

SPORT I TURYSTYKA
ŚRODKOWOEUROPEJSKIE CZASOPISMO NAUKOWE
T. 4

NR 1

RADA NAUKOWA

Ryszard ASIENKIEWICZ (Uniwersytet Zielonogórski)
Diethelm BLECKING (Uniwersytet Albrechta i Ludwika we Fryburgu)
Miroslav BOBRIK (Słowacki Uniwersytet Techniczny w Bratysławie)
Valentin CONSTANTINOV (Uniwersytet Państwowy Tiraspol z siedzibą w Kiszyniowie)
Tomáš DOHNAL (Uniwersytet Techniczny w Libercu)
Elena GODINA (Rosyjski Państwowy Uniwersytet Wychowania Fizycznego, Sportu i Turystyki)
Karol GÖRNER (Uniwersytet Mateja Bela w Bańskiej Bystrzycy)
Wiktor Władimirowicz GRIGORIEWICZ (Grodzieński Państwowy Uniwersytet Medyczny)
Michal JIŘÍ (Uniwersytet Mateja Bela w Bańskiej Bystrzycy)
Tomasz JUREK (Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego im. Eugeniusza Piaseckiego w Poznaniu)
Jerzy KOSIEWICZ (Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego Józefa Piłsudskiego w Warszawie)
Jurij LIANNOJ (Sumski Państwowy Uniwersytet Pedagogiczny im. Antona Makarenki)
Wojciech LIPONSKI (Uniwersytet Szczeciński)
Veaceslav MANOLACHI (Państwowy Uniwersytet Wychowania Fizycznego i Sportu
w Kiszyniowie)
Josef OBORNÝ (Uniwersytet Komeńskiego w Bratysławie)
Andrzej PAWLUCKI (Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego we Wrocławiu)
Jurij PELEKH (Równieński Państwowy Uniwersytet Humanistyczny)
Gertrud PFISTER (Uniwersytet Kopenhaski)
Anatolij TSOS (Wołyński Uniwersytet Narodowy im. Łesi Ukrainki w Łucku)
Marek WAIC (Uniwersytet Karola w Pradze)
Klaudia ZUSKOVÁ (Uniwersytet Pavla Jozefa Šafárika w Koszycach)

LISTA RECENZENTÓW

dr prof. nadzw. Valentin CONSTANTINOV; prof. dr hab. Wojciech CYNARSKI; doc. dr Nina DEDELUK; prof. PaedDr. Karol GÖRNER, PhD; doc. PaedDr. Janka KANÁSOVÁ, PhD; dr hab. prof. US Katarzyna KOTARSKA; dr hab. prof. UR Paweł KRÓL; dr hab. prof. PO Cezary KUŚNIERZ; dr hab. prof. UwB Artur PASKO; doc. dr. Tomasz PAVLIN; dr hab. prof. nadzw. Julia PAVLOVA; dr hab. prof. US Renata URBAN; prof. PhDr. Marek WAIC, CSc; dr hab. prof. UJD Jacek WĄSIK; prof. dr hab. Stanisław ZABORNIAK

Nadesłane do redakcji artykuły są oceniane anonimowo przez dwóch Recenzentów

UNIwersytet HUMANISTYCZNO-PRZYRODNICZY IM. JANA DŁUGOSZA
W CZĘSTOCHOWIE

SPORT I TURYSTYKA

**ŚRODKOWOEUROPEJSKIE
CZASOPISMO NAUKOWE**

TOM 4

NR 1

DAWNIEJ:
PRACE NAUKOWE AKADEMII IM. JANA DŁUGOSZA
W CZĘSTOCHOWIE. KULTURA FIZYCZNA



Częstochowa 2021

Redaktor Naczelny
Eligiusz MAŁOLEPSZY

Redaktorzy naukow
Teresa DROZDEK-MAŁOLEPSZA
Błażej CIEŚLIK

Redaktor statystyczny
Paulina UCIEKŁAK-JEŻ

Redaktor językowy
Dariusz JAWORSKI (język polski)
Andrzej WĄTROBA (język angielski)

Koordinator zasobów internetowych
Błażej CIEŚLIK

Korekta
Andrzej WĄTROBA (język angielski)
Piotr GOSPODAREK (język polski)

Redakcja techniczna
Piotr GOSPODAREK

Projekt okładki
Sławomir SADOWSKI

PISMO RECENZOWANE

Pierwotną wersją periodyku jest publikacja papierowa

Strona internetowa czasopisma
<http://www.sit.ujd.edu.pl>

Czasopismo indeksowane w bazach:
Agro, BazHum (Baza Czasopism Humanistycznych i Społecznych),
CEJSH (The Central European Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities),
DOAJ (Directory of Open Access Journals)
ERIH PLUS (The European Index for the Humanities and the Social Sciences),
Index Copernicus (IC Journals Master List), PBN (Polska Bibliografia Naukowa)

© Copyright by
Uniwersytet Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczy im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie
Częstochowa 2021

p-ISSN 2545-3211
e-ISSN 2657-4322

Wydawnictwo Naukowe Uniwersytetu Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczego
im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie
42-200 Częstochowa, ul. Waszyngtona 4/8
tel. (34) 378-43-29, faks (34) 378-43-19
www.ujd.edu.pl
e-mail: wydawnictwo@ujd.edu.pl

SPIS TREŚCI

CONTENTS

Wstęp	7
CZĘŚĆ I	
DZIEJE KULTURY FIZYCZNEJ W POLSCE I NA ŚWIECIE	9
Tomáš TLUSTÝ	
Orel – the Catholic physical education association: foreign relations up to 1929	11
Orel – katolickie stowarzyszenie wychowania fizycznego: stosunki międzynarodowe do 1929 r. (Streszczenie)	11
Petra TOMŠOVÁ	
Slavic Swimming Championships in the Years 1927–1929	33
Słowiańskie Mistrzostwa Pływackie w latach 1927–1929 (Streszczenie)	33
Kiryl SHYLINHOUSKI	
Народная игра <i>Свинка</i> : генезис, семантика, адаптация правил игры	55
<i>Swinka</i> folk game: genesis, semantics, adaptation of the rules of the game (Abstract) ..	55
Gra ludowa świnka: geneza, semantyka, adaptacja reguł gry (Streszczenie)	56
Maciej BARANIAK	
“Kumoterki”, tradition, sport and cultural heritage	75
Kumoterki, tradycja – sport – dziedzictwo kulturowe (Streszczenie)	75
CZĘŚĆ II	
TEORIA I METODYKA WYCHOWANIA FIZYCZNEGO I SPORTU	87
Anna PAWLIKOWSKA-PIECHOTKA	
Sports and recreation facilities in schools – history and present state ...	89
Obiekty sportowo-rekreacyjne w szkołach – historia i stan współczesny (Streszczenie)	89
BASUKI, NURHASAN, SUROTO	
Movement and Sports Activities through Games to Enhance the Skills of Creative Thinking and Quality of Learning Process for Children Aged 14–15	115
Działania ruchowe i sportowe poprzez gry w celu podnoszenia umiejętności twórczego myślenia i jakości procesu uczenia się dla dzieci w wieku 14–15 lat (Streszczenie)	115

Marta SZYMANEK-PILARCZYK

The effects of supplementary plyometric training on the development
of selected motor skills of young football players from Akademia

Raków Częstochowa football club 129

Wpływ uzupełniającego treningu plyometrycznego na rozwój wybranych zdolności
motorycznych młodych zawodników piłki nożnej Akademii Raków Częstochowa

(Streszczenie) 129

Wstęp

W 2021 r. czasopismo „Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” ukazuje się czwarty rok. Jest kontynuacją czasopisma „Prace Naukowe Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie. Kultura Fizyczna”. W czwartym numerze zostały zaprezentowane prace Autorów z różnych ośrodków naukowych w Polsce i na świecie.

Część I – *Dzieje kultury fizycznej w Polsce i na świecie* – odnosi się do następującej tematyki:

- Orel – katolickie stowarzyszenie wychowania fizycznego: stosunki międzynarodowe do 1929 r.;
- Słowiańskie Mistrzostwa Pływackie w latach 1927–1929;
- gra ludowa świnka: geneza, semantyka, adaptacja reguł gry;
- kumoterki, tradycja – sport – dziedzictwo kulturowe.

W części II, zatytułowanej *Teoria i metodyka wychowania fizycznego i sportu*, przedstawiono trzy artykuły:

- obiekty sportowo-rekreacyjne w szkołach – historia i stan współczesny;
- działania ruchowe, sportowe poprzez gry w celu podnoszenia umiejętności twórczego myślenia i jakości procesu uczenia się dla dzieci w wieku 14–15 lat;
- znaczenie uzupełniającego treningu plyometrycznego na rozwój wybranych zdolności motorycznych młodych zawodników piłki nożnej Akademii Raków Częstochowa.

Pragnę złożyć serdeczne podziękowania Recenzentom za cenne i życzliwe uwagi, podnoszące wartość niniejszego periodyku. Dziękuję za współpracę Autorom publikacji zamieszczonych w czasopiśmie naukowym. Jednocześnie wyrażam nadzieję, że liczba Osób zainteresowanych publikowaniem własnych osiągnięć naukowych w kolejnych wydaniach czasopisma „Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” się poszerzy.

Eligiusz Małolepszy

CZEŚĆ I
DZIEJE KULTURY FIZYCZNEJ
W POLSCE I NA ŚWIECIE

Tomáš TLUSTÝ*

<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6571-9161>

Orel – the Catholic physical education association: foreign relations up to 1929

Jak cytować [how to cite]: Tlustý T., *Orel – the Catholic physical education association: foreign relations up to 1929*, “Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” 2021, vol. 4, no. 1, p. 11–31.

Orel – katolické stowarzyszenie wychowania fizycznego: stosunki międzynarodowe do 1929 r.

Streszczenie

Artykuł przedstawia historię katolickiego stowarzyszenia wychowania fizycznego Orel (pol. Orzeł) i jego stosunki międzynarodowe do 1929 r. Początki ruchu Orel w czeskim regionie Austro-Węgier sięgają przełomu XIX i XX wieku, kiedy to powstały pierwsze oddziały stowarzyszenia. Poszczególne oddziały ruchu były mocno związane z czeskim katolicyzmem politycznym. Wkrótce po ich powstaniu działacze zaczęli nawiązywać pierwsze kontakty z istniejącymi organizacjami zagranicznymi, których większość pochodziła z terytorium dzisiejszej Słowenii. Liczba zagranicznych organizacji znacznie wzrosła po I wojnie światowej, kiedy to niezależny już czeskosłowacki Orel został członkiem Katolickiego Związku Gimnastycznego – UIOCEP. Członkowie tej organizacji pochodzili z wielu krajów świata, dlatego też rosła liczba nawiązanych przez nią kontaktów zagranicznych. Wzrosły również wpływy i znaczenie czeskosłowackiego ruchu Orel, co wiązało się m.in. z faktem, że czeskosłowacka organizacja zaczęła budować własne place zabaw i sale gimnastyczne. W 1922 r. czeskosłowacki Orel zorganizował swój pierwszy międzynarodowy festiwal w Brnie, co znacząco przyczyniło się do rozwoju całej organizacji. W 1929 r. czeskosłowacki Orel zorganizował drugi wielki festiwal wychowania fizycznego, licząc na dalsze poszerzenie grona zagranicznych przyjaciół. Drugi festiwal odniósł jeszcze większy sukces i pomógł czeskosłowac-

* PhDr., Ph.D., The University of South Bohemia in České Budějovice, Faculty of Education, Department of Sports Studies, Czech Republic; e-mail: tomtlusty@pf.jcu.cz

kiemu ruchowi Orel zwiększyć wpływy w UIOCEP, w którym stopniowo stał się drugą co do wielkości organizacją.

Słowa kluczowe: Orel; katolickie wychowanie fizyczne i sport; UIOCEP; konkurencje sportowe; stosunki międzynarodowe.

Abstract

This paper looks at the history of Orel, the Catholic physical education association, and its foreign relations up to 1929. The origins of the Orel movement in the Czech region of Austria-Hungary go back to the turn of the 20th century when the first local Orel associations were established. These associations were strongly connected with Czech political Catholicism. Shortly after being formed, their functionaries began to establish their first contacts with existing foreign organizations. Most of these organizations were from the area of contemporary Slovenia. Their number rose significantly after the First World War when the newly independent Czechoslovakian Orel became a member of the Catholic physical education union – UIOCEP. The members of this organization were all around the world. The number of foreign contacts it had established was also on the increase. The first international physical educational festival, which helped Czechoslovak Orel with its development, was organized in Brno in 1922. But the Czechoslovakian Orel had planned a second big festival of physical education for 1929, hoping to further extend its number of foreign friends. The second physical educational festival was also successful. It helped Czechoslovak Orel to increase its influence in UIOCEP where it became the second-largest organization.

Keywords: Orel; Catholic physical education and sport; UIOCEP; events; foreign relations.

Introduction

The origins of Orel, which is primarily an association uniting people of the Catholic faith, can be found at the turn of the 20th century when the first physical education divisions were formed within existing Catholic associations. Their formation was provoked by a considerable disregard of religion in the Sokol organization and SDTJ (Union of Workingmen's Physical Education Associations).¹ Literature often refers to the decision to establish and name the organization in the Czech region of Austria-Hungary being inspired by Slovenian lands, where the Orel organization had been formed by Janez Evangelist Krek.

An important functionary within the Slovenian Orel, Krek was politically active, having been a member of the Imperial Council (Reichsrat) at the turn of the 20th century. It was probably the Imperial Council where he met the man who was to become Orel Mayor for the Czech region of Austria-Hungary, Jan Šrámek, with whom he became friends. Janez Evangelist Krek visited Moravia several times. He also arranged meetings to share experiences on the running of political parties and associated (satellite) organizations – particularly unions. After the

¹ M. Strachová, *Sport a Český svaz tělesné výchovy po roce 1989*, Masaryk University, Brno 2013, p. 17.

Orel movement was established in the Czech region of Austria-Hungary, its functionaries gradually began to establish contacts with Catholic physical education organizations abroad.

The Orel and foreign relations before the First World War

Besides the previously mentioned friendship between Jan Šrámek and Janez Evangelist Krek, it was probably Štěpán Klapil who made one of the first foreign contacts for the Orel movement. He had already established written contacts with the Slovenian Orel, Catholic Sokol in the USA and Polish Sokol in 1908, which was actually before the official formation of Orel in Moravia in 1909.² Soon after the Moravian Orel was established, its members began to travel to foreign events.

Foreign colleagues repaid these visits, attending events such as the third provincial Orel festival held on 11th August 1912 in Kroměříž,³ where, for the first time, the town procession was host to delegations from the American Catholic Sokol, the Slovenian Orel and the Croatian Catholics.⁴

Orel delegates attended the Eucharist Congress in Vienna from 12th to 14th September 1912. Besides Orel members publicly declaring their faith and around 200 of them parading in folk costumes in the city procession, they also deepened their relations with their South Slavic colleagues.⁵ Large numbers of members of the Slovenian Orel had attended the event, inviting their colleagues from the Czech region of Austria-Hungary to join them at their festival to be held in Ljubljana.

The Slovenian Orel was preparing its first festival, which was also supposed to have been the first Slavic Orel Festival.⁶ Apart from meeting Slovenians, Orel members from the Czech region of Austria-Hungary had also arranged to meet Croatians in Ljubljana.⁷ Moreover, the Ljubljana festival was an important event for all participants due to it being a kind of manifestation of Slavic Catholic physical education associations in Cisleithania. The festival was hosted to participants from Dalmatia, Carniola, the Slovene Littoral, Gorizia, Carinthia, Styria, Vienna,

² *Pětadvacet let jednoty Orla českosl. ve Vyškově 1905–1930*, Vyškov 1930, p. 12.

³ *Orelský katechismus*, Třebíč 1938, p. 9.

⁴ Archives of Orel, Unclassified, *Stručné dějiny Orla; Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika*, Prague 1931, p. 16.

⁵ *Příručka osvětové práce orelské*, Brno 1921, p. 28.

