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From the Editor



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

is published by the University of Physical Education in Kraków.

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

Since 2016 the *Studies in Sport Humanities* will be published under patronage and in cooperation with the International Pierre de Coubertin Committee (CIPC). It is an honour and privilege for us and we will take every effort to make our periodic better and better. Taking that

opportunity I would like to thank heartfully all the Authors and Reviewers who have cooperated with us during last years thus contributing significantly to the improvement of the quality of our periodic. The cooperation with CIPC changes slightly our profile. We will prefer not only texts from the science perspective focused on humanistic aspects of the physical culture but we also will go for texts on researches concerning Olympics, especially in the context of analyses and popularisation of Pierre de Coubertin's works. We signal that change in advance with hope that authors from the research and academic centres round the world will find their interest in publishing in our periodic. We also hope that CIPC members' articles and reviews will leverage the level of publications and prestige of the *Studies in Sport Humanities*.

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

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

Editor-in-Chief

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

Associate Professor Halina Zdebska-Biziewska, Ph.D.

Social structure as a determinant of participation in sport

Zbigniew Dziubiński

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Summary

This paper aims to demonstrate how participation in sport depends on social structure and how different types of society (social structures), including Poland's (post-)modern society, determine participation in sport. The method used to pursue this objective hinges on an analysis of anthropological and sociological literature as well as a number of empirical studies. The analysis is based on theories such as structuralism, functionalism, social conflict, social inequalities and symbolic interactionism. The findings indicate that the type of society and its distinctive social structure have a strong influence on people's participation in sport. The process is illustrated by Poland, a country that has seen a shift in its social structure (education level, affluence level, place of residence, occupation) and, as a result, a cultural change (the value system, behaviour patterns and the nature of social control) that together have revived Polish people's participation in sport.

Keywords: social structure, types of society, Polish public, sport, participation

Introduction

The analysis of sociological research into participation in sport shows that such participation is diversified. For example, the percentage of people who take part in this area of social and cultural life is higher in some societies than in others. Consequently, certain features (variables) of different communities can be said to encourage, if not compel, people to take part in sport, but other features may hinder such participation or even eliminate it altogether [Dziubiński 2016, pp. 30–38].

Sociological studies also show that apart from communities and their distinctive features, participation in sport is influenced by the position a given individual holds in a social structure. The position considerably affects human attitudes and actions in social life as a whole and in the part of it known as sport. In other words, a person's position in a social structure, the place in social stratification, is strongly connected with the person's access to sought-after social resources, which means that the position influences attitudes and actions in the area of sport. In most cases, in fact, it determines those. We can say that people differ radically in how they approach sport and participation in sport and these very differences depend on people's social standing, which includes facts such as whether different individuals are well-educated, affluent, have access to power and high social prestige, or

on the contrary, are uneducated, poor, subordinated and not highly regarded by the rest of society [Smelser 1988, pp. 103–209].

The proposition that participation in sport is determined by social structure is the main focus of this paper. Rather than exceptionless, the relationship between people's participation in sport and the position individuals and communities occupy in a social structure is a probabilistic one, which is usually the case in social sciences. Irrespective of this, society manifests certain regularities which suggest that individuals and communities with certain characteristics are highly likely to take part in different forms of sport. This likelihood is strong enough for such regularities to be worth identifying and describing [Porpora 1987; Lopez, Scott 2000].

This paper aims to bring to light the relations between the extent to which people take part in sport, the type of social structure and the position a given individual or community holds in the said structure. The relations will be illustrated by Poland, where a powerful social and cultural change has taken place in the last quarter of a century. In 25 years, the social structure of Poland has gone through a significant change caused by pronounced, vertical shifts within the structure's elements. Before we proceed to the main analysis, this paper will present selected findings which social scientists with different theoretical approaches, anthropologists of culture

and sociologists in particular, have so far made as regards social structure and concepts related to it.

The concept of “social structure”

In the least complicated understanding of the term, “social structure” stands for a set, a system (frequency distribution) and a statistical division by significant social and demographic features such as: gender, age, education, affluence, place of residence, occupation and so on. In other words, social structure is a set of constituents seen as a system. Depending on the theoretical perspective on the subject, social structure comprises macro-social elements such as classes, strata and professional groups, and micro-social ones such as families, neighbourhoods and local communities. Micro-social elements also include individuals, social roles and positions, organizations and institutions. Relations between the different elements form different social structures. The most fundamental social divisions include the division into social classes and strata (class and stratum structure) and social gradient (stratification structure). In modern societies, an important role in the formation of social macrostructures is played by occupational diversity [Wesołowski, Słomczyński 1973].

Edmund Wnuk-Lipiński [2008, pp. 53–78] identifies a relational understanding of social structure as a “complicated pattern of interpersonal relations,” and a distributional understanding as a division of significant social resources. The relational understanding is connected with the hierarchization of certain positions held by specific people. Under this approach, social structure consists in various relations of superiority and dependence, cooperation and conflict, deprivation and privilege, respect and contempt. Such relations occur between individuals and communities that hold different positions (have a different status). One exponent of this understanding of social structure is Carmi Schooler, who defines social structure as an established model of interrelations between individual and collective positions. The positions are defined by social roles that enter a variety of relations with one another (Schooler 1999, p. 44). What Schooler means are patterns that are ingrained in communities and which are distinctive of specific positions and roles assigned to the positions. The roles determine the way people think, especially when it comes to interacting with others.

The other, distributional understanding of social structure is connected with the unequal distribution of valued social resources in a given community. The possession of such resources has a major impact on individual people’s lives and affects the people’s relations with their social environment. The resources that are usually seen as fundamental include education, affluence, power and prestige. These and other resources structuralize community members according to how easily

they can access the very resources. Consequently, community members are divided into educated and uneducated ones, rich and poor, those who have power over others and those who are ruled by them, and into people of high prestige and those that are held in contempt [Słomczyński 2002, p. 11].

Using the findings of researchers representing different theoretical approaches, H. Domański gives his own definition of social structure. In a nutshell, social structure according to Domański is a well-organized and coherent whole with a distinctive system of relations between individuals, social statuses and social roles, groups, organizations and institutions. The structure is characterized by a set of relationship patterns that ensure stability and continuity, so that it is immune to abrupt changes. At the same time, however, it cannot be regarded as a static and invariable system. Instead, the system stays in a dynamic equilibrium where different elements are on a constant move. Changes affect individuals and their actions, social groups and other social categories and the relations between them all change as well. Dynamic as they are, the relations never lead to abrupt changes nor do they cause the deconstruction of the system as a whole. Social structure is a synthetic category and one that is fundamental and necessary to understand the life of a community. The structure’s elements are what forms the lifestyles of different societies [Domański 2002, pp. 132–137].

Sport in pre-modern and modern types of society

The oldest type of society are hunter-gatherers whose survival strategy relies on the search for food: harvesting the fruits of the earth, hunting and fishing. Diversification criteria in such societies are few and one of them is the physical fitness of their members, the very prerequisite for efficient hunting. The fittest individuals, the most successful hunters and gatherers, become the informal leaders. That said, social structure in hunter-gatherer communities does not play a major role in diversifying between community members [Goodman 2001, pp. 51–65].

Historically, the next type were hoe-farming societies in which plants were purposefully grown on fertile land. When productivity increased in the process, a surplus of food led to social diversification. Some society members owned more goods (they were rich), while others possessed less (they were poor). In this type of society, fitness gained an instrumental quality and in addition to land cultivation, hunting and fishing, it was also used in warfare. Wars fought by such societies employed primitive tools such as sticks and stones, which meant that fitness (strength, stamina, speed, fighting techniques, the ability to use simple tools) became crucial.

Societies of the next, pastoral type emerged when people domesticated animals. Pastoral food produc-

tion techniques resulted in excessive amounts of food while at the same time, pastoralism produced powerful political leaders who had authority and owned material goods. The advent of social positions resulted in an as yet uncomplicated social structure where individuals were assigned different places. Some people owned plenty of goods while others owned nothing, some people were rulers and others were the subjects. Physical activity was primarily related to pastoral activities, hoe-farming, crafts and, sometimes, it was used for military purposes. In other words, physical activity was a practical and instrumental skill used to perform tasks of existential nature. Fitness was a desirable feature in physical labor and during wars.

After pastoral came agricultural societies whose distinctive feature was the cultivation of land. Arable land occupied vast areas and agricultural societies used the plough as the main tool to loosen the soil, with animals used to provide tractive force. Social positions became even more diversified with the emergence of agricultural workers (peasants) and economic elites. In the process, physical activity showed the first signs of being used to pursue needs other than purely existential ones at the level of biological survival. Such new needs started pushing the elites to satisfy their hedonistic urges, but other social groups began to do the same to pursue values of high importance to their communities (holidays, festivals, annual celebrations of important events) and to worship deities. Agricultural societies developed a variety of sports in the form of games and leisure activities as well as Olympic games and different agons. These have been described relatively well by cultural anthropologists, ethnologists and historians [Lipoński 2012; Wrocławski 2003].

The contemporary, modern (industrial) society emerged as a result of the Industrial Revolution that began in England in the mid-18th century and then spread to other countries around the world. The revolution essentially replaced human and animal labour with the mechanical power of machines, leading to a production surplus. The process sped up the creation of new social positions, roles and inequalities. Inherited positions that had been founded on people's social background began to lose importance to achievable positions. The economy started to play a key role in the lives of societies. Family households largely lost their status as production units, as the role was taken over by factories. The Industrial Revolution ushered in the democratization of education, so that education was no longer a privilege only available to the high society. Scientific research began to develop rapidly and research results helped modernize the economy. The rise of factories prompted masses to migrate in search of work. Factories stimulated urbanization and cities that grew around factories drew more and more workers, driving them away from their local communities and familiar folk culture. Such traditional culture

was gradually replaced by the expansive popular culture. At the same time, the moral standing of religion began to dwindle, giving way to antinomic values and alternative lifestyles.

The modern society produced an enormously complex social structure which determined attitudes toward sporting culture. On the one hand, fitness and good health played a major, instrumental role in work (usually physical labour) and in the preparation for national defence. On the other hand, however, the bourgeoisie (capitalists) started to use sporting activities for autotelic reasons in order to pursue carnivalesque, hedonistic, social and agonistic goals. Sport went on to be rapidly institutionalized through the establishment of various sports associations and organizations, including international ones such as the International Olympic Committee (IOC, est. 1894) and the International Federation of Association Football (FIFA, est. 1904). In the process, the Olympic Games were revived in 1896. Other noteworthy phenomena from that era include the growing popularity of Swedish and Danish Gymnastics, the Turner movement in Germany, as well as English outdoor games and activities. Joseph Maguire [1994, pp. 398–427] attributes all phases of the global sportization to the rise of the modern society. New technologies also triggered the emergence and spread of mass culture and helped establish spectator sport.

Leisure, a concept that nobody had really heard of before, became possible thanks to industrialization. With some time left to spare, people turned their attention to sport and its different forms, from competitive sports to universally accessible sport and spectator sport. Sport went on to be rapidly commercialized and professionalized and with time, terms such as professional athletes, instructors and coaches were coined, along with the concepts of masseurs, referees, sports medicine, sports journalism and sponsors [Giulianotti 2005].

The 1970s saw the advent of yet another new type of society, namely, postindustrial. The distinctive feature of postindustrial societies is that they produce information and services, as a result of which the bulk of labour force is transferred to sectors such as education, commerce, banking, transport and telecommunications [Bell 1977]. Postindustrial societies are based on the knowledge they produce and they put special emphasis on science, education and engineering. The advancement of new technology, means of transport and telecommunications stimulated geographic and social mobility, which, in turn, brought different cultures closer together, fostering tolerance for different lifestyles. It also reduced gender differences.

In the postmodern society, the human body plays a decreasingly instrumental role and instead, it is increasingly autotelic and serves the satisfaction of hedonistic needs. The body is essentially supposed to deliver sub-

lime and ecstatic sensations provided by culinary consumption, sexual practices and physical, or sporting, activity [Krawczyk 2011, pp. 141–163]. The human body in postmodern societies can be described as free from its instrumental determinism and it becomes an integral part of the individual consumer of different kinds of pleasure [Bauman 2009, pp. 61–90].

The human body's new role in postmodern societies results from a change in the social structure. The structure determines social attitudes and behaviours in culture, including the culture of sport. Individuals and communities have been climbing up the social ladder from lower positions to higher ones. For example, the number of affluent people has grown while the number of poor people has decreased. The percentage of well-educated people is up and poorly educated people have been dwindling in numbers. More people live in cities and fewer in rural areas, more people work in offices and there are fewer blue-collar and agricultural workers than before. Admittedly, the kind of work in the workers' and agricultural sectors has changed radically and hard physical labour has been replaced by a wide range of devices, machines and new technology. All of the above changes in social structure have had a strong impact on how individuals and communities approach sport and participate in it.

The structure of Poland's (post)modern society and participation in sport

We shall now examine the relations between social structure and sport taking the Polish public as an example. To be more precise, we will seek to answer how the change in Poland's social structure in recent years has affected the Polish public's attitudes towards universally accessible sport. A diverse body of empirical research and social analyses indicate that in recent years, Poland has seen a revival of the public's participation in universally accessible sport. Compared with other countries in the European Union, Poland is now in the middle of the league table [*Aktywność fizyczna Polaków* 2013]. Our proposition is that the structural change in the Polish society is what has played a key role in changing Polish people's attitudes toward sport. Let us now try and find arguments to substantiate this claim.

The first factor that influences the extent to which people participate in sport is how well-educated they are. Poland ranks among the best European Union countries in terms of the percentage of people with higher education. In 2012, holders of university degrees accounted for 36 percent of European Union citizens aged 30–34, whereas in Poland, the proportion was almost 40 percent, which was above the European average. It is noteworthy that 25 years ago, the figure in Poland was below 10 percent [*Wyższe wykształcenie Polaków na tle Unii Europejskiej – statystyki* 2013].

Education affects life expectancy, which is particularly evident in the male population. Men with primary education have a life expectancy of 67 years, while those with university-level education live 80 years on average. For example, well-educated male residents of the Wilanów district of Warsaw have a life expectancy of over 82 years, which means they can look forward to a longer life than men in Sweden and Switzerland. Men with poorer education who live the Praga Północ district of Warsaw have a life expectancy of only 69 years, which is 13 years less [*Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Poland* 2012].

The second factor that affects participation in sport is the affluence of Polish people. The gross domestic product (GDP) per head had doubled in Poland between 1989 and 2012. At present, Poland is the fourth least wealthy society in the European Union, but at the same time, Poland is the only post-communist country to have achieved such GDP growth [*Eurostat: Polski PKB na głowę czwarty od końca w UE* 2014]. This giant leap in affluence level has changed the attitudes and behaviours of society members with regards to sports culture. Like Western societies, the Polish public has embraced sporting activity as an important way of spending free time as well as pursuing one's interests and passions related to body care, kinetic pleasures and prophylaxis.

The third factor affecting participation in sport is place of residence, especially the contrast between urban and rural areas. The proportion of rural and urban population changed radically in Poland in the past decades as a high percentage of villagers migrated to cities. In 1921, over 75 percent of society lived in rural areas, while in 2010, the figure had declined to just above 38 percent [*Polska. Wybrane dane statystyczne 2010* (Poland. Selected Statistical Data 2010)]. The altered rural-urban proportions have encouraged a larger part of the Polish public to engage in models of physical activity that are typical of city dwellers who manifest greater activity with regards to participation in sport. What is more, urban models of participation in sport have been rapidly spreading to small towns and rural areas. This is evidenced by a national online survey conducted on a random-purposive sample of over 67,000 runners. The survey showed that in 2014, most novice runners, including women, came from small towns and villages [*Polska Biega. Raport – Narodowy Spis Biegaczy* 2014].

The fourth important trend that has affected the Polish public's participation in sport is that vast groups of blue-collar workers have been migrating to the white-collar sector. What has been emerging in the process is a new kind of society, described as a post-industrial, information, consumerist or knowledge-based society [Giddens 2006, pp. 394–441]. In a knowledge-based economy, a majority of people with jobs are not involved in producing and distributing material goods and what

they do instead is design, work out development strategies and deal with the marketing, distribution and providing of services. The consequence of this is that most of the public are white-collar workers and, quite naturally, they feel an urge to spend their spare time in an active form, which includes participation in sport. At the other extreme is the shrinking group of blue-collar workers who regard passive forms of relaxation, ones that do not require any physical effort whatsoever, as the best way of spending their free time [*Uczestnictwo Polaków w sporcie i rekreacji ruchowej w 2012 r.*, 2012].

Polish citizens' participation in sport is also affected by the somewhat different fifth, accumulated factor known as quality of life. According to the *Economist Intelligence Unit* weekly magazine, quality of life is assessed with the following parameters and measures: material well-being, health, political stability and security, family life, community life, climate and geography, job security, political freedom and gender equality. For example, a quality of life survey conducted on Warsaw residents in 2013 showed that depending on the above indicators, between 50 and around 70 percent of respondents were satisfied with the quality of their lives. This high proportion not only testifies to changes that have taken place in Warsaw, but it is also a circumstance that prompts people to practice sports [Halicki 2014]. The above observation is corroborated in an earlier survey conducted by Janusz Czapiński and Tomasz Panek as part of a project called *Diagnoza społeczna 2013* (Social Diagnosis 2013). The findings indicate that Polish people are increasingly optimistic, which is a systematic process. Over 80 percent of respondents to the survey said they were satisfied with their lives. According to J. Czapiński, this is "a most uplifting" situation. These findings are confirmed on a quarterly basis by Eurobarometer surveys in which Poles consistently come across as the most optimistic nation in the European Union [Czapiński, Panek 2013].

Social justice is the sixth factor that affects participation in sport. A study published in the Bertelsmann Foundation's report on social justice, shows that Poland ranks 16th in terms of social justice. At the same time, however, when it comes social justice Poland has been the fastest improving country in Europe. In 2008, we came in last in the standings, whereas now we are in the middle of the league table. No other country in our region has advanced so fast, which is particularly evident in the decrease of poverty risk. In the past seven years, poverty risk in Poland declined from 33 to 25 percent. We are the leaders in our region in terms of access to education. The social background of Polish pupils does not hinder education and as far as social standing is concerned, Poland has the highest social mobility of all countries in the European Union. The Bertelsmann Foundation's report also finds that the internal division of the European Union into the wealthy and stable North and the struggling

South continues to deepen. In the report, Poland is classified as part of the wealthy and stable North [Wielński, Matusiak 2014, pp. 1, 16–17].

These and other elements of social culture affect the public's attitudes and behaviours both explicitly and implicitly. What is more, they have an impact on Polish culture and its different components which, as a result, determine these attitudes toward sport through values, norms and models. Let us now point our attention to these elements of culture that have contributed just as strongly to the popularization of sporting lifestyles in Poland, most notably social control. The type of social control is a consequence of dominant ideals, values, norms and behaviour patterns.

Culture in Poland is beginning to have an increasingly pro-sport effect and participants in sport are more frequently gratified with symbolic rewards such as respect, recognition and social prestige. Participation in sport is starting to elevate people's value and signify affiliation with upper social classes [Dziubiński 2013, pp. 27–47]. That is because participation in sports is not interpreted exclusively in the context of benefits such as good health and fitness, but above all in symbolic categories. Research into consumption was pioneered by, among others, Max Weber, who asserted that rather a means to an end, consumption in a modern society was the purpose of the lives of individuals and communities [Weber 1984]. T. Veblen, in turn, believed that ("ostentatious") consumption was meant to demonstrate people's social standing and economic advantage over others [Veblen 1971]. In a (post-) modern society, according to J. Baudrillard, consumption becomes a social activity with a broad spectrum of signs and symbols of tremendous social importance. The material aspect of consumption ceases to play the main role and is replaced by the symbolic aspect [Baudrillard 1998]. This is what has happened to sport consumption, which allows individuals and communities to build up social prestige, or conversely, they deprive themselves of such prestige when they fail to take part in sport consumption.

Summary

In conclusion, there is a strong relationship between social structure and the attitudes and behaviours that members of society display with respect to universally accessible sport. The more developed a society is, the more likely its members are to engage in sporting activity.

The main reasons behind the Polish public's rekindled interest in engaging in sports are changes that have taken place over the recent years in Poland's social structure. The changes in the social structure include:

- a higher number of people with higher education,
- the increased affluence of Polish people,
- a higher percentage of white-collar workers,
- a higher percentage of people who live in rural areas.

