika opiera się na następujących założeniach:

1. opanować należy umiejętności niezbędne do osiągnięcia sukcesu,
2. wynik jest sprawą najważniejszą (bo stanowi atrakcyjną wartość marketingową [Lipiec 2001]),
3. najważniejsza dla osiągnięcia wyników jest skuteczność i bezkompromisowość,
4. z przeciwnikiem prowadzona jest permanentna wojna obejmująca każdy obszar życia.

Założenia te brzmią dość niepokojąco, by nie powiedzieć złowrogo. Jeszcze bardziej może przygnębiać w tym kontekście pogląd, że sport, zdaniem wielu badaczy, to odzwierciedlenie cywilizacji, w której występuje [Błajet 2012, s. 16]. Czy rzeczywiście?

Dziś korzystne i szczególnie warte uwagi jest to, co daje finansowy zysk – niemal każdy produkt, w tym również sport, musi na siebie zarabiać. Nastawienie na realizację takiego celu prowadzi do stopniowej erozji standardów etycznych w biznesie. Dyktaturę biznesowego relatywizmu znakomicie oddaje znane w środowisku przedsiębiorców powiedzenie „dobry menedżer umie czytać przepisy lepiej niż ich autorzy” [Dylus 2002, s. 274]. Także sama uczciwość bardziej staje się chwytem marketingowym, otoczką towarzyszącą wykreowanej potrzebie niż faktycznie realizowanym standardem działania. Oszuści czyhają na każdym kroku, a spryt stawiają najwyżej. Rodzi to wręcz zasadnicze pytanie: na ile sport, mający rzymskie korzenie i realizujący patologiczne aspekty rynku, łączy się z pedagogiką klasycznego liberalizmu?

„Jedyną obroną przed światem jest jego dokładna znajomość” – uważa John Locke [Locke 1931, s. 89–98]. Poznanie nasyconego cwaniactwem i brutalnością wycinka rzeczywistości to doskonały materiał szkoleniowy dla młodego człowieka. „Opiekun [...] powinien pouczyć go o chytrości ludzi i sposobach ich postępowania, powinien zedrzeć maskę, jaką okrywają ich niektóre zawody i pozory i nauczyć swego wychowanka rozpoznawać, co leży na dnie pod temi pozorami” [tamże, s. 89–98]. Efekty takich lekcji są, zdaniem autora *Mysli o wychowaniu*, cenniejsze od znajomości starożytnych języków, dzieł i współczesnych spekulacji natury filozoficznej i metafizycznej. Umożliwiają nabycie najważniejszej cnoty, której praktyczne zastosowanie odnajduje człowiek nie tylko na polu bitwy, ale również w trudnym i stawiającym coraz to wyższe wymagania życiu. Tą cnotą jest męstwo [Wrońska 2012, s. 139].

Wprowadzenie do szkoły formalnie istniejących zajęć z – nazwijmy to – *życiowego cwaniactwa* może znacząco podważyć autorytet pedagogów, utrudnić im pracę oraz, w nieodległej perspektywie, wymiernie obniżyć poziom kapitału społecznego. Wydaje się zatem, że jedynym możliwym rozwiązaniem jest zwiększenie nacisku na uwzględnianie zajęć sportowych w procesie oddziaływań wychowawczych. Ich obecność można porównać do swoistej szcepionki – doświadczenie oszustwa (zarówno w charakterze ofiary, jak i sprawcy) wyrabia umiejętność poruszania się po świecie przepełnionym pułapkami, a także (dzięki znajomości niegodziwej metodyki działania) utrudnia funkcjonowanie na rynku dwulicowym przedsiębiorcom. W ten sposób realizowany jest postulat Johna Stuarta Milla, według którego człowiek nie może dbać tylko o moralność prywatną, ale również winien pielęgnować publiczną [tamże, s. 162].

Przedstawione wyżej stanowisko prowadzi jednak do uzasadnionych obiekcji – nauka o występkach może źle wpłynąć na jednostkę skłoną do ich popełniania. Połączenie tych zdolności z drzemiącymi w każdym człowieku patologicznymi instynktami, które wyraźnie dostrzegali obaj przedstawiciele *liberal education*, może nieść ze sobą tragiczne skutki. W końcu już u dzieci, zdaniem Locke’a, można zaobserwować narcystyczną agresję przejawiającą się w chęci zdominowania otoczenia, a także czerpania satysfakcji z okrucieństwa i ulegania zmysłowym pragnieniom. Z kolei u Johna Stuarta Milla opisane zostały instynkty niszczenia oraz panowania (ten drugi prowadzi do podporządkowania swojej woli innym ludziom) jako szczególnie zagrażające rozwojowi nawet najlepszych potencjałów. Zalecenie Milla dotyczące tej kwestii jest jednoznaczne – chwasty, parafrazując filozofa, należy zagłodzić przez nieużywanie [tamże, s. 150–151].

Wobec instynktów odmienne stanowisko zajęli przedstawiciele psychologii hormistycznej. C. Burt postulował walkę z tym aspektem natury człowieka poprzez jego poznanie, zdefiniowanie i skierowanie na odpowiednią płaszczyznę – nazywał to kanalizacją instynktów. Postępowanie przeciwne przypomina „proszenie ryby, aby zechciała latać niczym ptak, lub też drapieżnika pustynnego, aby spokojnie leżał obok jagnięcia i jak ono jadł tylko zieleninę”. W efekcie zalecane jest radzenie sobie np. z agresją poprzez „gwałtowne i konkurencyjne sporty”, tj.: piłkę nożną, atletykę i boks [Pospiszył 2007, s. 78–82]. Przypomina to jeden z przywołanych wcześniej pomysłów Locke’a, który krwawą szermierkę chciał zamienić na bezpieczniejsze zapasy. Tylko gdzie w tym wszystkim odnajdziemy olimpizm?

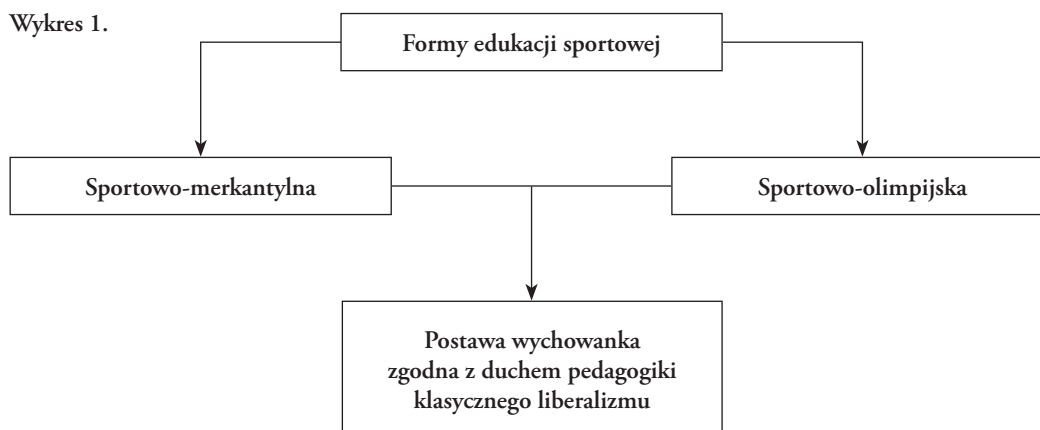
Edukacja sportowa-merkantylna wykorzystuje naturalne predyspozycje każdej osoby do określonej dyscypliny sportu, ale nie uwzględnia oddziaływania nastawionego na budowanie szlachetności. Oczywiście, na czas uczestniczenia w życiu sportowym może ona zapewnić sportowcowi dochodowy zawód – ciężko się z tym nie

zgodzić. Potem, po zakończeniu kariery, przerwaniu jej przez kontuzję, będzie już znacznie gorzej. W społeczeństwie znajdzie się wówczas jednostka, która nie ma już zdolności do uprawiania sportu na wyczynowym poziomie, ale pozostały w niej skłonności i predyspozycje, by zagrażać niewinnym obywatelom.

Samo ujarzmienie instynktów (choć w przypadku agresji bardzo ważne) nie zaprowadzi człowieka do niczego konstruktywnego – pozytywna tożsamość nie rodzi się tylko dlatego, że ktoś został mistrzem świata. To bardzo ciężka praca nad sobą, której towarzyszyć powinna „wyższa narracja”. Sportowcy odnajdują ją w olimpizmie – często przekazywanym w sposób pośredni i nieuświadomiony, np. poprzez mądrego trenera, uczącego szacunku do ciężkiej pracy i przeciwnika oraz dającego dobry przykład samym sobą (podobnie, w nienachalny sposób, ale na zasadzie modelowania pracował jako wychowawca John Locke [Wrońska 2012, s. 212]). Choć metoda zagłodzenia „chwastów” (realizowana przez Milla) nie do końca się sprawdza w praktyce terapeutyczno-resocjalizacyjnej, to jednak samo ich okiełznanie z pewnością nie wystarcza. Potrzebna jest ambicja kształtująca rutynę działań nastawionych na ciągłe samodoskonalenie się.

Konflikt zachodzący pomiędzy dwiema formami edukacji sportowej (olimpijskiej i merkantylnej) może zamienić się w znakomitą współpracę. Warunkiem koniecznym jest realizowanie powyższej „zonglerki” postaw w przemyślany, racjonalny i nienarzucający się sposób. Zaakceptować należy bolesny dla rzeczywistości sportowej fakt, że dla ogromnej rzeszy pozbawionych geniuszu rzemieślników sukces osiągnąć jest za pomocą cynicznych zachowań, nastawionych wyłącznie na wynik. Realizowanie olimpizmu podczas meczu, choć historia sportu dowodzi, że czasem się zdarza, jest sprzeczne z działaniem nastawionym na osiągnięcie pożądanego rezultatu. A kolejne porażki nie tylko wzmacniają wyuczoną bezradność, ale też przyczyniają się do dramatycznego obniżenia samooceny. Sama idea *fair play* też może zostać zdyskredytowana – gest piłkarza Garrinchy (wybicie piłki na aut w sytuacji, gdy przeciwnik nabawił się urazu i trzeba było mu udzielić pomocy) po kilkudziesięciu latach często stosowany jest jako dobry manewr taktyczny (tzw. „gra na czas”), a nie jako przejaw autentycznej troski o zdrowie przeciwnika.

Na szczęście istnieje przestrzeń, w której idea *kalo-kagathii* nie musi się spotkać z wyśmianiem lub wypaczeniem. Jest to okres pomiędzy zawodami. Realizowanie apelu olimpijskiego może pomóc w utrzymaniu dobrej formy dzięki optymalnemu funkcjonowaniu mentalnemu w trakcie sezonu, który na ogół wypełnia wiele skrajnych wydarzeń. Pasma zwycięstw, seria porażek, powołanie do kadry, odnowienie się kontuzji – ta huśtawka stanów emocjonalnych towarzyszących każdemu sportowcowi jest zabójcza. Brak jasnych drogowskazów może prowadzić do stanu zagubienia. Tymczasem umysł spor-



towca powinien być czysty. Dlatego też tak wartościowe (nie tylko dla zachowania ładu duszy, o którym pisał Locke [Wrońska 2012, s. 135], ale nawet ze szkoleniowego punktu widzenia) okazuje się uwzględnianie edukacji sportowo-olimpijskiej.

Harmonijny tryb życia umożliwia sportowcom osiągnięcie dojrzałości, która winna być rozumiana jako odpowiedzialne dysponowanie wolnością i swoim losem [tamże, s. 141]. Zawodnik staje się dobrze funkcjonującym przedsiębiorcą, którego kapitał (tj. talent i lata ciężkiej pracy) przykuwa uwagę potencjalnych inwestorów (tj. klubów i sponsorów). Pomaga mu w tym perfekcjonizm, który determinuje konieczność realizowania idei *kalokagathii* – jej obecność gwarantuje spokojną głowę, a w konsekwencji wymierny efekt w postaci maksymalnie wykorzystanego potencjału podczas trwającej kariery. Połączenie sportowego merkantylizmu z olimpizmem (obie te formy edukacji sprawiają wrażenie spójnych z poglądami Johna Locke’a i Johna Stuarta Milla) może doprowadzić do ukształtowania postawy, która jest bardzo zbliżona do efektu wychowania realizowanego w konwencji klasycznego liberalizmu.

Powyższe przemyślenia prowadzą do utworzenia się modelu teoretycznego przedstawionego na wykresie 1.