⁶ “Orel: Věstník křesť.-sociálního Orla československého” 1913, no. 1, pp. 2–7. However, the Ljubljana Festival was not marked as the first Slavic Orel Festival in the end. This status was given to the festival in Maribor, which took place in 1920. “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1929, no. 20, pp. 192–193.

⁷ PHS (Pravi Hrvatski Sokol – Genuine Croatian Sokol) had previously invited Orel delegates from the Czech region to its conference “Hrvatske Zajednice”, which took place on 24 March 1913 in Split. However, they did not attend, sending just a telegram to Dalmatia.

Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia.⁸ The Orel travelled to Ljubljana as a fully independent organization with a delegation of 356 members. A total of 94 gymnasts performed floor exercises. Eighteen Orel gymnasts did ball exercises to music. Thirteen women Orel gymnasts also performed exercises with Indian clubs. This was the first large-scale trip abroad made by the Orel organization from the Czech region of Austria-Hungary.⁹

In 1913 the Orel was honoured by a visit from Gustav Košík, president of the Catholic Sokol in the United States. Proposals to bring the two organizations closer were the main issue on the agenda. The Orel was invited to the Catholic Sokol Festival to be held in 1915 in the city of Passaic, not far from New York. Just before the First World War broke out, the Orel made efforts to establish its first contacts with members of UIOCEP¹⁰ (Union internationale des œuvres catholiques d'éducation physique – International Union for Catholic physical education activities), which united the French, Italians, Luxembourgers, Dutch and Belgians. On 6th June 1914, its chairman Henri Delaunay held talks with Orel delegates in Brno on the possibilities of cooperation. Negotiations, which the Orel had hoped would lead to its affiliation to this Union, subsequently continued at a distance – in writing. The French delegate also invited the Orel to the UIOCEP congress in Nancy.¹¹

The First World War considerably strangled the efforts and further enthusiasm of the organization as a whole. It prevented the planned trip to Nancy as well as the prepared first Imperial Festival of the Orel from the Czech region of Austria-Hungary, which was supposed to have taken place alongside celebrations on Saints Cyril and Methodius Day in 1915. This was supposed to have been a festival for all Orel associations throughout Austria-Hungary. The organizers counted on the participation of Orel associations from Moravia, Silesia, Bohemia, Austria and Slovenian lands as well as PHS, the Polish Sokol and Czech and Slovakian Catholic Sokol from the USA. They also assumed that UIOCEP offi-

⁸ “Orel: Věstník křesť.-socialního Orla československého” 1913, no. 5, pp. 1–2.

⁹ *Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika*, Prague 1931, p. 18; *Orelský katechismus*, Třebíč 1938, p. 10; “Orel: Věstník křesť.-socialního Orla československého” 1913, no. 6–7, p. 5.

¹⁰ This organization was formed in 1908 after the first international congress and Catholic gymnastics tournament in the Vatican. With his passion for physical education, Pope Pius X is also credited with its establishment. He was renowned for his proclamation: “*Pray and exercise.*” The Union was initially located in Rome but relocated to Paris in 1920. However, Rome still remained its formal headquarters until 1933, when the Union left Rome for good after changing its statutes. Its largest member being the French FGSPF (Fédération gymnastique et sportive des patronages de France – the Gymnastics and Sports Federation of the auspices of France) was instrumental in that. “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1928, no. 5, pp. 65–68; “Nová tělesná výchova: list pro tělesnou výchovu, tělocvik, sport, hry, skauting a pro vědecké studium těchto oborů” 1927–1928, p. 44.

¹¹ “Orel: Věstník křesť.-socialního Orla československého” 1914, no. 7, p. 55; *Příručka osvětové práce orelské*, Brno 1921, p. 30.

cials would attend.¹² The Union provisionally confirmed that its top executive organization – the FGSPF would participate.¹³ However, Orel activity was not suspended. It was only very significantly restricted.

The Czechoslovak Orel and foreign relations immediately after the First World War

After the First World War came to an end and an independent Czechoslovakia was established, the independent Orel associations in Bohemia and Moravia were united, creating a single Czechoslovak Orel organization – the Czechoslovak Orel. Half a year on from the end of the First World War, the united Czechoslovak Orel began to make efforts to reestablish contacts with Belgian and, in particular, French Catholic gymnasts. This task was taken up by the Mayor of the Czechoslovak Orel, Jan Šrámek, who spent several weeks in France and Belgium accompanying the Czechoslovak parliamentary delegation.

Contact with the American Catholic Sokol was soon re-established too. They had sent a letter to the Brno office in the first half of 1919 with greetings and news of its activities during the First World War. The letter also contained a request for the Czechoslovak Orel to return their news and the Czechoslovak Orel quickly sent a reply.¹⁴

The Czechoslovak Orel was later to organize a manifestation to be held in Brno on 25th January 1920, calling on every single division to invite as many members as possible. The Catholic Sokol from the United States of America was one of the foreign guests to have provisionally agreed to take part. This would be the second delegation from the American Catholic Sokol in history to attend an Orel event in Moravia. Hynek Dostál, their mayor from St. Louis, even prepared a speech for the occasion. He was joined in Moravia by the Secretary of the Velehrad group from Ohama – Václav E. Jelínek.¹⁵ Delegates representing Catholic associations from Yugoslavia and Vienna also travelled to Brno. This was also

¹² “Orel: Věstník křesť.-socialního Orla československého” 1914, no. 5–6, pp. 33–34.

¹³ This organization was established in Paris in 1898 by Paul Michaux. It was originally known as the Union des sociétés de gymnastique et d’instruction militaire des patronages et œuvres de jeunesse de France. It was not until 1903 that the Union was renamed FGSPF. This was an organization devoted mainly to gymnastics, although it was also possible to go in for sports like light athletics, football or later basketball on a recreational basis. A.R H. Barker, *Amateur Musical Societies and Sports Clubs in Provincial France, 1848–1914: Harmony and Hostility*, Palgrave Macmillan, Cham 2017, p. 223; “Orel: Věstník křesť.-socialního Orla československého” 1914, no. 7, p. 55.

¹⁴ “Orel: Věstník Orla Československého” 1919, no. 5–6, pp. 40–45.

¹⁵ The Americans followed up on their visit to the Czechoslovak Orel manifestation in Brno with a delegation of six members of the American Catholic Sokol being welcomed in Moravia by the Czechoslovak Orel in June 1920. *Příručka osvětové práce orelské*, Brno 1921, p. 39.

the very first time an event had been attended by Catholic youth members from Racibórz.¹⁶ The main topic of discussion at the meeting was the mission of the Orel movement, its expansion and new challenges.¹⁷

Relations with Southern Slavs were further deepened by the First Slavic Orel Festival, held from 29th July to 3rd August 1920 by the Southern Slavic Orel. This magnificent event, held in Maribor, was host to several foreign associations, including the Czechoslovak Orel,¹⁸ which was the largest foreign delegation, despite members having had to pay all expenses themselves. 378 of its members travelled to Maribor and took part in all of the major celebrations. The Czechoslovaks were scheduled to have their performance of floor exercises on Sunday 1st August but it was cancelled due to bad weather. Members of the Czechoslovak Orel had to make do with a joint mass performance of floor exercises with all the other Orel participants (Czechoslovak and Slovenian).¹⁹

However, the festival did provide members of the Czechoslovak Orel the opportunity to meet a delegation of eighteen French Catholic gymnasts, led by Armand Thibaudeau. The French went on to invite the Czechoslovak Orel to its festival in Strasbourg in 1921. In return, they were later invited to the Second Slavic Orel Festival, to be held in Brno in 1922.²⁰ František Metoděj Žampach, vice-mayor of the Czechoslovak Orel, also invited the Slovenians and Croatians to join them in Brno.²¹

During the Maribor Festival, delegates representing the Czechoslovak and Slovenian Orel also met to discuss whether or not a Union of Slavic Orel Associations should be formed. Despite both parties unanimously accepting the idea of such an organization, the issue of Union statutes got no further than an exchange of opinions. The two parties subsequently agreed to work on proposals for the statutes to be negotiated at a future meeting.²²

In early February 1921, the Central Council of the Czechoslovak Orel received a letter from the manager of the Strasbourg festival containing the following text:

We were honoured to receive your letter of 28th January and we are extremely pleased that you intend to take part in the Strasbourg meeting. We are also in very close contact with the Yugoslavian Orel in Ljubljana. We hereby enclose a program to enable you to get

¹⁶ “Orel: Věstník Orla Československého” 1920, no. 2–3, pp. 32–33.

¹⁷ *Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika*, Prague 1931, p. 32; “Orel: Věstník Orla Československého” 1919, no. 12, p. 148.

¹⁸ *20 let trvání jednoty Orla československého v Plzni 1913–1933*, Pilsen 1933, p. 18.

¹⁹ “Orel: Věstník Orla Československého” 1920, no. 4–5, pp. 70–71; “Nová tělesná výchova: list pro tělesnou výchovu, tělocvik, sport, hry, skauting a pro vědecké studium těchto oborů” 1927–1928, p. 44; *Zpráva předsednictva: valný sjezd Orla československého v Brně 1. května 1923*, Brno 1923, p. 5.

²⁰ This festival also became the first national festival of the Czechoslovak Orel associations.

²¹ *Příručka osvětové práce orelské*, Brno 1921, pp. 38–39.

²² “Orel: Věstník Orla Československého” 1920, no. 8–10, pp. 106–119.

acquainted with the technical side of the festival. Be so kind as to inform us of your receipt of the enclosed program. With kindest regards. Yours Faithfully, A. Biecheler [all transl. – author]²³.

Originally the Czechoslovak Orel had planned to send a group of 24 members to Strasbourg, having prepared their physical education performance.²⁴

However, the French had estimated around 25 thousand visitors from all over France would attend. They were to be joined by associations from many other countries. For the Czechoslovak Orel, this was to be their first big performance abroad. Its previous participation in the Maribor festival had been a mere attempt to develop its activities abroad but still only among Slavs. The Czechoslovak Orel had wanted to show off the best it could offer, planning to deepen friendships between them and their French colleagues.²⁵ Its other aim was to acquire knowledge and experience to enrich its further work in Czechoslovakia.²⁶

The Czechoslovak Orel wanted to impress the French with its elements of women's physical education, which was not very widespread in France at the time. Consequently, a great deal of attention was devoted to preparing the women's performance.²⁷ However, Czechoslovak Orel leaders could not make up their minds for a long time as to whether to have their members attempt to measure their strength with the local talent. It was generally assumed that if the French physical education organization had existed for such many years, it would dispose of a high level of maturity and excellence. Moreover, this assumption was supported by the fact that the Czechoslovak Orel had witnessed the Paris Montmartre elite team performing its exercises in Ljubljana, Slovenian lands. For that reason, the Czechoslovak Orel decided not to take part in the competitions this time and rather to put their efforts into building solid foundations for friendship. It also wanted to thoroughly observe what the French tournaments involved and use the experience they gained to prepare for next time.

In the end, around 80 people represented the Czechoslovak Orel in Strasbourg. Their observations led them to state that they would definitely take part in the following tournaments and that they would try to be one of the best teams. On Sunday 7th August 1921 the Czechoslovak Orel performed its exercises, gaining a huge ovation from spectators and words of recognition from local physical education experts. However, their performance was much shorter due to delays in the whole event's schedule. The national anthems of all participating nations were played to close the festival. The Czechoslovak Orel was very happy with its per-

²³ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1921, no. 2, p. 24.

²⁴ *Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika*, Prague 1931, p. 32.

²⁵ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1921, no. 2, pp. 23–24.

²⁶ The Czechoslovak Orel was well aware that, unlike its French counterparts, it was a very small organization with very limited experience from the few years of its existence. "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1921, no. 3–4, pp. 41–42.

²⁷ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1921, no. 7, pp. 120–121.

formances. Moreover, having formed close friendships with the French, the Belgians and other nations, they managed to agree on having these Catholic gymnasts participate in the coming First Festival of Czechoslovak Orel Associations in Brno in 1922.²⁸

Moreover, the Czechoslovak Orel women's performance in Strasbourg greatly inspired the French to start thinking seriously about establishing a Catholic women's physical education federation. Consequently, a committee was set up to prepare the establishment of this federation. The first committee meeting was probably held in Paris on 16th January 1922 during the UIOCEP conference.²⁹ Leopold Saňka, a delegate invited to represent Czechoslovakia, informed of the Czechoslovak Orel women gymnasts' organization and shared his experience of women's association physical education. Negotiations resulted in the establishment of the FCEPF (Fédération catholique d'Éducation Physique Féminine – Catholic Federation of Women's Physical Education). On a visit to greet the new federation, Leopold Saňka invited their women gymnasts to take part in the coming Orel Festival in Brno and the French federation approved.³⁰

In the early 1920s, the Central Council of the Czechoslovak Orel agreed to begin to make efforts to get the Orel affiliated to the UIOCEP.³¹ At its annual meeting on 15th January 1922, this organization, claiming in early 1922 to unite Catholic physical education and sports unions from Italy, France, Belgium, Alsace, Holland, Switzerland, Czechoslovakia,³² Luxembourg and Yugoslavia, proposed to have its championships held in Brno to mark the First Festival of Czechoslovak Orel Associations. This proposal was of great importance for the Czechoslovak Orel. It was a great honour for the Czechoslovak Orel as it was aware that there were not all that many tournaments held by this organization.³³ Mem-

²⁸ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1921, no. 8, pp. 137–143; *Pětadvacet let jednoty Orla českosl. ve Vyškově 1905–1930*, Vyškov 1930, p. 33.

²⁹ *Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika*, Prague 1931, pp. 32–33; *Zpráva předsednictva: valný sjezd Orla československého v Brně 1. května 1923*, Brno 1923, p. 5.

³⁰ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1922, no. 1, p. 7.

³¹ The Czechoslovak Orel was already essentially a member of the union despite being officially admitted at the union's annual meeting held in Paris on 15 January 1923. Evidence of the Czechoslovak Orel practically being a member of the UIOCEP from 1921 lies both in the establishment of mutual cooperation between the Czechoslovak Orel and the UIOCEP and in the fact that the federation had written documentation of its tournaments being held in Brno at the 1922 Festival of Orel Associations. *Orelský katechismus*, Třebíč 1938, p. 11; *Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika*, Prague 1931, p. 32; "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1923, no. 5, p. 83.

³² At the time, Czechoslovakia was the union's newest member. The DJK (Deutsche Jugendkraft – Reichsverband für Leibesübungen in katholischen Vereinen – German Youth Power Sports Association – the Reich Union for physical exercise in Catholic associations) and the Catholic Sokol Associations (Czech and Slovakian) from the United States of America remained outside the union.

³³ Prior to the First World War, they were held twice in Rome and several times in France, but as part of the French Federation tournament. After the First World War, the union organized two

bers were reminded that this was the Union's very first tournament outside Roman countries as well as being the first tournament in Czechoslovakia to be officially announced by an international physical education organization. The whole union accepted the Czechoslovak Orel tournament exercises, turning the planned tournament into an international one.³⁴

The First Festival of Czechoslovak Orel Associations held in Brno in 1922 was host to a total of almost 3 000 gymnasts from abroad, particularly from Yugoslavia and Western Europe. At the time, this was probably the largest number of foreigners to have taken part in a single physical education event in Czechoslovakia.³⁵

The Czechoslovak Orel and foreign relations in the period between its two Orel Festivals

On Sunday 25th February 1923, there was a UIOCEP general meeting, chaired by Belgian Félix van de Kerchove. Delegates from the national unions attended, the Czechoslovak Orel being represented by Augustin Neumann. At the general meeting, representatives agreed for the Union to arrange another international tournament. The first was planned for Paris on 21st and 22nd July 1923. The FGSPF was to host it, having celebrated its 25th anniversary that year. The tournament was to be followed by a two-day congress, to discuss women's physical education organizations, football and athletics. The Southern Slavs' request to host a tournament in Ljubljana in 1924³⁶ was approved at the congress and planned to continue in Rome a year later.