A role just as important has been played by cultural factors that result from the change in social structure. They include the following:

- the prevalence of optimism and satisfaction with quality of life,
- the prevalence of esthetic and hedonistic models of sporting culture,
- prestige attributed to participation in sport,
- positive sanctions for those who participate in sport.

Analyses conducted so far indicate that the place individuals and communities hold within social structure, as well as within the structure of inequality, reflect on people's attitudes toward sport. Social structure is not, however, the sole factor here and non-structural factors play a major part as well. There is no simple cause-and-effect relation between social structure, attitudes and participation in sport and therefore the proposition that sporting activity is founded on social structure is just one of many possibilities. Seeing it as the only option would be a far-fetched oversimplification.

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Stress in volunteer mountain rescue teams

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Summary

The aim of the study was to present the sources of stress in mountain rescue teams, the preferred kind of coping and the level of the burnout syndrome in mountain rescue teams. CISS (Endler, Parker), MBI (Maslach) and Sources of Stress in Mountain Rescues Work Questionnaire (Basiaga-Pasternak, Pomykała) were used. Participants comprised 47 males from Bieszczady Mountain Rescue Team. Results show that the most stressful situations are connected with the rescuee's death or health damage. The most popular style of coping in the researched group is task-oriented. High professional stress level was found to be characteristic of rescuers who suffered from the burnout syndrome.

Keywords: Mountain Rescue, Stress, Coping with stress, Burnout Syndrome

Introduction

The work of mountain rescue services is characterized by continual contact with traumatic events and, therefore, requires the ability to cope with stress. Work-related stress (organizational) is typical for many working environments, including mountain rescue. Rescuers' work often demands risking their health and sometimes even life. This labour group is considered among the most hazardous and stressful. As in the case of firefighters, mountain rescue almost every day find themselves in situations in which human life is at stake [Rząsowska, Fabryczewska 2007]. This kind of work is imbued with great responsibility for other people. As Szymuszko would put it [Matuszyk 2010, p. 164]: "To pin to one's sweater an emblem with a blue cross is to accept the increased responsibility – not only from the legal point of view, but also from the moral one." Responsibility, working on rotation basis which handicaps family life, contact with the injured or (even) dead, unfavourable atmospheric work conditions, external pressure (social expectations) are stressors experienced by rescuers on daily basis.

According to the model of organizational stress by Ivancevich and Matteson [Majewska, Noworol 1995] these are the intraorganizational stressors – including the following factors: physical (temperature), individual (amount of work and work overload, responsibility for others, role conflict, lack of work-perspectives), group (lack of unity, interpersonal conflicts, dissatisfaction with leader), organizational (faulty management style, unfavourable climate, controlling activities) – and extra-

organizational stressors, such as: family relations, country's economic crises, racial problems, too strong competition on the market. The body of psychological literature on the topic consists mostly of analyses concerning paramedics [Bartczak, Bartczak 2010], firefighters [Rząsowska, Fabryczewska 2007, Hetherington 2004] or police officers [Ogińska-Bulik 2003; Sigler, Wilson 1991; MacEachern, Jindal-Snape, Jackson 2011; Hetherington 2004]. It needs be noted that the group of mountain rescuers is no different when it comes to being exposed to negative consequences of stress (including the burnout syndrome), especially when combined with ineffective coping style.

There are many ways in which people deal with stress of both kinds – work-related and work-unrelated. According to Endler and Parker [as cited in: Strelau 2002, 2006] it is possible to distinguish three basic styles of coping: task-oriented (taking actions to solve the problem), emotion-oriented (typical of individuals who in crisis situation focus on themselves and their emotions) and avoidance-oriented (characteristic for individuals who evade thinking, experiencing and going through the situation) [Strelau 2002, 2006]. Task-oriented coping is considered to be the most beneficial and effective way of dealing with the problematic situation. Still, not everyone is able to cope efficiently. The reaction to stress depends on a group of intermediate factors, such as work, career, life-stress and individual differences. In their nature, the negative consequences of work-related stress may be physiological (influencing blood pressure,

and the levels of cholesterol, glucose or catecholamines). That, in turn, may lead to serious health setbacks [Dunnette, Hough 1992]. One of the specific consequences of inability to cope is the burnout syndrome.

Pursuant to Maslach [Maslach, Marek, Schaufeli 1998], the burnout syndrome is a complex of both physical and emotional exhaustion; its effects being negative self-esteem, negative attitude to work and decrease in the interest in patient's/client's problems [Maslach, Marek, Schaufeli 1998]. However, as stated in Cherniss [1980], the burnout syndrome is a prolonging, usually chronic work stress; requirements posed by workplace are exhausting and exceed resources available to an individual. The burnout syndrome is a three-phase process:

- emotional exhaustion (EEX) – one experiences somatic symptoms, feels physically tired out, the organism's immunity lowers;
- depersonalization (DEP) – one distances physically and psychically from one's client by treating them like objects;
- feeling of lack of personal accomplishment (PAC) – one experiences own competence and achievements as low/unimportant; a disposition to avoid new challenges at work occurs.

The burnout syndrome afflicts mostly individuals whose profession puts them in direct contact with other people – medical doctors, nurses, teachers. It may also touch emergency services, including mountain rescuers. As reported by Ogińska-Bulik [2003], the syndrome affects professionals who have to: stand up to unexpected/crisis challenges, make decisions under pressure, take responsibility for others' lives or health, be ready to provide help, work on rotary basis, or work too long hours [Brauchli, Bauer, Hämmig 2011, Leite 1991]. These are typical work conditions for mountain rescuers. Therefore, it seems worth taking a closer look at both organizational stress and level of burnout (which causes the quality of provided services to lower, what in turn can prove dangerous to the rescued) in mountain rescuers. Ruling out the main sources of stress in such cases could contribute to creating conditions to counteract stressors, and by that – to increasing the quality of the services.

The aim of the study

The aim of the study was to determine the specifications of work stress of mountain rescuers. The inquiry regarded main stressors, coping styles in stressful situations, as well as the level of burnout in members of Bieszczadzka Grupa GOPR (Bieszczady Mountain Rescue Team).

The following research questions were tabled

1. What situations related to carrying out rescuer's duty were the most stressful for members of BGGOPR (Bieszczadzka Grupa GOPR)?

2. What is the dominant coping style in the rescuers?
3. What is the relationship between levels of stress and the burnout syndrome in the group?

Method

The research was conducted with the use of the Coping Inventory of Stressful Situations (CISS) by Endler and Parker in the Polish adaptation by Strelau, Jaworowska, Wrześniewski, Szczepaniak [2005]. It consists of three scales: SSZ – task-oriented style, SSE – emotion-oriented style, SSU – avoidance-oriented style, which divides into two subscales: ACZ – engaging in substitute activities and PKT – the search for social contacts. Participants are to grade (on a 5-degree scale) the frequency with which they engage in a particular activity in stressful situations. The questionnaire is characterized by high validity and reliability. Another tool was The Maslach Burnout Inventory; which comprises three subscales, one for each stage of burnout: EEX – emotional exhaustion, DEP – depersonalization, PAR – personal accomplishment. The survey form "The Causes of Stress at Work of Mountain Rescuers" by Sylwia Pomykała [2012] was also used. It contains twenty questions. All of them are answered on a 5-degree scale, by means of which participants mark the levels of stress caused by particular factors.

Participants

The research was conducted on a group of 47 professionally active rescuers from BGGOPR. The age span was 24–67 years.

Participants were divided into two groups, based on the levels of stress measured by the survey form "The Causes of stress at work of mountain rescuers", the subscale "What levels of stress cause you the following factors".

The first group comprised highly stressed rescuers ($\bar{x} = 71.33$); the second group consisted of rescuers with medium levels of stress ($\bar{x} = 57.64$), while the last one gathered individuals scoring low on the stress scale ($\bar{x} = 43.17$).

Obtained results were statistically analysed; the analysis of variance was used.

Presentation of results

The analysis of results in Chart 1. shows that the most stressful factor for all the rescuers ($\bar{x} = 3.59$) was "Failed rescue attempt which resulted in death of the rescuee". Twenty five per cent of the participants described it as high level of stress, 31.82 per cent considered the stress to be of medium level, while for 18.18 per cent the situation was lowly stressful. None of them marked it as very low level of stress.

For the situation "Being aware, that tourists' health and life depends on you" a slightly lower overall stress

level was observed ($\bar{x}=3.48$). This factor was rated as highly stressing by 40.43 per cent of the group, while 17.02 per cent assigned it to a very high stress level; it was medium for 21.28 per cent, low – for 14.89 per cent and very low – for 6.38 per cent.

The third of the most stressful situations was “Being aware, that the loss of life, or permanent disability will negatively affect your family”. It was very stressful for 34.04 per cent; 19.15 per cent described it as highly stressful, and again as much (19.15 per cent) declared it to be of medium stress level. By 21.28 per cent of the rescuers it was seen as lowly stressful, and only 6.38 per cent considered it to be a source of very low stress.

For the whole group the least stressing factor was “Being aware, that after finishing the shift you may still be called to participate in a rescue operation”. Medium stress level for this situation was $\bar{x} = 2.29$. The largest percentage of participants (38.30 per cent) rated it as a very low source of stress. For 34.04 per cent it was only lowly stressful. 25.53 per cent considered it to be of medium stress level, and 2.13 per cent – as highly stressful. None of the participants deemed it to be very highly stressful.

The results for all analysed questions are shown in Chart 1, below.

Subsequent analyses are related to preferred styles of coping in the investigated group, as well as to the relationship between the style of coping, and the level of stress and burnout.

Repeated measures ANOVA showed that there is a diversification on the level of particular coping styles ($F_{2,92} = 103.61$; $p < .001$). Conducted planned compari-

sons uncovered that among the rescuers the task-oriented coping was predominant ($F_{1,46} = 208.48$; $p < .001$). This is shown in Graph 1.

Repeated measures ANOVA did not find a significant relation between stress level and preferred coping style ($F_{4,88} = 2.022$; $p = .098$). In all three groups the predominating coping style was task-oriented (Graph 2).

The carried out analysis of variance allowed to demonstrate statistically significant relationships of stress level with emotional exhaustion (EEX) ($F_{2,44} = 13.57$; $p < .001$) and depersonalization (DEP) ($F_{2,44} = 12.35$; $p < .001$); no significant relationship with personal accomplishment (PAR) was found ($F_{2,44} = .58$; $p = .566$). The results are depicted in Chart 2.

Planned comparisons revealed, that the group experiencing high stress was characterized by the highest level of emotional exhaustion ($F_{1,44} = 27.13$; $p < .001$). Also, the group of high stress presented the highest level of depersonalization ($F_{1,44} = 24.61$; $p < .001$). Furthermore, planned comparisons showed that the group of the highest stress had the lowest results in personal accomplishment ($F_{1,44} < .001$; $p = .987$); as showed on Graphs 3 and 4.

Discussion and conclusions

The obtained results show, that to the surveyed mountain rescuers the most stressful situations were those related to taking injuries and dying of the rescuee. This is probably caused by the fact, that human life is of paramount importance to every man, and that the specific character of

Chart 1. The level of rescuers' stress in separate situations, as measured by separate questions from the survey form “The Causes of Stress at Work of Mountain Rescuers”.

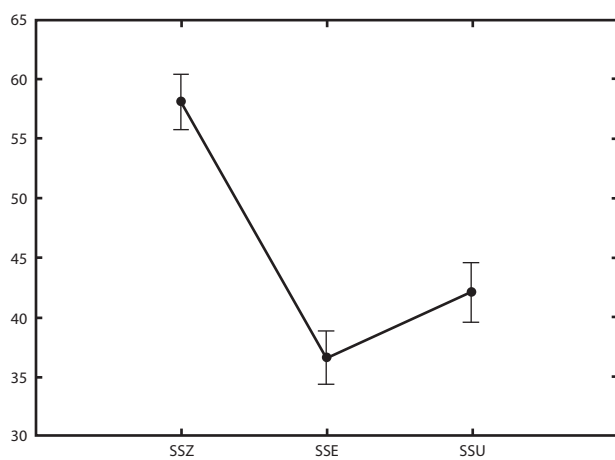
Question	Stress level	% of participants to have marked the answer				
	\bar{x}	very low	low	medium	high	very high
Rescuee dies due to rescue operation failure	3,59	0,00%	18,18%	31,82%	25,00%	25,00%
Operation of retrieving a dead body	2,82	13,64%	31,82%	29,55%	13,64%	11,36%
Health damage during rescue operation	3,25	0,00%	21,28%	42,55%	25,53%	10,64%
Being aware, that tourists' health and life depend on you	3,48	6,38%	14,89%	21,28%	40,43%	17,02%
Difficult weather conditions during rescue operation	2,81	2,13%	40,43%	38,30%	17,02%	2,13%
Participating in an operation with a rescuer in whom you have lower professional confidence	3,15	2,13%	25,53%	42,55%	21,28%	8,51%
Being aware, that the loss of life, or permanent disability will negatively affect your family	3,46	6,38%	21,28%	19,15%	34,04%	19,15%
Tourists disregarding the dangers of Bieszczady Mountains	3,04	17,02%	23,40%	23,40%	21,28%	14,89%

Underestimating the rescuer's work by others	2,81	17,02%	34,04%	25,53%	10,64%	12,77%
Insufficient funding for Bieszczady Mountains Rescue Team	3,19	14,89%	19,15%	31,91%	14,89%	19,15%
Conflicts with other rescuers	2,75	12,77%	40,43%	25,53%	19,15%	2,13%
Lack of sense of security during shift / on duty	2,71	17,02%	36,17%	25,53%	21,28%	0,00%
False alarms	2,65	21,28%	38,30%	23,40%	10,64%	6,38%
Being aware of your worse psycho-physical condition while on shift / duty	3,02	10,64%	27,66%	38,30%	19,15%	4,26%
Personal problems which make it difficult to focus or rescuing	2,92	10,64%	31,91%	40,43%	14,89%	2,13%
Underestimating of your work by other co-workers	3,13	4,26%	36,17%	31,91%	25,53%	2,13%
Weak integration of the group	3,06	12,77%	27,66%	34,04%	21,28%	4,26%
The influence of work on your family life	3,23	6,38%	23,40%	46,81%	19,15%	4,26%
Lengthy brooding over failed operations	2,69	23,40%	31,91%	31,91%	12,77%	0,00%
Being aware, that after finishing the shift you may still be called to participate in a rescue operation	2,29	38,30%	34,04%	25,53%	2,13%	0,00%

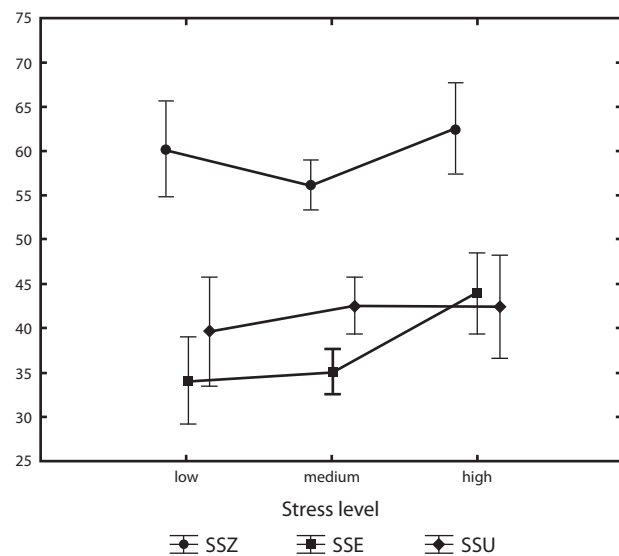
mountain rescuers work makes it a priority to provide help to other people. "Rescuer has to stand up to very high social expectations for this profession has been deemed particularly humanitarian. As in the case of a medical doctor, the rescuer is required to accept the fact, that rescuee's well-being is the highest law" [Ryn 2001, p. 68].

The analysis of the data allowed to make the observation, that the most common coping strategy in mountain rescuers is the task-oriented one, irrespective of the declared professional stress level. This kind of work demands the ability to make quick – and often hazardous

– decisions. Rescuer's work in strongly task-oriented and involves following strict procedures on daily basis. Therefore, mountain rescuer has to act decidedly and focus on achieving the goal – since that often is what human life depends on. According to Smith [1999] there is a kind of generalization of training in coping. It seems possible, that regular exposure to difficult situations will increase the use of task-oriented coping in order to solve the problem at hand.



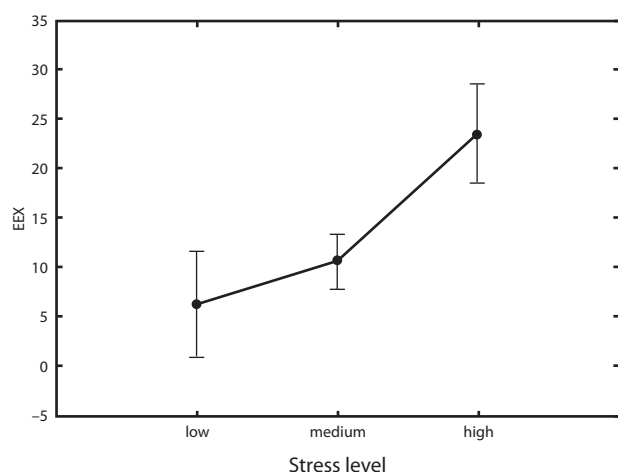
Graph 1. Task-oriented (SSZ), emotion-oriented (SSE) and avoidance-oriented (SSU) coping styles in the investigated group.



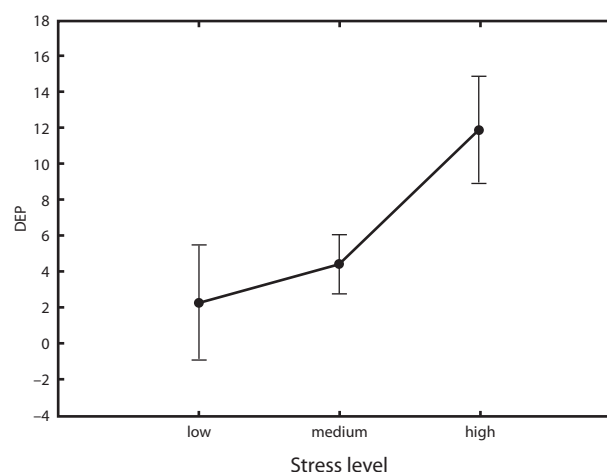
Graph 2. The stress level vs. coping style in surveyed mountain rescuers.

Chart 2. The level of stress vs. burnout.

	<i>Df</i>	<i>EEX – F</i>	<i>EEX – p</i>	<i>DEP – F</i>	<i>DEP – p</i>	<i>IPAR – F</i>	<i>IPAR – p</i>
Stress level	2	13.57	0.000	12.35	0.000	0.58	0.566
Error	44						



Graph 3. Stress level vs. emotional exhaustion.



Graph 4. Stress level vs. depersonalization.

The last issue addressed was the burnout syndrome. The use of active, task-oriented coping strategies decreases the level of burnout. At the same time, making use of the emotion-oriented coping is a predictor of higher stress level and burnout [Antoniou, Ploumpi, Ntalla 2013]. Just as Kennedy [2013] claims, the syndrome is related to a tendency to resort to emotion-oriented coping. The relationship between the intensity of stress and coping strategies was also observed [Hung C-Lun 2011]. At the same time, the presented research suggests that mountain rescuers who experience stronger professional stress are characterized by the burnout syndrome to the greatest extent. The highest professional stress was also predictive of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. As can be seen, there is a connection between stress and burnout-related negative emotions. That is also in line with Łosiak [2007, p. 27]. In spite of that, in all the participants the task-oriented coping strategy was predominant. Interestingly, in none of them the relationship between stress level and negative self-achievement was found. This may be the result of social prestige and successful rescue (and search) operations, which are effectively performed tasks and as such provide “defence” from feeling lack of professional achievement. It is also possible, that the rescuers are passionate about their job, and that prevents them from burning out. In consonance with Michał Jagiełło [Matuszyk 2010, p. 164]: “It is true, that the work at mountain rescue cannot be a just a job, as any other – it has to be a vocation. Still, it is not easy for a rescuer to live by the truth each day.”

Practical conclusion

As the research showed, the most stressful situations were: “Rescuee dies due to rescue operation failure”, “Being aware, that tourists’ health and life depend on you” and “Being aware, that the loss of life, or permanent disability will negatively affect your family”. Therefore, in providing psychological support for mountain rescuers, it seems essential to pay special attention to shielding them from such situations.