Pedagogika klasycznego liberalizmu w ujęciu Locke’a kładzie większy nacisk na utylitarność podejmowanych działań wychowawczych. Stąd sport traktowany jest przede wszystkim jako środek umożliwiający zadbanie o zdrowie postrzegane jako wartość autoteliczna – z jednej strony hartuje organizm, z drugiej umożliwia względnie bezkrwawe rozwiązywanie konfliktów pomiędzy zwaśnionymi ludźmi. W poglądach autora *Mysli o wychowaniu* nie brakuje postulatów, których wprowadzenie w proces wychowania może okazać się stosunkowo łatwe i skuteczne dzięki edukacji sportowo-merkantylnej. Doskonałym przykładem jest nauka o niebezpieczeństwach czyhających w życiu każdego człowieka – ich poznanie było dla Locke’a sprawą najwyższej wagi. Młody adept sportu sprawia wrażenie zdecydowanie bardziej przygotowanego mentalnie do przepełnionej pułapkami

rzeczywistości niż jego rówieśnicy pozbawieni kontaktu z rywalizacją boiskową – wynika to z ogromu presji, wyrzeczeń oraz dylematów moralnych, z jakimi musi sobie radzić każdy zawodnik. Jednak przepełniona skrajnymi emocjami sportowa przestrzeń wymaga odskoczni, dzięki której zawodnik powróci do harmonii i nie zmarnuje swojego potencjału na próbach odreagowania napięcia w sposób, który może zaszkodzić jego karierze.

Dlatego też tak cenny dla procesu oddziaływań wychowawczych wydaje się perfekcjonizm Johna Stuarta Milla. W jego ujęciu celem wychowania było wypracowanie nawyku do utrzymywania ciągłego kontaktu z nauką – właśnie taki wydzźwięk zawiera przesłanie olimpijskie. Można zatem domniemywać, że znany z zamiłowania do estetyki Mill nie omieszkaby wykorzystać w swoim programie idei *kalokagathii*, odpowiedzialnej za piękno ciała i duszy. Doprowadziłoby to jednostkę do uczestniczenia w świecie sportu, w którym olimpizm przeplata się z merkantylizmem. Wówczas wychowanek, „wyleczony” z naiwności życiowej, z pewnością jeszcze bardziej doceniłby wszelkiego rodzaju działania nastawione na pielęgnowanie przestrzeni społecznej. Wychowany na bazie greckiej kultury oraz zafascynowany rywalizacją starożytnych intelektualistów Mill zalecał przymus szkolny – można domniemywać, że gdyby żył w XXI wieku, to pokusiłby się o rozszerzenie tego obowiązku na uczestnictwo we współzawodnictwie sportowym [tamże, s. 180].

Sport, choć dla niektórych jest ostatnią szansą na sukces, dla większości społeczeństwa powinien być sposobem aktywnego spędzania wolnego czasu. Kształtuje osobowość nastawioną na ciągle poprawianie swoich osiągnięć, co determinuje samoistnie zachodzący progres jednostki oraz, w konsekwencji, może stanowić pomoc w pracy wychowawczej. Świadomość występującego tam nacisku na dewiacyjność zachowań wcale nie zwalnia z uczestnictwa – zawsze można wybrać pozbawione brutalności (ale nie cwaniactwa) sporty niekontaktowe. Powyższe formy edukacji sportowej sprawiają wrażenie cennego i zgodnego z założeniami pedagogiki klasycznego liberalizmu składnika wychowawczego.

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Kierowanie w placówce oświatowej

Directing in an Educational Establishment

Małgorzata Tomecka

Wyższa Szkoła Edukacja w Sporcie

Summary

The aim of the present work is to show the function of directing as a multi-aspect acting on employees in the management of an educational establishment. The process of education and the evaluation it involves, understood as a practical assessment study of the school, results in constant changes, which can be either catalysed or made an obstacle of by teachers in their implementation. Teachers are a professional group that perform work which is characterized by a specific service in giving themselves to others, as well as a group that is especially prone to burnout syndrome. Proper directing teachers could reduce the negative consequences of the strains put upon them. To analyse the issue, selected scientific theories characteristic of the humanities and social sciences, including sciences regarding organization and management, as well as commentaries resulting from participant observation have been used. On the basis of the gathered data it results, particular care of the educational establishment director should be those aspects of directing the teaching staff on which the director/manager has a direct influence.

Keywords: directing, communication, motivation, leadership

Streszczenie

Celem niniejszego opracowania jest pokazanie funkcji kierowania jako wieloaspektowego działania na pracowników w zarządzaniu placówką oświatową. Proces edukacji i związana z nim ewaluacja, rozumiana jako praktyczne badanie oceniające szkołę, powodują ciągłe zmiany, wobec których nauczyciele stają się katalizatorami lub przeszkodą w ich wprowadzaniu. To grupa zawodowa wykonująca pracę charakteryzującą się swoistą służbą w dawaniu siebie innym i jest szczególnie narażona na wypalanie się. Można zniwelować negatywne konsekwencje obciążeń nauczycieli poprzez właściwe nimi kierowanie. Do analizy zagadnienia zostały wykorzystane wybrane teorie naukowe, charakterystyczne dla nauk humanistycznych i społecznych, w tym nauk o organizacji i zarządzaniu, opatrzone komentarzami wynikającymi z obserwacji uczestniczącej. Z analizy zebranych danych wynika, że szczególną troską dyrektora placówki oświatowej powinny się stać te aspekty kierowania kadrą nauczycielską, na które dyrektor/zarządca ma bezpośredni wpływ.

Słowa kluczowe: kierowanie, komunikacja, motywacja, przywództwo

Wprowadzenie

Zarządzanie i kierowanie to terminy często stosowane zamiennie. Na określenie działań ukierunkowanych na ludzi spotyka się takie terminy, jak: „[...] „gospodarka kadrowa”, „zarządzanie personelem”, „zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi”, „kierowanie kadrami” i wiele innych” [Listwan 2000, s. 7]. W rozważaniach definicyjno-terminologicznych dotyczących omawianego tematu H. Król pisze o „zarządzaniu (administrowaniu, kierowaniu) personelem, zarządzaniu zasobami pracy (potencjałem pracy, zasobami ludzkimi, potencjałem społecznym, o polityce zatrudnienia i o zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim” [Król 2002, s. 1]. W moim przekonaniu zarządzać można wszystkim (informacją, gospodarstwem domowym,

zawartością portfela, wiedzą, emocjami, czasem itd.), natomiast człowiekiem należałoby kierować. W niniejszym opracowaniu przyjmuję stanowisko, że **zarządzanie to kierowanie ludźmi i dysponowanie zasobami organizacji**, a zatem sam termin „kierowanie” dotyczy wybranego obszaru zarządzania ukierunkowanego na czynnik ludzki.

Organizacje są wytworem społecznym i działają jako grupy celowe w nieustannie zmieniających się warunkach gospodarczych, politycznych, globalizacji, konkurencji, technologii, czy też nowych profesji. Na wszystkich poziomach mikro-, mezo- i makrostrukturalnych obszarów zarządczych występują sytuacje nieprzewidywalności, spontaniczności i tymczasowości w doborze metod i środków kierowania. System edukacji jest przykładem

nieustających i bardzo dynamicznych przeobrażeń w naszym kraju, a dyrektorzy szkół stają wobec konieczności stymulowania innowacyjności pracowników.

Komunikację, motywowanie i przywództwo uznają za najistotniejsze determinanty w funkcjonowaniu jednostek i grup we współczesnym świecie organizacji i zarządzania, w tym w placówce oświatowej. W wielu organizacjach rośnie popularność zespołów, które z reguły osiągają lepsze wyniki niż pojedyncze osoby, co w przypadku zindywidualizowanego środowiska nauczycieli stanowi znaczącą trudność w aspekcie kierowania. Efektywny członek zespołu to ten, który wychodzi poza osobiste cele dla dobra zespołu (organizacji), a komunikacja jest jednym ze środków prowadzących do efektywnej działalności w grupach. Choć w teorii jest to możliwe, to jednak w praktyce doskonała komunikacja nie istnieje, natomiast możliwy jest wzrost jej skuteczności poprzez właściwe rozpoznanie działających w niej mechanizmów.

Istnieją różne sposoby wyjaśniania, dlaczego niektórzy ludzie wkładają więcej wysiłku w swoją pracę niż inni. Należy zatem przyrzeć się wczesnym i współczesnym teoriom motywacji w aspekcie wartości prognostycznej. Czynniki motywujące w edukacji są zdeterminowane specyfiką uwarunkowań systemowych i charakterem świadczonej pracy na rynku usług oświatowych. Zwiększenie wydajności pracy, co w przypadku nauczycieli oznacza wyniki udokumentowane zewnętrznymi egzaminami, jak również zadowolenie pracownika w systemie oświaty, to pojęcia trudne do zdefiniowania, ale możliwe do uogólnienia.

Dyrektor, kierownik, zarządca, menedżer czy też lider są określeniami osoby, która potrafi przewodzić innym ludziom. W praktyce często trudno ocenić stosunki między przywódcą a członkami grupy, stopień złożoności zadań, czy też pozycję władczą. Zachowania ludzi w pracy rzadko są zjawiskiem przypadkowym i można je rozpatrywać na poziomie jednostki, grupy i systemu organizacyjnego. Wiedza o modelach ułatwiających rozpoznanie skutecznych sposobów oddziaływania na podwładnych, z uwzględnieniem teorii przywództwa i podstaw sprawowania władzy, powinna ułatwić w praktyce wyjaśnianie, przewidywanie i kontrolę nauczycieli z perspektywy dyrektora placówki oświatowej.

Mając powyższe na uwadze, interesujące wydaje się być poznanie tych aspektów kierowania kadrą pedagogiczną, na które dyrektor placówki oświatowej ma wpływ, a które z punktu widzenia nauczyciela są ważne dla zniwelowania niekorzystnych obciążeń związanych z wykonywanym zawodem. W celu analizy tego zagadnienia zostaną wykorzystane założenia wybranych teorii naukowych charakterystycznych dla nauk humanistycznych i społecznych, w tym nauk o organizacji i zarządzaniu. Praca ma charakter teoretyczno-przeglądowy z wykorzystaniem takich metod badawczych, jak analiza literatury przedmiotu i obserwacja uczestnicząca.

Komunikacja w edukacji

Edukacja i komunikacja masowa stanowią czynniki rozwoju kulturowego i cywilizacyjnego współczesnych społeczeństw. Obecnie skuteczne organizacje to te, które sprzyjają zmianom, innowacjom i opanowały sztukę ich wprowadzania. System edukacji jest przykładem nieustających przeobrażeń, a dyrektorzy szkół stają wobec konieczności stymulowania innowacyjności pracowników. Koncepcja ciągłego doskonalenia sama w sobie sugeruje ustawiczne zmiany i nauczyciele wobec tych zmian mogą być katalizatorami lub przeszkodą na drodze do ich wprowadzenia. Opór wobec zmian może opóźnić dostosowanie się i postęp organizacji. W procesie zmian niezbędna staje się zatem właściwa komunikacja.

Żadna grupa nie ma prawa istnieć bez transmisji znaczeń między jej członkami. Komunikacja jest związana z pracowniczym układem hierarchicznym oraz spełnia formalną i nieformalną funkcję kontrolną. Wszystko, co jest przewidziane oficjalnymi regułami postępowania, jest formalnym układem przywilejów i obowiązków dotyczących pracownika i pracodawcy. Natomiast komunikacja i sprawowanie kontroli może mieć przebieg nieformalny, poza ustalonymi oficjalnymi regułami postępowania. Zaznaczyć trzeba, że „komunikacja nieformalna sprzyja też lepszej wymianie informacji między kierownikiem a pracownikami” [Karwacki 2007, s. 597]. Często w taki właśnie sposób dyrektor szkoły uzyskuje informacje, do których nie miałby dostępu w przypadku formalnego ich przyływu, oraz świadomie rezygnuje z pisemnej formy komunikacji. W rzeczywistości szkolnej jest to zjawisko powszechne i niepokojące, bowiem zażyłość w kontaktach powoduje rozluźnienie dyscypliny pracy, a nieoficjalne rozmowy prowadzone są jedynie z wybranymi nauczycielami.