However, for the Czechoslovak Orel, there was a more important matter to be resolved at this general meeting – the UIOCEP was to elect a new board. Félix van de Kerchove was reelected president but his secretaries were to be replaced. The post of president's second secretary was to go to the Dutch or the Czechoslovak Orel. However, the Dutch gave up their right, acknowledging the Czechoslovak Orel had become the second-largest Catholic physical education organization in Europe, after the French. The Central Council of the Czechoslovak Orel

tournaments, one in Metz (This event took place on 24 and 25 May 1920 but the Czechoslovak Orel only sent a Greetings telegram.) and in Strasbourg. In both cases, they were again part of the French Federation tournament. "Orel: Věstník Orla Československého" 1920, no. 8–10, p. 134.

³⁴ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1922, no. 1, pp. 5–6; "Orelský věstník: Orgán zemské rady Orla Českosl. v Čechách" 1922, no. 3, p. 25.

³⁵ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1928, no. 23–24, pp. 353–355.

³⁶ Unfortunately, no records of the 1924 tournament in Ljubljana were found. This tournament was probably rescheduled for 1925 to coincide with the Third Slavic Orel Festival which should have taken place there. However, it did not go ahead in the end. "Orelský věstník: Orgán zemské rady Orla Českosl. v Čechách" 1924, no. 13, p. 201.

was subsequently asked to elect its representative by itself. On 23rd April 1923, Leopold Saňka was elected to this post by the Central Council of the Czechoslovak Orel. František Schwarzer³⁷ was named the second delegate for the Council of the Union. Moreover, the Union assigned the Orel the task of trying to get the Poles affiliated.³⁸ Besides, the Czechoslovak Orel was to express its opinion on a future decision that was still very tricky for western countries – whether or not to allow the Germans and the Austrians to affiliate to the UIOCEP.³⁹

At a meeting of the board of the Central Council of the Czechoslovak Orel on 28th February 1923, it was announced that the FGSPF had already sent an official invitation to the planned Paris tournament. The Czechoslovak Orel reacted by immediately beginning to prepare a group to represent them abroad.⁴⁰ Indeed, a group of 198 Orel members made the trip to Paris. The tournament itself began on the afternoon of Saturday 21st July. Before departing for the exercise ground located in the Champ de Mars, František Metoděj Žampach stood before representatives of the Czechoslovak Orel and spoke to them on behalf of the attending members of the Central Council:

[...] In the whole 20-year existence of a Catholic physical education movement in our nation, since the formation of the Orel in 1909, you are the first to be sent to perform in a tournament abroad. We are absolute beginners in that field. Last year's anniversary fes-

³⁷ “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1923, no. 5, p. 102; “Orelský věstník: Organ zemské rady Orla Českosl. v Čechách” 1923, no. 8, p. 120.

³⁸ In the following year, the Czechoslovak Orel held talks with the Polish Catholic Central Committee in Poznan both on their accession to the UIOCEP and on their accession to the prepared Union of Slavic Orel Associations. However, neither of their applications was accepted. The first due to the Polish Catholic Youth Organization being affiliated to the Roman International Union of Catholic Youth (probably the FASCI – Federazione delle associazioni sportive cattoliche italiane – Federation of Italian Catholic Sports Associations), which was to represent the Poles in the Union. Unfortunately, no records disclosing the reason for the second application being rejected were found.

³⁹ “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1923, no. 3, pp. 44–51. Indeed, the Austrian Union of Catholic Gymnasts had applied to become affiliated to the UIOCEP. The Czechoslovak Orel had no objections to its accession to the Union and was subsequently assigned the task of negotiating the conditions for the Austrian's accession to the UIOCEP. The Germans (Deutsche Jugendkraft) were admitted to the UIOCEP at a union meeting in Paris on 20 February 1927. It was also agreed that minority unions in individual states would be represented in the union by a delegate from the union with national majority. For the Czechoslovak Orel, this meant that its delegate in the UIOCEP would now also represent Catholic physical education and sports organizations of national minorities (Germans, Poles, Hungarians) – provided their unions wanted to become members of the Union, of course. “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1925, no. 3–4, p. 53; “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1926, no. 4, p. 51; “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1927, no. 5, p. 54; P. Arnaud, J. Riordan, *Sport and International Politics: Impact of Fascism and Communism on Sport*, Routledge, London 2013, pp. 177–178.

⁴⁰ *Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika*, Prague 1931, p. 20; “Orelský věstník: Organ zemské rady Orla Českosl. v Čechách” 1923, no. 15, pp. 232–233.

tival was indeed the first time we had held a domestic tournament! Bearing in mind the number and quality of competitors, let us not indulge in exaggerated hopes of any particular victories in today's tournament. Instead, we have to harness all our strength to be proud of our performance...⁴¹

Around 700 French groups and 18 foreign associations took part in the meeting and tournaments. There was a total of 30 thousand gymnasts. On Sunday, there was a procession through the city towards the exercise ground followed by the tournament itself and individual group performances.

Besides competing in the tournament, the Sunday program also involved the Czechoslovak Orel performing their traditional column group exercise format. Spectators in the main tribune were greatly impressed by the Orel teams' performance. The first exercises were performed by a group of sixteen Orel women⁴² right in front of the main tribune. Their floor exercises were of great interest to the French. Unfortunately, the men's team did not perform right in front of the main tribune. They performed their exercises more towards the left tribune, being awarded thunderous applause. The group performances were then followed by the final flag parade in front of the main tribune.

Delegates representing the Czechoslovak Orel left Paris for Strasbourg to visit the International Hygiene Exhibition, which included physical education exhibits and was held in honour of the anniversary of Louis Pasteur's 100th birthday.⁴³ A group of eighty members representing the Czechoslovak Orel arrived in Strasbourg on the evening of Tuesday 24th July. The following morning, the Orel gymnasts rehearsed their routines, attended mass in the city and then went to the Exhibition. They headed straight for the Czechoslovak Pavilion. The afternoon was set aside for physical education performances, including a march from the Bartered Bride, a "symbolical group of women Orel",⁴⁴ a men's Cossack dance, Dvorak's Fantasy, floor exercises from the Paris tournament and the Paris "sixteen Orel women". For practical reasons, a slightly extended version of the afternoon program was repeated in the evening. The Czechoslovak Orel performance was concluded by a final line-up and the national anthem was played.⁴⁵

⁴¹ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1923, no. 8–9, pp. 133–138.

⁴² Exercises performed by sixteen female members of the Czechoslovak Orel.

⁴³ This anniversary was accompanied by a whole range of exhibitions and presentations, some held outside France. Strasbourg hosted a large number of physical education associations, including the Czechoslovak Sokol Community which travelled alongside the Czechoslovak Orel. National archives in Prague, Fund Ministerstvo veřejného zdravotnictví a tělesné výchovy, Praha, Boxes 116 and 117, Signature XV Š/17, Pozvání na světovou hygienickou výstavu ve Štrassburgu a spisy týkající se Štrassburgu. 1921–1928. T. Chafer, A. Sackur, *Promoting the Colonial Idea: Propaganda and Visions of Empire in France*, Palgrave Macmillan UK, Basingstoke 2002, p. 100.

⁴⁴ Unfortunately, the source does not precisely specify what is meant by the term "symbolical Orel woman".

⁴⁵ "Orelský věstník: Orgán zemské rady Orla Českosl. v Čechách" 1923, no. 16, pp. 240–245.

Besides France, the Czechoslovak Orel was also invited to Vienna in 1923. Its delegation was due to travel on 16th June 1923 and return the following day. However, the Czechoslovak Orel Central Office was sent a telegram on 12th June 1923, stating:

Due to constant persecution arranged by German nationalist groups and their publicity against the Orel Festival, it has been banned in its entirety by the Vienna Police. Call off your official trip to Vienna. In the current circumstances, we cannot guarantee your safety. Dr Karlický.⁴⁶

The Vienna Orel Festival was rescheduled to be held in Vienna on 24th June and, on a smaller scale, in Břeclav on 8th July. Consequently, the Czechoslovak Orel had to cancel its practically finalized trip to Vienna.⁴⁷

In 1923, another ten delegates representing the Czechoslovak Orel travelled to Switzerland for a tournament and meeting of their Catholic Gymnastics Union. This was held from the 7th to the 9th of July and included a local union tournament (horizontal bar, parallel bars, vaulting horse, high jump, pole vault, floor exercises and running), a “light athletics” tournament (stone lifting, standing and running stone-throwing, floor exercises, jumps, running and wrestling) and a so-called people’s tournament (decathlon: 100 m and 110 m hurdles, high jump, long jump and pole vault, shot put and ball throw, weightlifting, climbing and floor exercises).⁴⁸

At a meeting of the Central Council of the Czechoslovak Orel on 24th January 1924, Leopold Saňka announced his resignation as vice secretary of the UIOCEP. He proposed František Schwarzer, the second Orel delegate in the UIOCEP, to become his successor. The Central Council approved this change, electing František Dolanský to replace him as the second Orel delegate in the UIOCEP.⁴⁹

On 8th and 9th June 1924, Orel delegates from Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia had meetings in Vienna. They discussed the Third Slavic Orel Festival to be held in Ljubljana in 1925, the issue of establishing a Union of Slavic Orel Associations, the issue of international tournaments and the Paris Olympics. Both organ-

⁴⁶ At the time, Julius Karlický was Mayor of the Viennese Orel Associations. During 1923, having resigned as Mayor of the Viennese Orel Associations, he moved from Vienna to Prague and was replaced by his brother – František Karlický. “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1924, no. 4, p. 63.

⁴⁷ The Viennese festival took place one week later than scheduled, almost in secret and with hardly any guests from Czechoslovakia. Mass and sanctification of the flag took place in the morning followed in the afternoon by public exercises called “Rehearsal for the Orel Associations’ performance in Břeclav on 8 July” at the Czech Heart exercise ground. The Viennese Orel did indeed go on to appear in Břeclav. “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1923, no. 6–7, pp. 114–115; *Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika*, Prague 1931, p. 20.

⁴⁸ “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1923, no. 4, pp. 64–66.

⁴⁹ František Schwarzer maintained his position as Second Vice-chairman even when a new board was elected at the turn of 1926. “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1926, no. 1, pp. 9–10.

izations agreed on holding the Third Orel Festival in Ljubljana in 1925 and on its program.⁵⁰ During talks on the forming of a Union of Slavic Orel Associations, the Yugoslavians proposed the union headquarters be located in Brno and most of the union functionaries be taken from the Czechoslovak Orel. Each of the potential member states was to have its representative in the Union of Slavic Orel Associations. Sending union members to compete in international tournaments was also debated. According to the proposal, each member state should be entitled to send one team to compete in international tournaments. The number of competitors sent to take part in special tournaments and union tournaments should not be limited in any way.⁵¹

Unfortunately, the third Slavic Festival did not go ahead in Ljubljana in 1925. This time, it was postponed indefinitely though, mainly due to the complicated domestic political situation in Yugoslavia involving the government's persecution of Slovenian Catholics, violent anti-Catholic acts of Serbian nationalists⁵² along unresolved disputes between Slovenian and Croatian Orel movements. Moreover, participants would not be provided with cheaper train fares or accommodation in schools and barracks. This might have been at least partly compensated for by the HOS (Hrvatski Orlovski Savez – Croatian Orel Union) inviting the Czechoslovak Orel to its Festival, which took place on the 9th August 1925 in Šibenik. The Central Council of the Czechoslovak Orel decided to send a delegation of 3 or 4, accompanied by other interested members. In the end, a group of 6 travelled to Šibenik.⁵³

The third Slavic Festival in Ljubljana was not the only event to be shifted. The previously mentioned UIOCEP tournament did not go ahead either. This was to have been organized in 1925 mainly by the FASCI⁵⁴ but it was postponed until 1926 to prevent it from coinciding with another festival that was to go ahead in Rome in 1925. Instead of the great Rome tournament, the FASCI held a much smaller tournament, which was seen as a kind of preparation for Rome. This took place in Asti but the Czechoslovak Orel team did not participate, the Czechoslovak association sending a delegation of only two.⁵⁵

⁵⁰ “Věstník sokolský: List Svazu československého sokolstva” 1924, no. 26, p. 408.

⁵¹ “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1924, no. 5, pp. 86–87.

⁵² Not nationalists but fascists is the word, which Czech Orel used in its journal. But in my opinion its not completely correct.

⁵³ “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1925, no. 11, p. 140; “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1926, no. 20–21, p. 307.

⁵⁴ FASCI was formed in Italy in 1906, associating 16 sports clubs. Its primary aim was to organize Catholic sport. Just as in the FGSPF, FASCI members were mainly involved in gymnastics, although they did later begin to do other sports like light athletics, swimming, cycling, hiking, horse riding and football. P.D. Toso, *Nascita e diffusione dell'ASCI: 1916–1928*, FrancoAngeli, Milano 2006, pp. 18–20.

⁵⁵ *Orelský katechismus*, Třebíč 1938, p. 14; *Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika*, Prague 1931, pp. 32–33.

The Czechoslovak Orel had already announced in 1925 that it was intending to participate in the festival and tournament in Rome in 1926. It had also arranged to dispatch a special train. The tournament was scheduled for the 1st to the 15th of September, its program being drawn up by the FASCI. At the UIOCEP general meeting in Paris on 8th March 1925, it was agreed that each state could send a team of eight with four substitutes to the Rome international tournament and that it would be composed of the following events: floor exercises with routines as per organizing union, floor exercises as per each team's union's individual routines (proposed by the Czechoslovak Orel), the horizontal bar, the rings, the parallel bars and the vaulting horse (each with one compulsory and one voluntary exercise) and the long jump.⁵⁶

All the excitement ended in disappointment on 31st August 1926, when Orel members read the news of the Rome tournament being cancelled. Participants themselves were surprised, having been informed by telephone and telegram on Sunday and Monday to stay at home. Everybody immediately began to ask why the tournament had been cancelled. In the telegram sent from Rome, there was only: "International tournament of Catholic gymnasts cancelled by the Church authorities. F.A.S.C.I." On Tuesday morning, the Czechoslovak Orel read the news brought by the Czechoslovak Press Office, taken from the "L'Osservatore Romano", informing that

[...] due to emergencies, the Church authorities have been forced to call off the international physical education and sports meeting of European Catholic unions that was to take place in Rome from 3rd to 6th September [...].

On the same day, the Czech Press Office released further news stating

[...] According to the communiqué of the Prime Minister's press office, the International Physical Education and Sports Congress of European Catholic Unions were cancelled due to incidents in Mantua and in Macerata, where Catholic scouts clashed with storm troop members (i.e. fascists). However, these clashes did not result in anything serious. Moreover, the government has already begun investigations [...]⁵⁷.

The Czechoslovak Orel might have considered itself lucky to have received news of the tournament being cancelled in time. Not all teams were that lucky, some finding out the tournament had been cancelled on their way. The French and Belgians turned round on their way. A special train was dispatched for the Germans and Swiss, which led to their decision to reach Rome. They were joined in Rome by the Southern Slavs, the Danes and the Dutch. In the end, the Italians exercised in the Vatican before Pope Pius XI on their own.⁵⁸

The cancellation of the international tournament in Rome had a very negative effect on the whole UIOCEP organization and particularly on its gymnasts, who saw the tournament as an extremely important part of this organization's pro-

⁵⁶ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1925, no. 7, pp. 89–98.

⁵⁷ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1926, no. 17, pp. 257–259.