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Motivation to participate in physical education classes among the pupils of 4th–6th grades of Polish primary school and the pupils' perception of teacher's didactic style

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Summary

Motivation plays an essential role in educational process. Higher levels of intrinsic motivation among pupils are related with better performance at school. Teacher's didactic style may influence pupils' both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

The aim of the study was to investigate the correlations between the perception of teacher's didactic style by the pupils of 4th–6th grade of Polish primary schools, and the level of pupils' motivation to participate in physical education classes.

The Polish version of MPAM-R questionnaire has been used, as well as the scale measuring teachers' didactic style, as perceived by pupils.

It has been observed that the level of motivation to participate was growing along with the increase of positive behaviours and attitudes presented by the physical education teacher. With the increase of negative behaviours – the level of motivation was decreasing. It has been also noticed that the older pupils were, the lower was the level of their motivation to engage physical activity; also the level of perceived teacher's positive behaviours was decreasing, and the frequency of perceiving negative behaviours was increasing.

Key words: motivation, physical activity, education, physical education

Introduction

Child's motivation to physical or sport activity – as a developmental effect of social environment including behaviours of parents, teachers and peer group – has a strong influence on their interest in physical activities in the adult life [Vallerand, Deci & Ryan 1987].

For this matter, the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is crucial [Gillet, Wallerand & Lafrenière 2012]. On the most basic level, intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation – to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome [Ryan & Deci 2000]. More broadly, motivation can be understood as a specific continuum, ranging from autonomous internal regulation, to non-autonomous extrinsic regulation [Ryan & Deci 2000]. Within the extrinsic motivation four types are distinguished, varying in the level of autonomy: external regulation, introjection,

identification, and integration [Ryan & Deci 2000]. Two non-autonomous types of motivation are the external regulation – imposed and controlled entirely by external factors, and the introjection – occurring in order to avoid guilt or anxiety. More autonomous are the motivation through integration, regarding intentional choice of the Self-important goal, and the integrated regulation associated with the satisfaction from accomplishing the goal. The lower the level of autonomy of motivation to certain action is, the harder it is to find satisfaction from achieved results. Consequently, it may lead to a situation, in which in spite of objectively high accomplishments, the well-being of an individual is not improving [Ryan, Mims & Koestner 1983].

Much research has documented the role of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in educational process [Gillet, Vallerand & Lafrenière 2012]. For instance, pupils' intrinsic motivation is connected with higher level of satisfaction from participating in school activities, bet-

ter performance, and with persistence in achieving goals, whereas external motivation may cause them to decrease [Cordova & Lepper 1996; Deci et al. 1991; Reeve et al. 2004; Vallerand 1994]. Social control exerted by a coach or teacher, may decrease the pupils' interest and enjoyment from engaging into sport activities [Wild, Enzle, Nix & Deci 1997]. For instance, control through means of conditional encouragements and punishments [Lepper, Greene & Nisbett 1973], or the explicit surveillance over the performed activity [Lepper & Green 1975], may lower the level of intrinsic motivation [Cf. Deci, Koestner, & Ryan 1999]. On the other hand studies show that external rewards – like praising, which builds up pupils' self-esteem – may increase enthusiasm and enjoyment [Smith, Smoll & Curits 1979]. This effect has been observed especially among the children with low self-esteem [Smith & Smoll 1990]. Physical education teacher in the primary school should therefore pay close attention to the methods of motivating the pupils to participate in the lessons. It seems even more essential considering the results of the studies showing that among pupils aged 9–12 the level of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is decreasing [Gillet, Vallerand & Lafrenière 2012], and that the teacher's influence on pupils' performance at school is larger than the influence of the conditions of teaching, or of the school itself [Nye, Konstantopolous & Hedges 2004].

As Gracz and Sankowski [2007] stated, a person teaching any form of physical activity should aim at developing of intrinsic motivation in pupils, especially the one manifesting through the interest in the discipline. Pupils' intrinsic motivation demonstrates itself, among other things, in the need for self-improvement, expanding the skills and taking satisfaction from the participation in PE classes. Blecharz [2004] notices the significant role of the vision of development in the children's motivation process. He suggests that generating and sustaining this vision is possible due to the encouraging and stimulating motivational mechanisms provided by adults. It is very important to remember that all of the teacher's and coach's influence on children should lead chiefly to the development of intrinsic motivation, allowing children to feel joy and to grow self-esteem by means of the sport activities [Blecharz 2004]. This approach provides an opportunity for the development of skills and talents.

Urbańska and Urbański [2011, p. 88] state that “overly frequent application of external attribution for success (underestimation of one's contribution to the achievement) and of internal attribution for failure (blaming oneself for certain situations) might significantly decrease pupil's self-esteem and motivation to learn”. In case of physical education classes it may have the same result on the willingness to participate in sport activities. In this area it is the teacher who has the substantial influ-

ence on how pupils perceive their successes and failures. It is the teacher's role to react on pupils' performance during the classes, and his reactions are one of the crucial stimuli which motivate the pupils to further active participation in sport activities. Teacher's didactic style is under constant evaluation of pupils. This evaluation (not teacher's self-evaluation) plays a key role in the process of motivating. For this reason the presented study will focus on determining the association between the PE teacher's didactic style as perceived by the pupils of 4th–6th grade of primary school, and pupils' motivation to participate in these classes.

The following research questions were raised:

1. Is there an association between the type and the level of motivation to participate in PE classes, and the pupils' perception of teacher's didactic style?
2. Do the pupils of 4th, 5th, and 6th grades evaluate the PE teacher's didactic style in a different way?
3. Do the pupils of 4th, 5th, and 6th grades have a different level and type of motivation to participate in the PE classes?
4. Do girls and boys evaluate PE teacher's didactic style in the same way?
5. Do boys have a different level and type of motivation to participate in PE classes than girls?

Method

Participants

The participants comprised 290 pupils of 4th–6th grades of primary schools – 153 girls and 137 boys. The average age was 11.85 years. The research was conducted in three schools.

Research tools

Two questionnaires were used. The first one was the Polish version of Motivation for Physical Activities Measure – Revised (MPAM-R) questionnaire [Ryan et al. 1997]. The scale was translated by using the back-translation procedure, and then adjusted to the measurement of the motivation to engage physical activities during PE classes. The scale consists of 30 items – reasons to engage in physical activities. It measures five types of motives (exemplary statements in the brackets): Enjoyment (“Because I enjoy this activity”), Competence (“Because I want to sustain the level of my skills”), Appearance (“Because I want to improve the way I look”), Fitness (“Because I want to have more energy”), and Social (“Because I want to spend time with my friends”). The analysis of the translated questionnaire proved a high reliability of each of the scales (Tab. 1.). Considering the type of the license, the full version of the questionnaire cannot be contained here (See the English version in Ryan et al., 1997). The Polish version is available on request.

Table 1. The analysis of the reliability of the Polish translation of MPAM-R scale.

Motives	α_{Cronbach} ($N = 290$)	M	SD
Enjoyment	0.93	38.83	10.75
Competence	0.91	40.01	9.51
Appearance	0.87	32.49	8.90
Fitness	0.84	29.33	6.02
Social	0.81	25.80	7.47

The second, self-written questionnaire consists of 18 exemplary situations regarding the teacher's possible behaviours and attitudes during the physical education lessons. Pupils were to determine to what extent the situations mentioned refer to their PE teacher. Answers were given on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 meant given behaviour almost never occurred, and 7 – that the behaviour occurs almost always. The complete analysis of the questionnaire was included in the results.

Procedure

The participants were anonymously filling the questionnaires during PE classes. Prior to the distribution of questionnaires all of the participants were provided with oral instruction. The time for completing the task was individually adjusted each group's needs.

Statistical analyses

The calculations were conducted with the use of statistical analysis software STATISTICA 12 and SPSS 21. The following analyses were used: factor analysis, Pearson's correlation analysis, the analysis of variants with multiple comparisons and Bonferroni correction, and Hochberg's post-hoc tests. The statistical significance level was set at $\alpha = 0.05$.

Results

The analysis of the structure of the questionnaire for the pupils' perception of physical education teacher's didactic style

Performed Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 2197.02$; $df = 153$; $p < 0.001$), and the KMO factor ($KMO = 0.915$) proved the heterogeneity of data matrix, which supported the usage of factor analysis [Czopek 2013]. Two criteria were used to determine the number of the factors in scale: the eigenvalues and the Scree Test [Czopek 2013]. The analysis was conducted for three – and four-factor structures, however, the performed Varimax rotation proved that the four-factor model was a better match (Tab. 2.).

Four factors were statistically selected out of the above-mentioned items: Engagement, Adaptation, Negative Behaviour, and Explanation. Engagement factor refers to teacher's interest in physical activity, the way the classes are prepared, promotion of fair play, and taking care of pupils' safety. Adaptation factor comprise a group of items considering teacher's abilities in adjusting the classes to the current space conditions, situation or other problematic matters. Negative Behaviour factor regards clearly negative teacher's behaviour, e.g. favouring pupils and performing monotonous classes. Explanation factor refers to the items related to teacher's behaviours indicating the ability to reinforce positive behaviour and to explain the performance of the exercise.

The reliability analysis showed that the scale reached high level of reliability in the first factor – Engagement ($\alpha_{\text{Cronbach}} = 0.89$), and satisfying levels in second factor – Adaptation ($\alpha_{\text{Cronbach}} = 0.72$), as well as fourth factor – Explanation ($\alpha_{\text{Cronbach}} = 0.74$). The low reliability of the third factor – Negative Behaviour ($\alpha_{\text{Cronbach}} = 0.36$) is presumably associated with a small number of questions.

The analysis of the associations between the motivation to participate in the physical education classes, and pupils' perception of teacher's didactic style

The performed correlation analyses (Tab. 3.) showed that with the growth of the levels of Engagement, Adaptation and Explanation in the teacher's behaviour (as perceived by pupils), the level of all of the types of motivation to participate in the physical activities during the classes increased. With the growth of perceived teacher's Negative Behaviour, the level of motivation related to enjoyment, achieving new competences, and social contacts decreased.

The comparison between the grades and sexes in the motivation to participate in physical activities during the physical education classes

The performed interaction analyses showed that the differences between sexes in the motivation to participate in physical activities during the PE classes vary between the grades in the level of Enjoyment and Appearance.

Table 2. Factor loadings matrix after the Varimax rotation.

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Teacher is exercising with the pupils	0.11	0.47	0.01	0.51
Teacher instructs how to do the exercise	0.24	0.12	0.03	0.83
Teacher considers our sport preferences (asks what do we want to do during lesson)	0.36	0.48	0.36	0.27
Teacher knows the news from the sport world	0.46	0.25	0.05	0.53
Teacher praises us for engagement and progress	0.55	0.11	0.21	0.55
Teacher always conducts the lessons the same way	0.23	-0.05	-0.77	-0.11
Teacher takes care of our safety	0.73	0.14	0.01	0.21
Teacher can give the lesson in “extreme” conditions (e.g., when the gym is occupied)	0.30	0.67	-0.07	-0.01
Teacher adjusts the classes to the season (sledge during the winter. rollerblades in the spring)	-0.08	0.77	0.12	0.17
Teacher promotes fair play	0.67	0.23	0.17	0.23
Teacher dresses himself accordingly (sport clothes, not jeans)	0.73	-0.07	-0.12	0.18
Teacher points out the value of both physical activity and healthy diet	0.29	0.67	0.07	0.19
Teacher reacts to conflicts between pupils	0.75	0.11	0.17	0.21
Teacher favours some pupils	-0.33	-0.03	-0.70	0.04
Teacher encourages to perform physical activities outside the school	0.66	0.20	-0.04	0.18
Teacher moves with the times (knows current trends in sport)	0.59	0.47	-0.16	0.23
Teacher’s appearance suggests that he/she is in good shape	0.78	0.21	0.02	0.09
Teacher adjusts the classes so that it would be interesting for both girls and boys	0.67	0.38	0.26	-0.00

The factor loadings greater than 0.48 were marked

Table 3. The associations between the motivation to participate in physical activities during the PE classes, and teacher’s didactic style as perceived by the pupils ($N = 290$).

	Enjoyment	Competence	Appearance	Fitness	Social
Engagement	0.56***	0.47***	0.32***	0.48***	0.38***
Adaptation	0.35***	0.29***	0.35***	0.32***	0.34***
Negative	-0.19**	-0.13*	-0.09 ^{NS}	-0.10 ^{NS}	-0.12*
Explanation	0.44***	0.32***	0.29***	0.39***	0.31***

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; NS: statistically non-significant

ance motives (Tab. 4.). In both cases boys from 5th grade had a higher level of these types of motivation, than in 4th grade. This difference was even more visible among the boys from 6th grade. It was observed that in the case of Competence and Social motives there was a tendency for change of the differentiation of their levels in boys and girls depending also on the grade. It occurred that the motivation related to achieving new competences and to making social contacts was significantly higher among boys only in 6th grade. In lower grades the level

was similar in both sexes. No significant interaction observed among motivation related to being in good physical shape and this motivation was significantly higher among boys than girls.

The interesting results were obtained though the comparison of the level of motivation between the grades, but regardless to the sex (Tab. 5.). They indicate, that in the 6th grade the level of all types of motives to participate in the physical education classes significantly decreases.

Table 4. The level of motivation to participate in the physical activities during PE classes among boys and girls in 4th, 5th, and 6th grade.

Motive	Grade	Boys			Girls			Comp.		Int.	
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$F_{1,284}$	<i>p</i>	$F_{2,284}$	<i>p</i>
E	4th	36	43.28	7.57	45	42.49	9.72	0.13	0.721	3.29	0.039
	5th	46	42.65	9.63	51	37.86	9.69	5.69	0.018		
	6th	55	38.96	9.90	57	30.77	11.46	19.28	<0.001		
	all	137	41.34	9.39	153	36.58	11.41	15.31	<0.001		
C	4th	36	43.00	8.53	45	42.27	9.86	0.14	0.713	2.78	0.064
	5th	46	43.30	7.59	51	40.41	8.01	2.55	0.111		
	6th	55	40.00	9.22	57	33.32	9.74	15.76	<0.001		
	all	137	41.90	8.60	153	38.31	9.99	10.54	0.001		
A	4th	36	33.69	8.82	45	34.91	8.93	0.40	0.527	3.08	0.047
	5th	46	35.67	6.87	51	31.61	8.91	5.43	0.020		
	6th	55	32.56	8.49	57	27.95	9.16	8.10	0.005		
	all	137	33.91	8.12	153	31.22	9.39	5.96	0.015		
F	4th	36	31.33	4.65	45	30.60	6.62	0.34	0.562	1.80	0.168
	5th	46	31.74	4.79	51	29.29	4.67	4.53	0.034		
	6th	55	29.16	6.06	57	25.30	6.35	13.12	<0.001		
	all	137	30.60	5.40	153	28.19	6.32	12.24	0.001		
S	4th	36	29.33	5.60	45	28.16	8.03	0.58	0.446	2.74	0.066
	5th	46	27.80	6.68	51	25.59	6.04	2.50	0.115		
	6th	55	25.82	7.15	57	20.26	7.30	18.16	<0.001		
	all	137	27.41	6.72	153	24.36	7.83	13.25	<0.001		

Multiple comparisons for the differences between sexes were performed with Bonferroni correction

E: Enjoyment **C:** Competence **A:** Appearance **F:** Fitness **S:** Social **Comp.:** Comparison between boys and girls **Int.:** Interaction

Table 5. The level of motivation to participate in the physical activities during PE classes between the grades.

Motive	Grade	Hochberg's test (<i>p</i> -value)		Descriptive			ANOVA	
		5th	6th	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$F_{2,284}$	<i>p</i>
Enjoyment	4th	0.194	<0.001	81	42.84	8.79	16.77	<0.001
	5th		<0.001	97	40.13	9.90		
	6th			112	34.79	11.44		
Competence	4th	0.906	<0.001	81	42.59	9.25	13.47	<0.001
	5th		<0.001	97	41.78	7.91		
	6th			112	36.60	10.03		
Appearance	4th	0.888	0.003	81	34.37	8.85	6.45	0.002
	5th		0.017	97	33.54	8.22		
	6th			112	30.21	9.10		
Fitness	4th	0.925	<0.001	81	30.93	5.81	13.23	<0.001
	5th		<0.001	97	30.45	4.86		
	6th			112	27.20	6.48		
Social	4th	0.143	<0.001	81	28.68	7.04	17.06	<0.001
	5th		0.001	97	26.64	6.42		
	6th			112	22.99	7.71		

The comparison between the grades and sexes in perceived teacher's didactic style

The performed interaction analyses (Tab. 6.) showed tendency to differentiate in perceived level of explanation perceived accuracy of explanation of performed exercise and teacher's negative behaviour between girls and boys and between grades. It was also observed that only in the 4th grade boys perceived these behaviours more frequently than girls. Among the 5th- and 6th-graders the difference between sexes faded. Overall, boys more frequently than girls perceived teacher's engagement.

Interesting results were obtained through the comparison between the grades, regardless of the sex (Tab. 7.). They indicate a significant decrease of the level of perceived accuracy of explanation of performed exercise and the usage of right motivation techniques by the PE teacher, during the consecutive years of education. For the level of perceived negative behaviours the direction of correlation is inverted – during the consecutive years of education pupils perceived increasingly more favouring of some pupils over the others, and more monotony during the classes. The significant decrease of the perceived level of teacher's ability to adapt to different conditions was observed only in the comparison of 4th and 6th grades.

Discussion

Teacher's didactic style during PE lessons – as perceived by pupils – is not insignificant when it comes to motivation to participate in physical activities. The better the teacher is in adjusting the classes to the current conditions and to pupils' abilities, and the more he is engaged in the classes, the higher is the pupils' motivation to participate. As observed by Madejski [2013], teachers recognise the relevance of proper methodological education in giving lessons of physical education among children.

The obtained results indicate that the pupils of 4th grade stand out from the whole group of participants. In almost all cases they had high levels of motivation to participate in PE classes, and evaluated teacher's didactic style higher, comparing with the pupils from higher grades. There were no significant statistical differences in the Enjoyment and Appearance motives between the boys and girls in this grade. It shows that boys and girls at the beginning of the second part of primary school are equally interested in physical activities, and that it changes during the following years. The results might also indicate that the older the pupils are, the less interested in PE classes they become. It is particularly visible among the pupils in 6th grade, perhaps due to greater

Table 6. The level of perception of teacher's didactic style during the physical education classes as perceived by boys and girls in 4th, 5th, and 6th grades.

Style	Grade	Boys			Girls			Comp.		Int.	
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i> _{1,284}	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i> _{2,284}	<i>p</i>
E	4th	36	49.39	7.69	45	47.36	7.47	.55	0.457	1.69	0.187
	5th	46	47.43	9.00	51	39.75	14.12	12.58	<0.001		
	6th	55	41.29	9.33	57	35.75	12.10	5.82	0.016		
	all	137	45.48	9.43	153	40.50	12.58	16.76	<0.001		
A	4th	36	22.22	9.59	45	22.51	8.27	0.03	0.858	0.66	0.519
	5th	46	21.50	6.19	51	19.31	6.12	2.22	0.137		
	6th	55	19.11	7.90	57	17.77	5.27	0.96	0.327		
	all	137	17.28	6.56	153	16.57	5.84	0.79	0.376		
N	4th	36	7.25	4.39	45	4.96	3.64	10.49	0.001	2.72	0.067
	5th	46	7.63	2.78	51	7.27	2.36	0.30	0.581		
	6th	55	8.82	2.78	57	8.47	3.13	0.33	0.566		
	all	137	8.01	3.32	153	7.04	3.37	7.03	0.008		
Ex	4th	36	7.25	4.39	45	4.96	3.64	10.49	0.001	2.72	0.067
	5th	46	7.63	2.78	51	7.27	2.36	0.30	0.581		
	6th	55	8.82	2.78	57	8.47	3.13	0.33	0.566		
	all	137	20.54	5.62	153	19.31	5.44	4.77	0.030		

Multiple comparisons for the differences between sexes were performed with Bonferroni correction

E: Engagement **A:** Adaptation **N:** Negative **Ex:** Explanation **Comp.:** Comparison between boys and girls **Int.:** Interaction

Table 7. The level of perception of teacher's didactic style during the physical education classes between the grades.