Przekazywanie informacji między członkami organizacji odbywa się poprzez komunikaty ustne, pisemne i niewerbalne. Komunikacja ustna jest głównym sposobem przekazywania informacji na zasadach formalnych rozmów, przemówień, dyskusji zarówno *face to face*, jak i w grupie. W małych grupach/zespołach pracowniczych często występują formalne sieci komunikacji, takie jak: „łańcuch”, „koło” czy „kokon”, a ich skuteczność zależy od celów/zadań zespołu. Natomiast jedną z popularnych form komunikacji ustnej jest nieformalna sieć plotek i pogłosek. Z badań wynika, że sieć ta przekazuje dokładne informacje w 75%. W organizacjach występują takie zjawiska, jak tajemniczość i rywalizacja, co stwarza warunki do pojawiania się pogłosek stanowiących przedmiot podniecających plotek [Robbins 1998, s. 224–227]. W reakcji na to, co jest dla nas ważne, niejednoznaczne i niepokojące, pojawiają się pogłoski, które utrzymują się aż do momentu spełnienia oczekiwań, ograniczenia lub ustąpienia niepokojów. Plotki i pogłoski są ważną częścią sieci komunikacyjnej, która wskazuje zarządzającym or-

ganizacją na sprawy ważne i budzące niepokój podwładnych. Najważniejszymi zaletami komunikacji ustnej są prędkość i sprzężenie zwrotne, a główną wadą efekt „głuchego telefonu” [Robbins 1998, s. 221].

Sieć plotek i pogłosek jest cennym instrumentem przełożenia oficjalnego komunikatu na własny żargon pracowniczy. Z uwagi na trudność w wyeliminowaniu tego rodzaju sieci przełożony powinien wykorzystać ją do swoich potrzeb. Mimo że istnieje możliwość rozpowszechniania szkodliwych informacji, sieć można wykorzystać np. do szybkiego zbadania reakcji na jakąś decyzję jeszcze przed jej ostatecznym podjęciem. Posłużę się przykładem, jakim było w niedalekiej przeszłości uzyskanie przez kierownictwo szkoły, w której pracuję, informacji na temat opinii nauczycieli o zamiarze wprowadzenia e-dzienników zamiast tradycyjnej dokumentacji. Pomysł spotkał się ze znaczącym, nieformalnym oporem, wynikającym z braków logistycznych do jego wprowadzenia. Następnie podczas formalnej dyskusji podano delikatnie w wątpliwość zasadność przedsięwzięcia, co w konsekwencji oddaliło jego realizację w czasie.

Drugim sposobem przekazywania i pozyskiwania informacji jest komunikacja pisemna, do której zaliczamy każdą formę przekazywania na piśmie słów i symboli. Główną zaletą tego rodzaju komunikatów jest to, że są materialne i sprawdzalne oraz można je przechowywać przez długi czas. Podczas procesu pisania dokładniej możemy przemyśleć, co chcemy przekazać, i starannie dobieramy słowa. Ujemnym skutkiem tego rodzaju komunikacji jest jej czasochłonność oraz brak sprzężenia zwrotnego [Robbins 1998, s. 221, 222]. Zatem najczęściej nie ma żadnej pewności co do trafności odbioru komunikatu zgodnie z zamierzeniem. Komunikaty pisemne w szkole, zamieszczane na tablicach ogłoszeń lub w dziennikach zarządzeń, są istotnym narzędziem organizującym pracę nauczycieli, którzy są zobowiązani do zapoznania się z ich treścią. Natomiast kierownictwo nie ma pewności, czy komunikaty zostały we właściwym czasie odczytane, zrozumiane i czy doszło do realizacji przydzielonych zadań. Problem powstaje w sytuacji absencji nauczyciela, którego nikt nie informuje o stosownych, oficjalnych zaleceniach, zmianach, wymogach itd. Zdarza się również, że nauczyciel kończąc pracę, zapoznaje się z wytycznymi kierownictwa, a już następnego dnia jest zaskoczony zmianą, np. ma dodatkowe zastępstwo lub dyżur. Jeśli w odpowiednim momencie zapozna się ze zmianami, to zrealizuje zadanie, a jeśli nie zdąży, to powstaje problem. W dzisiejszej zbiurokratyzowanej szkole ten rodzaj komunikatów jest powszechny i nader uciążliwy dla wszystkich zaangażowanych w proces kształcenia. Przeróżne wymogi i związana z nimi konieczność wprowadzania stosownych procedur przekraczają czasem granice absurdu.

Komunikacja niewerbalna nie jest tak oczywista, jak się wydaje. Ruchy ciała są ważnym elementem komuni-

kacji, ale wnioski wynikające z ich obserwacji muszą być ostrożne. Komunikacji niewerbalnej niemal zawsze towarzyszą komunikaty ustne. Powinny pozostawać ze sobą w zgodzie, wzmacniając się wzajemnie, a jeśli są sprzeczne, to cierpi na tym przejrzystość komunikatu. Pozycja, ruch ciała, odległość między nadawcą a odbiorcą oraz wyraz twarzy to podstawowe elementy, na bazie których odczytujemy mowę ciała [Robbins 1998, s. 222, 223]. Nie mniej istotnymi determinantami rozpoznawania się w wielości znaczeń są intonacja, spojrzenie, paralingwistyka, otoczenie czy ubiór. Każdy człowiek jest jednym wielkim komunikatem, a mowa ciała służy często wyrażaniu skumulowanych w nim emocji. Nauczyciele są zazwyczaj uważnymi obserwatorami zachowań niewerbalnych uczniów, potrafiącymi właściwie je zinterpretować. Oznacza to, że tak samo poprawnie odczytują język ciała swoich kolegów i przełożonych. Kierownictwo szkoły często zapomina o predyspozycjach podwładnych w tym zakresie i nie przywiązuje należytej uwagi do tego typu komunikatów wysyłanych w stronę nauczycieli i odwrotnie.

Znaczące w komunikacji i kierowaniu są emocje, bowiem „to emocje czynią niekiedy życie możliwym do zniesienia, a nawet pięknym” oraz „sprawiają, że życie jest godne człowieka” [Zimbardo, Ruch 1998, s. 352]. Odczuwanie emocji jest subiektywnym procesem psychicznym, a niewłaściwe obchodzenie się z nimi może wywoływać zaburzenia natury psychicznej, psychosomatycznej i innych stanów chorobowych. „Proces emocjonalny jest odpowiedzią mechanizmów regulacji na sygnały posiadające znaczenie dla biologicznej bądź psychicznej równowagi podmiotu” [Stolecka 2011, s. 154]. Źródłem emocji negatywnych jest wszystko to, co zakłóca równowagę, a źródłem emocji pozytywnych to, co tę równowagę przywraca. Poziom aktywacji (intensywność) powoduje zmiany, które wyrażają się we wzroście lub spadku napięcia emocjonalnego od pobudzenia do zubożenia. Natomiast dodatni znak emocji jest związany ze stanem przyjemności, a ujemny ze stanem przykrości. Treść emocji pozwala na jakościowe określenie różnic między emocjami i nadanie im określonego, czytelnego dla podmiotu i otoczenia wyrazu, jak np. złość, smutek [Stolecka 2011, s. 153, 154].

Gdy natężenie emocji staje się duże i obejmuje sieć skojarzeń, przybierają na sile procesy wyolbrzymiania i niedoceniań. To może spowodować, że człowiek spostrzeżę, wyobraża sobie lub myśli w sposób zniekształcony pod wpływem przeżywanego stanu. W takiej sytuacji traci on zdolność do obiektywnego spostrzegania i obiektywnej oceny rzeczywistości, z uwagi na swoje aktualne odczucia. Wszystkie aspekty życia społecznego są związane z wymianą emocji z innymi ludźmi, co wywiera ogromny wpływ na nasze życie. Nie zawsze jednak dostrzegamy, jak takie procesy przebiegają. Emocje zależne są od sytuacji, od tego, jak zrozumiemy nasze pobudzenie (+, -) oraz od zjawiska empatii. Relacje z innymi

osobami w dużej mierze nieświadomie kształtują nasze emocje. Ponieważ zjawisko „zarażania się wzajemnie emocjami” dotyczy nie tylko jednostek, ale także grup, obserwuje się, że w ciągu zaledwie 2 godzin u wszystkich osób w grupie wytwarza się dobry lub zły nastrój [Stolecka 2011, s. 156 – 158].

Rzadko kiedy ktokolwiek zastanawia się nad emocjonalnością nauczycieli, bowiem z reguły wychodzi się z założenia, że zawód ten wykonują osoby o wysokim stopniu profesjonalizmu, zrównoważone emocjonalnie. Natomiast nauczyciel musi mieć świadomość swoich emocji i ich wpływu na uczniów, którzy je odbierają i dostosowują się do nich. Emocjonalność dyrektora jest nie mniej znacząca w sytuacji kierowniczej, uwzględniającej dłuższe spotkania pracownicze, jak np. kilkugodzinne konferencje rady pedagogicznej. Doświadczenie negatywnych emocji jest rzeczą naturalną w zawodzie nauczycielskim i poważnym błędem jest ich ukrywanie za wszelką cenę. Lepszym rozwiązaniem wydaje się być głośne przyznanie się do emocjonalnego dyskomfortu i uprzedzenie o możliwości wystąpienia negatywnych konsekwencji. Nauczyciel czy dyrektor może poinformować (co i tak jest widoczne), że jest np. zirytowany z uwagi na jakąś sytuację czy osobę, i prosić, aby w danej chwili otoczenie było dla niego wyrozumiałe.

Szczególnie w zarządzaniu ukierunkowanym na ludzi ważne jest zagadnienie wpływu społecznego, który oznacza wszystkie rodzaje oddziaływań jednych ludzi na drugich. W interakcjach społecznych wpływ ten dokonuje się zwykle podczas komunikacji, a jego celem jest dokonanie zmiany przekonań i postaw, poprzez które następuje zmiana działań i zachowań. Cialdini wymienił 6 reguł wpływu na ludzi. **Reguła wzajemności** to kulturowy nakaz odwdzięczania się za otrzymany dar, a jej siła polega między innymi na tym, że ulegamy niechcianym przysługom. **Reguła wzajemności ustępstw** osłabia naszą czujność i sprawia, że najprawdopodobniej ustąpimy pod wpływem kogoś, komu niezręcznie nam odmówić. **Reguła zaangażowania i konsekwencji** jest związana z zamiarem konsekwentnej realizacji zamierzonego celu dla osiągnięcia dobrego samopoczucia. Lubimy być konsekwentni, ponieważ jest to cecha nagradzana społecznie, a brak konsekwencji powoduje obniżenie naszej oceny. **Reguła społecznego dowodu słuszności** decyduje o tym, jakie poglądy czy zachowania uznamy za właściwe. Często stosujemy się do opinii innych ludzi, kiedy nie jesteśmy przekonani o słuszności własnego wyboru, jesteśmy mniej pewni siebie i mamy niewystarczającą wiedzę. **Reguła sympatii** dotyczy ulegania wpływowi osób, które po prostu lubimy, a im więcej przyjemnych skojarzeń, komplementów, tym większa sympatia. Im większa sympatia, tym bardziej osłabiona jest nasza czujność. Ingracjacja to jedna z technik manipulacji skoncentrowana na samoocenie i oznaczająca nieuczciwe wkradanie się w łaski drogą sympatii. **Reguła autorytetu** wska-

zuje, że reagujemy raczej na symbole autorytetu niż na konkretną osobę. Autorytet daje nam poczucie bezpieczeństwa, a upodobnienie się do niego dostarcza przyjemności i podnosi samoocenę. **Reguła niedostępności** pokazuje, że to, co jest mniej dostępne, jest bardziej wartościowe, bowiem niedostępność zwiększa pragnienie posiadania. W przypadku tajności niektórych informacji pozwala ona ludziom na poczucie bycia w elicie wybranych [cit. za: Hamer 2005, s. 212–271]. Zaprezentowane powyżej reguły znajdują odzwierciedlenie w rzeczywistości szkolnej w różnych relacjach: nauczyciel – uczeń, nauczyciel – nauczyciel, dyrektor – nauczyciel, nauczyciel – rodzic oraz dyrektor – rodzic.