⁵⁸ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1926, no. 22–23, pp. 347–348.

gram. Indeed, the last international UIOCEP tournament had been in Paris in 1923. Furthermore, they had all spent a great deal of time preparing for the Rome tournament. At a UIOCEP meeting in Paris on 20th February 1927, the JOZ (Jugoslavanska Orlovska Zveza – Yugoslavian Orel Union) requested the tournament rules and following tournament exercises be provided to each union by 15th March 1927, saying the tournament should be held in 1927 anywhere else than in Italy. That was a nearly impossible task for the Union though. The question remained whether or not (and, as the case may be, where) to organize (the tournament in 1928. However, the Union did not feel it was appropriate to hold the tournament just one year before the planned second National Orel Festival in Prague. Consequently, the following statement was issued:

Union meetings and tournaments will not be held in either 1927 or 1928 and are scheduled for 1929 in Prague on the occasion of the second Festival of Czechoslovak Orel Associations.⁵⁹

However, the FASCI situation in Italy was becoming more and more complicated. Fascist dictator Benito Mussolini was beginning to interfere more and more in the development of Italian physical education and sports associations in a way that practically meant they were forcibly suppressed and all of their youth members were indoctrinated in the ideology of a national fascist organization. He achieved that through law number 2 247 “Establishing the Opera Nazionale Balilla⁶⁰ to support and develop young people in their physical and moral education” dated 3rd April 1926 and by Royal Decree number 5 dated 11th January 1927 “Revising the law in question.” The FASCI was later dissolved on 24th April 1927, the decision to break up being made at a board meeting.⁶¹

In spring 1927, the Central Committee of the Czech Catholic Sokol in the United States of America asked the Central Council of the Czechoslovak Orel to send one qualified instructor to the United States of America. The dispatched worker was to take over responsibility for the reorganization of physical education work in both the Czech and Slovak Catholic Sokol in the United States. He was also assigned to oversee the preparation of Catholic Sokol gymnasts for the Festival of Orel Associations in 1929. The Czechoslovak Orel suggested sending Jan Mádl from Prague. Besides doing his job, he was to study and promote Orel ideology. This was the first time that the Czechoslovak Orel had been requested to send a worker to the United States of America. Jan Mádl was to be dispatched there for anything between several months and a year.⁶²

⁵⁹ “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1927, no. 5, pp. 53–54.

⁶⁰ Balilla (Opera Nazionale Balilla) was an Italian youth organization promoting fascism. It existed from 1926 to 1937. U. Schleimer, *Die Opera Nazionale Balilla bzw. Gioventù Italiana del Littorio und die Hitlerjugend – eine vergleichende Darstellung*, Waxmann, Münster 2004, p. 13.

⁶¹ “Nová tělesná výchova: list pro tělesnou výchovu, tělocvik, sport, hry, skauting a pro vědecké studium těchto oborů” 1928–1929, p. 37.

⁶² “Nová tělesná výchova: list pro tělesnou výchovu, tělocvik, sport, hry, skauting a pro vědecké studium těchto oborů” 1927–1928, p. 174.

The Imperial Meeting and German Catholic gymnasts' championships took place in Cologne from 5th to 8th August 1927. They were organized by a new UIOCEP member – the DJK. Being a member of the UIOCEP as well as the union that had arranged for the Germans to be affiliated to the UIOCEP, the Czechoslovak Orel was officially invited to the festival and championships.⁶³ However, it refused to compete in the championships due to the competition system being different from what the Orel teams were used to. However, it did plan to send a small number of delegates to the festival who were assigned tasks such as acquiring information about the championships so that the Czechoslovak Orel could take part in similar events in the future.⁶⁴

As in 1925, the HOS invited the Czechoslovak Orel to its festival in 1927. This time, it took place in Sarajevo from 13th to 15th August. The Czechoslovak Orel again decided to send a small group to the festival.⁶⁵ At the end, that comprised of six members. They took part in the Monday procession but did not actively participate in the physical education festival. They mainly hoped that by maintaining good relations with the HOS, the HOS would send a large number of participants to the Orel Festival in Prague in 1929.⁶⁶

The UIOCEP annual meeting took place in Paris on 26th February 1928, when several proposals regarding the reorganization of the Union and its international tournaments were debated and approved. Representing the Czechoslovak Orel, František Dvorník and Stanislav Zháněl gave information on the scheduled tournament coinciding with the second Orel Festival, which was officially named the 1929 Prague Saint Wenceslas Festival of Orel Associations. Countries that were to host the Union's international tournaments in 1930 and 1931 were approved. They were to take place first in Belgium and a year later in Yugoslavia. Furthermore, the Union wanted to expand the number of member unions affiliated with it. The Czechoslovak Orel was assigned to hold talks with the Poles, who it had planned to invite to Prague in 1929, and with the Catholic Sokol in the USA. The Union would also have appreciated other new members such as the Canadians or the Lithuanians.⁶⁷

Another UIOCEP meeting took place in Prague from 9th to 11th June 1928. Not all member unions were notified though (the Germans, Swiss, Austrians and Poles excused themselves). The meeting was summoned to attempt to reorganize the Union to make it more effective in meeting the requirements of member unions and handling information. It was also necessary to set precise criteria for the

⁶³ *Orelský katechismus*, Třebíč 1938, p. 14. National archives in Prague, Fund Státní tajemník u říšského protektora v Čechách a na Moravě, Box 132, sg. 109-8/59, Sicherheitsdienst-RFSS, SD-Leitabschnitt Prag, Prag, den 1.2.1940.

⁶⁴ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1927, no. 6, pp. 71–72.

⁶⁵ *Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika*, Prague 1931, p. 32.

⁶⁶ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1927, no. 17, pp. 207–207.

⁶⁷ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1928, no. 5, pp. 65–68.

exercises to be included in the 1929 Prague international tournament and to create a set of rules for international tournaments. Delegates highlighted the need to foster the introduction of the tradition of Catholic Olympics, the first to be held right here in the city of Prague. In this regard, each union was assigned to provide appropriate stadiums.⁶⁸ The Belgians and Czechoslovaks also asked for a fixed set of tournament rules to be created. The meeting also dealt with all kinds of problems and proposals concerning the 1929 Prague international tournament. Despite particular difficulties agreeing on a single set of rules for union tournaments that should remain valid for all future international tournaments, an agreement was finally reached. Besides, it was agreed that international tournaments would be held no more than once a year. The whole of this meeting marked a great achievement for the Czechoslovak Orel. Thanks to the new set of rules for union tournaments, which was more adapted to its conditions, it would now be better prepared to compete with other Union affiliates.⁶⁹

It did not all go that smoothly though. Not long afterwards, at a meeting of the Board of the Central Council of the Czechoslovak Orel, a letter from the JOZ was being discussed. The letter said that this organization had already received the set of rules for the next UIOCEP international tournament. This contained several points that were inconsistent with the Prague agreement. These changes had been added to the text without the Czechoslovak Orel knowing. It agreed with the JOZ to inform the Union Secretariat that it insists on the set of tournament rules that were established at the meeting in Prague. Neither the Czechoslovak Orel nor the JOZ wanted to resort to making any autonomic changes.⁷⁰

The Czechoslovak Orel made further efforts to strengthen its good relations with the French not by sending a team to compete but at least by sending several functionaries to represent them in Verdun at the Meeting of French Catholic Gymnasts, held on Sunday 22nd July 1928. Bohumil Smutník, MP Antonín Čuřík and Leopold Saňka were among them. Besides passing on best regards and wishes of luck from Brno, it was about promoting the Czechoslovak Orel abroad and publicizing the coming 1929 Prague Saint Wenceslas Festival.⁷¹ Similarly, a delegation representing the Czechoslovak Orel was sent to the Slovenian Orel Festival, held in Ljubljana from 29th June to 1st July 1928. This time it was Vojtěch Marzy who travelled to Slovenian lands.⁷²

Throughout its existence, the Czechoslovak Orel had maintained contact with Czech emigrant colonies like those in Poland, Romania, France and the USA,

⁶⁸ An even better option would have been for individual member unions to have their own representative stadium built and, according to the proposal, they were actually asked to try to build one.

⁶⁹ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1928, no. 12, pp. 180–182.

⁷⁰ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1928, no. 16, p. 248.

⁷¹ "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1928, no. 14–15, pp. 223–225.

⁷² "Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva" 1928, no. 17, pp. 262–263.

with purely physical education or sports associations like those in France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Yugoslavia, Italy, Switzerland, Austria, Germany, Poland and the USA and with physical education organizations cultivating military physical education, located in Poland, France, Belgium, Holland, Spain and Italy. It had also been in contact with Scouts organizations in Austria, Spain, England and Germany and educational groups in France, Ireland, Germany and Poland. Contact with these foreign organizations involved sharing information regarding scheduled events, including invitations to them, printed materials, pictures, photographs and historical facts. They also often cooperated in organizing festivals, international tournaments and establishing international sets of rules. Trips were made by delegates and sportsmen. The Czechoslovak Orel could have been proud of its ten years of achievement in foreign relations.

Indeed, it now seemed to be time for the Czechoslovak Orel to establish closer relations with other countries, particularly overseas ones.⁷³ The scheduled 1929 Prague Saint Wenceslas Festival of Orel Associations was to prove to be instrumental in this.

Conclusion

The origins of the Orel physical education organization go back to the turn of the 20th century when the first physical education divisions began to form in the Czech region of Austria-Hungary under the auspices of existing Catholic associations. Inspiration for the establishment and organization of the Orel movement can be found both in the Czech Sokol institution, from which the Orel institution adopted a large part of its organizational structure and in Slovenian lands, where a Catholic physical education organization called Orel had also been established.

It was the Slovenian Orel that the Orel institution in the Czech region of Austria-Hungary established its first foreign relations with. In the period before the outbreak of World War One, the Orel movement in the Czech region of Austria-Hungary was relatively small and not fully integrated. Yet it still managed to maintain contact with other Catholic physical education organizations in many countries around the world. However, the First World War held back any further development of such a promising kind. The Orel's foreign contacts were broken off and the whole movement was almost destroyed.

It was after the end of the First World War that the Orel movement began to rapidly expand in the Czech region of Austria-Hungary. Its importance and number of international contacts also rose. Just as other large physical education organizations in Czechoslovakia – Sokol and the SDTJ, the Czechoslovak Orel was affiliated to an international physical education union – the UIOCEP. This union,

⁷³ “Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1928, no. 23–24, pp. 353–355.

the Association of French Catholic Sportsmen being their largest member, made efforts to hold its physical education festivals and tournaments in various European states. In the 1920s, they were actually to be hosted by Czechoslovakia twice – in 1922 and 1929.

Besides being affiliated to the UIOCEP, the Czechoslovak Orel held talks with the Slovenians on forming a Union of Slavic Orel Associations, which the Czechoslovak Orel was to preside. This can again be said to have been another case where the Czechoslovak Orel had drawn inspiration from the Czech Sokol, which presided over the Union of Slavic Sokol institutions, established in 1908. However, a Union of Slavic Orel Associations was not formed and the Czechoslovak Orel had to make do with being affiliated to the UIOCEP. Nevertheless, its importance within the Union rapidly grew, also thanks to a rise in membership. Consequently, in the 1920s, the Czechoslovak Orel was offered the chair of the second vice secretary of the whole union. The Czechoslovak Orel had indeed made efforts to establish close cooperation with this Union even before the outbreak of World War One. It had invited members of this Union to its scheduled first Imperial Festival, which was to be held in Kroměříž in 1915. It can therefore be assumed that, if it was not for the First World War, the Orel would have probably gained a more important position in the UIOCEP earlier.

Affiliation to the UIOCEP, which was given in the early 1920s, was of great benefit. The affiliated unions mutually enriched each other. Moreover, the Czechoslovak Orel could now compare its gymnasts with those from abroad. Nevertheless, the Czechoslovak Orel became a pioneer for women's physical education within the UIOCEP, inspiring other affiliated unions with its highly developed program for women gymnasts.⁷⁴

The Czechoslovak Orel established many other foreign contacts, even with unions that were not affiliated with the UIOCEP. The second National Orel Festival, called the 1929 Prague Saint Wenceslas Festival of Orel Associations, was regarded by the Czechoslovak Orel as the highlight of its efforts in the 1920s, a number of foreign guests having already committed their presence in advance.

References

Archives

Archives of Orel, Unclassified.

National archives in Prague, Fund Ministerstvo veřejného zdravotnictví a tělesné výchovy, Praha, Boxes 116 and 117.

⁷⁴ Here is necessary to add that in Slovenian Orel the first women units were already formed before WWI. After forming Yugoslav Orel were within it in 1922 organised so called Orliška podzveza (Women Orel sub-alliances).

National archives in Prague, Fund Státní tajemník u říšského protektora v Čechách a na Moravě, Box 132.

Periodicals

“Nová tělesná výchova: list pro tělesnou výchovu, tělocvik, sport, hry, skauting a pro vědecké studium těchto oborů” 1927–1929.

“Orel: Ústřední list Československého Orelstva” 1921–1929.

“Orel: Věstník křesť.-socialního Orla československého” 1913–1914.

“Orel: Věstník Orla Československého” 1919–1920.

“Orelský věstník: Organ zemské rady Orla Českosl. v Čechách” 1922–1924.

“Věstník sokolský: List Svazu československého sokolstva” 1924.

Printed sources

20 let trvání jednoty Orla československého v Plzni 1913–1933, Pilsen 1933.

Československý Orel: program, dějiny, statistika, Prague 1931.

Orelský katechismus, Třebíč 1938.

Pětadvacet let jednoty Orla českosl. ve Vyškově 1905–1930, Vyškov 1930.

Příručka osvětové práce orelské, Brno 1921.

Zpráva předsednictva: valný sjezd Orla československého v Brně 1. května 1923, Brno 1923.

Literature

Arnaud P., Riordan J., *Sport and International Politics: Impact of Fascism and Communism on Sport*, Routledge, London 2013.

Barker A.R.H., *Amateur Musical Societies and Sports Clubs in Provincial France, 1848–1914: Harmony and Hostility*, Palgrave Macmillan, Cham 2017.

Chafer T., Sackur A., *Promoting the Colonial Idea: Propaganda and Visions of Empire in France*, Palgrave Macmillan UK, Basingstoke 2002.

Schleimer U., *Die Opera Nazionale Balilla bzw. Gioventù Italiana del Littorio und die Hitlerjugend – eine vergleichende Darstellung*, Waxmann, Münster 2004.

Strachová M., *Sport a Český svaz tělesné výchovy po roce 1989*, Masaryk University, Brno 2013.

Toso P.D., *Nascita e diffusione dell'ASCI: 1916–1928*, FrancoAngeli, Milano 2006.

Deklaracja braku konfliktu interesów

Autor deklaruje brak potencjalnych konfliktów interesów w odniesieniu do badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Orel – the Catholic physical education association: foreign relations up to 1929*.

Finansowanie

Autor nie otrzymał żadnego wsparcia finansowego w zakresie badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Orel – the Catholic physical education association: foreign relations up to 1929*.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author declared no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *Orel – the Catholic physical education association: foreign relations up to 1929*.

Funding

The author received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *Orel – the Catholic physical education association: foreign relations up to 1929*.

Petra TOMŠOVÁ*

<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5011-504X>

Slavic Swimming Championships in the Years 1927–1929

Jak cytować [how to cite]: Tomšová P., *Slavic Swimming Championships in the Years 1927–1929*, “Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” 2021, vol. 4, no. 1, p. 33–54.

Słowiańskie Mistrzostwa Pływackie w latach 1927–1929

Streszczenie

W czechosłowackich kręgach pływackich często krytykowano kluby pływackie za to, że utrzymywały aktywne kontakty sportowe z wieloma krajami, zwłaszcza z Niemcami, Austrią, Węgrami, Francją, Szwecją, Anglią, ale zupełnie zapomniały o narodach słowiańskich, takich jak Polska czy Jugosławia. Przyczyna tkwiła głównie w tym, że pływanie w krajach słowiańskich rozwinęło się dopiero po wojnie. Były też powody finansowe i większe odległości między państwami. Po udanych Mistrzostwach Europy w Budapeszcie w 1926 roku, kiedy okazało się, że pływacy narodów słowiańskich mogą rywalizować w Europie, sekretarz międzynarodowy ČSAPS inż. Hauptmann zaproponował Południowosłowiańskiemu i Polskiemu Związkowi Pływackiemu organizację mistrzostw pływackich tych narodów. Wniosek został przyjęty jednogłośnie, z wielkim entuzjazmem. Zaowocowało to konwencją, podpisaną przez czołowych przedstawicieli Związków Jugosławii, Polski i Czechosłowacji, w której wszystkie uczestniczące stowarzyszenia zobowiązały się do organizacji Mistrzostw Słowian w trzech kolejnych latach: w 1927 r. w Belgradzie, w Jugosławii; w 1928 r. w Pradze, w Czechosłowacji; i w 1929 r. w Warszawie, w Polsce. Zgodnie z tą konwencją Mistrzostwa Słowian obejmowały pełny program olimpijski zgodnie z regulaminem FINA.

Słowa kluczowe: pływanie, Mistrzostwa Słowian, Czechosłowacja, Jugosławia, Polska.