		Hochberg's Test (<i>p</i> -value)		Descriptive			ANOVA	
Style	Grade	5th	6th	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i> _{2,284}	<i>p</i>
Engage- ment	4th	0.007	<0.001	81	48.26	7.59	20.98	<0.001
	5th		0.002	97	43.39	12.52		
	6th			112	38.47	11.13		
Adaptation	4th	0.225	0.001	81	18.70	7.41	6.60	0.002
	5th		0.130	97	17.11	5.08		
	6th			112	15.43	5.77		
Negative	4th	0.007	<0.001	81	5.97	4.13	15.09	<0.001
	5th		0.020	97	7.44	2.56		
	6th			112	8.64	2.96		
Explanation	4th	0.281	<0.001	81	21.53	5.30	8.46	<0.001
	5th		0.054	97	20.21	5.54		
	6th			112	18.43	5.55		

demands posed by other school subjects. It can be also observed that as early as in the 5th grade pupils more often begin to notice teacher's negative behaviour during PE lessons, and this tendency increases in the 6th grade. It is worth considering if the teachers who in 4th grade only begin to get to know their pupils do not attach more importance to the variety of performed exercises and equal treating of all pupils, than during the following years, when they rest on laurels performing the same schemas of lessons over and over again, which is not motivating for the pupils. This negative effect might be based on misunderstanding of the modern approach to education, where giving pupils some autonomy plays a significant role due to many educational benefits obtained [Reeve 2009; Reeve, Deci & Ryan 2004]. Among them the growth of pupils' engagement in the classes may be listed [Reeve et al. 2004]. Not obvious as it may be, supporting the autonomy is not equivalent to the lack of structure. It is the combination of both of them that increases the level of pupils' engagement during the classes [Jang, Reeve & Deci 2010].

It should be kept in mind, that the obtained results of the correlation between the types and the levels of motivation to participate in the physical activities, and the teacher's didactic style perceived by pupils should be treated with certain reservation. The scale of teacher's negative behaviour was the least reliable part of the questionnaire, comprising only two items.

Pupils of 4th–6th grade are in the second apogee of motor development, for which the easiness in acquiring new, even complicated movement schemes is characteristic [Osiński 2000]. For this reason, lowering the level

of motivation to participate in PE classes right before the end of this period and before the beginning of puberty may cause problems. During this period child's physiology undergoes significant modifications, resulting in a temporal phase of motor ungainliness. Too low level of motivation during the period of better motor functioning might have a fatal effect on engaging physical activities during the following years of the development – the period of secondary education. Of course, there is a possibility, that for some pupils the period of puberty might start earlier, and the changes that the children undergo may start while they are in 5th or 6th grade, but most probably it cannot be treated as an explanation for the observed differentiation in the levels of motivation. What makes it even less probable is the fact, that motor difficulties during the puberty period are more visible among girls, whereas the obtained results indicate, that the motivation to participate in PE classes decreased with age among both girls and boys.

Conclusions

- With age the levels of all of the types of motivations to participate in physical activities decrease.
- Monotony and favouring of some pupils over others might result in decrease of the levels of all of the pupils' motivations to engage in physical activities.
- Since the joy of participating in physical activities in 10-year-olds is similarly high in girls and boys, the differences in the interest in physical activities in both sexes may be levelled by the teacher by performing various exercises during the PE classes.

- Teachers should pay special attention to the level of motivation to physical activities among the pupils of 6th grade, as the obtained results indicate that these children have the lowest levels of all types of motives, what might result in withdrawal from the physical activities in the future.

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Chess in the view of game classification*

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Summary

The article discusses the phenomenon of the game of chess in chosen existing game classifications. The aim of the article is analysis of chess complexity, from the game as a form of play to issues of the theory of games. A basic question concerns the position of chess in the general classification of games. Due to the interdisciplinary character of the article, the subject area covers both sociological, philosophical as well as mathematical matters, especially providing for the theory of games. In the article the method of qualitative content analysis was used.

Keywords: game, game classification, chess, theory of games

*None of the many games invented by human mind
may even be compared to chess for its old age,
variety, moral values and pleasure.
Chess deserves to be called «a scientific game».*

Howard Staunton

The phenomenon of game and play is a subject of studies of many disciplines, especially humanities, mathematics or studies of physical culture. The aim of this article is analysis of the complexity of chess, starting from children's play to the phenomenon of the world of game, including the theory of games. The review nature of the survey will let you expand your knowledge in this field from humanities perspective. In order to thoroughly develop the chosen topic, the method of qualitative content analysis was used. It relies on proper understanding and explaining keynotes in the chosen documents and mutual bonds existing between them [Kamiński 1989, pp. 158–159].

Since the beginning of human civilisation, games and plays have always been present in the man's life. These phenomena have attracted many thinkers and research-

ers, serious studies on the topic, however, appeared only in the 19th century. It turned out that this phenomenon does not only concern the youngest, but also adults. Over the centuries, chess has evoked interest, recruiting many an enthusiast not only amongst the rich and ruling. Chess as a "royal game," through its variable character, is a versatile phenomenon – rest, brain entertainment, friendly game, as well as competition, duel or intellectual challenge. The game of chess is the subject of many research reviews, however in order to uni-vocally determine the role of the game in the life of the society it would be recommended to use various fields of knowledge: philosophy, sociology, mathematics or history. Additionally Halina Zdebska [2008, p. 25] states that "if you want to take part in the game and enjoy it, you must meet certain requirements – show necessary minimum set by its rules".

* Studies on chess are included in the following publications: R. Ingarden, 1960, *Spór o istnienie świata*, PWN, Warsaw – chess as an analysis of ontological objects of purely intentional character; R. Fine, 1956, *The Psychology of the Chess Player*, Dover Pub. NY S. – psychological aspects of chess and analysis of chess in the context of Z. Freud's study; S. Lem, 1968, *Filozofia przypadku: literatura w świetle empirii* (rozdz. *Szachy i kultura*), Wydawnictwo Literackie, Kraków – based on chess, the author analyses chosen cultural structures; B. Franklin, 1779, *The Moral of Chess* – analysis of chess from educational, moral and ethical point; J. Gajewski, *Szachy z perspektywy definicji sportu*, "Ido Movement for Culture. Journal of Martial Arts Anthropology", vol. XII, nr 2/2012, p. 6–10

Culturological context of the game

The Dutch scholar Johan Huizinga in his work 'Homo ludens. A Study of the Play-Element in Culture' shows the connection between games and plays and shaping chosen culture-creating and social processes over the past years. The author of the works introduces the term *homo ludens* (Latin 'playing man'). The concept is based on the assumption that human activities are driven by play, game and competition.

Johan Huizinga [translated into Polish in 2007] defined play as voluntary activity or action performed in certain time and space frames according to voluntarily accepted, but unconditionally obeyed rules, is a goal in itself, accompanied by the feeling of anticipation and joy, as well as awareness of "otherness" than "everyday life" [pp. 51–52]. The concept of game is closely related to the concept of play. It is undeniable that these terms are synonymous words, and are considered by many synonyms. However, there is discrepancy between those terms. There are no strict rules as to how play should run because its participants can always introduce new rules, new elements or ideas how to release it. The action of a game, however, is limited by principals and rules running along certain tracks, which means that the participants joining the game cannot change them. Another disproportion between play and game is the number of participants: you can play alone; in order to compete you need an opponent. Thus, according to Huizinga [transl. 2007, pp. 29, 86] play "presents something," in a game you compete "for" something.

If the game of chess is to be considered entertainment, we will think about friendly games in friendly and favourable circumstances, for example a grandson playing with his grandpa, a 'duel' of elderly men in the park. Considering a game of two chess grandmasters, however, it must be viewed as something more than entertainment – it is a duel of two intellects, because for both of them winning, positive result of the game, is the most important. The phenomenon of dual competition may already be observed among the youngest adepts of the royal game. A spontaneous game of chess of children in the school common-room is a child play; the competition of children at the Polish Chess Championships of Under-6 Children, however, should be considered not a play, but a competition for something, for the title of the best preschooler in Poland.

The French sociologist and philosopher Roger Caillois [1997, p. 20], clarifies the theses accepted by Huizinga, distinguishing six basic features of the game:

1. Voluntary activity – play and game imposed or ordered does not deliver its basic function, which is enjoying it.
2. Isolated activity – playing the game happens in particular range of time and space. Games of chess do

not go beyond a 64-field chessboard, then it does not matter what is going on beyond it. In addition, a game of chess is limited in time, and the time is measured using a special chess clock.

3. Activity containing element of uncertainty – the game is accompanied by tension concerning unpredicted result. Neither the course nor the result of a game of chess of distinguishable ranking players are certain because in order to achieve the goal ending the game of chess, you must endeavour it through gaining positional and subsequently material advantage, which results in the mated King.
4. Unprofitable activity – the aim of the game is not to gain material possessions. Taking gambling into consideration, where you play for money, we only deal with relocation of property here. According to the effective Chess Code, at some chess tournaments chess notation is required, which leads to the material effect – the chess score sheet.
5. Regulated activity – rules, conventions effective in a given game and approved by each player entering the game, they lead into the temporary world sphere, which causes the real rules to stop. The chess legislation is represented by the Chess Code, normalised by FIDE – the World Chess Federation.
6. Fictional activity – disconnecting from daily life and feeling secondary reality.

The variety of games and plays results in different points of views, which leads to many classifications to appear. The term 'game' "combines in itself the concepts of border, invention and freedom, supplemented by the terms of happiness and dexterity – means made available by chance (or coincidence) and intelligence allowing to take the biggest profit" [Zdebska 2008, p. 14]. Roger Caillois [1997, pp. 23–31] distinguished the four basic game categories, described by the variety of the working rules: competition-based games – *agon*, games based on dumb luck – *alea*, games relying on mimicry – *mimicry*, as well as games based on bewilderment – *ilinx*:

1. *Agon* – games and plays featuring duelling, competition. Such games include all various sports competitions which are based on both physical and mental effort, i.e.: football, fencing, boxing or various races. A characteristic feature of this group is fairness, which means equal chances of its competitors at start – victory is then undeniable. The most important are the personal values which the player wants to reveal at start. Looking at it objectively it has to be noted that absolute equality of chances is impossible. "The reason is not only in individual possibilities of a subject (their psychophysical predispositions), but also in external conditions compared to the subject, background (material condition of the family, club, the level of coaches)" [Zdebska 2008,

- p. 26]. Agonist games rely on each player willing to present their prevailing personal values, that is why proper preparation is necessary – training. Additionally, the participants practising agon are required to be disciplined, do maximum effort, have stamina and will to fight.
2. Alea (Latin dice game) – a group of games where success results from blessing. Contrary to agon, alea eliminates personal values because the player in the game is either incredibly prosperous, or totally misfortunate. In such games, the player is passive because he/she does not show any will to fight or make effort, so the training is not necessary. The role of the player is only to enter the game and arrange it. It should be noticed here that victory over fate is important here, and not over the opponent. The examples of games in this category are, among others, roulette, lottery, heads or tails, stock exchange speculation.
 3. Mimicry – this category relies on temporary acceptance of illusion, entering the world created by imagination. The entity joining a group of these games becomes an imagery character, forgets about their personality. The aim of the player is to captivate the spectator so that they could surrender to the game's illusion. A participant of mimicry does not accept the rules because of constant incentive. Behaviour of the type of mimicry can be observed both in children and in adults: boys pretend soldiers, girls copy their mothers, and also actors on stage.
 4. Ilinx (Greek whirl, vertigo) – games and plays that aim at evoking a condition of daze through dizziness, for example dancing dervishes (pursuing ecstasy while spinning around, banging on the drum at the same time). This sensation can be caused by a swing, merry-go-round or spinning. Adults reach this state through drinking alcohol, fast motorbike ride, snowboarding or skiing.

In the context of the above typology, the game of chess should be classified into the group of agon games. Competition is based on intellectual effort. Chess players starting a chess match have at their disposal exactly the same number of chess pieces, 16 white pieces and 16 black pieces, placed in the same starting position. Seemingly only personal values – good memory, ability to count variant, systematic training, will to fight – make it possible to find the winner. The player with white pieces is on a privileged position due to priority of move, which facilitating quicker development of pieces, which allows the player to earlier attack the opponent's king.

The world-renowned arbiter expert Andrzej Filipowicz [2015, s. I] claims that “success in chess [...] is not only knowledge, but many other additional factors such as good health, reasonable stamina, good reflex, strong

nerves, ability to self-control or relax after a big effort, skillfulness, self-confidence as well as disciplined emotions.”

Philosophical context of the game

Between theoreticians and philosophers there has always been an argument as to how define the term of “game.” One of the most interesting theses is the one proposed by the philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein [Hale 2008, pp. 123–126], who came to realise that due to the wide variety of phenomena which represent the name “game” it is impossible to define this term. Wittgenstein, when describing the language, compared it to game. The metaphor of ‘game’ is a convention, a set of rules that give sense to their elements. A user of the language is like a chess player – he/she does not change the rules themselves, does not set new ones, but can only accept them. It is possible to implement these rules correctly or incorrectly, analogically one can use a given word. Then the language becomes independent both from the object of reference and the role of the object – hypothetical meritum. A word gains sense as a chain of a ‘word game’ to other signs or words. Its value is defined by the role in the game. A sculptured piece of wood or a plastic figurine become chess pieces, e.g. a queen when it is used according to the rules of chess.

Contrary to Wittgenstein, the Canadian philosopher Bernard Suits [1967, pp. 148–156] defined the term of ‘game’ as a voluntary attempt to overcome unnecessary obstacles. Additionally, he created an interesting definition of playing a game as “an attempt to achieve a defined state of affairs, using only the means allowed by principles (rules of game), which forbid using more efficient measures by enforcing those allowed but less efficient, and where the rules are accepted only because they allow such a course of action” [p. 156]. Thus, necessary and sufficient conditions for a game is that each activity must have four principal features. Firstly, the activity must be intentional (primordial ludic goal) – each participant aims at a clearly defined goal, e.g. a precise goal of chess players is a result of a game of chess, which is mating the opponent. The goal will be reached thanks to subordinating to explicit rules, remembering about constructive rules, eliminating forbidden tactics at the same time – making it easier to win. The final element is ludic attitude which describes psychological attitude of the player starting the game.

Józef Lipiec [1988, pp. 48–50] clarifies Roger Caillois' study using ontological analysis combined with phenomenological method, whose goal is to find essence. As a creator of ontological principles of a sports game (elementary sport fact), he distinguishes three structural elements of the game: subject (e.g. chess player), material medium (e.g. chessboard, pieces, clock) and values (effective rules, e.g. “a touched piece goes, a placed one

stands”). Arbiters should not be counted into this triple-layer system (materialised image of value or subject that has got certain privileges), spectators, coaches and managers. Lipiec draws attention to intentional (quasi – real) character of the game, relying on disconnecting the players from reality, which allows to relocate them to quasi – reality of the game itself. Quasi – the world is made of rules, activities and the players’ decisions. This quasi – world can be compared to theatre plays, where “actors only upon the curtain going down return from the theatre to their real privacy, so all competitors in the game after finishing it become again full-right sharers of the real world. As long as the game goes on, the man belongs to it in a way.” [Lipiec 1999, p. 162]

The Polish philosopher of the 20th century Roman Ingarden [1960, p. 92–100] is a creator of chess ontology, which relies on fundamental ontological studies of objects of purely intentional character. As an example of such objects, a game of chess is given. He thinks that chess pieces is an ambiguous term because we may receive it as real material objects, e.g. wooden props that constitute material foundation of the game, and chess pieces as purely intentional existence.

Filip Kobiela [2007, p. 20–25], basing on general game ontology and using Ingarden’s chess ontology as well as the theory of performative utterance by J.L. Austin, distinguishes performative games and kinetic games – non-performative. Chess is counted into non-action games, which is performative games, characterised by making certain declarations thanks to their objects (speeches are also possible). The game props, as a means of communication, are a fragment of the world of the game. The player, analysing a given chess position, makes the choice of a suitable strategy, and then makes performative. The way he performs that act does not influence the course of the game. Additionally, in this game category there are rules of dual type. These rules define the world of the game and partially define the way the acts of participation are performed. Kinetic games are distinguished by the performance of acts in the physical world. A very important role is played by the relation between participation acts and props’ behaviour. Contrary to performative games, here the way performance acts occur is essential.

Theory of games vs. chess

The concept of game is widely used in colloquial speech, expressing various contexts. For the majority of the society, game is a social play. Studying game as an increase of gained profit that will cause loss to the opponent, one leaves purely entertaining reasoning. Then, it is a duel of two players (e.g. chess players) for something, e.g. a cup. An interesting interpretation of game is considering it as an important scientific concept which influ-

ences many areas of life and many scientific disciplines, including mathematics, political studies¹, law², biology³ or computer science⁴. Nowadays, the theory of games is greatly appreciated by studies and research. Many forefathers and researchers have been honoured by the Nobel Committee⁵. The theory of games is sufficiently general to characterise a number of critical aspects of many interesting conflict situations in everyday life.

The theory of games is “a science of strategic activity in the conditions of conflict and cooperation” [Płatkowski 2012, p. 6]. A breakthrough discovery of a modern direction occurred after publishing the book *Theory of Games and Behaviour in Economy* in 1944 by the German mathematician John von Neumann and the Viennese economist Oscar Morgenstern. The authors proposed a method of behaviour analysis in the situation of conflict and cooperation [Płatkowski 2012, pp. 6–7].

The beginnings of the theory of games were used in studies of games of hazard as a mathematical theory of solving conflicts in which the end of the game, the re-

- 1 Theory of games is used in decisive conflict analysis, while formulating new or at polishing the existing political or economic programs, especially it is considering conflicts between potential beneficiaries and decision-makers. Look more: M. Malawski, A. Wiczorek, H. Sosnowska, 2004, *Competition and Cooperation. Theory of Games in Economics and Social Studies*, PWN, Warsaw; P.C. Ordeshook, 1986, *Game Theory and Political Theory*, Cambridge University Press.
- 2 Theory of games allows to explain, among others, the sense of existence of particular legal institutions and evaluate whether in some circumstances law was broken. Read more D.G. Baird, R.H. Gertner, R.C. Picker, 2000, *Game Theory and the Law*, Cambridge, Harvard University Press; R. Cooter, T. Ulen, 2004, *Law and Economics*, Boston, Pearson Addison Wesley.
- 3 John Maynard Smith applied the theory on to the ground of evolution, creating so called: evolutionary theory of games, relying on describing ritual behaviour during conflicts of animals. Read more J. Smith Maynard, G.R. Price [1973] The logic of animal conflict. *Nature*, 246, pp. 15–18.
- 4 Studies on artificial intelligence, read more M. Tennenholtz, [2002] *Game Theory and Artificial Intelligence. Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, 2403, pp. 49–58.
- 5 In 1979 Herbert Simon was given the Nobel Prize for his concept of limited rationality (breakthrough in decision-making inside economic organisations). For the usage of the theory of games in economics, in 1994 the Prize was given to John Nash (the most famous scientist thanks to the cinematic production by the director Ron Howard “Beautiful Mind”), Reinhard Selten and John Harsanyi. In 1996 William Vickrey and James Mirrlees were appreciated for creating models of tenders and for studying conflicts with asymmetrical information on participants. In 2005 another prize in economics was awarded. Thomas C. Schelling and Robert J. Aumann were appreciated by the committee for using the theory of games in politics of mutual concessions and solving conflicts in microeconomics. After H. Zdebska [2008] *Istota i wartości zespołowych gier sportowych*, AWF, Kraków, p. 18.

sult, depends on the decisions made by the opponents. This field does not study causes or genesis of the conflicts, it only addresses optimal solution. When characterising each game, three essential elements that will allow to seek solution of the game must be distinguished: player, strategy and payout. The player is any participant (e.g. a human, enterprise or animal) of the analysed conflicting situation, behaving strategically. The activity of each participant relies on their choice of a suitable strategy, which is possible ways of solving the game by the players, thanks to which the player receives the payout in the units of usability. The game ends in winning or payout that is a real number. However, one must remember that there are conflict situations, where victory is satisfaction or prestige. Due to the fact that primary goals can be realised through making various decisions, each of those decisions is connected with gaining certain profits or bearing certain losses. That is why the theory of games studies which strategies, game solutions should be chosen by particular players in order to achieve maximisation of their own gains, which is the best result [Płonka 2001, p. 19].