Wpływ społeczny jest pojęciem szerszym niż manipulacja, której cechą charakterystyczną jest zysk manipulatora kosztem manipulowanego. Manipulować można również treścią i sposobem przekazywania informacji, czyli procesem komunikacji. Wywieranie wpływu interpersonalnego jest istotą kierowania, a zarządzanie w edukacji nie jest wolne od manipulacji. Istnieją sposoby, aby się przed nią bronić, głównie dzięki wiedzy o jej technikach. W procesie kierowania szczególnej wagi nabierają kompetencje komunikacyjne, zachowania, wzorce i zasady współpracy stwarzane przez dyrektora szkoły oraz klimaty emocjonalne. Nie bez znaczenia jest asertywność, a u jej podstaw poszanowanie godności drugiego człowieka i empatia. Posłuszeństwo wobec autorytetu dyrektora jest silnie zakorzenione w społeczności szkolnej i przynosi oczywiste korzyści, ale z drugiej strony prowadzi do zbytnej uległości wobec niego. Tylko komunikacja otwarta stanowi podstawę efektywności kierującego w placówce oświatowej.

Motywacja w edukacji

Istnieje związek pomiędzy emocjami a efektywnością działań, o którym pisze J. Reykowski: „Pobudzenie emocjonalne i intensywność motywacji to zjawiska w zasadzie identyczne, a więc te same twierdzenia, które wypowiada się na temat intensywności motywacji, mogą odnosić się do pobudzenia emocjonalnego. [...] Źródła procesów emocjonalnych mogą być identyczne ze źródłami procesów motywacyjnych – i jedne, i drugie bywają następstwem tego samego zaburzenia równowagi w systemie regulacji. Co więcej, procesom motywacyjnym w trakcie ich przebiegu towarzyszą określone zmiany emocjonalne, a w związku z tym stan emocjonalny może być wskaźnikiem aktualnego poziomu motywacji. Z tych i innych jeszcze niewymienionych tu względów można traktować diagnozę procesów emocjonalnych i procesów motywacyjnych jako czynność w wielu wypadkach niemal identyczną” [cyt. za: Stolecka 2011, s. 151]. Efektywność poszczególnych osób w organizacji jest zależna nie tylko od ich uzdolnień, ale również od motywacji. O znaczeniu ciężkiej pracy w osiąganiu powodzenia mówił już Albert

Einstein: „Geniusz to 10% polotu i 90% potu” [cyt. za: Robbins 1998, s. 87]. Mniej sformalizowaną definicją motywacji jest chęć zrobienia czegoś dla zaspokojenia jakiejś potrzeby.

W latach 50. ubiegłego wieku sformułowano trzy konkretne teorie motywacji, a na ich podstawie rozwinęły się teorie współczesne. Choć te wczesne teorie spotyka krytyka i ich zasadność jest kwestionowana, to praktycy zarządzania wciąż się nimi posługują. Najbardziej znanym sposobem rozpoznawania motywacji jest powszechnie znana **teoria hierarchii potrzeb Abrahama Masłowa**. Potrzeby pojawiają się według porządku w taki sposób, że zaspokojenie potrzeby niższego rzędu umożliwia pojawienie się potrzeby wyższego rzędu. **Teoria autonomii funkcjonalnej** jest poprawką G. Allporta do hierarchii potrzeb Masłowa i zawiera się w stwierdzeniu, że „u ludzi dorosłych (jak wszyscy wiemy) kolejność zaspakajania i waga potrzeb bywa różna” [Hamer 2005, s. 131]. Teoria Masłowa zdobyła uznanie dzięki logiczności.

Teoria X i teoria Y Douglasa McGregora poddają analizie sposób postępowania kierowników z pracownikami i kształtują ich zachowania w stosunku do pracowników. Kierownik stosujący teorię X przyjmuje cztery założenia:

1. „Pracownicy z natury nie lubią pracy i unikają jej, kiedy tylko to jest możliwe.
2. Skoro pracownicy nie lubią pracy, musi się ich zmuszać, sprawować nad nimi kontrolę lub grozić im karą, by osiągnąć zamierzone cele.
3. Pracownicy unikają odpowiedzialności. Chcą otrzymywać wyraźne dyrektywy, kiedy tylko to jest możliwe.
4. Większość pracowników ponad wszystkie inne czynniki związane z pracą ceni bezpieczeństwo i wykazuje się małą ambicją.”

Natomiast w teorii Y kierownik przyjmuje cztery inne założenia:

1. „Pracownicy uważają pracę za coś równie naturalnego jak odpoczynek albo zabawa.
2. Człowiek angażujący się w dążenie do osiągnięcia celów sam sobą kieruje i sprawuje nad sobą kontrolę.
3. Przeciwny człowiek może się nauczyć przyjmowania odpowiedzialności, a nawet może do niej dążyć.
4. Uzdolnienia twórcze – to znaczy umiejętność podejmowania trafnych decyzji – powszechnie występują w całej populacji i niekoniecznie są wyłączną domeną kierownictwa” [cyt. za: Robbins 1998, s. 91, 92].

Jeżeli odniesiemy teorie McGregora do hierarchii potrzeb Masłowa, to w założeniach teorii X ludzie są zdominowani przez potrzeby niższego rzędu, w założeniach teorii Y – przez potrzeby wyższego rzędu. Autor teorii X i Y przyjął za bardziej uzasadnioną teorię Y. Choć nie ma dowodów na uzasadnienie jednych czy drugich założeń dla zwiększenia motywacji pracowników, zarówno jedne, jak

i drugie mogą być trafne z powodu uwzględnienia czynników sytuacyjnych.

Uznając, że stosunek człowieka do pracy zależy od jego postawy wobec pracy, Frederick Herzberg opracował **teorię czynników motywacyjnych i higienicznych**. Ustalił również, że zadowolenie z pracy jest związane z czynnikami wewnętrznymi takimi, jak: uznanie, rozwój osobisty, awanse, odpowiedzialność, sama praca czy osiągnięcia. Natomiast niezadowolenie z pracy jest spowodowane czynnikami zewnętrznymi – polityką firmy, systemem administracji, nadzorem, stosunkami międzyludzkimi, warunkami pracy i płacami. Zdaniem Herzberga, kierownicy eliminując czynniki powodujące niezadowolenie w pracy, będą raczej uspakajać pracowników niż prowadzić ich do większej motywacji [Robbins 1998, s. 92–95]. Mimo krytyki teorii Herzberga, podobnie jak teorii Masłowa czy McGregora, wszystkie zdobyły znaczącą popularność i jest niewielu zarządzających, którzy nie znaliby ich zaleceń. Wszystkie wymienione teorie mają zastosowanie, w większym lub mniejszym stopniu, również we współczesnym kierowaniu kadrą nauczycielską.

Wielość teorii motywacyjnych czy motywowania powoduje, że zasadna jest prezentacja wybranych współczesnych teorii motywacji, które – wedle mojej oceny – mają istotne znaczenie w kierowaniu placówką oświatową. Według psychologów spośród licznych czynników, które wpływają na nasze myślenie i działanie, szczególnie ważne są **dwa motywy społeczne**: „Pierwszy dotyczy potrzeby posiadania słuszności, dotarcia do prawdy i zachowania się odpowiedniego do sytuacji. Drugi natomiast to potrzeba podtrzymania poczucia własnej wartości (wysokiej samooceny zależnej często silnie od opinii innych ludzi)” [Hamer 2005, s. 127]. Dla zachowania dobrego mniemania o sobie zwykle dokonujemy wyboru tendencyjnie zniekształconego obrazu świata zamiast adekwatnej jego percepcji. Poza tym oba motywy często pozostają ze sobą w sprzeczności, bowiem dla lepszego samopoczucia zniekształcamy fakty, chociaż nie całkowicie [Hamer 2005, s. 127]. W przełożeniu na środowisko szkolne koncepcja tych dwóch wpływów jest zasadniczo czytelna, bowiem nauczyciel z jednej strony:

- chce mieć słuszność – być nieomylnym, mieć zawsze rację;
- ma potrzebę prawdy – zgłębia niezbędną specyficzną i ogólną wiedzę;
- dostosowuje się do sytuacji – zwykle właściwie reaguje na zajęciach i „nie wychodzi przed szereg” na konferencjach.

Z drugiej strony dla zachowania dobrego samopoczucia nauczyciel ma potrzebę poczucia wysokiej wartości opartej głównie o to, „co sądzą o mnie inni?” – kierownictwo szkoły, uczniowie, rodzice, inni nauczyciele i pozostali pracownicy. Zapewne zmodyfikuje zalety pierwszego wpływu w taki sposób, który umożliwi mu funkcjonowanie we właściwym dla niego samopoczuciu.

ciu. W przypadku dyrektora placówki oświatowej, który najczęściej jest również nauczycielem, potrzeba poczucia własnej, wysokiej wartości jest zwielokrotniona zakresem obszarów jego oceny.

W następnej kolejności wymieniam zjawisko **facylitacji społecznej** jako „procesu polegającego na tym, że obecność innych ludzi zwiększa mobilizację organizmu wskutek silnego pobudzenia fizjologicznego. Nawet karaluchy pokonują labirynt szybciej, gdy inne karaluchy im się przyglądają” [Hamer 2005, s. 128, 129]. Głównie chodzi o to, że obecność innych ludzi jest dla nas czynnikiem motywującym do lepszej pracy, jednak nie zawsze. W zadaniach prostych, dobrze wyćwiczonych i typowych przy obecności innych ludzi nastąpi poprawa sprawności ich wykonania. Natomiast wykonywanie zadań trudnych, skomplikowanych i źle przygotowanych znacząco się pogarsza, szczególnie kiedy jesteśmy lub czujemy się niekompetentni. Poziom skuteczności naszych działań zależy zatem od obecności innych ludzi, a nie tylko od kompetencji [Hamer 2005, s. 128]. Szkoła jest szczególnym rodzajem organizacji, w której zjawisko facylitacji społecznej występuje nieprzerwanie każdego dnia. Kompetentni nauczyciele, których jest wielu, codziennie wypadają błyskotliwie przed audytorium uczniów, a ci mniej kompetentni i z tremą szybciej się wypalają. Nawet wprawny mówca, jakim jest niewątpliwie nauczyciel, nie będzie wolny od wpływu facylitacji społecznej w warunkach dla niego nowych, trudnych lub takich, do których nie był w pełni przygotowany. Mam tu na względzie wszelkiego rodzaju zebrania z rodzicami, szczególnie te organizowane pierwszy raz, kiedy spontaniczność i nieprzewidywalność mają swoje konsekwencje we wzajemnych relacjach. Myślę również o konferencjach rady pedagogicznej, konkursach międzyszkolnych czy na szerszą skalę, przeróżnych kursach i szkoleniach, w których aspekt trudności, skomplikowania czy kompetencji jest nadzwyczaj wyraźny. Zjawisko facylitacji może przybrać szersze ramy z uwagi na wielość wypełnianych funkcji/obowiązków przez dyrektora/nauczyciela. Oczywiście wraz z doświadczeniem i nabywaniem coraz to nowych kompetencji zawodowych i społecznych maleje negatywny wpływ zjawiska facylitacji.

Kolejną, opartą o udokumentowane podstawy, istotną teorią jest **teoria trzech potrzeb**, którą opracował David McClelland i jego współpracownicy. Według niej w miejscu pracy występują trzy motywy lub potrzeby:

1. „Potrzeba osiągnięć – dążenie do wyróżniania się, do osiągnięć w odniesieniu do określonego zbioru norm, do zdobycia powodzenia.
2. Potrzeba władzy – potrzeba powodowania, aby inni postępowali w sposób zgodny z zamierzeniem danej osoby.
3. Potrzeba przynależności – pragnienie przyjacielskich, bliskich stosunków międzyludzkich” [cyt. za: Robbins 1998, s. 95, 96].

Nauczyciel ma potrzebę osiągnięć w sferze nauczanego przedmiotu i, jak to ujmuje znakomity filozof i socjolog Florian Znaniecki, „urabianych” przez niego wychowankach [Znaniecki 2001, t. 2]. Chce uczyć lepiej i inaczej niż ktokolwiek do tej pory. W sposób szczególnie takie dążenia dotyczą początkujących nauczycieli i tych zaangażowanych w zawodową rywalizację. Odczuwanie pragnienia osobistych osiągnięć jest w edukacji jednym z najważniejszych determinantów motywacyjnych. Nagrody za sukces po prostu „bywają”, a ich atrakcyjność jest daleko niewystarczająca. Odpowiedzialność i rozwiązywanie problemów w tym zawodzie to codzienność, a informację zwrotną o swoich działaniach nauczyciele otrzymują natychmiast. Zarówno nauczyciel, jak i dyrektor szkoły o dużej potrzebie osiągnięć podejmują ryzyko w swoich działaniach zawodowych, gdy prawdopodobieństwo powodzenia i niepowodzenia będzie mniej więcej jednakowe. Wykonywanie zawodu nauczyciela jest działaniem w warunkach posiadania władzy, ale jej wysoka potrzeba może zaciemnić obraz nauczycielskiej powinności. Należy mieć wpływ na uczniów, sprawować nad nimi nieustanną kontrolę i być osobą dla nich znaczącą, ale nie kosztem efektów nauczania. Zjawisko rywalizacji może wystąpić pomiędzy nauczycielami, u których istnieje wysoki poziom omawianego motywu, oraz pomiędzy nauczycielem i dyrektorem. Dyrektor ma podobne pragnienia jak nauczyciel, a nie byłby zarządcą/kierownikiem, gdyby nie odczuwał większej potrzeby władzy.