* Mgr, Faculty of Physical Education and Sports, Charles University in Prague; e-mail: petra.tomsa@seznam.cz

Abstract

In Czechoslovak swimming circles, swimming clubs were often criticized for having active sports contacts with many countries, especially Germany, Austria, Hungary, France, Sweden, England, but completely forgot about Slavic nations such as Poland and Yugoslavia. The reason could be found mainly in the fact that swimming in the Slavic countries developed only after the war. There were also financial reasons and greater distances between the states. After the successful European Championships in Budapest in 1926, when it turned out that the swimmers of the Slavic nations were able to compete in Europe, the International Secretary of ČSAPS, Eng. Hauptmann proposed to the South Slavic and Polish Swimming Associations to hold the swimmers' championships of these nations. The proposal was adopted unanimously with great enthusiasm. This resulted in a convention, signed by the leading officials of the Yugoslavian, Polish and Czechoslovak Associations, in which all participating associations undertook to host the Slavic Championships in three consecutive years: in 1927 in Belgrade, Yugoslavia, in 1928 in Prague, Czechoslovakia, and 1929 in Warsaw, Poland. According to this convention, the Slavonic Championships were held with a full Olympic program according to the FINA regulations.

Keywords: swimming, Slavic Championships, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Poland.

Introduction

The history of swimming in Europe would not be complete without the three years of the Slavic Championships in swimming, diving and water polo, which were, upon approval from the Czechoslovak, Polish and Yugoslav swimming associations, held in Belgrade in 1927, in Prague in 1928, and Warsaw in 1929¹.

The Slavic Swimming Championships were one of the driving forces which incited the Slavic nations to express a greater interest in this beautiful and healthy sport. The ever-improving performance and successes touted over other European leaders in swimming, such as Germany and Hungary, gradually led athletes themselves, as well as sports officials and the public, to exhibit a growing interest in swimming and everything to do with the sport².

From the very beginning, Czechoslovak swimming faced many obstacles that impeded its development, referring to the lack of indoor swimming pools with the option of year-round training, lack of good and qualified trainers, and primarily the lack of funding from the state. Despite these unfavourable conditions, Czechoslovak swimming was in a competitive position in Europe³. The South Slavic nations (Slovenes, Croats and Serbs) boasted many talented swimmers, though they did not become Europe's swimming champions until the second half of the 1930s. This was thanks to the Ministry of Sport, which managed to raise enough funds, as well as the fact that before the war, many university students studied abroad across Europe and thus had the opportunity to train year-round in

¹ M. Hoch, *Plavání*, Sportovní a turistické nakladatelství, Praha 1959, p. 19.

² S. Krajiček, *Po stopách vývoje plaveckého sportu*, J. Kunstner, Česká Lípa 1947, p. 63.

³ *Ibidem*, p. 79.

indoor baths under the guidance of excellent instructors, though it was primarily the product of their diligence, perseverance and willpower⁴. Swimming in Poland did not take off until 1922 when the Polish Swimming Association was founded. Until then, the only swimming events held in Poland were those in which swimmers demonstrated various aquatic feats. However, this did not impress the Polish swimming experts and they began building the Polish swimming tradition from the bottom up. They began building baths, recruiting youth to swimming clubs and invited experts from abroad to train new instructors and competitive swimmers⁵. The Polish organization for physical education, the YMCA, greatly contributed to the popularization and support of swimming in the country. For example, in Kraków, the YMCA organized swimming competitions as early as 1922 for all ages, including school-age children and youth. Using the motto: “Let’s feel right at home in the water,” the YMCA offered free swimming lessons in the Kraków swimming pool to poor youth to increase public interest in the sport. In 1927 alone, over 150 youths attended the YMCA’s free swimming courses⁶.



Image 1. Swimming pool YMCA in Kraków, Poland (1927)

Source: YMCA Figures. (b.r.), <https://polska-ymca.ic.cz/> [accessed 20.09.2020].

In Czechoslovak swimming circles, swimming clubs were often criticized for actively forging ties with many countries, namely Germany, Austria, Hungary, France and Sweden, while entirely neglecting the Slavic nations such as Poland

⁴ Ibidem, p. 90.

⁵ Ibidem, p. 93.

⁶ T. Tlustý, *Budování národní organizace YMCA v Československu a Polsku. Rozvoj tělesné kultury v letech 1918–1939*, Karolinum, Praha 2017, p. 322–325.

and Yugoslavia. This was mainly attributed to the fact that swimming in the Slavic states did not gain popularity until after the war, coupled with the issue of financing and the greater distances between states. After the successful 1926 European Championship in Budapest, which proved that Slavic nations had a genuine competitive edge in Europe, the International Secretary of CSAPS, Ing. Hauptmann, made a proposal to the Yugoslav and Polish swimming associations to hold championships for the Slavic nations. The proposal was unanimously accepted with great enthusiasm⁷.

Negotiations began regarding Slavic events. This resulted in a convention signed by the leading officials of the Yugoslav, Polish and Czechoslovak Associations, in which all the participating associations undertook to hold the Slavic Championships in three consecutive years: in 1927 in Yugoslavia, in 1928 in Czechoslovakia and 1929 in Poland⁸. According to this convention, the Slavic Championships were organized with a full Olympic program following the regulations of FINA (International Swimming Federation). Swimmers registered with one of the participating associations were eligible to take part. Each association could sign up 2 competitive swimmers and 1 substitute for the swimming race, 1 team with 2 substitutes for relay swimming and 1 team with 4 substitutes for water polo. For all events in the entire competition, 5 victory points were awarded to the first-place winner, 3 points for the second place and 1 point for the third place. Relay swimming and water polo were scored double. In the water polo tournament, each team competed with every other team. The winning team received 1 point and in the event of a tie, the score was the deciding factor. The panel of judges consisted of delegates from all the participating associations. Every association could appoint 1 judge, 2 timekeepers, 1 judge for diving and 1 judge for water polo. The chief judge was appointed by prior agreement. The remaining officials were appointed by the host country's association. The host country's association had to guarantee free visas to all participating competitors from both guest associations, 25 competitive swimmers from each association were to be reimbursed for travel expenses (3rd class express train) in the host country and 3 days' worth of travel expenses were to be covered⁹. Some of the most prominent political representatives donated several prizes to the swimmers. President of Czechoslovakia, T. G. Masaryk, donated a large faceted vase made from Czech glass to the winner of the entire competition. Minister Dr E. Beneš donated a bronze statue. Polish Minister of Foreign Affairs also donated a bronze statue and Yugoslavia and the city of Belgrade donated large silver cups. All of the prizes became the property of the CSAPS¹⁰.

⁷ "Československé plavectví" 1927, nr. 6–7, p. 1.

⁸ V. Srb, *Století plaveckých sportů v našich zemích*, Mladá fronta, Praha 2018, p. 27–28.

⁹ "Československé plavectví" 1927, nr 6-7, p. 1.

¹⁰ S. Krajíček, *Po stopách...*, p. 64.

The above-mentioned convention was drawn up and signed in 4 copies, one of which was sent to the FINA Secretary. As the convention elucidated, the agreement that took place was of immense significance, not only in terms of bolstering ties in the world of sports and advancing the state of swimming in all Slavic countries, but it had great international significance as well. By uniting the Slavic swimming associations, their standing in international forums improved.

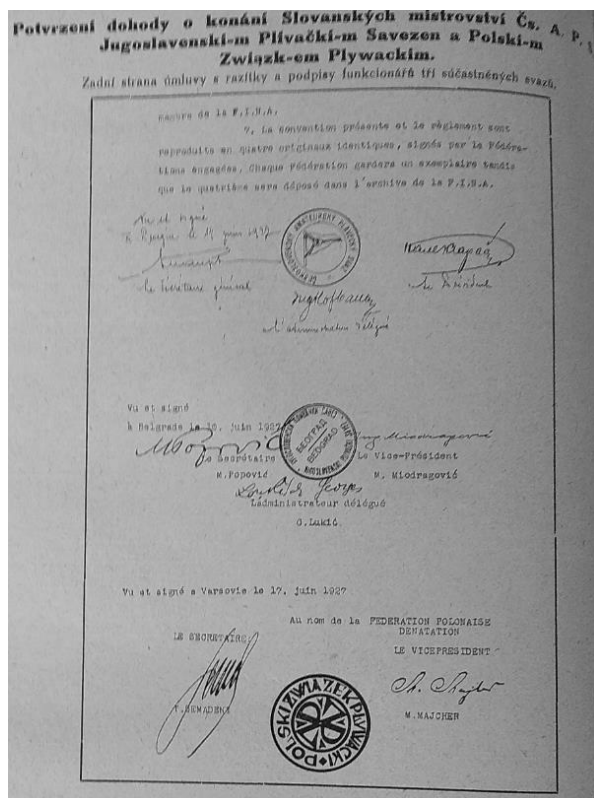


Image 2. Confirmation of the agreement on organizing Slavic swimming championships

Source: "Československé plavectví" 1927, nr 8, p. 4.

To write this article, it was necessary to compile information from archives, periodicals and literature. Most of the materials on the topic can be found in the periodical "Czechoslovak Swimming," which provides a very detailed account of different championships and swimming events including the times of the competitive swimmers. Some of the photographs of the swimmers and some of the information about the II. Slavic Championship was part of collection no. 516 from the Czechoslovak Amateur Swimming Association in the National Archive in Prague, though the information in this collection was quite sparse in general. Other photographs of Czechoslovak swimmers were found in the periodical

“Star” and some brief information on the Slavic Championships was also found in one periodical and two contemporary literary sources. To provide an outline of the situation in Poland, the chapter titled “The Development of Physical Culture and Sport in the Local YMCA in Kraków” in a monograph published by Tomáš Tlustý under the title “Building YMCA: A National Organization in Czechoslovakia and Poland. Development of Physical Culture in the Years 1918–1939”.

I. Slavic Championship in Belgrade 27.–28.8.1927

CSAPS, before its week-long stay at the European Championship in Bologna and due to limited funds, decided to limit the number of competitors it would send out to Belgrade and Bologna to defend the results of the races. For this reason, a team consisting of 10 competitors, 5 female swimmers and 9 water polo players was formed. On behalf of CSAPS, participating members included Chairman Klapač, Chief Eng. Hauptmann as the leader of the team, and managing director Eng. Hofbauer. All three held judicial positions during the competition.

On Yugoslavian soil, the Czechoslovak team was welcomed with a kind speech made by the representatives of the South Slavic Swimming Association and local athletes who greeted them with flowers. Military music was played, resounding with both national anthems and the Chairman of CSAPS handed over the Czechoslovak flag. After the welcoming ceremony, the Czechoslovak swimming team were driven to their place of accommodation. This marked the end of their rosy welcome to Belgrade and disillusionment ensued. The entire team was put up in the lecture hall of the city’s technical school, where cots were prepared for the male members of the swim team whereas female swimmers were put up in a boarding house. Lack of water and extremely expensive food, coupled with the harsh sleeping conditions did not spark much enthusiasm for the Czechoslovak team during their stay in Belgrade.

On Saturday afternoon, 27.8.1927, the first events of the I. Slavic Championship in swimming, diving, and water commenced. The events took place on a makeshift racecourse in the dead arm of the Sava River. The swimmers and the audience were transported to the event by motorboats and small steamers courtesy of the Yugoslav Navy. The racecourse was nicely situated between two tugboats, a nice steamer called “Car Dušan” and the shore. The tugboats were equipped with starting blocks as well as a 10 m diving platform. Between the boats, 6 race courses were set up, along with a water polo pool. The cabins on the steamer were used as changing rooms for the swimmers. Military music was played during the event, resounding primarily with the Czechoslovak national anthem. There was a flagpole for the winner’s flag prepared.

The beginning of the race was delayed by an hour due to the late arrival of the Polish and Yugoslav competitors. In the first race, the women’s 100 m back-

strokes, Tautermannová (Czechoslovakia) came in the first place, with Poland's Kaizerowna in second and Brabcová from Czechoslovakia in the third. In the second race, the men's 400 m freestyle, Czechoslovakia's Antoš competed against Yugoslavia's best swimmer, Senjanovič, whom he defeated by a whopping 21 seconds, with Koutek (Czechoslovakia) coming in third place. First and second place in the men's 100 m backstrokes went to Czechoslovak swimmers Bělík and Legát, Yugoslavia's Smokvina came third. The first place in the women's 400 m freestyle race once again went to Czechoslovakia. Friedländerová battled it out in the last 50 m and overtook her competitor Olga Roje and won, with third place going to Czechoslovak swimmer Hradecká. The poor times during all of the events were attributed to the fact that the racecourse was longer than 50 metres. On Sunday afternoon, the races were once again delayed due to the absence of some of the swimmers. The men's 1500 m freestyle race saw Antoš once again exhibit his prowess over the other competitors, coming in almost 100 m before Senjanovič and 2 minutes and 4 seconds before Koutek (Czechoslovakia) who came in third.



Image 3. Václav Antoš, one of the best Czechoslovak swimmers of his time

Source: "Star" 1928, nr 29, p. 5.

In the women's 100 m race, it was a close fight. Roje from Yugoslavia came in first, with Friedländerová (Czechoslovakia) coming second and Brabcová (Czechoslovakia) coming in third place. The afternoon program commenced once again with a delay, starting with the men's 100 m freestyle race, where Senjanovič

proved himself to be an excellent freestyle swimmer, especially in shorter distances, beating out Steiner (Czechoslovakia) who came in second with Smokvina from Yugoslavia in third place. The second race, women's 200 m breaststroke, set off to a bad start, and despite the protests of some of the Yugoslav panel members, the race was repeated. The starter did not have a starting pistol throughout the competition but a small children's BB gun which did not make a single shot, meaning that the take-offs were called with a whistle only. This meant that some of the swimmers remained "seated" on their starting positions while others started on time. The biggest competitor for Czechoslovakia's was victorious Brabcová before Pet'ka Kaiserowna, with Tautermannová (Czechoslovakia) finishing third. The rest of the competitors forfeited the race. After this race, clouds came in and a strong wind began to pick up, which was more than unpleasant for the diving competition that was just about to begin. The next swimming race was the men's 200 m breaststroke, where Janík (Czechoslovakia) claimed his victory, beating out the talented Jurkovski (Pol.) and Kotkowski (Pol.) in third place. The women's 4 × 100 m relay ended much to the pleasure of the audience, with Yugoslavia claiming first place, beating out Czechoslovakia. The Yugoslav team consisting of Katavič, Podhorsky, Lenert, Roje competed against Czechoslovakia's team of Hradecká, Brabcová, Tautermannová and Friedländerová. The only one to swim freestyle was Friedländerová, who did so for the entire 100 m stretch, with Hradecká and Brabcová swimming only 50 m freestyle and continuing the rest of the stretch in breaststroke. Tautermannová swam the entire length in breaststroke. The Yugoslav team, in contrast, swam predominantly freestyle, in very good form, so their first and last leads were enough to win by 14 m. The Polish team came in third. In the next race, however, Czechoslovakia turned it around. Czechoslovakia's team won in the men's 4 × 200 m relay, beating Yugoslavia, with Poland coming in third place. The swimming events were followed by diving and water polo.

Czechoslovakia's swimmers exhibited their prowess over the other Slavic nations during the first Slavic Championship, taking home all of the big-ticket prizes that were generously donated by prominent individuals and representatives from all three participating countries. The victory did not come easy, as Yugoslavia's competitors either outperformed or matched Czechoslovakia's swimmers and Poland's swimmers also proved to be worthy competition.

Czechoslovakia won the championship, taking the lead with 242 points, with Yugoslavia coming in at 164 points and Poland at 94. In the men's competition, Czechoslovakia managed to gain 146 points, beating Yugoslavia with 116 points and Poland with 58, thus taking home President Masaryk's prize for the 1927 competition: a beautiful glass cup with gold metalwork. In the women's competition, Czechoslovakia won with 96 points, with Yugoslavia coming in second with 48 points and Poland finishing third with 36, taking home the prize from Obshtina. In the diving and water polo competitions, Czechoslovakia and Yugo-

slavia tied with 31 points each, with Poland coming in at 9 points. The water polo score was Czechoslovakia-Yugoslavia-Poland 21:21:210.