There are many types of games, which results in many ways in their classification. Games can be divided into groups (below are presented chosen examples of game types) [Płatkowski 2012, p. 7]:

1. Depending on the number of players:
 - a) double player games,
 - b) multiple player games.
2. In respect to the time/order of making decisions:
 - a) strategic games (normal) – simultaneous decision-making by the players, uninformed on other players' decisions,
 - b) extensive games (developed) – sequential decision-making in subsequent moments of time, having the information on other players' decisions (and own ones) in the previous moments of time.
3. In respect to the array of available actions, strategies:
 - a) finite games – rules of the game accept only a finite number of possible courses,
 - b) infinite games – among others, games with continuum of actions (strategies).
4. In respect to the knowledge of the player:
 - a) games of full information (complete; the player knows everything on the current state of the game),
 - b) games of partial information (incomplete).
5. In respect to the game character:
 - a) zero-sum games – one player gains as much as the other loses,
 - b) non-zero sum games – as a result of competition, all the players gain, e.g. negotiations of a contract.

From the point of view of the theory of games, the definition of chess⁶ exceeds utterance that chess is a type of an entertaining or social game. Considering the number of players, chess is undoubtedly a double player game because there are two players, called chess players, taking part in the conflict. In accepted studies, modern types of chess were omitted – for three or four players. In such a game of chess, often coalition of players takes place, jointly eliminating a chosen player.

A characteristic feature of chess is making one's own moves in a proper order: white – black – white black, that is why it is an extensive game. A player makes a choice of a suitable strategy based on the opponent's moves. Each player should adjust their strategy to the existing situation on the chessboard. It has to be noted that the word 'strategy' has a totally different meaning for a chess player compared to the theory of games. Strategy in a game of chess being played is a general plan that relies on preparing the best possible position on the chessboard. It is a creation of the best positioning of one's own pieces, while making the opponent's attack more difficult by forcing them to worsen their position.

The "royal game" should be listed in the finite game category. Despite numerous possibilities of chess positions⁷, the number is limited. The number of possible courses is finite through regulatory introduction of limitations of the number of moves leading to a draw in the game of chess. According to the Chess Code in operation [pp. 15–16, pt. 9.2, pt. 9.3], the arbiter declares a game a draw one after a justified claim of the player to move. The claim may concern: threefold repetition of the same position⁸, or 50 moves without any capture or pawn move. However, after a fifth occurrence of an identical situation on the chessboard and making at least 75 consecutive alternate moves (with no pawn move or any capture), the game is claimed a draw automatically, without any need for claim from either side [p. 16. pt. 9.6].

Chess belongs to the category of non-zero sum games because the players have opposite conflicting goals – each wants to win; however, one's victory undoubtedly results in the other's failure. This conflict of interests ex-

6 The theory of games allowed to characterise, among others, playing programs based on mathematical models of chess as well as perform a cyber – (science of control processes and forwarding and transforming information in systems) analysis of chess. Read more: A. Kujawski [1994] *Programming of Chess* (Master's Thesis), The Warsaw University; J. Kazimierzczak [1973] *Theory of Games in Cybernetics*, WP, Warsaw.

7 The first move of whites can be made in 20 different ways. Blacks, in response, also have 20 different moves. It shows that with the first move of whites and blacks, we already have 400 different variants of the game. With the next move we have respectively 28 moves for whites and 29 for blacks.

8 Introduction of this limitation seems essential because in a game where the player, using "desperado piece" for "perpetual check", might lead the game really into eternity.

cludes the possibility of cooperation. In a game of chess there are two rivalling players, one of whom holds white pieces, and the other – black ones. Taking the result into consideration, we have three possibilities: the whites win (1:0), the blacks win (0:1) or a draw (½:½). The sum of both players' payout is 1 – it is constant, which confirms chess is a zero-sum game.

Chess is a game that contains full information relying on the player being conscious of the applying rules of the game. Each of the chess players has information about all the previous decisions of himself and the opponent. Additionally, the chess player is informed about his/her payout function and knows their position in each stage of the game, which facilitates analysing their position (situation) and making a choice of a suitable move by a certain chess piece, which leads to victory.

Summing up – the method used in the above article allows to present an exemplary description of chess classifications in the world of games, it does not, however, exhaust the complexity of this phenomenon.

The game with tradition, game of chess, has been evolving, starting with the entertainment-club-play game to the fair-play competition, tournament and sport. The educationist Andrzej Modzelan [2004, p. 15] seeks mostly educative values in the game of chess. "Chess is (...) a tool that stimulates emotional and intellectual development of a child, shaping its personality and allowing the development of creative potential that lies in each young human." Chess has conscious creators (high-rank players, theoreticians, problem-solvers, researchers) as well as countless ardent or only cheerful enthusiasts who play chess and participate in its many encounters. Through an active participation in numerous manifestations of existence, chess has become a part of material and spiritual culture.

The above considerations should be extended by new research areas that would enable widening the scope of knowledge in this field. It is recommended to perform a detailed analysis of the game in Józef Lipiec' context – characterising the subject of the game, material basis and the values generated. Chess is not only a game because the phenomenon belongs to a widely understood physical culture, meeting all the elements of a sports competition, chess is considered a sport. The question that should be answered is on what merit was chess rec-

ognised as a sports discipline and what sport is it? Additionally, thanks to the progress of modern technology, development of the Internet, contemporary studies of artificial intelligence, rivalry in a game of chess can be moved to virtual reality, creating strong chess programs that compete with top world-class chess players. Should chess, due to this development, be considered as a so-called e-sport or cyber-sport?

The American chess activist A. Bisno [by: Giżycki, 1984, p. 99] said: "Chess contains the element of culture, arts and intellectual achievement of the whole history of civilisation".

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How it all started. Coubertin's journey of inspiration to Olympism

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Summary

This paper follows Baron Pierre de Coubertin's pathway in shaping the discourse of Olympism. By examining the founder's correspondence, publications and personal records, we seek to understand the sources of inspiration, motives and relationships that led him into the revival of the modern Olympic Games. In particular we identify the implications of Coubertin's speech and actions for the ways in which Olympism and Olympic sport were conceptualised in late nineteenth century Europe.

Keywords: Olympism, Coubertin, Olympic Games, Europe

Between nationalism and cosmopolitanism

Pierre de Coubertin, during his life, experienced the defeat of France in the Franco-Prussian war, and a succession of social changes, as part of the modernisation processes of his era. His native country, France, experienced the victory of democracy, the industrialisation of its economy, the spread of socialist values and establishment of socialist structures, the secularisation of civil society, the absorption of provincial cultures into a strong dominant national culture, the linkage of individualism and nationalism but also the interconnectedness of the world due to an increasing tide of cosmopolitanism [MacAloon 1981]. Pierre de Coubertin thus lived in an era which experienced distinctive dynamic processes and the social, economic and cultural mobility, observing such processes from the privileged perspective of a French aristocratic background. MacAloon emphasises that,

Genealogy is linked with much larger social interests than simple ancestor reckoning. In most social groups – peoples, classes, castes, movements, and so on – a family tree is not a mere map of blood ties, but an index and icon of the fundamental values which 'blood' represents to that group. [MacAloon 1981: 10–11]

Hoberman (1984) also argues that Coubertin must be understood as a representative of his noble class and

an exemplary citizen of the French Third Republic. In this context, Coubertin's values might be seen to a certain extent as a reflection of the conservatism of his class. Interestingly, his desire for success through important endeavours, such as pedagogical reform in France or the Olympic Games, can also be attributed to the high expectations derived from his aristocratic background. In his 1908 memoir *Une Campagne de Vingt-et-un ans*, Coubertin, commenting on his resignation from the military French academy St. Cyr, had said that he wished to change a career and associate his name with a great educational reform. Inspired by Philhellenism and influenced by the rising cosmopolitanism of his era, Coubertin was committed to initiate educational reforms that would 'modernise' the French educational system.

Coubertin, the Social reformist

Coubertin aligned himself with the liberal, republican classicist intellectuals by writing in the journal *La Reforme Sociale* (1883), a combined organ of two organisations, the *Société d'économie sociale* and the *Unions de la paix sociale*, where his first thoughts and expressions about *l'éducation athlétique* and *la pédagogie sportive* can be found. Both organisations were founded and led by Frédéric Le Play, a sociologist and social philosopher of the mid-nineteenth century who Coubertin admired and many of whose views he shared. Le Play's work had raised much criticism but also received much recognition for its

emphasis on the methods of 'fieldwork' and 'observation' with the modern meaning of the terms in sociological research [MacAloon 1986].

His social philosophy was centred on values of social peace, worker's rights, family, Catholicism and decentralisation. He founded first the *Société d'économie sociale* that was open to amateur sociologists who wanted to learn his methods. However, after the historical events of 1870–71 (the Franco-Prussian War and the Commune) and the need for an ideological orientation, he founded the *Unions de la paix sociale* and established the journal *La Reforme Sociale*, which had a conservative character and promoted the values of family, Catholicism and social classification. Pierre de Coubertin related strongly to Frédéric Le Play because they both shared a desire to reform French education. Coubertin's biggest ambition in the 1880s was to improve the use of recreation time and introduce sport in schools. Coubertin wrote the following in *La Reforme Sociale* (1888):

Other ties of even greater significance unite the Committee with the Unions, the goal that it aims to achieve being first and foremost among them. Many a time, Frederic Le Play dwelt on the deplorable tendencies of our current academic regimen, and on the need for immediate reform. We are going to try to achieve one of the points in his program. Were he still alive, we would certainly enjoy his support and assistance. In our view, improved use of recreation time and the spread of sports among school children are but means to an end. We have set our aim higher. The reason we are using these means is that observation and experience have shown that they are effective in giving young people the precious qualities of energy, perseverance, judgment and initiative that, among us, are the prerogative of only a few. Much can be expected of a generation brought up in this way. [Coubertin 1888, 2000: 75]

Frédéric le Play's influence on Coubertin is reflected not only in their common plans for social reform, but also in the use of the methods of 'observation' and 'experience' as reliable measurement tools. In common with Le Play, Coubertin believed that social reform should start from education and the young population of France.

Social reform must be achieved through education. Our efforts must focus not on adults, but on children, in order to ensure our success. We must give those children qualities of mind that will make them capable of understanding, and qualities of character that will render them capable of performing the transformation in which your illustrious founder saw France's salvation. [Coubertin 1888, 2000: 76]

On July 1, 1888 the *Committee for the Propagation of Physical Education* was founded, the Secretary General being Coubertin, and it aimed at the transformation of

French education. In a letter on behalf of the Committee to the members of *Société d'économie sociale* and *Unions de la paix sociale*, asking for their help in the efforts towards social reform through education, he uses the word 'crusade' to describe their attempts.

In effect, our work is shielded from any political quarrels. It is purely social, and that is one more consideration for you. We are confident that you will assist us in the crusade that we have undertaken, against a system of education that is so ill suited to the needs of the present day, and that has proven incapable of producing the true citizens that France needs. [Coubertin 1888, 2000: 77]

Their social reform, characterised here as 'apolitical', aimed to change the conditions of the relationship between the individual and the state, giving more rights to individuals and limiting the authority of the state. In a speech in Boston adopting the discourse of both liberal individualism and of traditional conservatism (in a manner redolent of the British Conservative Party's incorporation in the late twentieth century of the neo-liberalism of the New Right and of patrician One Nation Conservatism), Coubertin argues that:

We want free-minded self-governing men, who will not look upon the State as a baby looks on his mother, who will not be afraid of having to make their own way through life. Such is the work that our Association has pointed out to French teachers as being the most important part of their duty. It involves practically what I call the training for freedom. [Coubertin 1890, 2000: 139]

Coubertin, as a social theorist of the French Third Republic promoted the value of 'freedom', hoping for social peace and harmony. Particularly if seen in their French translation '*liberté*' (freedom) and '*esprit libre*' (free-minded), they appeal to the values of freedom and democracy, upon which French social structures were established after the French Revolution (1789) [Hoberman 1986]. Coubertin's ideological framework in this period is predominantly and classically republican with an emphasis on the values of 'freedom, God and country'.

And so I have the right to say, and to repeat, that we expect this transformed education to produce [...] active and determined citizens who will adopt as their own the motto of the minister of whom I spoke earlier: citizens who will love God, country, and freedom. [Coubertin 1889b: 68]

Nonetheless, he promotes a more cautious, more flexible form of conservatism that allows changes for the betterment of French society, thus his vision for reform(s). His disappointment with the so far unsuccessful attempts of a social reform is evident below:

At times I have wondered – and certainly I am not the only one who has asked this question – how it is that the doctrines that form the overall social reform program have not had any clear impact on French society so far. These doctrines were proclaimed by an illustrious man whose name is familiar to everyone. They have been supported by societies whose simple, ingenious machinery makes it easy to propagate them. Now, these doctrines are defended by devoted citizens thoroughly persuaded of their value. What is missing from these doctrines that keeps them from gaining the upper hand and revitalizing the country? The reason is that the doctrines of Frederic Le Play are eminently reasonable, and that they are addressed, when all is said and done, to a people that is not. [Coubertin 1888, 2000: 75]

This statement illustrates a number of themes: Coubertin's disappointment at the humbling of France in the Franco-Prussian war and a yearning for reinstatement of lost international power and influence; his personal aspiration to attach his name to a pedagogical reform, and the influence on his thinking of the liberal republican classicist Frédéric le Play promoting a successful social reform through education. These factors motivated him to dedicate himself during this period to the project of French educational reform. As part of this project, Coubertin travelled to England, America and Canada in order to gain ideas about how to initiate successfully physical education in schools. However, it was English education that impressed him the most and provided the model on which he wished to develop French educational reform.

Inspired from England, Ireland

The birth of modern sport is credited to England, dating from the middle of the nineteenth century. Although at this time, games and sports were not the exclusive privilege of the British, Britain has been acknowledged as the society that developed them into their current forms. Many of the rules of sport were first codified in nineteenth century England, where their governing bodies were also established [Guttman 1978; Guttmann 1994]. Thus, Coubertin visited the English and Irish schools and universities in order to make observations on their educational efficiency. Using Le Play's method of 'observation', which was still new, Coubertin was willing to discover those qualities of English education that were highly regarded at that time, and then transfer them to the French educational context. He visited many places and compiled his work in a 326-page book entitled *Education en Angleterre*, which was comprised of an introduction and sixteen chapters. He also wrote a large number of articles, many based on the findings of his observations of educational practice [Müller 2000].

A critical formative influence in the evolution of sport in England was exercised by the Greater Pub-

lic Schools, elite private boarding schools, where team sports were initiated as a means of social control [Toohey and Veal 2000]. Key to this model of sport was the notion of amateurism, that is playing the game for intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards, which reinforced the social distinction between the so-called 'gentleman amateur' and 'professionals' from the lower classes of society who traded on their physical sporting capital [Bourdieu 1989; Gruneau 1993]. As an important component of the curriculum, sport was linked with religion in an attempt to develop 'Muscular Christians'. These individuals, mostly representatives of the privileged classes, supposedly exhibited the positive qualities of both sport and religion, following the ancient Greek ideal, and core concept of Muscular Christianity, that of a 'sound mind in a sound body'. However, the pantheon of gods had been replaced by a Christian monotheism, appealing to a notion of chivalry, which, it was purported, could be traced back to the Middle Ages [Toohey and Veal 2000]. Three elements of English education drew Coubertin's attention: a) the centrality of sport in the curriculum, as based on the concept of body and mind harking back to an English construction of the ancient Greek ideal, b) the 'elastic' relationship between the Church and the State in the domain of education, and c) the English Public School preparation of individuals for maintenance and expansion of the British Empire.

Coubertin has continuously emphasised in his writings the major role that sport played in English education. He noted in *La Reforme Sociale* (1887):

Gentlemen, I now come to what seems to me the most noteworthy aspect of English education: I mean the role that sports plays in that education. This role is physical, moral, and social, all at the same time. We have a two-fold reason to consider it here, because I believe that, although we may hope for certain reforms in our system, it is only through sports that they can be introduced. [Coubertin 1887, 2000: 114]

It was believed that some of the virtues required for sound, masculine, muscular Christian practice could be learnt through participation in sport. These included qualities such as sportsmanship, leadership, teamwork, the ability to be a good winner and loser, as well as a work ethic. The strong bond between body and mind, the combination and cultivation of both physical and mental qualities were central to an holistic development of individuals. Coubertin wished to reform French education on the basis of this view of physical culture, bound up with a set of values inspired by the Hellenic civilisation and the English Public Schools culture.

Minds, like bodies, are constantly occupied by that passion which carries them away and subjugates them. This is, I repeat, encouraged as much as pos-

sible. The English believe in the need for enthusiasm at this age. But they think, too, that it is not easy, even if it is a good thing, to engender in children such enthusiasm for Alexander or Caesar. They must have something more alive, more real. The dust of Olympia is still what stirs their healthy competitive spirit the most, and the most naturally. They gladly pursue honours for which they see grown men proud to compete [...] It has been said that the life of the thinker and that of the athlete are utterly opposed. For my part, I have often seen that those who were the leaders in physical exercises were also leaders in their studies. Their excellence in one area gives them a desire to be first in everything. There is nothing like the habit of victory to assure success. [Coubertin 1887: 116]

The focus of French education was on exhausting intellectual readings and 'non-beneficial', 'wasted' recreation time. In relation to French education he argued once, "boredom and weakness, those purveyors of immorality, hold sway pretty much from top to bottom in French education. In the public high schools, add to that the absence of moral instruction and the poor utilisation of holidays, and you have the formula for creating a high school student" [Coubertin 1889a, 2000: 71]. In contrast, the English education, having achieved equilibrium between theory and practice through sport, prepared its pupils for their demanding roles in society.

If you are familiar with the English, you know that life is untenable for the timid, the weak, and the lazy. In the tumult of existence, such persons are driven back, overwhelmed, and stepped on. They are tossed aside, seen merely as impediments. Nowhere is selection more pitiless. There are two distinct races: the race of men with frank expressions and strong muscles, with a self-assured stride, and the race of weaklings with resigned and humble faces, a vanquished air. Well, what holds true in the world holds true in the schools as well! The weak are tossed aside. The benefits of this education apply only to the strong. [Coubertin 1887, 2000: 119]

One of the foremost and most famous exponents of such educational doctrine was Thomas Arnold, a clergyman and director of Rugby College for fourteen years, from 1828. Arnold transformed the school as an institution by attaching to sport a central role in the curriculum [Müller 2000]. Coubertin began his '21-year campaign' having a vision to transfer to France Arnold's athletic education, the approach Arnold used in order to produce Muscular Christians.

In a word, one must hurry to create a man, morally and physically, of this child who has bad instincts and passions whose assault he will suffer; he must be given premature muscles and will, what Arnold called "true manliness". Initiative, daring, decisiveness, the habit

of self-reliance and of taking responsibility for one's own failures... all these are qualities for which one cannot make up for lost time. It is far more important to cultivate them from early childhood than to strive to inculcate scientific notions in young minds, notions that vanish all too quickly for the very reason that they were placed there too late. [Coubertin 1887, 2000: 115]

Coubertin thought that, if Arnold's athletic education was adopted by the French, it would help France to recover (*rebronzer*) after its defeat in the Franco-Prussian war [MacAloon 1981: 51]. As the representative of the French Minister of Public Instruction at the Physical Training Congress in Boston in late 1889, Coubertin visited North America for the first time. There, Coubertin praised in his lecture the work of Thomas Arnold and revealed that the French Educational Reform Association had been established upon his principles, "the English athletic sport system as understood and explained by the greatest of modern teachers, Thomas Arnold of Rugby [should be adopted]. His principles are the ones on which the French Educational Reform Association was founded last year" [Coubertin 1890: 138].