Jednostki, którymi są nauczyciel czy dyrektor, przystępują do grup z powodu kilku przyczyn, a należą do nich: potrzeba bezpieczeństwa, pozycji, wysokiej samooceny, przynależności, siły i osiągania celów. Dzięki temu otrzymują pewne korzyści, takie jak: zmniejszenie niebezpieczeństwa związanego z osamotnieniem, możliwość uzyskania uznania i prestiżu, poczucia własnej wartości. Liczebność grupy i współdziałanie dają jej siłę do wykonania określonego zadania czy pracy. W zakładach pracy występują grupy formalne i nieformalne, które mają swoich liderów. Również w szkole funkcjonuje taki podział i należy zaznaczyć wagę grupy w odniesieniu do jednostki, która nie przynależąc do żadnej z nich, zostaje wyalienowana. O ile w przypadku dyrektora takie wyobcowanie jest często naturalne (wynika ze sprawowania funkcji zarządczej), o tyle dla szeregowego nauczyciela pod wieloma względami jest mało komfortowe.

Kary i nagrody są również motywatorami i narzędziami wpływu społecznego. H. Hamer szczegółowo opisuje, kiedy kary i nagrody najlepiej motywują, czyli są skuteczne w procesie zmiany negatywnej postawy. „Kara to dowolne zdarzenie, które występując po jakiejś reakcji obniża prawdopodobieństwo jej wystąpienia w przyszłości”, nagroda natomiast podwyższa takie prawdopodobieństwo [Hamer 2005, s. 133, 134]. Według Edwarda Deciego w karach i nagrodach zawie-

rają się dwie informacje: aspekt kompetencji i kontroli. W pierwszym przypadku kara informuje o osiągniętej niskiej efektywności/ sprawności działania, a nagroda – o wysokiej. W drugim kara informuje, czego chcemy uniknąć, a nagroda o tym, co jest ważne i do czego dążymy [cyt. za: Hamer 2005, s. 134]. Jeśli nauczyciel lub dyrektor wykorzystuje do zmiany postaw tego typu narzędzia, to zobowiązany jest pamiętać, że nagroda jest lepsza od kary z uwagi na utrwalenie pożądanego zachowania. Poza tym w przypadku kary ważniejsza jest konsekwencja niż siła i nieuchronność od surowości. Należy natomiast zaznaczyć, że nagrody mogą mieć również destrukcyjny wpływ na osoby pracujące tylko dla tego rodzaju motywacji. W edukacji system kar i nagród jest mało elastyczny, zdecydowanie subiektywny i słabo dostosowany do dynamiki zmian na rynku dóbr oświatowych. Dzisiaj rzeczywistość szkolna jest zdominowana nie przez nagrody i kary, ale przez biurokrację, spowodowaną niestabilnym prawem oświatowym i brakiem zaufania w miejscu pracy.

W tym miejscu przedstawiam teorię, która moim zdaniem, skupia wszystkie inne w jedną zwartą całość – **sprawiedliwość**. W teorii sprawiedliwości [Robbins 1998, s. 101–104] chodzi o to, że pracownicy nie żyją w próżni i mierzą to, co wnoszą do pracy, oraz to, co z niej uzyskują. Własne nakłady i efekty porównują z innymi osobami w miejscu pracy i często uznają, że występuje stan niesprawiedliwości. Kiedy pojawia się niesprawiedliwość, to znaczy, że pracownicy uzyskują niedostateczne lub nazbyt wysokie nagrody.

Według tej teorii pracownik/nauczyciel dostrzegający niesprawiedliwość wybiera jedną lub więcej z poniższych możliwości:

1. „Zniekształca obraz nakładów lub wyników albo własnych, albo cudzych.
2. Zachowuje się tak, aby skłonić innych do zmiany ich nakładów lub wyników.
3. Zachowuje się tak, aby zmienić własne nakłady lub wyniki.
4. Wybiera odmienny punkt odniesienia.
5. Odchodzi z pracy” [Robbins 1998, s. 102].

Pierwsze cztery możliwości są często stosowane przez nauczycieli. Wyjątek stanowi ostatnia sytuacja. Odejście z pracy nauczyciela z powodu stanu niesprawiedliwości jest zjawiskiem marginalnym, ponieważ obecnie to nie nauczyciele rezygnują z pracy, tylko ich się jej pozbawia. Z perspektywy dyrektora i nauczyciela zasada sprawiedliwości ma ogromne znaczenie motywujące. Zarówno względna, jak i bezwzględna wartość nagród wywiera znaczący wpływ na pracowników. Dotyczy to szczególnie środowiska szkolnego, w którym uczy się młodych ludzi poszanowania wielu zasad, a sprawiedliwość wobec podwładnych wydaje się być tą dominującą. Należy również zwrócić uwagę na to, że w obecnym systemie wynagrodzeń pracowników oświatowych niewiele jest motywatorów finansowych nauczycieli, którymi może dyspo-

nować dyrektor. Poza ogólnie znanymi i obowiązującymi szczeblami awansów zawodowych dyrektorzy szkół mają możliwość przyznania dodatków motywacyjnych i nagród dyrektora. Powszechnie wiadomo, że czynnik ekonomiczny jest najsilniejszym motywatorem ludzkich działań. Dyrektorzy mają możliwość symbolicznego, niematerialnego nagradzania nauczycieli, ale korzystają z tej formy stosunkowo rzadko, co uznają za poważny błąd w kierowaniu przez motywowanie. Truizmem wydaje się stwierdzenie, że nawet zwykłe: „Dziękuję za dobrze wykonaną pracę” może dostarczyć podwładnemu dużego zadowolenia i będzie znaczącym czynnikiem motywującym. Natomiast celowa deprecjacja działań nauczyciela, do którego dyrektor ma stosunek negatywny, powoduje nie tylko frustrację u podwładnego, ale wpływa również niszcząco na jego system motywacyjny i prowadzi do poczucia głębokiej niesprawiedliwości.

Wybrane teorie przywództwa a edukacja

Przywództwo to działanie, jak pisze Jacenta Łucewicz, polegające „na zwiększeniu zaangażowania i «naładowania» pracowników energią”. Taki stan rzeczy ujawnia się w kilku aspektach: „pracownicy czują się ważni, uczenie się i kompetencje są istotne, praca jest ekscytująca, a pracownicy stanowią część wspólnoty” [Łucewicz 2002, s. 34]. Nieodzownym atrybutem przywódcy staje się odpowiedzialność i swoista służba, a od przywódcy jako szefa organizacji oczekuje się najwięcej. Rola przywódcy wymaga od kierującego organizacją umiejętności komunikowania się, sprawnego działania i kreatywnego myślenia. Przywódca/dyrektor powinien wywierać wpływ (pozytywny) i wykazywać się zdolnością do podejmowania ryzyka, reagowania na zmiany, delegowania zadań i zwiększania uprawnień w zakresie odpowiedzialności. Właśnie taki dyrektor w dobie współczesnych dynamicznych zmian w systemie oświaty jest jednostką pożądaną.

Źródła wpływu na grupę dla osiągania określonych celów mogą mieć charakter formalny, jak i nieformalny. Jest wiele opracowań poświęconych przywództwu, a niektóre z nich pozostają ze sobą w sprzeczności. Omówię zatem skrótowo cztery koncepcje [cyt. za: Robbins 1998, s. 238–263], z których wynika, co składa się na skuteczne przywództwo z uwzględnieniem kierowania w placówce oświatowej.

Pierwszą jest **teoria cech**, za pomocą której starano się wyróżnić cechy systematycznie wiążące się z przywództwem. S.P. Robbins zwraca uwagę, że gdybyśmy na podstawie ogólnych określeń stosowanych w mediach mieli opisać przywódcę na podstawie takich cech jak: inteligencja, charyzma, prawość, siła itd., doszlibyśmy do wniosku, że przywódca w 1/3 odznacza się cechami harcerza, a w 2/3 Chrystusa. W tej teorii wyróżniono sześć cech różniących przywódców od nie-przywódców, a mia-

nowicie: „Ambicja i energia, pragnienie przewodzenia innym i wywierania na nich wpływu, uczciwość i prawość, wiara w siebie, inteligencja, głęboka wiedza techniczna w dziedzinie objętej zakresem odpowiedzialności przywódcy” [cyt. za: Robbins 1998, s. 240].

Wymienione wyżej cechy nie wystarczają do wyjaśnienia istoty przywództwa, zwiększają jedynie prawdopodobieństwo tego, że dana osoba będzie skutecznym przywódcą. Wadą teorii cech jest to, że nie uwzględnia czynników sytuacyjnych. Rozpoczęto zatem badanie istoty przywództwa poprzez wyszukiwanie szczególnych zachowań skutecznych przywódców. W ten sposób powstała **teoria zachowań**, która z punktu widzenia zastosowań różni się od teorii cech odmiennością założeń. Wnioski dla tej teorii, wynikające z doświadczeń przeprowadzonych przez naukowców Uniwersytetu Ohio State oraz Uniwersytetu Michigan mniej więcej w tym samym czasie, były znacznie bardziej korzystne dla przywódców zorientowanych na pracowników, a mniej korzystne dla tych, którzy zorientowani byli na zadanie. Natomiast wyodrębnienie kilku cech lub preferowanych zachowań okazało się niewystarczające w prognozowaniu skutecznego przywództwa. Wyodrębniono zatem czynniki sytuacyjne, które wpływają na skuteczność przywództwa, czyli **teorie sytuacyjne**. Pierwszą z teorii jest model Freda Fiedlera zakładający, że styl przywództwa jest wrodzony i nie można go zmienić, aby dostosować przywództwo do sytuacji. Fiedler uważał, że to, co sądzimy o innych, więcej mówi o nas samych i opracował kwestionariusz najmniej lubianego pracownika (NLW). Było to narzędzie do badania, w jakim stopniu dana osoba jest nastawiona na zadania (nie lubiany współpracownik opisywany w niekorzystnych kategoriach), a w jakim na wzajemne stosunki (w korzystnych kategoriach). Na tej podstawie Fiedler wyróżnił trzy czynniki sytuacyjne:

1. „Stosunki między przywódcą i członkami grupy – stopień zaufania podwładnych do przywódcy, wiary w niego i okazywanie szacunku.
2. Struktura zadania – wysoki lub niski stopień strukturalizacji zadań przydzielanych pracownikom.
3. Pozycja władcza – stopień, w jakim przywódca może wywierać wpływ na zmienne cechujące władzę, takie jak: zatrudnianie, zwalnianie, nakładanie kar, przyznawanie awansów i podwyżek płac” [Robbins 1998, s. 248].

Na tej podstawie Fiedler stwierdził, że większy wpływ na sprawowanie kontroli ma ten przywódca, który ma silniejszą pozycję władczą, lepsze stosunki z członkami grupy oraz przedstawia zadania bardziej ustrukturyzowane. W praktyce często trudno stwierdzić lub ocenić to jednoznacznie. Ponieważ według autora styl przywództwa jest niezmienny, można zastosować następujące rozwiązania: wybrać przywódcę, który w danej sytuacji najbardziej się do niej nadaje, lub zmienić sytuację, aby dostosować ją do przywódcy.