The official closing ceremony for the championship took the form of a small dinner for the prominent representatives and participants of all three competing states. The evening was brought to a close with speeches given by members of the host country's association as well as other officials. Klapač and Ing. Hauptmann spoke on behalf of Czechoslovakia. Prizes were awarded for the best performance of the home team – Senjanovič (silver cup) as well as flags of Polish association to the Czechoslovak and Yugoslav associations.

Early the next day, the majority of the Czechoslovak team left Belgrade to try their luck at the European Championship in Bologna. Polish and Yugoslavian representations joined them. The Yugoslavian Association provided a special train car for the Czechoslovak and Polish teams, similar to the “luxury” train cars back in Czechoslovakia. As this was a gift, it was gratefully accepted¹¹.

Table 1. Final Results I. Slavic Swimming Championship

Event	1. place	2. place	3. place
men 100 m freestyle	Senjanovič, Yugoslavia, 1:09,2	Steiner, Czechoslovakia, 1:09,4	Smokvina, Yugoslavia, 1:09,6
100 m freestyle women	Roje, Yugoslavia, 1:29,8	Friedländerová, Czecho- slovakia, 1:30,5	Brabcová, Czechoslo- vakia, 1:36,4
1500 m freestyle men	Antoš, Czechoslovakia, 23:04	Senjanovič, Yugoslavia, 24:08,5	Koutek, Czechoslovakia, 25:08,4
400 m freestyle men	Antoš, Czechoslovakia, 5:30,3	Senjanovič, Yugoslavia, 5:51,7	Koutek, Czechoslovakia, 6:07
400 m freestyle women	Friedländerová, Czecho- slovakia, 7:17,1	Roje, Yugoslavia, 7:22,3	Hradecká, Czechoslo- vakia, 7:45,8
100 m backstroke men	Bělík, Czechoslovakia, 1:21,5	Legát, Czechoslovakia, 1:27,4	Smokvina, Yugoslavia, 1:30,3
100 m backstroke women's	Tautermannová, Czecho- slovakia, 1:42,7	Kaizerowna, Poland, 1:49,5	Brabcová, Czechoslo- vakia, 1:52,4
200 m breast- stroke men	Janík, Czechoslovakia, 3:13,8	Jurkowski, Poland, 3:17,8	Kotkowski, Poland 3:23,8
200 m breast- stroke women	Brabcová, Czechoslo- vakia, 3:41,2	Kaizerowna, Poland, 3:41,8	Tautermannová, Czecho- slovakia, 3:45,7
4 × 200 m free- style men	Czechoslovakia, 10:48,1	Yugoslavia, 11:20,7	Poland, 12.30
4 × 100 m free- style women	Yugoslavia, 6:28,1	Czechoslovakia, 6:42	Poland, 7:31

Source: own research.

¹¹ “Československé plavectví” 1927, nr 9–10, p. 2–3.

Belgrade press on the I. Slavic Championship

The first Slavic Championship were the first swimming event to ever take place in Belgrade, which is why local sports officials were not as well informed as foreign officials and the local displays of patriotism were also much more exuberant than anywhere else. This is why virtually all of the dailies anticipated Yugoslavia to come out victorious, with Senjanovič, in particular, being pegged as the likely winner in all of the freestyle events. The Zagreb-based “Obzor” even wrote that in the 4 × 200 m relay, Yugoslavia did not have any real competition in Europe apart from Sweden. However, after the championship ended, Czechoslovakia’s victory was acknowledged and in the “Politika” publication (29.8.1927), an article titled “Czechoslovakia won” described the course of events in detail.



Image 4. Czechoslovakia defeated Yugoslavia and Poland, swimmers SHS Dabrovič, Čulič, Mirkovič, Fabrike, Bobří, Brajda, Roje

Source: National Archives in Prague, Fund 516, ČsAPS, box 26, book 229, I. Slavic championships in Belgrade in 1927.

The women’s 100 m freestyle event was described as the most beautiful race. The article further stated that: “Senjanovič has a better shape than Antoš” and also observed that “we had the chance to listen to Czechoslovakia’s beautiful anthem several times.” The same publication, in its 30.8.1927 edition, featured

a lengthy interview with Ms Friedländerova about the evolution of women's sports in Czechoslovakia. She was also inquired about her experience at the Slavic Championship. The article stated that:

Every defeat should serve as an experience, as a lesson. Our people (The South Slavs) know how to swim, but not how to race. The winner of the race is not always the best, but rather the one who knows how to assess each situation, who knows about the human psyche and who knows his opponent's weaknesses. This can only be achieved by racing against stronger competition. In this regard, we need more races of this sort [all transl. – author].

A very nice report was also published in the “Vreme” newspaper on 29.8.1927:

There was such an atmosphere, that it was clear that these were no ordinary races. The raised Yugoslav and Czechoslovak flags received a very warm welcome, though we sadly did not have the chance to hear Poland's beautiful anthem. While we might still have ways to go on an international level, Antoš, Senjanovič, and Balasz can make it to the top if they continue training diligently. We wish the Czechoslovak, Polish and our representatives a happy journey to Bologna (European Championships). We do not expect them to win, though we do expect them to make a valiant effort and make us proud. Let them know that all of us who stayed back home would be thrilled to find a Slavic flag raised in Bologna.¹²

II. Slavic Championship in Prague 21.–22.7.1928

The second swimming competition for the Slavic states of Yugoslavia, Poland and Czechoslovakia took place on 21.–22.7.1927 in Prague. The Czechoslovak swimmers and CSAPS had two tasks: to take home the victory once again in a rather lukewarm Czechoslovak atmosphere and to take home the prizes from President Masaryk, Minister Dr Beneš, Polish Minister Záleski and Skupštiny from the city of Belgrade while also preparing the sporting events and providing conditions that would be at least as decent as those in Belgrade.

Unfortunately, the financial resources of CSAPS were entirely insufficient without the help of authorities and public officials. CSAPS officials thus hoped that just as the official and military circles of Belgrade were accommodating to the Yugoslav Swimming Association, the city of Prague would also acknowledge that this was not an ordinary event but rather a significant sporting competition for three Slavic states. However, the association's request was not heeded and the CSAPS was thus confronted with the sad fact that it could only rely on itself. The city of Prague, at a city council meeting on June 15th, only undertook to protect the championships, nothing more. The organizers did not receive any financial support or equipment for the racecourse, nor were they loaned the necessary ma-

¹² “Československé plavectví” 1928, nr 1, p. 1.

terials¹³. A request filed on June 9th, 1928 asking for a tax exemption for the Slavic Championship, was also denied on allegedly solid grounds. Only the board of directors of Prague's electrical companies agreed to provide a discount to the participants of the Slavic Championship for their train fare, offering them a reduced price of 50 Hellers for one ticket (one ride)¹⁴.

No interest in the course of the championship itself was exhibited by the authorities or the city council. Out of all of the invited ministries and government officials, the only one who attended was the Deputy Minister of Health, Očenášek. Mayor Dr Baxa attended the Saturday races on behalf of the city of Prague. The trivialization of such a significant event and the complete lack of interest severely demotivated the organizers, especially upon hearing how much funding and support the sport was receiving in the other Slavic countries. For the above reason, it was obvious that the association was extremely burdened by this championship in terms of time but primarily money. It was thus clear that such an event could not be held in Prague again under such conditions, much to the detriment of the prestige of Czechoslovak swimming. The only way this could happen would be if a suitable swimming stadium was built and if the event received the support it needed¹⁵.

On Saturday and Sunday 21. and 22.7., representatives from Yugoslavia, Poland and Czechoslovakia competed on the 50 m racecourse which was set up above the lock chambers by Židovský Island (now Dětský Island). The race course consisted of three raft bridges with a wide finish line, located directly by the entrance to the floodgates, the starting line was parallel to the finish line with a 50-meter distance in between along with a third, narrow bridge connecting the two. The audience stands were located on one side, on sand boats, and on the other side on Židovský Island, where a wooden tribune was built directly next to the tents for the participants, next to tents that served as makeshift changing rooms for the swimmers and a spot designated for musicians. The riverbank, the entire sidewalk to the park by the bridge leading to the Židovský Island, was reserved for standing members of the audience. The disadvantage of this race course was the danger that the races could be disrupted by passing boats, which, considering the importance of the races and the presence of visitors from abroad, could simply not happen. Men competed in the 100 m, 400 m and 1500 m free-style races, 200 m breaststroke, 100 m backstrokes, platform and springboard diving and water polo. The women's program included 100 m and 400 m free-style, 200 m breaststrokes, 100 m backstrokes, platform and springboard diving¹⁶.

¹³ National Archives in Prague, Fund 516, ČsAPS, box 26, book 230, II. Slavic championships in Prague in 1928.

¹⁴ National Archives in Prague, Fund 516, ČsAPS, box 26, book 230, II. Slavic champions. in Prague in 1928.

¹⁵ "Československé plavectví" 1928, nr 6–7, p. 1.

¹⁶ National Archives in Prague, Fund 516 ČsAPS, box 26 book 230, II. Slavic champions in Prague in 1928.

Saturday program began with the playing of the national anthems of the competing nations. The competitors appeared in front of an unusually large audience wearing the jerseys of their associations and the mayor of Prague, Dr Baxa, was also in attendance, along with the inspector of the Ministry of Health Očenášek. Representatives of the Yugoslav and Polish delegations were also present, along with representatives of other sports corporations and the press. The races ran quite swiftly, resulting in very good times for the swimmers, meaning that in some of the events they even broke records for all three associations. The Polish Association generally came as a surprise with their increasingly impressive condition, as evidenced by their accumulation of points. Yugoslavia, in contrast, slowed down a little when compared to the previous year. Czechoslovakia proved to be the frontrunner of Slavic swimming when the women's 100 m backstroke race was won by Dopplerová (Czechoslovakia), the men's 400 m freestyle went to Antoš (Czechoslovakia), the men's 100 m backstrokes went to Bělík (Czechoslovakia) and the women's 400 m freestyle landed Friedländerová (Czechoslovakia) in the first place. On Sunday morning, the diving competition commenced at the swimming pool at Slovensky Island. Czechoslovakia's Balasz came in first with 151.71 points.

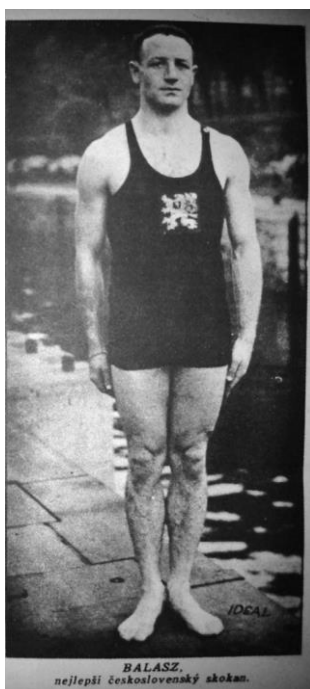


Image 5. Július Balasz, the best Czechoslovak jumper

Source: "Star" 1928, nr 15, p. 7.

The swimming races continued on the racecourse by Židovský Island in the events for men's 1500 m freestyle, with Antoš (Czechoslovakia) coming in first, Senjanovič (Yugoslavia) second and Pešta (Czechoslovakia) third. The women's 100 m freestyle was dominated by Roje (Yugoslavia) who broke Yugoslavia's record, with Friedländerová (Czechoslovakia) in second place and Lenertová from Yugoslavia in third. The morning program ended with a polo match between Czechoslovakia and Poland, ending at 10:0. The afternoon program began with a very suspenseful race: men's 100 m freestyle, featuring Czechoslovakia's Steiner, who ended up beating out Senjanovič (Yugoslavia) and Švehla (Czechoslovakia) who came in third.

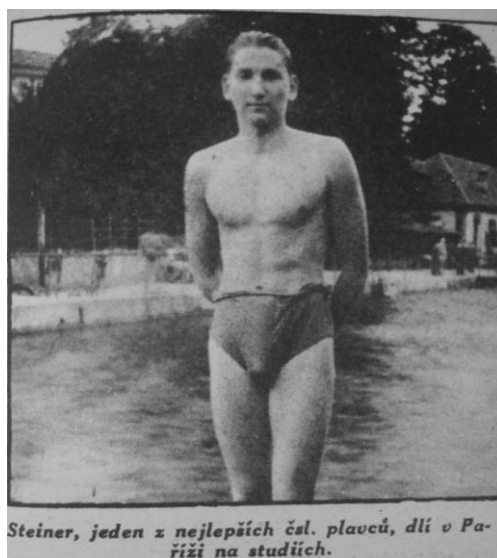


Image 6. Pavel Steiner, one of the best Czechoslovak swimmers of his time

Source: "Star" 1928, nr 29, p. 5.

Czechoslovakia dominated the first two places in the women's 200 m breaststroke race, with Brabcová followed by Drážková. Third and fourth place went to Polish swimmers Kaizerowna and Fitzówna. Yugoslav swimmer Prekuh was disqualified for bad form. The men's 200 m breaststroke race saw Czechoslovak Kortschak win first place, ahead of Kodat (Czechoslovakia) and Jurkowski from Poland who came third. The women's 4 × 100 m freestyle relay brought Yugoslavia their second and last victory. All of the teams broke their country's national records. Czechoslovakia was leading in the relay throughout the entire race, though towards the end, Friedländerová lost out to her better-performing competition, Roje from Yugoslavia with Poland coming in third. The winner of the men's 4 × 200 m freestyle relay was the Czechoslovak team (Plzeňský, Pešta,

Getreuer, Antoš) in record time, beating Poland in second place and Yugoslavia in third.

The closing ceremony, which was attended by the competitors from all three Slavic states, was closed with the award ceremony. Czechoslovakia proved victorious with 277 points, followed by Yugoslavia with 158 points and Poland with 123 points. In the men's category, Czechoslovakia won with 122 points, beating Yugoslavia with 48 points in second place and Poland with 42 points in third. In the women's category, Czechoslovakia received 87 points in total, with Yugoslavia at 58 and Poland at 34. In the diving category, Czechoslovakia came in first with 42 points, Poland second with 37 points, and Yugoslavia finished third with 26 points. In water polo, Czechoslovakia raked in a total of 26 points, with Yugoslavia behind with 16 points and Poland third with 10.¹⁷

Table 2. Final Results II. Slavic Swimming Championship

Event	1. place	2. place	3. place
100 m freestyle men's	Steiner, Czechoslovakia, 1:06,4	Senjanovič, Yugoslavia, 1:07,5	Švehla, Czechoslovakia, 1:10
100 m freestyle women's	Roje, Yugoslavia, 1:24,4	Friedländerová, Czechoslovakia, 1:27,8	Lenertová, Yugoslavia, 1:34,1
1500 m freestyle men's	Antoš, Czechoslovakia, 22.58,2	Senjanovič, Yugoslavia, 23:55	Pešta, Czechoslovakia, 24:33,2
400 m freestyle men's	Antoš, Czechoslovakia, 5:28,8	Senjanovič, Yugoslavia, 5:42,2	Plzeňský, Czechoslovakia, 5:44,5
400 m freestyle women's	Friedländerová, Czechoslovakia, 6:59,4	Roje, Yugoslavia, 7:00,5	Brabcová, Czechoslovakia, 7:40,4
100 m backstroke men's	Bělík, Czechoslovakia, 1:19,8	Landan, Czechoslovakia, 1:25,3	Mirkovič, Yugoslavia, 1:27,4
100 m backstroke women's	Dopplerová, Czechoslovakia, 1:38,2	Tautermannová, Czechoslovakia, 1:42,4	Nowakowna, Poland, 1:49,8
200 m breaststroke men's	Kortschak, Czechoslovakia, 3:13,4	Kodat, Czechoslovakia, 3:14,8	Jurkowski, Poland, 3:15,6
200 m breaststroke women's	Brabcová, Czechoslovakia, 3:34,4	Drážková, Czechoslovakia, 3:38,8	Kaizerowna, Poland, 3:40,4
4 × 200 m freestyle men's	Czechoslovakia, 10:39	Poland, 11:27,5	Yugoslavia, 1:28,8
4 × 100 m freestyle women's	Yugoslavia, 6:09,8	Czechoslovakia, 6:10	Poland, 6:48

Source: own research.