Guttman (1992b) and Hoberman (1995) argue that Coubertin was misled by Hughes to think that Thomas Arnold had been a keen advocate of sports. In fact, they suggest that Thomas Arnold was far more interested in boys' moral education than in their physical development. Interestingly, there were two relatively well known books written about Rugby school, *Tom Brown's School Days* (1857) and *The Life and Correspondence of Dr. Arnold* (1844). The first was a fictional account written by Thomas Hughes, a student not much noticed by Arnold, and the latter was written by Arthur Penrhyn Stanley, who although he came late to Rugby, was promoted to the fifth grade due to his intelligence, bringing him to the attention of Arnold who took him into his inner circle. Thomas Hughes described Arnold as a kind, sensitive, open-minded and benevolent teacher. Nevertheless, MacAloon (1981) argues that Thomas Hughes has possibly romanticised the situation in Rugby school and the distant relationship with the master did not allow him to gain a deeper insight. On the other hand, Stanley, having experienced a closer contact with Arnold, expresses a terrible fear and anxiety about meeting Arnold's high expectations. Therefore, MacAloon (1981) argues, "Coubertin either missed this [i.e. Stanley's perspective], ignored it, or balanced it off against the far healthier portrait of Thomas Hughes, that more ingenuous, airier, and to Coubertin, more kindred soul' (p. 62). As evident in the documents, it seems that Coubertin was aware of Arnold's strict and rigid profile. Nonetheless, he believed that such doctrine, based upon the principle of selection, a core aspect of the popular British ideology of athleticism, was right and fair for the pupils.

One day, when problems had arisen requiring that several students be expelled, showing discontent in the ranks, before the whole school Arnold spoke these words, which have remained famous and which sum up his whole approach: "It is not necessary that there be 300, 100, or even 50 students here; but it is necessary that there be nothing but Christian Gentlemen". This passage deals with an error in public opinion, then as widespread in England as it is today in France. The public held that secondary schools were institutions intended to correct bad character, a detestable notion that can only serve to make a school into a correctional institution and consequently, a rotten place for the honest children who happen to be there [...] This corresponds to a very British idea, that of selection. In the physical order, as in the moral order, it is always the elite that is targeted, because a superior phalanx, though few in number, yields infinitely more than very widespread mediocrity. Thus everything tends to be given to those who already have something, as in the Gospel. [Coubertin 1887, 2000: 107–8]

The 'British' idea of selection, as embodied in the strict Arnoldian doctrine appealed to Coubertin, who envisaged a sound youth for France. Such education could prepare adolescents to become future citizens of a stronger State.

Church relations

The struggle for the French educational system represented the antagonistic side of Church-State relations under the Republic. When the Republic dismantled the clerical monopoly on education, "it declared that education under the state was to be 'lay', or non-sectarian, that is to say not specifically Catholic. The Church chose to interpret neutrality as hostility and branded the new schools as 'godless'" (Hoberman, 1986: 68). Coubertin, a keen supporter of the new policy of the Republic, stated the following:

One can make an accomplished mind out of a child raised in absolute atheism; but if you manage to make that person an honest man, it comes about through no fault of your own. Whether one is Catholic or Lutheran, Calvinist or Orthodox, religion is not a lesson to be learned, it is an atmosphere to be breathed. That is why government institutions, which necessarily welcome children from different religions, must be day schools and not boarding schools. Other lay, Catholic, Protestant, or even free-thinking institutions should be set up around them. Why not? There must be freedom for all. [Coubertin, 1889c, 2000: 107–8]

In an attempt to relax the Church-State tension and maintain social peace, the government often emphasised and publicly appreciated the role of religion. In similar

vein, Coubertin also underlined the importance of religion in education.

There has been talk of codifying moral instruction... Outside of religion, there is no moral instruction to teach to children. There certainly is such instruction for grown adults, which is merely religion with the label removed. Without that label, however, children scarcely understand it and they do not learn it. I do not know where we will be in a hundred years, but today, it is clear that there is no education without religion, i.e. without the idea of God and without the notion of the life to come. [Coubertin, 1889a 2000: 71]

Nonetheless, Hoberman (1993) argues that Coubertin's 'peculiar religiosity' should not be mistaken for Christianity (p. 38). It was comparable to humanitarian doctrines that did not necessarily embrace the notion of the divine. "I am not one of those", he wrote in a letter, "who thinks humanity can get along without religion. I am taking the word here in its most general sense, not as a belief in a determinate form of divine reality, but as adherence to an ideal of superior life, of the aspiration to perfection" (cited in Hoberman 1986: 41). Besides, his Olympic campaign had often been opposed for its pagan elements that deviated from Christianity. In a sense, Coubertin's religion was ceremony itself, as is evident in the following text about the 1920 Antwerp Olympics from his Olympic Memoirs.

By holding a public service in the stadium itself, as in Stockholm, before the start of the competitions, we would be forcing the athletes, already grown men, to take part in a religious ceremony that might be displeasing to some. By inviting them, quite outside the Games, to a ceremony in church, we were only associating religion like any other great moral force of mankind with the celebration of the Olympic Games. Then again, it was important that the ceremony should be sufficiently neutral in character to rise above all differences in doctrine. No mass, no priestly address at the altar. [Coubertin 1997k: 474]

Throughout his writings he made many remarks about the Church, some of which were critical. At his most disapproving, he could go so far as to state that "the Churches, entrenched in their opinions as though in fortresses, have always had too great an interest in isolating themselves and in forgetting what they have been" [cited in Hoberman 1986: 41]. In contrast, Coubertin admired the English education for its 'elastic' relationship with religion.

Nothing could be further from the spirit of English education. Religion plays a large, but separate, part in it. Discipline is understood there as consisting of certain in-house rules of order, no more. What the emi-

ment Bishop of Orleans finds so essential to French secondary schools, the English dismiss as dangerous and contrary to nature. They reject the regulation of every moment which demands nothing more than obedience – a virtue that, as virtues go, they never seem to have made much of a fuss about, or even to have understood its nature. Two things dominate in the English system, two things that are also means for achieving their ends: freedom and sports. [Coubertin 1887, 2000: 108]

He also suggested that protestant religion allowed more freedom to the individuals,

Protestant religion [is] a very elastic religion that accommodates the most diverse attitudes. Every child is not necessarily led to first communion, or to the act corresponding to it. So here, there is a conquest for the minister to achieve, what Arnold called “a chess game against Satan”. Religious instruction is given every Sunday before the students, whose attention and respectful behaviour is required, at least. In general, dissenters do not show a desire to have their children not attend these sessions. But when they do, their wishes are faithfully respected. [Coubertin 1887, 2000: 113–4]

Interestingly, Coubertin admired Arnold's educational doctrine, which was profoundly religious. Arnold's student Stanley has remarked, “his [i.e. Arnold's] education, in short was not based upon religion, it was religious” (cited in MacAloon 1981: 63). The religious character of Arnold's teaching is apparent in his following letter to a cleric:

If I do get it (i.e. the headmastership in Rugby), I feel as if I could set to work very heartily, and with God's blessings, I should like to try whether my notions of Christian education are really impracticable, whether our system of public schools has not in it some noble elements, which under the blessing of the Spirit of all holiness and wisdom, might produce fruit even unto life eternal. When I think about it, thus, I really long to take rod in hand. [quoted by MacAloon 1981: 62]

Arnold's teaching could be characterised as conservative and puritan with frequent references to ‘monstrous evil’, ‘vices’, ‘temptation and corruption’ and ‘Satan’ [cited in MacAloon 1981: 62]. Nonetheless, Coubertin overlooked this and focused his attention on the fact that the English Public schools increasingly prepared their pupils for imperial roles in the Neo-imperial expansion of the late nineteenth century [Mangan and Hickey 2001]. Besides, the pedagogical reform through the introduction of physical activity in schools, the achievement of body and mind equilibrium, and the restriction of Church served a core purpose for Coubertin: the preservation of French domestic social tranquillity and the revitalisation of French society.

Colonial power and the need for a reform

The famous English Public Schools were essentially centred on the ideology of athleticism, which emerged in the late Victorian and Edwardian eras. After 1850 the image of the English public schoolboy regained its status in the circles of middle and upper middle class clientele due to innovatory reforms, substantially associated with newly developed athletic fields. The pupils of these schools were prepared for their dynamic roles in British Empire in the late nineteenth century [Mangan and Hickey 2001]. Athleticism was practised, predominantly by the settlers (at least in the early years) throughout the Britain's empire. Horton [2001] argues that the cult of Athleticism coupled with the ideology of Muscular Christianity relentlessly infused the British Games culture into the culture of its colonies. It has even been suggested that “Victorians were determined to civilise the rest of the world, and an integral feature of that process as they understood it was to disseminate the gospel of athleticism which had triumphed so spectacularly at home in the third quarter of the nineteenth century” [cited in Mangan and Hickey 2001: 106]. Coubertin remarks with admiration that physical activity moulded the individuals in Britain and gave them a collective identity.

Then there are the colonies, that career of expatriation so well suited to the English, who bring their “old England” with them wherever they go. Whether they are “squatters” in New Zealand or planters in America, they are better off for having received such a strong physical and moral education in their schools. Muscles and character are objects of urgent necessity in such circumstances. Although the main cause for our own colonial impotence lies with our deplorable system of succession, it seems to me that education also plays its part. [Coubertin 1887, 2000: 118–9]

Coubertin believed that England owed its strength and colonial power to the ethos of Muscular Christianity and its strong physical culture.

To the merits of this [English] education we may ascribe a large share in the prodigious and powerful extension of the British Empire in Queen Victoria's reign. It is worthy to note that the beginning of this marvellous progress and development dates from the same time which saw the school reforms of the United Kingdom in 1840. In these reforms physical games and sports hold, we may say, the most prominent place: The muscles are made to do the work of a moral education. It is the application according to modern requirements of one of the most characteristic principles of Grecian civilisation: To make the muscles be chief factor in the work of moral education. In France, on the contrary, physical inertia was

considered till recent times an indispensable assistant to the perfecting of intellectual powers. Games were supposed to destroy study. Regarding the development of the character of the youth, the axiom, that a close connection exists between the force of will and the strength of the body never entered anybody's mind. [Coubertin 1896, 2000: 308]

Coubertin's interest in revitalising French society was very strong. It is clear from this text that in physical activity, as practised by the Muscular Christians in England, Coubertin saw a 'tool' for maintaining and expanding imperialistic power. Lucas argues that,

Baron Pierre de Coubertin was convinced that the sport-centred English public school system of the late 19th century was the rock upon which the vast and majestic British Empire rested. In the recondite scholarship of Dr. Arnold and in the ensuing trend toward manly sport at Rugby and in England, Coubertin saw a catharsis, not only for the English, but also for the Frenchmen and eventually all mankind. [Lucas 1980: 23]

Lucas' point is re-affirmed, when one reads the following text from Coubertin's speech addressed to the *Greek Liberal Club of Lausanne* (1918):

It was left to the great Englishman Thomas Arnold to take up the Greek work at the point where a hostile fate had interrupted it, and to clothe it in an educational form adapted to modern conditions. The world had forgotten how organised sport can create moral and social strength, and thereby plays a direct part in a nation's destinies; had so far forgotten it that the spread of Arnold's doctrines and example first in England and then throughout the British Empire was an almost unconscious process. Rugby School may thus be truly considered as the starting-point of the British revival. [Coubertin 1918, 2000: 272]

Coubertin has often associated sport with the strengthening of national vigour. He believed that athletics could "be used to strengthen peace or prepare for war" and that the victory of a nation was often due to its athletic virility [Coubertin 1997d, 2000: 322].

At fixed periods all the other manifestations of national life grouped themselves around a considered athleticism [...] Thus when the Persian peril threatened Hellenism between 500 and 449 B.C. unexpected armies and navies barred the way to the ambitions of Darius and Xerxes and the greed of their advisers. There had been hesitation before the massive forces of the adversary; more than one city was inclined to submit to the ultimatum. Athens rose up. Victory proved it right. Now if many centuries later – for history has eloquent turnings and sometimes repeats itself strangely – an English general [Wellington] was able to say that the battle of Waterloo had been won on the playing-fields of Eton, how much more accu-

rate still is it to proclaim that the glory of Marathon and Salamis was forged in the precincts of the Greek Gymnasium. [Coubertin 1918, 2000: 270]

Coubertin was convinced that Thomas Arnold's methods at Rugby School and the British sport ethic taught in their private elite schools had been responsible for Britain's success as a world super power in the nineteenth century, and therefore that it should be exported to France [Guttmann 1992a; Lucas 1980; Toohey and Veal 2000]. Thereafter, one of his major tasks was to persuade the French to introduce physical education in schools based on the classical values of the Greek gymnasium. Coubertin believed that if France would emulate this system, then the nation's former glory days could be revived. In 1919, after the end of the First World War and the victory of the *Entente* Powers, Coubertin argued that France owed to a great extent its regained strength to the educational reforms based on Arnold's model of sport ethic.

This is the kind of sport [the English sport], which I had in mind thirty years ago when I made a pact with Jules Simon for the reinvigoration of France. The conviction of the septuagenarian philosopher was no less ardent than my own, and events have fulfilled our hopes. A manlier and broader education soon begot results as fruitful as those whose benefits the England of Thomas Arnold had reaped some time before. In vain did Frenchmen blinded by party spirit undertake the sorry task of portraying to the outside world a decadence, which existed only within themselves. History will delineate the rising curve which enabled the Republic to write in forty years the most admirable of colonial epics and to guide youth through the dangers of pacifism and freedom pushed to extreme limits right up to that 1914 mobilisation which will remain one of the finest spectacles which Democracy has given the world. [Coubertin 1918, 2000: 272]

Coubertin speaks with satisfaction about the new situation in France, which is attributed to the new educational system. He refers to his long-term efforts in this direction together with Jules Simon, Minister of Public Instruction from 1870 to 1879 and President of the Committee for the Propagation of Physical Education. Being relieved that France survived the First World War, and most importantly that France appeared stronger than Germany in the post-Franco-Prussian period, Coubertin could not hide his enthusiasm for such results. The value of physical education was emphasised as a principal factor for this national empowerment.

Recent events have resulted in entirely new circumstances. Sports are on the front lines of the forces that brought about victory. It is to sports that we owe the magnificent innovations that made it possible for

England and the United States to transport unexpected armies to the theatre of war. It is thanks to them that the valiant Sokols covered their homelands with laurels, even before the borders were set and freedom assured. It is through sports that France, as heroic as in 1870 but infinitely stronger, was able to raise a powerful rampart of muscle against the invasion. After helping train incomparable soldiers, athleticism also helped sustain their zeal and console them in their suffering. They played football, they fenced, and they boxed right up by the front lines and far from them, as well, in the sad prisoners' camps. Public opinion is aware of these things, and appreciates them. Well-deserved enthusiasm will guarantee the value of physical education, and proclaim the triumph of sports. [Coubertin 1919a, 2000: 738]

Conclusion

As evident in his early writings, Coubertin was at first interested in revitalising French society merely from a nationalistic perspective. His patriotism and faith in the Third Republic prevailed, thus his devotion to social cohesion and the need for social reform. However, in an era that witnessed a remarkable proliferation of transnational movements and organisations for the sake of world peace and reconciliation, Coubertin's international interests transcended his limited nationalist scope. Coubertin's strategy for reconciling his nationalist and internationalist interests was the revival of modern Olympic Games. This constituted both a response to the cosmopolitan trends of his era but also an attempt to promote sport "as the virile formula on which the health of the State can be founded" [Coubertin 1889a: lines 28–29].

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The life and nonconformist views of sport of Hermann Weingärtner (1864–1919)

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Summary

The present article is a review of the life and sport career of Hermann Weingärtner, one of the most outstanding gymnasts in the history of modern German sport. Hermann Weingärtner was a role model for whom the respect, love, and devotion to motherland were always of primary importance regardless of any obstacles. As an amateur athlete he proved he was capable of winning the most prestigious sport distinctions and representing Germany at international events. The article also discusses all forms of commemoration of sport achievements of this great German athlete.

Keywords: Hermann Weingärtner, Olympism, 1896 Summer Olympics, gymnastics

Hermann Otto Ludwig Weingärtner is a well-known figure to researchers of the history of Olympic Games. This renowned German gymnast born on August 27, 1864 in Frankfurt am Oder, rose to fame in 1896 by winning six medals at the Games of the I Olympiad in Athens. Unfortunately, there have been hardly any mentions of his life and sport achievements in Polish scholarly literature. Any bibliographical studies of Hermann Weingärtner must therefore rely based on foreign, in particular, German language sources.

The majority of biographical information about the famous Olympic athlete come from the private archives of Joachim Schneider, and from a book by Hans-Eberhard Fehland and Hans-Jürgen Losensky titled *Sportstadt Frankfurt (Oder)* published in 2005. Relevant information can be also found in a scholarly article *Hermann Otto Ludwig Weingärtner – Leben, Wirken und Rezeption* by Bianka Schwallmann published in a volume *Frankfurt (Oder) und die Deutsche Sport-Geschichte* edited by Ulrich Knefelkamp. The present paper is a detailed review of the life and sports career of Hermann Weingärtner on the basis of all available bibliographic records.

Family history and the beginnings of Hermann Weingärtner's sports career

The earliest mentions of Hermann Weingärtner's family history date back to 1860 and refer to the moving of the Weingärtners (father Gustav, mother Wilhelmine,

and son Albert) from Berlin to Frankfurt am Oder at the official invitation of the Frankfurt municipal authorities and the newly established local gymnastic club *Frankfurter Turnverein 1860* where Gustav Weingärtner was employed as a gymnastics instructor. In the year of the club's foundation he also took a sports instructor's job in the Frederick I Hohenzollern Gymnasium, where he organized swimming classes. In the same year his second son Max Robert was born, and four years later his third son Hermann, whose future sports career would make the Weingärtner family and the town of Frankfurt am Oder famous worldwide [Schneider 1991].

The Weingärtners lived in Fischerstraße, and their descendants still resided at numbers 2, 94/95, and 100 in the late 20th century. In 1865 Gustav Weingärtner opened a bathhouse in one of Frankfurt am Oder suburbs; however, it was closed down a year later, probably due to intense competition and the overall worsening economic situation in the country [Schneider 1991]. In 1867 he established an open-air swimming pool in the Ziegenwerder river island, which turned out to be a highly profitable family business for years. The Weingärtners had two more sons: Paul Max (b. 1866) and Erwin Johann Adolf (b. 1878) [Fehland, Losensky 2005, p. 11]. After Gustav Weingärtner's death in 1880 the family business was taken over by his wife and second son, and then after the latter's death by Hermann. After 1919 the business was managed by Paul Max Weingärtner, and from 1932 to 1939–1940 by a new owner. Then

the pool was completely destroyed due to bad weather conditions and was never rebuilt. The remaining ruins were completely removed in 2003 to make room for the construction of the European Garden in the European District in the center of Frankfurt am Oder [Schwallmann 2014, p. 92].

Young Hermann Weingärtner and his brothers were brought up in a sport spirit and were actively motivated by their father to train gymnastics. In his free time Hermann Weingärtner exercised in the Frankfurter Turnverein 1860 club, and during the day he worked with his four-year older brother in the Roland grocery store at Richtstrasse 76 in downtown Frankfurt. Word has it that he welcomed many female customers to the store while exercising and assuming various gymnastic positions [Fehland, Losensky 2005, p. 10].

In order to advance his gymnastic skills, in 1885 Hermann Weingärtner decided to move to Berlin to take up professional gymnastic training under the supervision of the best experts of the day. He began his cooperation with the German Gymnastic Federation (Deutsche Turnerschaft) – an association of all gymnastic clubs in the country – and joined the Berliner Turnerschaft gymnastic club. As a member of the gymnastic team Weingärtner soon started to attain successes in national and international gymnastic competitions, for example, at the 8th German gymnastic competition in Breslau in 1894, or at the 3rd Italian gymnastic competition in September 1895 (first place) [Fröhlich 2015].

German conflict of interest

Thanks to his great sport successes Hermann Weingärtner was invited to participate in the First Summer Olympics in Athens in 1896. However, the German Gymnastic Federation banned its members from participating in an event organized by Baron Pierre de Coubertin, whose French descent was an insurmountable obstacle in the context of very difficult and strained relations between France and the German Empire [Kluge 1968]. In its reply to Coubertin's invitation from December 1895 the German Gymnastic Federation stated that "The Organizer of the Games has always opposed the Germans in words and actions, which is unworthy of German honor. In consideration of this situation Germany will not participate in the Olympic Games in Athens" [Metzner 1968]. It was claimed the Coubertin's belated invitation to Germany to participate actually meant a refusal to participate. Coubertin purportedly stated it in an interview for one of French tabloids, and suggested that Germany had been intentionally informed about the Olympics with much delay because any prospective participation of representatives of German universities and schools would have seriously reduced the French athletes' chances of winning [Metzner 1968].