Trzecią w kolejności teorią, uwzględniającą czynniki sytuacyjne, jest teoria ścieżki do celu, opracowana przez Roberta Housa, która jest współcześnie jednym z najbardziej uznanych sposobów traktowania przywództwa. W tym modelu przywódcy wskazują ścieżkę swoim podwładnym, aby pomóc im przedostać się do celu i ułatwiają po niej podróż, zmniejszając znajdujące się tam pułapki i przeszkody. Zachowanie przywódcy jest czynnikiem motywującym dla podwładnych, jeżeli: zaspokaja potrzeby podwładnych w zależności od efektów ich działań oraz zapewnia nagrody potrzebne do efektywnego działania, szkoli, wspiera i kieruje nimi. Hous wyróżnił cztery zachowania przywódcze, takie jak: przywódca dyrektywny, wspierający, partycypacyjny i nastawiony na osiągnięcia. W odróżnieniu od poglądów Fiedlera – zakłada, że przywódcy są elastyczni i mogą zachowywać się odpowiednio do wymienionych ról w zależności od sytuacji. Zależność między zachowaniem przywódcy a wynikami oparta jest również o dwie klasy zmiennych sytuacyjnych: zmienne środowiskowe i zmienne stanowiące część cech charakteryzujących podwładnego. Zasadność teorii potwierdza, że „na efektywność i zadowolenie pracowników na ogół pozytywny wpływ wywiera dopełnianie przez przywódcę tego, czego brakuje albo u pracownika, albo w warunkach pracy” [Robbins 1998, s. 254].

Powyżej przedstawiłam teorie dotyczące przywódców, którzy prowadzą, motywują i wyjaśniają wymagania dotyczące celów. Ostatnią z przedstawionych w niniejszym podrozdziale teorii jest **przywództwo charyzmatyczne**, czyli transformacyjne. Tego rodzaju przywódcy posiadają siłę osobistych uzdolnień, która przekształca stronników, powodując zwiększenie świadomości dotyczącej znaczenia i wartości ich zadań. Przywódcy charyzmatyczni potrafią tak inspirować do wykonywania zadań, że podwładni „skaczą za nimi w ogień”. Cechy, które odróżniają przywódców charyzmatycznych od niecharyzmatycznych, to: wiara w siebie (pewność siebie), wizja (jej niezwykłość), silna wiara w wizję (eskalacja zaangażowania), niezwykle zachowania (nonkonformizm), wizerunek agenta zmiany (zmiany stanu obecnego) [Robbins 1998, s. 258–260]. Podwładni przywódców charyzmatycznych są między innymi bardziej pewni siebie, pracują dłużej, są bardziej świadomi znaczenia swojej pracy, uzyskują wyższe oceny efektywności niż podwładni przywódców skutecznych, ale nie charyzmatycznych. Należy zaznaczyć, że przywódcy charyzmatyczni mogą idealnie sprawdzić się w sytuacji kryzysu, ale po jego wygaśnięciu i powrocie do normalnych warunków, często osiągają słabe wyniki. Dzieje się tak dlatego, że zachowanie przywódcy, bardzo pewnego siebie, może stać się ciężarem po ustąpieniu kryzysu. Ponadto tego rodzaju przywódcy są m.in. autokratyczni i zapatrzeni w siebie, a takie zachowania mogą doprowadzić do odejścia dobrych pracowników. Analiza przedstawionych teorii wskazuje, że wszystkie dotyczą zadań i ludzi.

We wstępie do rozdziału wspomniałam o kreatywności przywódcy, a cechami takiego przywództwa są:

- „wzmoczona świadomość swojego własnego potencjału;
- kompleksowa znajomość swoich słabych i mocnych stron;
- nawyk do zachęcania innych do przekazywania informacji zwrotnej;
- pragnienie wiedzy;
- integracja pracy z życiem;
- poszanowanie odmienności innych ludzi” [Alexander, Wilson 1998, za: Łucewicz 2002, s. 34].

Skuteczny dyrektor/przywódca zapewne przeanalizuje wszystkie czynniki w celu właściwego ukierunkowania swojej misji oraz powierzonych mu zasobów ludzkich. Taka postawa jest szczególnie oczekiwana w kierowaniu, nie tylko z perspektywy podwładnych (nauczycieli), ale również, a może przede wszystkim – z perspektywy powierzonych nauczycielom uczniów.

Przywództwo a władza to terminy blisko ze sobą związane. Człowiek lub grupa ludzi ma władzę nad innym człowiekiem lub grupą, jeżeli jest w posiadaniu pewnej wartości i ma możliwość dysponowania tą wartością, która stanowi przedmiot dążeń czy aspiracji innej jednostki lub zbiorowości. Przywódca lub grupa, będąc w posiadaniu władzy, nabywa zdolność do wywierania wpływu, a nawet przymusu dla osiągnięcia celów własnych bądź grupy oraz ma możliwość dzielenia zasobów pomiędzy jej członkami. W tym miejscu, z uwagi na obszerność tematu i ograniczone ramy niniejszego opracowania, tylko wspomnę o wyróżnionych przez J. Frencha i B. Ravena pięciu układach władzy: wymuszania, nagradzania, z mocy prawa, eksperckiej i odniesienia [cyt. za: Robbins 1998, s. 268–271]. Natomiast kluczem do wszelkiego rodzaju władzy jest **zależność** [Robbins 1998, s. 272–274]. Jeżeli tylko my sprawujemy kontrolę nad czymś, czego inni potrzebują, to stają się oni od nas zależni i zdobywamy nad nimi władzę. Zależność wzrasta w momencie, kiedy sprawujemy kontrolę nad zasobami, które są ważne i rzadkie. Potrzeba pozyskania rzadkiego i ważnego zasobu może być uzależniająca zarówno dla pracownika, jak i pracodawcy, np. dysponowanie ważną wiedzą lub informacją.

W środowisku szkolnym występują wszystkie przytoczone w tym rozdziale mechanizmy przywództwa i władzy. Stanowisko dyrektora jest związane w znaczącym stopniu z autorytetem formalnym, zatem sprawująca je jednostka może odgrywać rolę przywódczą. Gdyby jednak teoria cech była do końca prawdziwa, to ludzie powinni rodzić się przywódcami, zatem w szkolnej rzeczywistości spotkalibyśmy się z sytuacją **dyrektora z urodzenia**. Gdyby natomiast teorie zachowań doprowadziły do jednoznacznych ustaleń wyznaczników tych zachowań, można byłoby wyszkolić przywódców. Ten kierunek byłby zapewne atrakcyjny z punktu widzenia zwiększenia

podażu dyrektorów. Gdyby szkolenie okazało się właściwe, można by uzyskać znaczącą liczbę skutecznych, **wyszkolonych przywódców dyrektorów**.

Podsumowanie

Rzeczywistość szkolna pokazuje wagę teorii sytuacyjnych w przewodzeniu nauczycielom, których takie cechy, jak: wysokie wykształcenie, doświadczenie zawodowe, potrzeba niezależności i często indywidualizm – mogą zastąpić potrzebę wsparcia ze strony dyrektora. Poza tym w placówce oświatowej sformalizowane przywództwo można zastąpić sformalizowanymi celami, sztywnymi regułami i zasadami postępowania (procedury). Nadinterpretacją jest zatem uznawanie, że jedynie zachowanie przywódcy/dyrektora, nawet jeśli jest charyzmatyczny, prowadzi nauczycieli do osiągania celów. Nie ujmując wagi zagadnieniom związanym z przywództwem, należy pamiętać, że są one kolejną zmienną niezależną w wyjaśnianiu przebiegu procesu kierowania ludźmi.

Jak w każdej organizacji, tak również w szkole, aby doprowadzić do realizacji celów, przydatne jest dysponowanie władzą. Dyrektor, dążąc do maksymalizacji swojej władzy, chce przede wszystkim zwiększenia zależności od niego podwładnych mu nauczycieli. Trzeba jednak pamiętać, że władza działa w dwóch kierunkach i nauczyciele również dążą do uzależnienia od siebie dyrektora. Wynikiem tego jest nieustająca walka, ponieważ chcąc uzależnienia od siebie innych, jednocześnie dążymy do minimalizacji własnej zależności.

Wszędzie tam, gdzie gromadzą się ludzie, ktoś sprawuje nad nimi władzę. Każdy człowiek pragnie posiadać własną niszę, w której będzie mógł wywierać wpływ, pozyskiwać nagrody i piąć się po szczeblach kariery życiowej i zawodowej. W sytuacji, kiedy zwiększenie własnych wpływów i władzy jest ryzykowne, trudne lub wręcz niemożliwe, jednostka podejmuje wysiłki zmierzające do stworzenia koalicji. Szkoła nie jest wolna od wszelkiego rodzaju „towarzystw wzajemnej adoracji”, zwanych dalej nieformalnymi układami powiązań i zależności. Nauczyciele, podobnie jak w innych organizacjach, łączą się w grupy nieformalne, w celu poprawy swojej sytuacji kosztem innych, pozostających poza grupą własną osób. Istotnym rodzajem wpływu na jednostki lub grupy w zakresie wymiany informacji jest komunikacja i nieformalny jej rodzaj – nieformalna sieć plotek i pogłosek.

Z badań wynika, że „nastój i zachowania przywódcy są siłą napędową nastrojów i zachowań wszystkich innych osób” [Stolecka 2011, s. 150], co ma kolosalne znaczenie dla efektywności działań organizacyjnych w edukacji. Ludzie boją się uzewnętrznienia swoich uczuć w obawie przed krytyką, a cóż dopiero nauczyciele w większości postrzegani jako swoiste „alfy i omegi”. Właśnie w obawie przed ośmieszeniem, będącym jedną z najdotkliwszych sankcji satyrycznych, zachowują powściągliwość,

a często wręcz niepożądany umiar w wypowiedaniu swoich poglądów, przekonań, czy też zwyczajnie prawdy.

Podsumowując całość opracowania: szczególną troską dyrektora/zarządcy placówki oświatowej powinny być te aspekty kierowania nauczycielami, na które dyrektor/przywódca ma bezpośredni wpływ. W mojej ocenie jest to otwartość w komunikacji, adekwatne do możliwości motywowanie, emocjonalne przywództwo, sprawiedliwość, a nade wszystko zaufanie i jego najistotniejszy wymiar – prawość. Natomiast nauczyciele – z racji swej wyjątkowej, doniosłej społecznie misji – nie mogą i nie powinni być bezrefleksyjnie podporządkowani kierownictwu szkoły, wadliwemu systemowi oraz absurdalnym procedurom.

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Krakowski Park dra Henryka Jordana w relacjach prasy niemieckojęzycznej z lat 1890–1908. Rekonesans badawczy

Henryk Jordan Park in Kraków in German Press Articles (1890–1908). A Scientific Reconnaissance

Małgorzata Jacko

Zakład Historii i Organizacji Kultury Fizycznej
Wydział Wychowania Fizycznego i Sportu
Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego im. B. Czecha w Krakowie

Summary

The figure of Henryk Jordan (1842–1907) and his life's work, i.e., a sports park and playground for children, continues to fascinate people until the present day. After Professor Jordan's death, many works devoted to the aforementioned subject were published. However, the emergence of new source materials puts even greater emphasis on Henryk Jordan's contribution and of his park to the development of physical education in Europe. Seen in this context, Jordan Park seems to be an institution which during Jordan's lifetime was unique on our continent and maybe throughout the world. Specialists in the field of hygiene and physical culture came to Kraków from all over Europe to gain first-hand experience of the organization and functioning of this institution. The foreign press described the origins and the activities of the Park, comparing it to other playgrounds in Berlin, Braunschweig, Bremen, Koblenz, and London. The present article will concern an area that hasn't been researched until now, that is the accounts of Jordan Park published in the German press.

Keywords: Henryk Jordan, park, physical education, sports, the press

Streszczenie

Henryk Jordan (1842–1907) i dzieło jego życia w postaci parku gier i zabaw dla dzieci fascynuje do dnia dzisiejszego. Po śmierci Profesora Jordana powstało szereg publikacji związanych z tym tematem. Jednak w świetle nowych materiałów źródłowych jeszcze wyraźniej można mówić o wkładzie Henryka Jordana i jego parku w rozwój wychowania fizycznego w Europie. W tym kontekście Park Jordana jawi się jako instytucja, która za życia Henryka Jordana była jedyną tego typu na naszym kontynencie, a może nawet w świecie. Specjaliści z zakresu higieny i kultury fizycznej przybywali do Krakowa z całej Europy, aby na miejscu zapoznać się z organizacją i funkcjonowaniem placówki. Prasa zagraniczna opisywała powstanie i działalność Parku, porównując go do innych placów zabaw w Berlinie, Brunszwiku, Bremie, Koblencji i Londynie. Niniejszy artykuł dotyczyć będzie obszaru, który do tej pory nie został szerzej zbadany, a mianowicie doniesień na temat Parku Jordana ówczesnej prasy niemieckojęzycznej.