¹⁷ "Československé plavectví" 1928, nr 8–10, p. 1–2.

III. Slavic Championship in Warsaw 17.–18.8.1929

The departure to the III. Slavic Championship was scheduled to take place on Wednesday 14.8.1929 at 1:45 p.m. from Prague for divers and women and on Thursday 15.8. at 1:45 p.m. for men.

The leader of the Czechoslovak team was Ing. Hauptmann, representatives of CSAPS and ČsAPS were Ing. Hofbauer, A. Novotný and S. Beinhacker. The nominee for the men's 100 m freestyle was Steiner, 400 m freestyle Getreuer and Pacovský, 1500 m freestyle Pacovský and Koutek, 200 m breaststroke Vodička, 100 m backstroke Heiling, 4 × 200m Getreuer, Pacovský, Koutek, Švehla. The women's nominees were: 100 m freestyle Svitáková and Besterová, 400 m freestyle Svitáková and Havlová, 200 m breaststroke Hanslová and Nezavdalová, 100 m backstrokes Dopplerová (Tautermannová), 4 × 100 m freestyle relay Svitáková, Besterová, Hanslová and Havlová¹⁸.

The Polish swimmers, who had been the weakest competition out of the three Slavic nations, came back in a big way with an improvement in form and excellent organization. During the first championship, three years prior, none of the three nations had their swimming stadium. The third round of the Slavic Championships was now taking place in a beautiful stadium in Warsaw, which had been commissioned for 5 million Zloty. Poland was not the only country to boast a brand new stadium. Swimmers from Yugoslavia already had a new stadium in Ljubljana for their swimmers to train and race. Unfortunately, Czechoslovakia, despite having won all of the trophies and being at the forefront of Slavic swimming, still did not have its swimming stadium to boast, which could help Czechoslovak swimmers hone their craft.

During the III. Slavic Championship, more focus had to be put on Polish swimming, which, under humble and difficult conditions, and through the hard work of those involved and the moral and financial support of the state and public officials and authorities, vastly improved and flourished. The difference it makes when swimmers can perform on a regulation course was never as evident as it was in Warsaw that year, as the city boasted a beautiful 50 × 20 m pool, a diving tower with 1 and 3 m platforms, 5, 7, 8,5 a 10 m above the water. The Polish organizer, Związek Pływacki, took all of the necessary measures to ensure that the event would run smoothly and that all of the competitors were well taken care of. The male competitors were accommodated directly in the stadium which was equipped with double and triple rooms with lockers and cots. The female competitors were accommodated in a student dormitory not far from the stadium. Catering was provided in the stadium. Participants were offered home-cooked meals.

The Czechoslovak team consisted of 26 members. Under the leadership of Ing. Hauptmann, the first group, including Schmuck, Reitmann, Nesvadba, Bes-

¹⁸ "Československé plavectví" 1929, nr 6–7, p. 5.

terová, Dopplerová, Hanslová, Havlová-Friedländerová, Kröngeigerová, Marklová, Nezavdalová, Svitáková and Tautermannová, departed on Wednesday 14.8. The following day, the second part of the team left, led by Antonín Novotný and Ing. Hofbauer, comprising Pacovský, Bušek, Švehla, Koutek and Vodička, accompanied in Bohumín by swimmers PTE Steiner, Kroc and Heiling, as well as Balasz, Wollner and Getreuer who joined the group in Dziedzice. The entire Yugoslav team, comprising 29 members, boarded the train in Bohumín.

The championship itself commenced on Saturday 17.8. in the afternoon with the arrival of the participants, in the following order: Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Poland. The first event was the women's 100 m backstrokes. Tautermannová took the lead for the entire first half of the race, though she was overtaken by Dopplerová, who managed to win the race, beating out Poland's Nowakowna and Yugoslavia's Volfartova. Tautermannová did not manage to keep up the pace and ended up fourth. The next event was the men's 400 m freestyle. Getreuer took an enormous lead, followed by Pacovský and Bochenski, who fought to the bitter end, with a close finish won by the young Pacovsky. Poland's Bochenski broke his country's record and was a breath of fresh air and hope for his country. Senjanovič, the dreaded rival of Antoš from Belgrade and Prague, did not put up much of a fight and ended up resting comfortably in fourth place. This was followed by men's platform diving, though Czechoslovakia did not compete in the event due to insufficient training. The men's 100 m backstroke event was won by junior swimmer Heiling (Czechoslovakia), though at no extra effort. Second place went to Marcetta and third to Grlič, both from Yugoslavia. In the women's 400 m freestyle event, first and third place went to swimmers from Yugoslavia, Roje and Godina, with Czechoslovakia's Havlová and Svitáková coming in second and fourth, with Poland's Kaiserowna and Tratona finishing fifth and sixth. The day culminated in a water polo match. The championship continued on Sunday morning with the men's 1500 m freestyle, with Pacovský taking a clear win, though the second place was a battle to the bitter end, going to Poland's Kota in the country's record time. Third place went to Jihoslovan Bulat. The next race was the women's 100 m freestyle, with Roje from Yugoslavia coming in first, followed by Besterova in second and Svitáková in third, both from Czechoslovakia. In the water polo match, Czechoslovakia faced off with Poland, ending in 8:0. The afternoon program started with a delay because the participating nations were to be introduced with musical accompaniment once more as it did not go as planned during the opening ceremony. Unfortunately, this was not a success even the second time around. The first event of the afternoon was the men's 100 m freestyle, in which Steiner (Czechoslovakia) finished with a generous lead and in record time. Senjanovič (Yugoslavia) just barely defended second place ahead of Švehla (Czechoslovakia). The women's 200 m breaststroke was won by Hanslová (Czechoslovakia), with Nezavdalová (Czechoslovakia) coming in second and Volfart (Yugoslavia) in third. Poland's Reicherowna did not finish. The win-

ner of the men's 200 m was Vodička (Czechoslovakia), who finished in record time, with Fabris from Yugoslavia in second with Birimisa (Yugoslavia) and Jurkowski (Pol) battling it out for third, ending in a draw. In the women's 4 × 100 m freestyle relay, Havlová (Czechoslovakia) started with a slight lead, though the other swimmers lagged significantly as well. Yugoslavia's biggest talent, Roje, tried to win the relay for Yugoslavia with a swift race to the finish, though the distance was too great. Besterová beat her to it, making this the first women's relay win for Czechoslovakia. All three teams broke the records in their respective countries. In the men's 4 × 200 m freestyle relay, the Czechoslovak team, consisting of Pacovský, Koutek, Švehla and Getreuer, was disqualified because Getreuer did not touch the edge of the pool with his hand during his last turn. First place in relay thus went to Yugoslavia with Poland in second and in the country's record time. The championship came to a close with a water polo match between Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia that finished with a 2:2 draw.

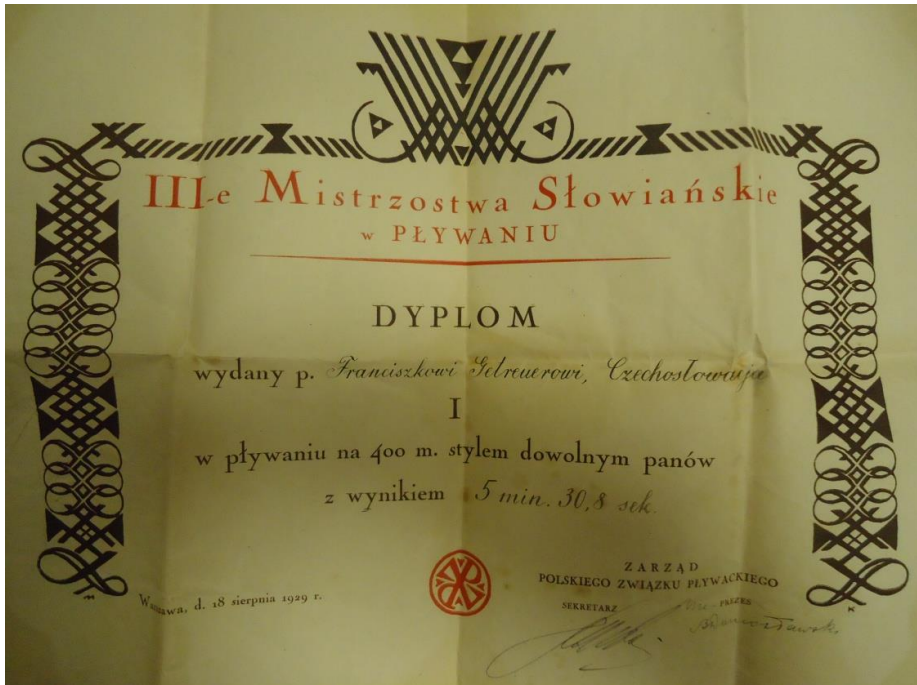


Image 7. Diploma for František Getreuer at the third Slavic Swimming Championships in Warsaw
Source: Fund of swimming 1919–1951, Archive of the History of Physical Education and Sport of the National Museum.

Thus the third and final Slavic Championships came to a close, with Czechoslovakia once again dominating the entire championship and claiming all of the prizes. Czechoslovakia thus came in first place with 230 points, followed by Yu-

goslavia with 193 points and Poland in third with 127 points. In the men's solo category, Czechoslovakia received 101 points, Yugoslavia 99 points, and Poland 62 points. In the women's category, Czechoslovakia received a total of 103 points, followed by Yugoslavia with 78 points and Poland with 55. Water polo went to Czechoslovakia with 26 points, followed by Yugoslavia with 16 points and Poland with 10. In the diving category, Poland came in first with 43 points, followed by Yugoslavia with 41 points and Czechoslovakia with 39.

The closing ceremony took the form of a banquet during which honorary prizes were awarded. The First Deputy Chairman Ing. B. Domoslowski spoke on behalf of Poland, Ing. Hauptmann on behalf of Czechoslovakia and Dr Bukovala on behalf of Yugoslavia. Each winner received a nice honorary award donated by the various press, companies, officials and sports corporations.

On Monday 19.8. in the afternoon, the Czechoslovak team returned home¹⁹.

Table 3. Final Results III. Slavic Swimming Championship

Event	1. place	2. place	3. place
100 m freestyle men	Steiner, Czechoslovakia, 1:04,5	Senjanovič, Yugoslavia, 1:05,9	Švehla, Czechoslovakia, 1:06,4
100 m freestyle women	Roje, Yugoslavia, 1:22,1	Besterová, Czechoslovakia, 1:26,2	Svitáková, Czechoslovakia, 1:26,7
1500 m freestyle men	Pacovský, Czechoslovakia, 23:00	Kot, Poland, 23:29	Bulat, Yugoslavia, 23:29,1
400 m freestyle men	Getreuer, Czechoslovakia, 5:30,8	Pacovský, Czechoslovakia, 5:35	Bochenski, Poland, 5:36
400 m freestyle women	Roje, Yugoslavia, 6:38,4	Havlová, Czechoslovakia, 7:04	Godina, Yugoslavia, 7:12,8
100 m backstroke men	Heiling, Czechoslovakia, 1:20,5	Marcetta, Yugoslavia, 1:22,1	Grlič, Yugoslavia, 1:24,2
100 m backstroke women's	Dopplerová, Czechoslovakia, 1:34,9	Nowakowna, Poland, 1:38,4	Volfart, Yugoslavia, 1:38,6
200 m breaststroke men	Vodička, Czechoslovakia, 3:02	Fabris, Yugoslavia, 3:11,7	Birimisa, Yugoslavia, 3:12
200 m breaststroke women	Hanslová, Czechoslovakia, 3:31,6	Nezavdalová, Czechoslovakia, 3:33,3	Volfart, Yugoslavia, 3:34,5
4 × 200 m freestyle men	Yugoslavia, 10:40,8	Poland, 10:50	Czechoslovakia, Disqualified
4 × 100 m freestyle women	Czechoslovakia, 5:57,5	Yugoslavia, 5:59,6	Poland, 6:37

Source: own research.

¹⁹ "Československé plavectví" 1929, nr 8–9, p. 1–2.

Conclusion

The first encounter between competitive swimmers from the Slavic states took place in Belgrade in 1927. As Belgrade did not have its swimming stadium at the time, the races took place on makeshift swimming courses on the dead shoulder of the Sava River. The results were thus often affected by the weather conditions and the length of the racecourse was not entirely precise, meaning that the race times were skewed and scarcely comparable to times recorded in regular swimming pools. Regardless of the conditions, the Czechoslovak team managed to win in all categories except for the water polo match against Yugoslavia, which ended in a draw. II. Slavic Championship in 1928 was hosted by Prague. Unfortunately, the construction of the Barrandov swimming stadium had not yet been completed, meaning that the races once again took place under improvised conditions, this time on the Vltava River in the floodgates by the Židovský Island, which proved to be a lot of work for the CSAPS, as they had to make many appeals to the city authorities. Czechoslovakia won the entire competition this time around as well. However, the most socially and logistically successful championship was the one held in 1929 in Warsaw. This was attributed to the fact that Poland already had ample experience from the previous two championships, where they were able to learn from their rivals, as well as their entirely new and beautifully constructed swimming stadium in Warsaw. The third time proved to be a charm for Czechoslovakia as they won the championship once again and took home all of the prizes.

At the last meeting, after the end of the III. Slavic Championship in August 1929, representatives of all three participating states agreed to extend their contracts for another Slavic Championship to take place the following year, in 1930. It was set to take place in Yugoslavia once again, though this time in an entirely new stadium in Ljubljana. However, as we already know from archival documents and periodicals, another championship did not take place, namely due to the lack of funds which were very hard to come by after the global financial crisis broke out in October 1929. This was potentially also brought on by the notable dominance of Czechoslovak swimmers and the political context which could have discouraged Poland and Yugoslavia from pursuing further participation in these championships. Regardless of that, the purpose of the Slavic Championships had been fulfilled. The level of competitive swimming and the conditions furnished for the sport resulted in vast improvements in both Poland and Yugoslavia and all three of the Slavic nations maintained close ties in the form of competitions between Poland and Czechoslovakia and Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia. The Czechoslovakia-Poland competition which took place in 1930 in Warsaw finally garnered Poland its first victory. However, in the competition that shortly followed, also in Warsaw, Czechoslovakia claimed the victory once again. In 1934, Brno was set to host another championship for the two nations,

though Warsaw pulled out at the last minute and Czechoslovakia did not face-off with Poland in swimming again. In 1937, Yugoslavia invited Czechoslovak swimmers to Dubrovnik to compete in the waters. At that time, Yugoslavia was already a force to be reckoned with in Europe, on par with Germany and Hungary, and so they avenged their losses from the Slavic Championships.

The friendly ties between Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia long remained intact, only to be disrupted by the Second World War.

References

A. Sources

I. Archive collections

National Archive – Collection 516 – Czechoslovak Amateur Swimming Association CSAPS.

Archive of the History of Physical Education and Sport of the National Museum – Swimming Collection 1919–1951.

II. Periodicals

“Československé plavectví” 1923–1938.

“Star” 1928.

III. Internet

<https://polska-ymca.ic.cz/>

B. Literature

Hoch M., *Plavání*, Sportovní a turistické nakladatelství, Praha 1959.

Krajíček S., *Po stopách vývoje plaveckého sportu*, J. Kunstner, Česká Lípa 1947.

Srb V., *Století plaveckých sportů v našich zemích*, Mladá fronta, Praha 2018.

Tlustý T., *Budování národní organizace YMCA v Československu a Polsku. Rozvoj tělesné kultury v letech 1918–1939*, Karolinum, Praha 2017.

Deklaracja braku konfliktu interesów

Autor deklaruje brak potencjalnych konfliktów interesów w odniesieniu do badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Slavic Swimming Championships in the Years 1927–1929*.

Finansowanie

Autor nie otrzymał żadnego wsparcia finansowego w zakresie badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Slavic Swimming Championships in the Years 1927–1929*.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author declared no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *Slavic Swimming Championships in the Years 1927–1929*.

Funding

The author received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *Slavic Swimming Championships in the Years 1927–1929*.

Kiryl SHYLINHOUSKI*
<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3986-049X>

Народная игра *Свинка*: генезис, семантика, адаптация правил игры

Jak cytować [how to cite]: Shylinhouski K., *Народная игра Свинка: генезис, семантика, адаптация правил игры*, „Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” 2021, t. 4, nr 1, s. 55–74.