Coubertin issued an official disclaimer stating that his invitation to Germany had been received by the German military attaché and the secretary of football clubs in Strasbourg, Colonel Maximilian von Schwartzkoppen, and by the vice president of the interclub union, General Victor von Podbielski. The latter supposedly treated the invitation with mistrust and discarded the message [Buschmann, Lennartz 1996, p. 34]. On second thought, he later changed his mind and did send a short reply to Coubertin. Unaware of it, however, Coubertin asked the editor-in-chief of the German magazine *Spiel und Sport* to publish a panegyric to the Olympic idea and the programme of the Olympic Congress, hoping to finally convince the German officials to take part in a preparatory meeting in Sorbonne in 1894 and, in effect, conclude an agreement. Unfortunately, the German Empire sent no representatives to the meeting [Metzner 1968].

Von Podbielski's *faux pas* had an impact on the German public, which unjustly blamed Coubertin for the confusion. It seems, however, that the baron was aware of the consequences of this situation as he intended to extend the invitation to participate in the revived Olympic Games to liberally thinking athletes rather than athletes expressing radically nationalistic attitudes, and thus to avoid any organizational and ideological problems. This is why he had not sent the invitation directly to the German Gymnastic Federation, whose members were hardly influential or pragmatic, but only to the high representatives of the German authorities [Metzner 1968].

The German Gymnastic Federation presided by a physician and Reichstag deputy Ferdinand Götz, was an ideologically directed and structured organization and attached immense importance to the expression and development of national and civic loyalty during gymnastic training and competition. International sport was religiously and racially neutral, and adhered to two main principles: measurable sport results and fair play principle. According to the President of the German Gymnastic Federation, these principles were incompatible with the inner spirit and the main priorities of many German competitors [Metzner 1968]. In practice, however, many German athletes, including Hermann Weingärtner, expressed completely different views.

The encroachment of a French baron upon the German rules of competition and his intentions to organize an international sport event in an innovative way determined mostly by the principle of fairness rather than mass and dynamics, were unacceptable to the German imperial authorities. Coubertin's views were in direct contrast with the officially expounded views of the German authorities on gymnastic training and competition. The reasons for the German authorities' boycott of the Olympics were explicitly set out by doctor F.A. Schmidt, who was closely associated with the German gymnastic community: "By what right can we in any way approve

of an international sport event without any national traits or formal requirements of athletes' physical prowess; an event which attaches the greatest significance to subjectivity and awarding specialists for whom law and rules are only secondary?" [Metzner 1968].

In December 1895, ignoring the Federation's decision, a German naturalist Willibald Gebhardt founded the Committee for German Athletes' Participation in the 1896 Olympic Games in Athens – the first National Olympic Committee. He endorsed Coubertin's idea, proposed making peace, and pledged support for all gymnasts wishing to participate in the Olympics. Willibald Gebhardt is regarded today as the founder of the Olympic movement in Germany [Scherer 1996, p. 36]. One of the members of the Committee became Hermann Weingärtner bringing in his enormous sport potential and chances of victories.

The German Gymnastic Federation's opinion of Gebhardt's ambitions was very negative, and the Federation authorities upheld the ban on their insubordinate members' participation in the Olympics. The Federation president Ferdinand Götz sharply reacted to Gebhardt's initiative and again referred to "the honor of German men" and "German sense of duty never to tolerate any such French enterprises". The German press chimed together with Götz and violently attacked Gebhardt's proposals. In turn, in Gebhardt's opinion, the Federation authorities were driven by "unfounded chauvinism" which had nothing to do with "noble patriotism" [Metzner 1968]. Willibald Gebhardt realized that his views were not only in agreement with the views of the top and most experienced athletes of the day, but also that he fought on behalf of many novice and ambitious gymnasts. Thanks to his enormous commitment a group of German athletes organized by the committee and led by Hermann Weingärtner decided to defy the German Gymnastic Federation and take part in the Athens Olympic Games [Schwallmann 2014, p. 94].

Weingärtner's Olympic success and completion of gymnastic career

At the First Modern Olympic Games in Athens athletes competed in nine sports: athletics, cycling, swimming, shooting, tennis, fencing, weightlifting, wrestling and gymnastics. The last sport attracted the greatest number of competitors, who on April 9 and 10, 1896 took part in eight events [Zdebska 2010, pp. 36–38]. It must be emphasized that, with the exception of fencing, the International Olympic Committee had in 1894 decided to allow only amateur athletes to compete [Lennartz, Wassong 2004, p. 20]. All the Olympic competitions were held at the Panathenaic Stadium in Athens. Despite the fact that only 71 athletes from nine states took part in the competitions, the performance of the Ger-

man gymnasts was very successful [Porada 1980, pp. 230–243]. They won five gold medals, three silver medals, and two bronze medals [Schulz 2014, p. 47]. Six out of these ten medals were won by Hermann Weingärtner: three gold medals in individual and team horizontal bar and team parallel bars, two silver medals in individual pommel horse and rings, and one bronze medal in individual vault. Apart from Weingärtner the other German team members included Konrad Böcker, Alfred Flatow, Gustav Flatow, Georg Hillmar, Fritz Hofmann, Fritz Manteuffel, Karl Neukirch, Richard Röstel, Gustav Schuft oraz Carl Schumann [Mallon, Widlund 1998, pp. 70–74].

These medals are retroactively assigned by the International Olympic Committee, because during the 1896 Athens Olympics winners were given a silver medal¹. The winners were given a silver medal, an olive branch, and a diploma; the runners-up received a copper medal, laurel branch, and diploma; and the subsequent places only commemorative distinctions [Coubertin 1897, p. 50]. Furthermore, no medals were given to individual members of winning teams in team events thus Hermann Weingärtner actually received only one silver medal (for the first place in individual horizontal bar) and two copper medals (for the second places in rings and pommel horse) [Schneider 1991].

Hermann Weingärtner's successes made him the most awarded athlete of the Athens Olympics. He absolutely dominated all the gymnastic events and gained huge popularity among the fans. On his return to Germany, together with the majority of his fellow gymnasts who participated in the Olympic Games, he was suspended by the German Gymnastic Federation for two years for his participation in the Olympics and thus for defying the Federation's official ban. The German Gymnastic Federation would continue boycotting the Olympics considering them anti-German and contrary to the spirit of international competition [Schwallmann 2014, p. 95].

The local press in Frankfurt am Oder hardly exploited the gymnast's success. The reasons for this lack of interest were the aforementioned defiance of the Federation's ban but also Weingärtner's long-time residence in Berlin, where he had trained and returned to after the Olympics. The residents of Frankfurt am Oder did not even notice Weingärtner connections with his hometown. However, the sudden and unexpected death of his older brother, with whom he had worked in his youth in the grocery store, made Hermann Weingärtner return to Frankfurt am Oder, take over the family business [Fehland, Losensky 2005, p. 11], and conclude his short but hugely successful sports career.

¹ The Olympic gold medal as the first place prize was introduced in 1904.

Hermann Weingärtner's death and commemoration

In 1900 Weingärtner married a baker's daughter Hedwig Emilie Elisabeth Kummert, with whom he would then have three children: Elli Elisabeth, Käte Klara and Hermann Max Erich. After ending his sport career he settled down in his hometown and managed his bathhouse family business [Rössler 2013]. Hermann Weingärtner died on December 22, 1919 due to circulatory failure, after attempting to save the life of a man drowning in a local river [Kotterba 2009].

According to Joachim Schneider's archives the Weingärtner family vault was in the Frankfurt main cemetery until its complete removal in 1972. After that a commemorative plaque dedicated to the gymnast and funded by the Frankfurter Turnverein 1860 club was also removed. The deceased members of the Weingärtner family interred in the vault included Hermann Weingärtner, his daughter Elli, his parents, brothers Albert, Max and Robert with wife Elisabeth and son Kurt [Kotterba 2009].

Until 1990, Hermann Weingärtner had been virtually unrecognized as a German Olympian representing Frankfurt am Oder. His successes were attributed to Berlin as a city with the greatest influence on his sports career. One of the very few Weingärtner's memorabilia is his Olympic gold medal that was kept for many years in the Museum of Sport in Frankfurt am Oder. In 2003 it was handed over to the granddaughter of one of Hermann Weingärtner's brothers. For many years attempts were made to find the gymnast's original silver and copper medals. The two copper medals are presumed lost, while the silver medal was given by Hermann Max Erich Weingärtner in 1964 to Yukio Endō – a Japanese Olympic multiple medalist and world champion in gymnastics. For many years it was exhibited in one of Tokyo museums, unfortunately it was stolen in 2010 and has never been found [Wächter 2013].

In the last twenty years the municipal authorities of Frankfurt am Oder have been very active in commemorating the sports achievements of Hermann Weingärtner. There have been also many initiatives proposed by individual Frankfurt residents, who not only intended to honor the first Olympic champion but also to emphasize his links with his hometown. On October 8, 1996 the main footpath of the Ziegenwerder Island, i.e. the former location of the Weingärtner family swimming pool business, was named Hermann Weingärtner Path (Germ. Hermann-Weingärtner-Weg). It was officially inaugurated not only to commemorate the gymnast's successes but also to celebrate the centenary of the first Olympic Games of the modern era. Three years later the editors of *Märkische Oderzeitung*, a daily paper from eastern Brandenburg, organized a public poll for the best German

athlete of the 20th century. The judging panel consisted of one hundred experts and enthusiasts of sport and regional history. After counting all the votes, Hermann Weingärtner came third jointly with hurdler Karin Balzer and two-time Olympic wrestler Maik Bullmann. The winner was boxer Henry Maske, and the runner-up became road cyclist Falk Boden [Stulpe 1999].

In the subsequent years a discussion ensued about possible establishment of the Hermann Weingärtner Prize as an endorsement fund for young athletes. In 2008 the prize was awarded for the first time. It can be awarded only to athletes who attained extraordinary sports results in the previous year, and who thanks to their sport activities "did the city credit" [Lock 2007]. The Hermann Weingärtner Prize recipients have been:

- wrestler Marcus Thätner (2008);
- wrestler Mirko English (2009);
- judoka Romy Tarangul (2010);
- road cyclist Reinhard Scheer (2011);
- wrestler Yvonne English (2012);
- sports shooter Ralf Buchheim (2013);
- sports shooter Stefanie Thurmann (2014).

The prize winners receive 1896 euro, which is the amount corresponding to the date of the first Olympics of the modern era [Herold 2012].

In 2014, as part of the celebration of 150th anniversary of Hermann Weingärtner's birthday, the Frankfurt am Oder authorities decided to honor the gymnast's achievements and initiated cooperation with a number of business entities and institutions to disseminate the knowledge of Hermann Weingärtner's rich life and sports career. The year of 2014 was proclaimed the Hermann Weingärtner year. During a special ceremony the park area around the multi-purpose Stadium of Friendship in Frankfurt am Oder (Germ. Stadion der Freundschaft) was named after the famous gymnast. A commemorative plaque containing the basic information about Frankfurt's most famous athlete was also put up on a newly founded building in the stadium complex. Moreover, the Viadrina European University organized a Polish-German exhibition titled *The Turbulent Times* that showed Hermann Weingärtner as a sport legend and pioneer as well as presented the key developments in the history of German sport of the 19th century. The exhibition was opened by German diplomat and politician, Viadrina Rector Gunter Pleuger and Mayor of Frankfurt am Oder Martin Wilke [Kotterba 2014].

Conclusion

The removal of the family vault, complete destruction of the bathhouse and the disappearance of Hermann Weingärtner's Olympic medals eradicated all physical traces of the Weingärtner family. Only the memory of the great athlete still lives on [Adesiyan 2013]. There is no doubt however that Hermann Weingärtner has become an in-

tegral part of the history of Frankfurt am Oder and Germany. It was him who commenced the winning streak of German athletes at the Olympic Games. His determination and passion for sport make him a role model and an inspiration to maintain one's physical fitness on a regular basis. Hermann Weingärtner proved that an amateur athlete was also capable of winning prestigious sport prizes or representing his or her country at important international competitions. His defiance of the decision of the German Gymnastic Federation may be regarded as a display of his love to sport and of his true patriotic spirit, so different from the one propagated by the Federation authorities. His patriotism was based on respect, love and devotion to his fatherland, regardless of all hindrances. Weingärtner exhibited outstanding courage and gained something the sport authorities of the day never expected: a treasured place in public memory and respect and glory for many years to come.

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The Olympians from Iwonicz-Zdrój

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Summary

Iwonicz-Zdrój – a small health resort located in south-eastern Poland is also an important ski centre with a long, rich tradition and significant achievements. Thanks to practising skiing in families and passing on of a sporty lifestyle from generation to generation, this small town can boast Olympians who have represented Poland at the most important sporting event in the world for twenty years.

Keywords: Iwonicz-Zdrój, IKN "Górnik" Iwonicz-Zdrój, Paweł Zygmunt, Łukasz Szczurek, Mariusz Jakiela, Olympic Games

Introduction

Iwonicz-Zdrój is located in south-eastern Poland, in the northern part of Beskid Niski (Low Beskid), in the range of External West Carpathians. The town lies in a V-shaped, narrow valley of Iwonicki Potok (Iwonicz Stream) that springs from the southern slopes of Wólecka Góra (Wólecka Mountain) and Przymiarki. The upper part of the valley is approximately twenty five metres wide, reaching one hundred metres at the centre of the resort. Dolina Iwonickiego Potoku (Iwonicz Stream Valley), in which the resort is located, is surrounded by hills not exceeding six hundred fifty metres above sea level. [Walter-Croneck 1984].

The climate of Iwonicz-Zdrój (considering the above sea level height) falls within the submontane zone, which includes areas from three hundred to five hundred metres above sea level. The average annual temperature is about 7.1°C. Snow cover in Iwonicz-Zdrój lasts more than three months, with average annual duration of one hundred and one point three days [Walter-Croneck 1984].

Therefore, one can say that the mountainous terrain and the climate facilitate the development of winter sports.

The first mention of Iwonicz comes from the first half of the fifteenth century, although the traces of human settlement date back to the Neolithic ages. In the second part of the fifteenth century, Iwonicz was already a rich and densely populated settlement. The reason for that was the fact that two important trade routes, the Hungarian and Subcarpathian ones, crossed in the vicinity of the town. It is quite possible that the development of Iwonicz in that period was influenced by medicinal

mineral springs located in the town. The year fifteen seventy-eight should be treated as the symbolic date of the foundation of the Iwonicz health resort. It was then that the court physician of Stefan Batory, Wojciech Oczko, mentioned Iwonicz in his scientific thesis as one of the spa regions in the country where medicinal springs were located [Michalak 1984, Michalak 1995].

At the end of the eighteenth century, when the resort was falling into ruin because of a difficult political and economic situation, Teofil Załuski decided to buy it. The researchers of Iwonicz history agree that during the rule of the Załuskis, Iwonicz became an important Carpathian health resort. In eighteen twenty-five, Iwonicz becomes the property of Teofil's son, Karol Załuski, who began to renovate the facilities with the help of his wife, Amelia, and brother, Józef. Józef ordered a chemical analysis of the Iwonicz springs. After Karol died, Amelia continued her husband's work and further developed the town with the help of Józef Załuski. She sent her sons: the eldest Michał, and then Karol, Stanisław and Iwo, to the Theresian Academy in Vienna, where they were taught foreign languages and physical culture. The Academy had its own swimming pools, riding halls and gymnasiums. It also hired the best professors and prefects. In the second half of the nineteenth century, during his visit to the town, Józef Dietl gave indications as to the further modernisation of the resort. Amelia Załuska died in eighteen fifty-eight and her son, Michał Załuski, took over the management of the resort, continuing its development until he died in eighteen ninety-three [Kwilecki 1993, Michalak 1984, *Ilustrowany informator przewodnik Iwonicza-Zdroju i okolicy* 1939].

The dynamic growth of the town was interrupted by the outbreak of the Great War, during which part of the spa facilities were destroyed. Therefore, the first years of independence were devoted to restoring Iwonicz from the war damages. During the entire interwar period new mansions, guest houses and therapeutic institutions were built. The quality of services offered in Iwonicz can be proved by the fact that from the twenty-fourth October to the twenty November nineteen thirty-four, Janusz Kusociński, who was struggling with a knee injury at that time, underwent a treatment at the resort [Michalak 1995, Aleksiewicz 1999].

The Second World War brought destruction to the resort and death of many of its inhabitants. In June nineteen forty-four, based on a decree of PKWN (Polish Committee of National Liberation) on the agricultural reform, the title to the property of the Załuski family – the owners of the resort – was transferred to the State Treasury [Michalak 1984].

Immediately after the war, renovation of the resort facilities started. The removal and reparation of war damages lasted until nineteen forty-seven. The next steps included extension of the transport infrastructure and construction of new medical facilities. Opening of the scientific and research centres of the Medical Academy of Lublin at “Excelsior” in nineteen fifty-six and of an institute of natural medicine in nineteen eighty-two had a significant importance for further development of the health resort facilities. These have been recognised as one of the most modern facilities of the kind in the country and could compare to similar ones abroad. Political changes introduced in ninety eighty-nine caused a significant decrease in the number of foreign guests and in the middle of ninety nineties, the number of visitors reached thirty thousand. Nowadays approximately fifty thousand people visit the town annually for treatment and leisure purposes [Michalak 1984, Michalak 1995].

The Development of Ski Sports

The Załuskis, who renovated the resort, were also huge advocates of physical culture on Iwonicz land. The passion for physical exercise was inculcated in the members of the Załuski family from the earliest age. In order to safeguard her children’s health, Amelia applied methods used in England, consisting in physical activity outdoors, exercise, horseback riding and baths. During their education at schools in England or Austria, members of the Załuski family participated in school sports competitions or watched various sporting events and tried to introduce them also in Iwonicz, for the purpose of making the visitors’ stay more enjoyable [Włodarczyk 1999].

Iwonicz-Zdrój was the main ski centre, apart from Ustrzyki Dolne in Subcarpathia and the development of ski sports at the resort had a predominant influence

on the development of these disciplines in the region of Subcarpathia and Middle Carpathians [Bartuch 1995, Bartuch 1984, Michalak 1975, Michalak 1985, Michalak 1995].

The people of Iwonicz had their first contact with skis before the First World War. It was due to the fact that a few locals used to serve at the Austro-Hungarian army in the far Tirol. One of them happened to be Ludwik Murman, who served at the special formations of the Austro-Hungarian army in the Alps in nineteen and five to nineteen and seven. His ability to ski also proved useful in Siberia, where he was sent as a war prisoner after the capitulation of the Fortress of Przemyśl during the First World War. After he came back from the war in nineteen nineteen, Murman decided to carve a pair of small skis for his son, Kazimierz, and teach him to “make his first steps using them”. Therefore, one can say that skiing was not only the necessity of war time [Michalak 1985].

The first pair of skis was brought to the resort from Zakopane in nineteen twenty-one by Antoni Kenar, a student of Stanisław Barabasz from the Lumber Industry School in Zakopane. He and three brothers, Szymon, Walenty and Bronisław Turek from Lubatowa, who also were students of Barabasz, are considered to be the first skiers of Iwonicz. Their skiing feats on the hills of Iwonicz aroused a great interest among the local youth. It is also worth mentioning that Antoni Kellar participated two times at the Olympic Art Contest in the sculpture section, in nineteen thirty-two, when he received an honourable mention, and in nineteen forty-eight. In nineteen twenty-two, Kazimierz and Stanisław Murman, went to Zakopane together with Antoni Zychiewicz, where they watched some skiers, and returned home with a second pair of skis. Those two pairs of genuine skis from Zakopane were used by the local skiers to produce similar ones. Skis were manufactured by the local carpenters: Stanisław Tomkiewicz and Kazimierz Boczar, as well as by Szymon and Walenty Turek from the neighbouring village of Lubatowa. However, those skis were relatively expensive for the times, which is why many young skiing enthusiasts took up making skis by themselves. They used to be made of young ash tree wood and mill bars served as ski sticks. Instead of ski bindings, leather straps laced through holes in the skis or torn shoes nailed to the skis were used. As there were no special boots, everyone used whatever shoes they had, including casual shoes and calves. The manufacture of ski boots was initiated by Edward Zygmunt and Jan Deręg, also using boots brought from Zakopane as a model. In the winter of nineteen twenty-four, the first ski jump hill was built close to the village of Wólka, near Przymiarki, and a slalom slope was developed on the northern slope of the Glorieta Mountain [Michalak 1975, Michalak 1985, Michalak 1995].