Słowa kluczowe: Henryk Jordan, park, wychowanie fizyczne, sport, prasa

Postać doktora Henryka Jordana i jego największe dzieło – Park Jordana, opisywano już w wielu publikacjach. Pierwsze opracowanie na ten temat napisał Bolesław Filiński już w 1891 roku i zatytułował je *Park dra Jordana i kilka uwag o wychowaniu* [Filiński 1891]. Park został opisany w broszurze z 1894 roku *Miejski park Jordana w Krakowie* wydanej nakładem samego Jordana. Obszerną publikację *Dr Henryk Jor-*

dan, pionier nowoczesnego wychowania fizycznego w Polsce przygotował Henryk Smarzyński [Smarzyński 1958]. Również Barbara Łuczyńska w 2002 roku wydała książkę *Fenomen Henryka Jordana* [Łuczyńska 2002]. Z okazji 100-lecia śmierci Henryka Jordana ukazały się materiały konferencji naukowej „Henryk Jordan, humanistyczne wyzwanie naszych czasów”, zorganizowanej w Akademii Wychowania Fizycznego w Krakowie, pod redakcją Ma-

riana Bukowca [Bukowiec 2007]. To tylko niektóre publikacje związane z tym tematem.

Również prasa krajowa i zagraniczna opisywała fenomen tej placówki wychowawczej. Niniejszy artykuł pragnie zwrócić uwagę na doniesienia prasy niemieckojęzycznej z zakresu tego tematu. Niepublikowane materiały źródłowe wyraźnie ukazują wkład Henryka Jordana i jego parku w rozwój wychowania fizycznego nie tylko w Polsce, ale i w całej Europie. W kontekście nowych czasów Unii Europejskiej mamy więc czym się poszczycić w zakresie wychowania fizycznego. Dokonując analizy tekstów dostępnej prasy, zwłaszcza wiedeńskiej, Park Jordana jawi się jako instytucja, która za życia Henryka Jordana była jedyną tego typu na naszym kontynencie, a może nawet w świecie. Specjaliści z zakresu higieny i kultury fizycznej przybywali do Krakowa z całej Europy, aby na miejscu zapoznać się z organizacją i funkcjonowaniem placówki. Interesował ich przede wszystkim aspekt organizacji i prowadzenia wychowania fizycznego w Parku.

Najwcześniejsze wzmianki prasy niemieckojęzycznej o Parku Jordana odnajdujemy w obszernym artykule nieznanego autora zatytułowanym „O dziecięcych placach zabaw i o Parku Henryka Jordana w Krakowie”. Został on zamieszczony w wiedeńskim miesięczniku *Humanität* 3 maja 1890 roku w pierwszą rocznicę istnienia Parku [*Humanität* 1890]. Periodyk ten zajmował się promowaniem dzieł społecznych. W pierwszej części artykułu autor porusza ogólnie temat związany z organizacją i funkcjonowaniem placów zabaw dla dzieci [op. cit., s. 113–115]. Jako najlepsze przykłady wymienia Berlin, Brunszwik, Bremę, Koblencję, Londyn i krótko je charakteryzuje. Dalej informuje czytelników, że pięknym i rozległym placem zabaw dla dzieci wykazało się także miasto Kraków [op. cit., s. 115–116]. Jest on dziełem przyjaciela dzieci, prof. dr Henryka Jordana, który założył park o powierzchni 8 ha i podarował go miastu Kraków. Autor określa, że jest to piękna, celowa i służąca zdrowiu instytucja opieki społecznej dla dzieci i że jest chwalony jako dobrodzieństwo dla Krakowa. Następnie przedstawia w punktach skrócony regulamin funkcjonowania placówki i obowiązki ćwiczących.

W dalszej części tekstu chwali szczególnie charakter ćwiczeń i opisuje dokładnie prowadzone zajęcia. Zwraca w nich uwagę na sekcję młodych dziewczynek w wieku od sześciu do ośmiu lat, które ujeżdżały drewnianego konika. Podkreśla, że ten mały konik jest jak dotąd jedynym sprowadzonym ze Szwecji do Europy Środkowej. „Koń ten naśladował dokładnie ruchy galopującego konia i budził ogromną ciekawość ćwiczących” [op. cit., s. 116]. W dalszej części dotyczącej opisu Parku Jordana przedstawia niezwykle dla niego wydarzenie. Prawdopodobnie było to zakończenie roku pracy w parku z występami artystycznymi i pokazami gimnastycznymi. Zwieńczeniem opisywanych uroczystości był pochód młodych

dziewcząt odśpiewujących krakowiaka skomponowanego na cześć założyciela parku i przemarsz I Pułku „Dzieci Krakowskich”^{*}.

Dalej w artykule znajdujemy dokładne godziny ćwiczeń i ogólną liczbę uczestników: w tygodniu 500, natomiast w środy 700 osób. Ze względu na udział dzieci żydowskich frekwencja w soboty wzrasta do 900, w niedzielę zaś do 1200 uczestników (z powodu młodzieży rzemieślniczej). Liczba nauczycieli wynosi: w tygodniu dziesięciu, w soboty dwunastu, a w niedzielę piętnastu. Na koniec tekst odnosi się do wpływu ćwiczeń fizycznych na rozwój organizmu młodego człowieka.

Pierwszy z prezentowanych tekstów już w tytule podkreśla, że zasadniczą jego część będzie poświęcona Parkowi Henryka Jordana. Wymienienie go w gronie placów zabaw w Berlinie, Brunszwiku, Bremie, Koblencji i Londynie już było dużą nobilitacją. Jednak dokładny jego opis i poświęcenie mu około 1/3 objętości obszernego tekstu (5 i pół strony maszynopisu) daje obraz, że był on z punktu widzenia autora najważniejszą placówką.

Następną pozycją o Parku Jordana w prasie niemieckojęzycznej jest artykuł autorstwa Schepsa „Wo wollen unsere Kinder spielen?”, zamieszczony w *Wiener Tagblatt* 29 maja 1890 roku [*Wiener Tagblatt* 1890]. Tekst ten odbił się szerokim echem w prasie polskiej. Krakowski *Kurier Polski* z 3 czerwca 1890 roku zamieszcza obszernie jego tłumaczenie. Również warszawski *Kurier Codzienny* z 11 czerwca 1890 roku, nr 159, zapoznał czytelników z jego treścią. Autor wiedeńskiego artykułu opisuje z zachwytem organizację parku dla dzieci, nie wymieniając od razu jego lokalizacji. W pewnym momencie jednak informuje czytelników, że: „ten znakomity, niezrównany park dziecięcy znajduje się... niestety nie w Wiedniu, jest to Park dr Jordana w Krakowie” [op. cit.]. I stawia retoryczne pytanie: „Gdzie nasze dzieci bawić się powinny?” (stad tytuł artykułu). Autor zwraca uwagę, że park ten powinien stanowić wzór do naśladowania dla Wiednia. Na koniec stwierdza, że mają Austriacy wszelkie powody, by zazdrościć Krakowowi Parku Jordana.

Krótki artykuł w podobnym tonie pojawił się 4 czerwca 1890 roku w *Österreichische Volks-Zeitung* zatytułowany „W trosce o dzieci” [*Österreichische Volks-Zeitung* 1890]. Tym razem działalność Parku Jordana zostaje porównana do dwóch towarzystw działających w Anglii „National Health Society” (Narodowe Towarzystwo Zdrowia) i „Ladies' Sanitary Association” (Towarzystwo Zdrowia Pań), które postawiły sobie za cel wywieranie wpływu na wychowanie fizyczne dzieci i skierowanie go

* W Parku Jordana od początku działalności wprowadzono ćwiczenia wojskowe. Początkowo były one nieobowiązkowe. Kiedy jednak okazało się, że cieszą się ogromnym zainteresowaniem, zostały wprowadzone na stałe w program parku. Pierwszym oddziałom chłopców biorących w nich udział nadano nazwę „Dzieci Krakowskich”. Oddziały te posiadały mundury w białoniebieskie barwy i własny sztandar.

na możliwie najbardziej racjonalne tory. W krótkim doniesieniu prasowym autor informuje czytelników, że także Kraków posiada podobną instytucję. Jest ona jedyna w swoim rodzaju i z trudem można wskazać drugą, która by również odpowiadała najwyższym wymogom higieny, jakie tam są prezentowane. Na koniec wyraża swoje ubolewanie, że niestety nie ma takiej placówki w Wiedniu. Apeluje również, aby taki wzorowy zakład, jaki jest w Krakowie, w odpowiednim czasie powstał również w Wiedniu.

Już następnego dnia po powyższym artykule, 5 czerwca 1890 roku, gazeta codzienna *Wiener Tagespost* opublikowała relacje przyjaciela gazety z pobytu w Krakowie [*Wiener Tagespost* 1890]. Osoba ta zwiedzała park dla dzieci zaprojektowany przez dra Jordana, stąd tytuł artykułu „Ogród dla dzieci doktora Jordana”. Opowiada tak o tym zdarzeniu: „Kiedy przekroczyłem bramę parku, o którym już zresztą dużo słyszałem i czytałem, moim oczom ukazał się żywy i barwny obraz” [op. cit.]. Zastanawiające są te słowa osoby z zagranicy. Jest rok 1890 i park funkcjonuje dopiero rok. Autor doniesienia jednak już o nim dużo słyszał i czytał. Dalej opisuje grupy ćwiczące, zwracając szczególną uwagę, że wszystkie dzieci były ubrane w piękne i czyste mundurki z płótna żaglowego. Głębokie i poruszające wrażenie zrobił na nim widok, który zobaczył w głębi parku. Przed posągiem, przedstawiającym jednego z polskich bohaterów narodowych, stał doktor Jordan otoczony gromadą dzieci, które słuchały z natężoną uwagą jego opowieści o życiu i dziełach tego bohatera. Artykuł kończy się pytaniem: „Czy można sobie wyobrazić bardziej praktyczną pedagogikę od tej, którą wprowadził w życie doktor Jordan?” [op. cit.]

W następnym miesiącu 8 lipca 1890 roku w *Fremden-Blat* ukazał się artykuł „Pułk Dzieci Krakowskich” [*Fremden-Blat* 1890]. Przedstawione były w nim wielkie uroczystości w Parku Jordana, których świadkami były osoby informujące o tym wydarzeniu wiedeńską gazetę. Nie określają konkretnie, z jakiego powodu miało ono miejsce, ale według nich stanowiło prawdziwie patriotyczne widowisko [op. cit.]. W dalszej części tekstu czytamy, że „wydarzenie to zasługiwało na wielką uwagę, ponieważ pokazywało, w jakim stopniu Polacy austriacy potrafią łączyć swoje uczucia narodowe ze szczerą miłością i wdzięcznością względem Austrii” [op. cit.]. Znając ideę, która towarzyszyła Henrykowi Jordanowi przy zakładaniu parku, nic bardziej mylnego nie można było stwierdzić. Podanie również informacji o Polakach austriackich kłóciło się całkowicie z pojęciem narodowej tożsamości i patriotyzmem wpajany dzieciom w Parku Jordana.

Dalsza część artykułu poświęcona została historii powstania parku i jego organizacji. Następnie przedstawiono bardzo dokładny opis Pułku „Dzieci Krakowskich” założonego przez Henryka Jordana:

„Uczniów zaś pogrupował w pułki i te pułki w każdą sobotę wykonują w parku ćwiczenia wojskowe zgodnie z austriackimi przepisami. Widok odbywających się w tę sobotę ćwiczeń napawa podniosłymi uczuciami. Z wybiciem godziny 6:00 wieczorem zbiera się pierwszy pułk uczniów. «Żołnierze» pojawiają się w prostych, eleganckich płóciennych garniturach i mają nakrycia głowy z takiego samego materiału. Zgodnie z praktyką austriackiego wojska, na komendę Staszczyka, porucznika rezerwy, zajmują pozycję przed schronem do czterech potyczek. Dyscyplina była bez zarzutu. Gdy każdy oddział zaprezentował broń, rozwinięto zgodnie ze zwykłym ceremoniałem sztandar pułku, a następnie pułk wymaszerował do wolnego miejsca w parku, gdzie rozpoczęły się ćwiczenia, najpierw w oddziałach, następnie w zamkniętych szeregach. Odbywały się one przez ponad dwie godziny w obecności tysięcy ludzi. Popisy były wprost godne podziwu. Dokładne wykonanie wymarszu i zbiórki wzbudziło najwyższy podziw nawet u zgromadzonych oficerów zawodowych” [op. cit].