At the turn of nineteen twenty-four and nineteen twenty-five, upon the initiative of Kazimierz Murman, Antoni Zychiewicz and Antoni Rygiel, a skiing section of Polskie Towarzystwo Tatrzańskie (Polish Tatra Society), with a branch in Iwonicz-Zdrój was brought to life. Bogdan Załuski, co-proprietor of the resort, was elected the first chairman of the newly founded club. Young skiers needed a rich patron and that is why Załuski was chosen. The first years of the club's existence were devoted mainly to sporting and recreational activities, including teaching skiing and organising competitions for the local community (those events were more of showcases of cross-country skiing, ski jumping, slalom and skijoring), as well as to the promotion of skiing and tourism through the organisation of road trips and crosses [Michalak 1985, Michalak 1995].

With time, the ambition of young skiers was to compete with skiers representing other clubs. Convinced of their own abilities and strength, they were determined to confront their results with those of skiers representing advanced ski clubs. Such was the context for the foundation of Iwonicki Klub Narciarski (Iwonicz Ski Club) in nineteen twenty-eight, however it still retained its relation to the skiing section of Polskie Towarzystwo Tatrzańskie, thanks to which the members were granted discounted rail tickets. That is why IKN athletes competed in the SN PTT team colours until nineteen thirty-nine. The first chairman of the newly founded club was the above-mentioned Bogdan Załuski, and a paramilitary and sports organisation, "Związek Strzelecki" (Shooting Association), assumed the patronage of the club. IKN's relation with "Związek Strzelecki" has opened wide opportunities to participate in many skiing events to its members. Combining skiing and shooting can be considered as the foundation for the core discipline of Iwonicki Klub Narciarski of today, i.e. biathlon [Michalak 1975, Michalak 1985, Michalak 1995].

At the beginning of nineteen thirties, the number of skiers in Iwonicz increased significantly. Young people from neighbouring locations, such as Lubatowa, started joining the club. Closer contacts with other ski clubs and with the members of national team, such as Bronisław Czech, the Marusarz brothers, Jan Kula and Stanisław Roj, were initiated. The above-mentioned athletes took part in the competitions organised at the resort and trained the local sportspeople, while Bronisław Czech designated places for the new ski jump hill and slalom slope on Góra Przedziwna (Przedziwna Mountain). Both facilities were erected in nineteen thirty-one and the ski jump hill was named after Bronisław Czech. Before the war, skiers from Iwonicz had successful performances in competitions held in the Lviv voivodship and Zakopane, often being ranked among the first ten [Michalak 1975, Michalak 1985, Michalak 1995].

The Second World War did not prevent the skiers from practising their preferred disciplines in Iwonicz,

even though a large part of the sports facilities have been destroyed and the club suspended its activity. Immediately after the war was over in nineteen forty-five, Iwonicki Klub Narciarski was reactivated. At first, it was called "Związkowiec", later "Nafta" and "Unia", to eventually take the name "Górnik" in nineteen fifty-one, which survived to this day [Michalak 1975].

Starting from the nineteen thirties until the present day, the skiers of Iwonicz keep ranking high, participating in sporting events on the national, as well as the international level. Since the establishment of the biathlon section in nineteen seventy-eight till twenty thirteen inclusive, the biathletes of Iwonicz have won fifty seven medals during national competitions: nine at the Polish Senior Championships (five gold, one silver and three bronze), seventeen at the Polish Junior Championships (four gold, six silver and seven bronze) and thirty one at the National Youth Spartakiad (later renamed Olympics) (ten gold, thirteen silver and eight bronze). Furthermore, biathletes of Iwonicz were also placed at the World Senior Championships, starting from the second ten. The skiers from Iwonicz have also been successful in Nordic and Alpine skiing, winning an array of medals during local, regional and national competitions between nineteen twenties and nineteen nineties. Among the most important of them are silver and gold medals, as well as seventh and ninth places at the World Student Championships (nineteen fifties), a bronze medal at giant slalom at the Polish Junior Championships, fourth place at downhill at the World Junior Championships, bronze medals at ten kilometres during the Polish Senior Championships (nineteen sixties and nineteen seventies). In the nineteen eighties, the skiers from Iwonicz won two medals (gold and bronze) at the Polish Junior Championships and two bronze medals at the National Youth Spartakiad. At the beginning of the nineteen nineties, Grzegorz Zygmunt won a silver medal at Nordic combined during the National Youth Spartakiad and also was placed fifth and sixth at the Polish Junior Championships. A many years' tradition, often cultivated in families, significant domestic and international achievements, and a terrain that facilitates the development of winter sports resulted in the small Subcarpathian health resort having participants of the Winter Olympic Games among its inhabitants [Michalak 1985, Michalak 1995, *Echo gminy Iwonicz-Zdrój* 2007, issue 1, p. 30; 2007, issue 5, p. 29; 2008, issue 12, p. 30; 2008, issue 17, p. 30; 2009, issue 25, p. 30; 2010, issue 36, p. 30; 2010, issue 37, p. 30; 2010, issue 42, p. 29; 2011, issue 47, p. 29; 2011, issue 51, p. 29; 2012, issue 59, p. 20; 2012, issue 60, p. 18; 2012, issue 63, p. 16; 2013, issue 70, p. 16; 2013, issue 71, p. 23; 2013, issue 75, p. 22; 2013, issue 77, p. 21, materials from M. Jakięła, an interview with Łukasz Szczurek from 18.05. and 24.05. 2014].

Paweł Zygmunt

Born on fifteenth July nineteen seventy-two in Krosno. He has been involved in sports since his youngest years, as his parents and grandfather used to practice winter sports, too. His father, Tadeusz (classic duathlon) was the leading competitor in the region, winning medals at the national level. He was even nominated to represent Poland at the Olympic Games in Grenoble in nineteen sixty-eight, but was fourth in the qualifying round and eventually did not make it to France (Włodarczyk, 2006, <http://www.olimpijski.pl/pl/bio/2366,zygmunt-pawel-jan.html>).

At the age of three, Paweł was given his first skis, and as a five year-old, he would ski down the landing area of the ski jump hill in Iwonicz-Zdrój. His adventure with sports started under the guidance of his father, who also was his first trainer. The first club in his career was IKN "Górnik", where he initially practiced Nordic combined, but after suffering an injury at a ski jump hill, he switched to cross-country skiing (Włodarczyk, 2006, <http://www.olimpijski.pl/pl/bio/2366,zygmunt-pawel-jan.html>).

Having graduated from the elementary school, Paweł Zygmunt tried to enrol at the School of Sports Championship in Zakopane, where he wanted to continue his skiing career. However, he stressed that partly due to a misunderstanding, he was given an Unsatisfactory mark in performance tests, which resulted in an immediate disqualification, but he did not pick up his papers from the school and, during the enrolment phase for a camp in Wałcz, the Olympian-to-be was notified that he could participate in that camp. He did not hesitate, went to Wałcz and in this way, he became a student at the School of Sports Championship in Zakopane, initially specialising in cross-country skiing (*Przegląd Sportowy*, 2006, issue 262, p. VII).

A turning point in his career was the introduction of the skating style to cross-country skiing by a Finnish skier, Pauli Siitonen. Skating trainer Marek Stanuch first noticed Zygmunt when he made a bet with his friends that he would swim four kilometres in a pool filled with freezing cold water. He won the bet, fell ill, but as mentioned above, Stanuch noticed him, remembering his stubbornness and persistence. During one of the joint trainings for skiers and skaters, trainer Stanuch suggested that Paweł should try his hand at the rink, to which he eagerly consented and achieved the second best result in a group of boys who had practised skating for a few years then. And that is how Paweł Zygmunt's skating adventure started (Włodarczyk, 2006, *Przegląd Sportowy*, 2006, issue 262, p. VIII).

In the nineteen eighty-eight/eighty-nine season, Paweł – already as a speed skater, – competed in decathlon, where he won the second place in the general standing. One year later, during the same event, he took the

first place. In the nineteen ninety/ninety-one season, Zygmunt was second at the Polish Junior Championships in decathlon, made his debut in the World Cup, and during the European Junior Championships, he won both the individual and the team competition in decathlon. Another season brought victories at the Polish Junior Championships at all distances, as well as the fifth place at the World Junior Championships. The skater from Iwonicz was also offered a place in the broad team for the Olympic Games in Albertville (Włodarczyk, 2006, *Przegląd Sportowy*, 2006, issue 262, p. VIII).

Throughout his career, Paweł Zygmunt made continuous appearances at the Polish Senior Championships from nineteen ninety one/ninety two till twenty oh-five/oh-six. He won a total number of sixty seven medals, including forty three gold, nineteen silver and five bronze ones [Włodarczyk 2006].

Despite the many achievements on the national level, international success only came in twenty oh-two and twenty oh-three. It was then that he won a bronze medal at the distance of ten thousand metres at the World Championships, as well as silver and bronze medals, at ten thousand and five thousand metres, respectively, at the European Championships. He explained that this discipline required a great deal of patience, and success did not come after a month or even a year, and every injury that lasted a few weeks ruined the whole season. He also does not hide the fact that his wife, Katarzyna, significantly contributed to his success in that season, making him believe in himself and see things from a more offensive perspective, so that his competitors would respect him, as it was them who had more to lose (*Przegląd Sportowy*, 2006, issue 262, p. VIII).

Paweł Zygmunt represented Poland four times at the Olympics. In his debut in Lillehammer, he ranked fortieth at fifteen hundred metres and eighteenth at five thousand metres. Four years later in Nagano, he achieved a better result compared to the previous Olympics, finishing at the thirty fourth place, and took the eighteenth place again at five thousand metres. In Salt Lake City in twenty oh two, he was fourteenth both at five thousand and ten thousand metres, those being his best results at the Olympics. In twenty oh six, in Torino, Zygmunt finished eighteenth at five thousand metres [Włodarczyk 2006].

Zygmunt himself is reluctant to recall his participation at the Olympics. Not having managed to win an Olympic medal is like a thorn in his flesh.

He admits that he went to Lillehammer to learn, he even does not remember the five thousand metres run, while during the second run, he fell down a few dozens of metres before the finish, thus losing his chances to be placed among the first ten. Zygmunt's unsuccessful appearance in Norway had nothing to do with his perky announcements before the Games. At that time,

Paweł believed that ambition, stubbornness and a fighting mood could work miracles. But they did not. According to the journalists, the fall at the fifteen hundred metres distance was symbolic in nature, given the context of the entire Polish Olympic team's performance. The Olympian from Iwonicz could not accept the opinions on his performance, which he considered unfair. It was then that he promised that he would yet show his teeth (*Pejzaż Polski*, 2001, issue 50/15, p. 31, *Przegląd Sportowy*, 2006, issue 262, p. VIII).

Zygmunt recalls the preparations for the Olympics in Nagano as one huge scandal. He practiced individually and covered his trainers' costs on his own. Therefore, the sole fact that he made an appearance in Japan can be perceived as a success (*Pejzaż Polski*, 2001, issue 50/15, p. 31, *Przegląd Sportowy*, 2006, issue 262, p. VIII).

After Nagano, Paweł Zygmunt was fed up. Speed skating was not a very popular sport in Poland at that time, there were and there still are no modern indoor speed skating rinks, and finding a sponsor even for the best athlete was a big problem. After the Olympics in Nagano, the speed skater from Iwonicz started to think of settling down, graduated from the University of Physical Education in Kraków, specialising in skating and skiing (*Pejzaż Polski*, 2001, issue 50/15, p. 31).

The Olympic Games in Salt Lake City in twenty oh-two were to bring a huge success, but they turned out to be another failure. According to Zygmunt, there were mistakes in the organisation of preparations and he was surprised with the hard and fast ice on the Olympic rink. As a result, during training he achieved split times worth a medal, and three rounds before end, he would lose his stamina. Those were the blackest days in his career, he said (*Przegląd Sportowy*, 2006, issue 262, p. VIII).

During the Olympics in Torino, Paweł did not focus on the individual performance and partly blamed himself for the fact that the team did not qualify for the Olympic run, as there was no collective spirit in the team. After the Olympics, Paweł Zygmunt decided to finish his sports career (*Przegląd Sportowy*, 2006, issue 262, p. VIII).

After the termination of his career, the Iwonicz speed skater took up sports diplomacy. He was a member of the Technical Committee of the International Skating Union, where he was responsible for the issues related to speed skating. Moreover, he was also a Board Member of the Polish Association of Speed Skating and the Polish Olympic Committee, and he took part in the sittings of the Parliamentary Commission of Physical Culture and Sport. Since twenty oh-one, together with his wife, Katarzyna, he has been organising the "Sport Against Addictions" event. To date, the event took place in Iwonicz-Zdrój and Krynica-Zdrój, among others. The Zygmunts believe that such events with good music, dancing and sports competition may help many young people, and

the mass practice of sport should serve the same purpose as social activities directed against drug addiction once did. For Paweł Zygmunt the winners are those who participate in such events, as that is the right way of living (*Pejzaż Polski*, 2001, issue 50/15, p. 31, *Przegląd Sportowy*, 2006, issue 262, p. VIII).

Łukasz Szczurek

Born on first April nineteen eighty-eight in Krosno. He was not even four years old, when he put on short plastic skis for the first time. His first movements were quite clumsy, but as his father, Piotr Szczurek recalls, he enjoyed it a lot. That is how he grew up, jumping on improvised ski jump hills made by his older colleagues. When his sister, Agnieszka, decided to join IKN "Górniki", the then seven-year-old future Olympian went with her just to keep her company, but after they came back home, he started nagging his parents that they allow him to visit them club together with his sister. No one needed to convince them, as his father used to practice shooting and biathlon. Since his earliest years, he would look at the photos, medals and diplomas of his father's, dreaming of winning in sports competitions by himself. In the neighbourhood where he grew up, there were many people who practised winter sports. After speaking to the club's trainers, his parents came to the conclusion that Łukasz should visit the club. Trainer Tadeusz Zygmunt even prepared his son Paweł's first skis and, even though those were the smallest skis in the club, they were still too big for little Łukasz. His sports adventure started with Nordic combined, but he recalls that once, while standing on the threshold of a ski jump hill, he started to be afraid. It was then that he decided to move to the cross-country skiing section (Szczurek, 2006, an interview with Ł. Szczurek from 11.05.2014, <http://www.lukasz-szczurek.pl/index.php?id=biografia>).

After graduating from elementary school and some wins at the UKS (Student Sports Club) Polish Championships, Łukasz decided to enrol in the Sports Middle School in Iwonicz. That is when he started his professional biathlon training. His first significant success was the fourth place at the international *Olympic Youth* competitions [Szczurek 2006, an interview with Ł. Szczurek from 18.05.2014].

From twenty oh-four to twenty oh-seven, he participated in the National Youth Olympics, taking podium places every time and winning fourteen medals (ten gold, two silver and two bronze). Then Szczurek competed at the Polish Senior Championships, winning sixteen medals (five gold, seven silver and four bronze) until twenty thirteen. One of the most beautiful moments for the biathlete of Iwonicz was winning a silver medal in twenty oh-six, and a gold one a year later at the World Junior

Championships. Apart from that, Łukasz also participated in relay runs at the World Senior Championships, as well as in the World Cup [an interview with Ł. Szczurek from 11.05. and 18.05.2014].

His first appearance at the Olympic Games as a representative of Poland took place in twenty and ten, in Vancouver. Together with Tomasz Sikora, they were the only male representatives of the Polish biathlon. Łukasz was fifty ninth in the individual run and eighty fifth in the sprint. Four years later, in Sochi, he ranked seventy seventh in his first sprint run. Afterwards he said that he did not do too well at shooting and was still struggling to acclimatise. Then he participated in the twenty kilometres individual run. He finished fifty first. After that he participated in another two runs. In the mixed relay, the team composed of Krystyna Pałka, Magdalena Gwizdoń, Łukasz Szczurek and Krzysztof Pływaczyk took the fourteenth place. According to Łukasz, the last run was one of his worst moments. Before the third change to be started by Szczurek, the relay ranked third, but eventually finished fourteenth. As for now, the last run during the Olympics for the biathlete of Iwonicz was the men's relay composed of Krzysztof Pływaczyk, Łukasz Szczurek, Łukasz Słonina and Rafał Lepel. The Polish team took nineteenth place (an interview with Ł. Szczurek from 18.05.2014, <http://www.przegladsportowy.pl/igrzyska-olimpijskie/soczi-2014,lukasz-szczurek-po-pierwszym-startcie-na-io-w-soczi,artykul,420515,1,1047.html>).

The most interesting experience for Łukasz in his biathlon career to date was the participation in the Olympic Games and training at the same facilities with competitors such as Ole Einar Bjoerndalen, Justyna Kowalczyk, Marit Bjoergen and many other athletes from the top of the world biathlon and cross-country skiing. The sports role model for the biathlete of Iwonicz is Ole Einar Bjoerndalen. Łukasz admires his perfectionism and professional attitude in trying to be perfect in whatever he does. For him, Bjoerndalen is the king of biathlon. Łukasz strives to cross the borders of pain that accompanies him during each run, because only then, he underlines, one can think of achieving a good result [an interview with Ł. Szczurek from 11.05.2014].

Mariusz Jakiela

Born on twenty fourth August nineteen seventy-six in Jasło. Lives in Lubatowa, a locality that belongs to the Iwonicz-Zdrój commune. Like with the two Olympians described above, Mariusz has been keen of sports since his early years. Family tradition was the reason behind it. In Mariusz Jakiela's family his uncle was a good cross-country skier, and a cousin of his was a very good biathlete, and he admitted that it were the cousin's medals that motivated him. Later on, being a young competitor and knowing the results of the most prominent

IKN "Górnik" figures, he wanted to match their achievements. When he was five, his father introduced him to Kazimierz Zima, who was a skiing teacher at the school of Lubatowa. It was him who gave him his first cross-country skis – the wooden Hermeses. In that times, he recalls, almost everyone tried their hand at cross-country skiing. His adventure with biathlon started during his final year of elementary school. It was the unpredictable nature of this sports discipline that tempted him most. The feeling of having skis attached to his legs and a rifle in his hand was the motivation to challenge himself [an interview with M. Jakiela from 17.05.2014].

Two medals (a gold and a bronze one) during the Polish Junior Championships in nineteen ninety-three can be considered Jakiela's first significant achievements. Two years later, he won two bronze medals at the same event and then went on to win the fourth place at the European Junior Championships. In nineteen ninety-six, he was second at the Polish Junior Championships and took the eighth place at the World Junior Championship in the relay run. A year later, the biathlete from Lubatowa was placed just behind the podium at the Polish Senior Championships and in nineteen ninety-eight won a bronze medal at the same event [an interview with M. Jakiela from 17.05.2014].

In nineteen ninety-eight, Mariusz Jakiela was chosen to represent Poland at the Winter Olympic Games in Nagano as a reserve competitor. According to the biathlete from Lubatowa, the Olympics are the grandest event for any athlete, a magical competition and great competitors all in one place. He was twenty one at that time and thought that the best was yet to come. Although a reserve competitor during the whole Olympics, he silently hoped to be given a chance to compete, but trainer Aleksander Wierietielny had already decided on his team that won the fifth place in the relay run. At that point, the trainer promised that Mariusz would compete in the team run during the World Championships, but he did not keep his word [an interview with M. Jakiela from 17.05.2014].

He admitted that the decision to terminate his career was the most difficult one in his life, in spite of being aware that everything that has its beginning, has its end. To Mariusz a hero is one who is said to be a 'good person', for 'perfect' does not exist. In his professional sports career, his motto was the following: "God put the man at the starting point and he constantly heads to the finish, even though the road is uphill or sometimes he deviates from it" [an interview with M. Jakiela from 17.05.2014].

Upon termination of his sports career, Jakiela became a physical education teacher at a school in Lubatowa and a trainer at IKN "Górnik" Iwonicz-Zdrój. He works with young skiers and biathletes, passing the bug on to new generations [an interview with M. Jakiela from 17.05.2014].

Closing paragraph

Starting from the early years of the twentieth century and up to this day, despite the turbulent history and various issues of the organisational and financial nature, the Iwoniczki Klub Narciarski "Górnik" Iwonicz-Zdrój ski club is raising another generations of athletes who represent Poland and the town of Iwonicz during sports events on a global level, from European and World Championships to the Olympics, where there has been a representative of Poland originating from Iwonicz every time for twenty years. This testifies to the deep-rooted sports tradition among the members of the Iwonicz community, as well as to the awareness of the fact that physical culture is an important element of human life, which allows to live many unforgettable moments and become part of the history of Olympism, and the Olympic Games are the most important sports event in the world.

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