25 listopada 1890 roku w niemieckiej gazecie *Braunschweigische Anzeigen* ukazał się artykuł „O ocenie gry w piłkę nożną w Brunzswiku” [*Braunschweigische Anzeigen* 1890]. W artykule tym autor prof. dr. Koch przywołuje autorytet Henryka Jordana jako człowieka zasłużonego i doświadczonego w dziedzinie sportu młodzieżowego, aby ukazać pozytywne strony gry w piłkę nożną. My przy okazji dowiadujemy się o przyjeździe Jordana do parku w Brunzswiku*. Według gazety Henryk Jordan przybył tam 1 listopada 1890 roku na boisko do gry w piłkę nożną, aby poznać osobiście zasady tej gry. Towarzyszył mu Kazimierz Homiński.

Autor artykułu podkreśla, że chociaż: „nazwisko profesora doktora Henryka Jordana z Krakowa tutaj na zachodzie ledwie jest znane, to w swojej austriackiej ojczyźnie jest on wysoko ceniony i podziwiany z powodu swojej ofiarnej i udanej działalności na rzecz promocji sportów młodzieżowych” [op. cit.]. W dalszej części tekstu następuje opis organizacji i działalności Parku Jordana. Według autora artykułu, wielki sukces, jaki udało się osiągnąć Jordanowi, powinien stać się inspiracją i zachętą do pójścia w jego ślady przez inne regiony Austrii i Niemiec.

Jordan udał się do parku w Brunzswiku, ponieważ chciał wypełnić jakąś aktywnością fizyczną boiska w Par-

* W Brunzswiku w 1875 roku główny nauczyciel Corvinius podjął próbę urządzenia na wzór angielski świetnie zorganizowanych placów zabaw. Nie tylko zadbał o to, by miejsce dla parku było zacienione, wolne od pyłu i przestronne, ale zadbał też o zapewnienie przyrządów gimnastycznych i różnorodności sportów, których dzieci mogłyby się uczyć: krykiet, krokiet, piłka nożna i *Kaiserball*. W wolne od szkoły popołudnia zajęcia były obowiązkowe. Sekcja sportowa była ciągle tak oblegana, że pilnująca dzieci obsada nauczycielska musiała być z roku na rok powiększana. Z tego też powodu często odwiedzano tę placówkę – jako wzorową pod względem prowadzenia wychowania fizycznego.

ku Jordana, w czasie kiedy zaczyna się okres zimowy. Oprócz Brunszwiku zwiedzał w tym celu również boiska w Berlinie i Görlitz. Jordan był zachwycony grą. Razem z Homińskim chwilę pograł z gimnazjalistami i zauważył, że to wspaniała gra. Na koniec stwierdził: „Zobaczyłem i dowiedziałem się dokładnie tego, co mi odpowiada i co jest mi potrzebne do moich celów” [op. cit].

Podziw Jordana wzbudziła nie tylko gra – piłka nożna, ale również sami zawodnicy. Ucieszył się na widok silnych i zwinnych postaci, podkreślając, że w jego ojczyźnie młodzież nie jest aż tak rozwinięta. Henryk Jordan na koniec swojej wizyty zwrócił się do osób przyjmujących go w Brunszwiku, że zazdrości im takiej młodzieży.

Artykuł w prasie niemieckiej to kolejny dowód na to, jak wielką troską otaczał Jordan polską młodzież. Właśnie z tego powodu były te jego wizyty zagraniczne. Szukał ciągle nowych rozwiązań dla lepszego funkcjonowania jego parku. Przywieziona z Brunszwiku gra w piłkę nożną okazała się strzałem w dziesiątkę. I dlatego warto po raz kolejny podkreślić, że to właśnie Henryk Jordan przywiózł pierwszą piłkę nożną na ziemię polskie i uczył zasad tej gry.

Poruszał już te kwestie w 1990 roku Ryszard Wasztyl w artykułach dotyczących początków piłki nożnej w Polsce [Wasztyl 1990a, s. 79–82; Wasztyl 1990b, s. 87–88]. Wyraźnie podkreślił w nich, że „pod koniec 1890 roku w programie zajęć w Parku dra Jordana pojawiła się po raz pierwszy na ziemiach polskich – piłka nożna” [Wasztyl 1990a, s. 80]. Podał również informację, że „w niedzielne popołudnie 30 sierpnia 1891 roku odbył się w parku dra Jordana w Krakowie pierwszy na ziemiach polskich oficjalny pokaz gry w piłkę nożną z udziałem publiczności” [Wasztyl 1990b, s. 88].

Sam Jordan nawiązał do wizyty w Brunszwiku przy okazji odczytu „O zabawach młodzieży” [Jordan 1891, s. 12]. Wspomina, że chociaż dni były bardzo chłodne, młodzież gimnazjalna zdjęła surduty i kamizelki i grała kilka godzin, jak gdyby to był sierpień, a nie listopad. On natomiast z Kazimierzem Homińskim, chociaż ciepło ubrani, czuli dotkliwy chłód [op. cit].

Artykuł w niemieckiej gazecie *Braunschweigische Anzeigen* nie tylko dokumentuje faktycznie wizytę Henryka Jordana wraz z Kazimierzem Homińskim, ale również jest cenny z tego powodu, że określa jego dzieło w postaci parku jako wielki sukces.

Następny artykuł „Park Jordana w Krakowie” autorstwa P. Stolpera, zamieszczony w *Schlesische Zeitung*, nr 151 [1903], podawany jest w bibliografii opracowań dotyczących Henryka Jordana, lecz nie spotyka się nigdzie informacji, co w nim jest zawarte. O doniosłości jego może świadczyć fakt, że artykuł ukazał się na pierwszej stronie i zajmował prawie 3 szpalty tekstu. Rozpoczął się od informacji na temat politycznych planów dotyczących odzyskania przez Polskę niepodległości. Według autora artykułu: „najłatwiej poczuć bicie serca pro-

pagandy inteligencji polskiej można w Krakowie” [op. cit]. Stolper stawia dalej tezę, że właśnie z tej sfery myśli wzięła swój początek idea Parku Jordana. W dalszej części tekstu przedstawia krótki życiorys Henryka Jordana, niestety zawierający liczne błędne informacje. Okazuje się, że autor artykułu osobiście odwiedził Park Jordana, aby zapoznać się z jego działalnością. Oprowadzał go po Parku sam Henryk Jordan. Stolper tak to wspomina: „Z uzasadnioną dumą pokazał mi swoje dzieło twórcy tego już wspaniale rozbudowanego placu zabaw, który zwraca uwagę swoim malowniczym położeniem i który jako młodzieżowe centrum sportu raczej nie ma odpowiedników na kontynencie” [op. cit].

Po raz kolejny zostaje Park Jordana doceniony jako jedyna tego typu placówka w Europie. Zwiedzając dalej park, informuje Stolper, że każdy, kto przychodzi tu po raz pierwszy, otrzymuje mały zadrukowany zeszycik, który pozwala zlokalizować miejsca przeznaczone na zabawę i który zawiera informacje o historii wielu wybitnych Polaków, których popiersia ustawione są w parku. W dalszej części artykułu następuje dokładny opis działalności parku. Autor wspomina również, że: „w zimie Jordan wynajął staw, gdzie młodzież, ale tylko ta wywodząca się z klas pracujących, po południu od godziny 2 do 4 za darmo dostaje do dyspozycji łyżwy, przy założeniu, że wcześniej pojawią się w kościele Pijarów o godzinie 9 na mszy świętej”. Po oddaniu na miejsce i uporządkowaniu łyżew maszerują czwórkami ze ślizgawki do miasta z pieśnią na ustach, o ile pogoda na to pozwoli” [op. cit].

Największe wrażenie na Stolperze wywarła postać założyciela Parku. Píše, że nie zapomni nigdy tej chwili, kiedy Henryk Jordan zwrócił się do niego na koniec jego wizyty: „Zatem teraz zobaczy Pan moją polską młodzież wracającą z placów zabaw. Odezwał się dzwon i po kilku minutach przemaszerowały pierwsze grupy prowadzone przez studentów. Z chłopięcych gardel rozbrzmiewała radośnie i wesoło melodia marszowa pieśni patriotycznej, dziarskim krokiem przyszli pogodni chłopcy, zatrzymali się na komendę, poszli później dalej po wysokich schodach budynku, żywiołowo przekrzykując się nawzajem, i wkrótce, o ile nie szli do kąpieli, wracali czym prędzej ze swoją odzieżą wierzchnią. Wreszcie wyruszali z pieśnią na ustach w porządku wojskowym z ogrodu, przez most, do miasta. Za nimi wieczorne słońce sączyło swoją złotą poświatę na Kopicę Kościuszki; z pieśni młodych Polaków brzmiała ufna nadzieja, że następnego ranka w jeszcze rozgrzanym świetle słońce musi napęlić swoim blaskiem wolną i wielką Polskę” [op. cit].

Obraz ten, który opisał dziennikarz, miał Niemcom uświadomić, jak wielkim zagrożeniem może być taka działalność. Niemcy szanowali dorobek artystyczny wielu znamienitych Polaków (kompozytorów, malarzy, poetów). Stolper przez swój artykuł pragnął im uświadomić, że Polacy uczą się również organizacji. „Park Jordana i jego szerokie oddziaływanie pokazuje zaś, jak żadna

inna polska inicjatywa narodowa w pruskiej części starej Polski, że nauczono się tutaj także organizacji” [op. cit].

Wskazywał, jak niebezpieczne okazują się wycieczki Polaków z Górnego Śląska do Krakowa, gdzie według niego Polacy nabierają zapału do działalności propagandowej. Na koniec odnosi się do sytuacji młodzieży niemieckiej i apeluje o wspieranie działań na rzecz wzmocnienia jej poczucia narodowego, jak i wysiłków na rzecz jej zdrowia. Artykuł ten, oprócz zachwyty nad pomysłem i organizacją Parku Jordana, pokazuje Park jako realne zagrożenie dla Niemców i przestrzega ich przed tego typu działalnością na ziemiach polskich.

Po śmierci Henryka Jordana ukazały się krótkie wzmianki w prasie wiedeńskiej z najważniejszymi informacjami biograficznymi na temat zmarłego. Pisano między innymi w: *Das interessante Blatt*, „Krakauer Universitätsprofesor gestorben“, nr 23, Wien, 6 Juni 1907 [*Das interessante Blatt* 1907], *Die Zeit*, nr 1670, Wien 1907 [*Die Zeit* 1907], *Neues Wiener Tagblatt*, nr 136, Wien 1907 [*Neues Wiener Tagblatt* 1907], *Wiener Zeitung*, nr 115, Wien 1907 [*Wiener Zeitung* 1907].

W 1908 roku pojawił się tekst „Troska o kulturę fizyczną w Parku Jordana w Krakowie” prof. Maxa Guttmanna z Wiednia [Guttmann 1908]. Był to przedruk z *Zeitschrift für Schulgesundheitspflege*, rocznik XXI. Wydało go wydawnictwo Leopold Voss z Hamburga. Artykuł ten z racji swojej obszerności (13 stron) będzie stanowił w najbliższym czasie kanwę odrębnej publikacji.

Przedstawione artykuły w prasie niemieckojęzycznej dowodzą, że fenomen dra Jordana miał wymiar nie tylko krajowy, ale i europejski. Wizyty gości zagranicznych w parku świadczą, że placówka ta cieszyła dużą popularnością. Można wręcz mówić o pewnej modzie pisania o parku. Przemawiają za tym aż cztery artykuły, które pojawiły się krótko po sobie w 1890 roku w prasie wiedeńskiej. Nie brakuje w prasie również wątków szowinistycznych, które się pojawiały między innymi w artykule „Park Jordana w Krakowie” autorstwa P. Stolpera zamieszczony w *Schlesische Zeitung*. Jak również w artykule „Pułk Dzieci Krakowskich” gazety *Fremden-Blat*.

Wszystkie wymienione artykuły podkreślają wielkie zasługi Henryka Jordana w tworzeniu i działalności Parku. Autorzy niejednokrotnie wyrażają żal, że dzieło to nie powstało w ich ojczyźnie. Artykuły te miały mobilizować ówczesne władze cywilne i społeczeństwo do tworzenia na ten wzór parków gier i zabaw dla dzieci.

Uzupełnienie badań z zakresu wkładu Henryka Jordana w europejską kulturę fizyczną staje się więc nagłą potrzebą. Zwłaszcza w kontekście naszego członkostwa w Unii Europejskiej, bo można wykazać nasz konkretny udział w budowaniu jej historii i kultury.

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