Swinka folk game: genesis, semantics, adaptation of the rules of the game

Abstract

The main purpose of the article is to study the folk game *Swinka* and fine tune its rules in order to incorporate the game into tourism initiatives, recreation and social practices (such as weddings), as well as lay foundations for further study of the game with reference to pedagogy, psychology and sociology. The article examines games recorded in the 19th – 20th centuries on the territories of Belarus, Poland, Lithuania, Russia, Serbia, Croatia and Slovenia. Research methods from the field of folklore, linguistics and sociology are aimed at analyzing the plots of the game, the rules, the unstructured verbal material, associated with the designation of game loci, attributes and actions of the players, and the leading player, as well as at formulating proposals for the rules adjustments, suggested by the adult players. Invectives and punishments in the game of *Swinka* are originating in symbolism, the pragmatics of the rite of initiation into the craft of shepherds. Those could pre-

* Master of Art in Sociology, Independent Researcher, Content Manager for ETNAidea Sp. z o.o. and www.gimnastykaslowianska-online.pl; e-mail: newkirsh@gmail.com
Автор выражает благодарность за редакторские правки и ценные замечания по теме исследования Римме Модестовне Ковалевой, кандидату филологических наук, доценту, ведущему научному сотруднику *Учебно-научной лаборатории белорусского фольклора* Белорусского государственного университета (<https://scholar.google.ru/citations?hl=ru&user=xgp7FdsAAAAJ>)

serve, to a certain extent, a part of their “purely” invective and insulting connotations when the game transferred into the children's environment. The transition character of the invective function was studied: from the “purely” invective function (the vocabulary of adult shepherds) to the expressive one in the game. Both functions create an inferior image of the leading player by attributing to him negative characteristics. The game can also be interpreted as a tool in setting turns among the shepherds or out of turn assignments to livestock or pigs grazing. The uniqueness of the game lies in the need to constantly switching from the team actions to the purely individualistic and selfish actions and back. Proposals are made for rules adjustments to minimize injuries to participants and accelerate the pace of the game. The knowledge of the folklore, the historical context of the game's emergence and the formation of negative nicknames for the leading player, as well as the connotations of the names of the game allows us to consider the game to be one of the brightest cultural manifestations. The game has good prospects for popularization among both the young and the adults in the Republic of Belarus and the Republic of Poland.

Keywords: folklore, folk games, rituals of initiation into the craft, invective.

Gra ludowa świnka: geneza, semantyka, adaptacja reguł gry

Streszczenie

Głównym celem artykułu jest zbadanie gry ludowej świnka oraz określenie jej zasad, co pozwoli włączyć tę grę do programów turystycznych i rekreacyjnych oraz praktyk społecznych (np. wesele). Tekst ten pomoże również stworzyć materiał do dalszych badań nad grą w ujęciu pedagogicznym, psychologicznym i socjologicznym. Artykuł dotyczy gier, które zostały udokumentowane w XIX–XX wieku na terytorium Białorusi, Polski, Litwy, Rosji, Serbii, Chorwacji i Słowenii. Metody badawcze z zakresu folkloru, językoznawstwa, socjologii, mają na celu analizę fabuły gry oraz jej zasad. Wykorzystano nieustrukturyzowany materiał werbalny związany z wyznaczaniem *loci* gry, atrybutami, działaniami graczy oraz gracza prowadzącego, propozycjami zmiany reguł wyznaczonych przez dorosłych uczestników gry. Inwektywy i kary, które są wykorzystywane w grze świnka, wynikają z symboliki i pragmatyki rytuału inicjacyjnego pasterzy. Do pewnego stopnia mogły zachować część „czysto” inwektywnych, obraźliwych konotacji, nawet gdy gra przenosiła się do środowiska dzieci. Zbadano przechodni charakter funkcji inwektywy w grze: od funkcji „czysto” inwektywnej (leksyka dorosłych pasterzy) do funkcji ekspresywnej. Obie funkcje kształtuje negatywny obraz gracza prowadzącego, któremu przypisane są negatywne cechy. Gra świnka wśród pasterzy mogła być również interpretowana jako jeden ze sposobów określania kolejności wypasania bydła lub świń. Wyjątkowość gry polega na ciągłym przechodzeniu od działań zespołowych do działań czysto indywidualnych lub egoistycznych i odwrotnie. Zaproponowano takie dostosowanie zasad, aby zminimalizować kontuzje uczestników i przyspieszyć tempo gry. Analiza kontekstu historycznego i folklorystycznego świnki oraz badanie kształtowania się negatywnych przezwisk gracza prowadzącego, a także konotacji nazw gry, pozwala uznać grę za jedno z najważniejszych zjawisk kulturowych. Jak wykazują badania grę z powodzeniem można popularyzować wśród młodzieży i dorosłych na Białorusi i w Polsce.

Słowa kluczowe: folklor, gry ludowe, rytuały inicjacyjne pasterzy, inwektywy.

Резюме

Основной целью статьи является изучение народной игры *Свинка* и адаптация ее правил, чтобы включить игру в программы туризма, отдыха, социальные практики (свадьба)

и сформировать материал для дальнейшего изучения игры в рамках педагогики, психологии и социологии. В статье рассматриваются игры, записанные в XIX–XX вв. на территориях Беларуси, Польши, Литвы, России, Сербии, Хорватии, Словении. Методы исследования из области фольклористики, лингвистики, социологии направлены на анализ сюжетов игры, правил, неструктурированного словесного материала, связанного с обозначением игровых локусов, атрибутов, действий игроков и водящего игрока, а также предложений по изменению правил от взрослых участников игры. Инвективы и наказания в игре *Свинка* обусловлены символизмом, прагматикой обряда посвящения в ремесло пастухов и, в определенной степени, могли сохранить часть «чисто» инвективных, оскорбительных коннотаций при переходе игры в детскую среду. Изучен переходный характер функции инвективы в игре: от «чисто» инвективной (лексика взрослых пастухов) к экспрессивной. При этом обе функции повлияли на формирование сниженного образа водящего игрока через приписывание ему негативных характеристик. Игру можно также трактовать как один из способов установления очередности у пастухов или внеочередного назначения на выпас скота или свиней. Уникальность игры заключается в необходимости постоянно переключаться с командных действий на сугубо индивидуальные и эгоистические, и обратно. Внесены предложения по адаптации правил для минимизации травм участников и ускорения темпа игры. Знание фольклорного и исторического контекста появления игры, формирования негативных кличек водящего игрока и коннотаций названий самой игры позволяет рассматривать игру в качестве одного из ярких культурных явлений. Игра имеет хорошие перспективы для популяризации среди молодежи, взрослых в Республике Беларусь и Республике Польша.

Ключевые слова: фольклор, народные игры, обряды посвящения в ремесло, инвектива.

Введение

Славянские народные игры с клюшками, мячом или деревянным шаром описаны во множестве историко-этнографических работ XIX–XX вв. К ним обращались культурологи, фольклористы, педагоги, лингвисты. О распространенности игр свидетельствует такой факт: во время раскопок в Новгороде в слоях X–XV вв. были найдены 113 деревянных шаров диаметром от 6 до 9 см, которые археолог Б.А. Колчин определил, как мячи для игр этого типа¹. У многих славян одни и те же игры с шаром бытовали у детей, подростков и взрослых. Ряд игр имел календарную и обрядовую приуроченность. Так, например, И.А. Морозов и И.С. Слепцова установили ритуально-магическую основу игр с клюшками, приуроченных к концу весны (*Игра в шар, Шарик гонять*). С большой вероятностью *Игра в шар* (и подобные) могла быть связана со свадебным обрядом: ученые отметили свадебный обычай «просить шаровое», аналогичный, по их мнению, обычаю «просить на мяч» в вологодском крае². Т.А. Бернштам, цитируя

¹ Б.А. Колчин, *Новгородские древности. Резное дерево*, [в:] *Свод археологических источников*, вып. Е1–55/2, Москва 1971, с. 51.

² И.А. Морозов, И.С. Слепцова, *Круг игры. Праздник и игра в жизни севернорусского крестьянина (XIX–XX вв.)*, Москва 2004, с. 768–769, 778–782.

материалы Н.А. Иваницкого, изданные в 1890г., приводит следующее пояснение к вологодскому обычаю: «день свадьбы невестины соседи и другие мужчины играли на улице в этот мяч [из кожи, набитый волосом, или «из шерсти»]; мяч жених возил с собой и отдавал его в пользу невестиних соседней; ныне жених мяча с собою не возит, а деньги, собранные на мяч, идут на попойку»³.

В Беларуси такой свадебный обычай не зафиксирован, но еще в конце 1950-х годов белорусские дети в Гомельской области играли с палками и мячом в *Свинку*⁴. Различные сюжеты и правила игры на основе белорусского материала описывали А.Ю. Лозка, Я.Р. Вилькин, М.В. Довнар-Запольский, П.В. Шейн, П. Демидович, Н.Я. Никифоровский, F. Sielicki, польского материала – W. Liponski, E. Cenar, W. Sikorski, K. Kozłowski, Z. Gloger, Ł. Gołębiowski (издание 1831г.), сербского, хорватского, словенского – Вук Ст. Карацић, М.Б. Милићевић, М. Шкарић, V. Marjanović, M. Furlan, T. Sevc, M. Pleteršnik и J. Gregorič (в словарях).

В белорусском сборнике его составитель А.Ю. Лозка поместил варианты описаний *Свинки* в двух разделах «Игры, не связанные с календарем и обрядами (или потеряли связь)» и «Весенние»⁵. Он приводит графическую схему игры, правила которой мы упростили для ускорения ввода мяча в игру и увеличения свободы действий водящего игрока. Мы убрали *лунку* или *метку* для водящего или пастуха, традиционно размещаемую в одной точке на удалении от *лунок* ближайших к нему игроков. Вокруг *лунок* на равном удалении от центральной ямы метками или линией обозначается круг (рис. 1). Согласно такому изменению в правилах пастух может быстро с любого направления возобновить игру.

Наиболее емкое описание одной из разновидностей этой игры дала М.В. Гаврилова: «Участники выкапывают большую ямку (рус. *дук*, *котел*), вокруг нее – несколько ямок поменьше (*дучки*, *лунки*) по числу игроков, не считая водящего. У каждого участника в руках клюшка или палка. Все игроки, кроме водящего, ставят свои клюшки в *лунки*. Водящий гонит клюшкой *свинку* (деревянный шар) в сторону *котла*, а остальные игроки ему мешают. Водящий также стремится занять [своей клюшкой] чужую *лунку*: в этом случае ее бывший хозяин водит. Если *свинку* удастся загнать в *котел*, все игроки быстро меняются *лунками*, оставшийся без *лунки* водит»⁶. В игре *Мазло* (в Беларуси:

³ Т.А. Бернштам, *Мяч в русском фольклоре и обрядовых играх*, [в:] Б.Н. Путилова (ред.), *Фольклор и этнография: У этнографических истоков фольклорных сюжетов и образов*, Ленинград 1984, с. 163.

⁴ М.Я. Грынблат, Л.А. Малчанава, *Новыя з'явы ў быце калгаснай вёскі*, [в:] І.С. Краўчанка (рэд.), *Беларускі этнаграфічны зборнік*, Мінск 1958, вып. 1, с. 105.

⁵ А.Ю. Лозка, *Гульні, забавы, ігрышчы*, Мінск 2000, с. 151, 254–256.

⁶ М.В. Гаврилова, *Поэтика традиционных восточнославянских игр*, 2-е изд. (эл.), Москва 2019, с. 97.

Гыняць-вовки (витеб.), *Козел* (гомел.), *Свинарка* 'свинарник' (минск.)) отсутствует большая центральная яма⁷. Цель водящего – загнать шар или опустить клюшку в лунку одного из игроков на периметре круга.

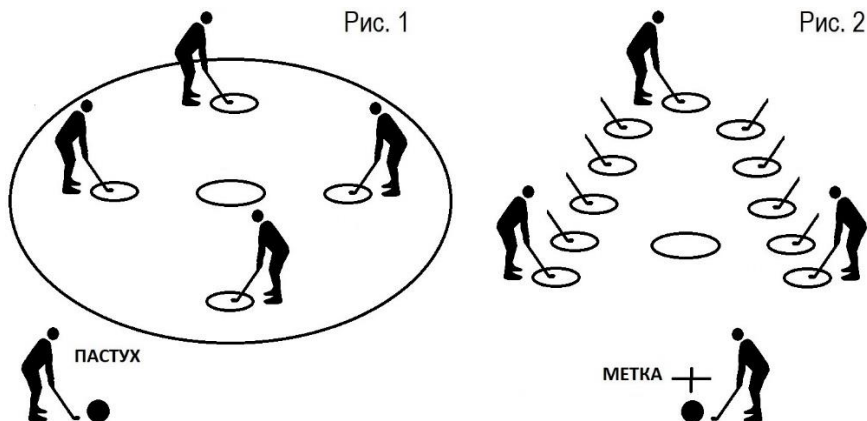


Рис. 1. Расположение игроков в белорусской игре *Свинка* без постоянной лунки у водящего игрока (авторская адаптация правил игры). **Рис. 2.** Французская игра *Le go[u]ret* 'поросенок', *La truie* 'свиноматка' с меткой, откуда водящий начинает игру⁸.

Благодаря сюжету и уникальным правилам игра имеет хорошие перспективы для популяризации среди молодежи и внедрения в общеобразовательные программы Республики Беларусь и Республики Польша.

Методы и проблемы исследования

Основной целью статьи является изучение народной игры типа *Свинка* и адаптация ее правил. В рамках формулирования этой цели мы пришли к заключению, что сюжеты игры *Свинка*, ее характеристики и функции имеют общие черты с обрядами посвящения в ремесло⁹. Об этом свидетельствует соревновательный характер взаимодействия участников игры, которое сопровождается порицаниями, насмешками, инвективами в адрес неопытного участника, физическими наказаниями в процессе или после окончания игры.

Следуя определениям М.В. Гавриловой, мы понимаем традиционную игру как акциональный фольклорный текст, где репрезентация сюжета

⁷ А.Ю. Лозка, *Гульні*, с. 256. М.В. Гаврилова, *Поэтика*, с. 98, 371–372.

⁸ Е. Сенар, *Gry i zabawy ruchowe różnych narodów*, Lwów 1906, с. 225.

⁹ Т.А. Агапкина, *Посвятельные обряды*, [в:] СДЭС, Москва 2009, т. 4, с. 189.

происходит через действия участников, соблюдающих определенные правила¹⁰. Важным параметром исследования является «неструктурированный словесный материал» игры¹¹: наименования игровых локусов (*город, хлев, свинарник, сарай, бровар*), атрибутов (*свинка, сучка, авечка, клюшки, дубинки*), действий и наказаний (*загонять свинку, бить свинку, завонять, свернуть задницу свинопасу*).

В работах по игровому фольклору нам пока не встретились авторы, использующие понятия инвективы и сниженного образа. Мотивы «слепого», «хромого», «кривого», «грязного» «мертвого/умирающего» и, в нашем случае, «профессионально ущербного водящего» (свинопаса) получали разъяснение через мета-мотивы «ущербный водящий», «чужой» и «потусторонний»¹². По мнению ряда авторов, игровые физические наказания, применявшиеся к водящим и нарушителям правил, являлись инструментами социального контроля, а сама игра – одним из способов для консолидации половозрастных групп¹³. Битье, щипание, ерошение волос, кричание в уши (*туранье*), которым подвергался проигравший (настоящий или будущий водящий), выполняли также и магические функции, типологически сходные с ритуальным умерщвлением и разрыванием сакрального существа или предмета в обрядах¹⁴.

В современном языкознании инвектива трактуется как «культурный феномен социальной дискредитации субъекта посредством адресованного ему дискурса, который может принимать формы устойчивого языкового оборота». В данной культурной традиции он воспринимается адресатом в качестве оскорбительного¹⁵. По мнению А.П. Костяева, в зависимости от функций следует различать две группы инвективной лексики: «чисто инвективную» и «неинвективную». Первой группе присуща функция понижения социального статуса адресата с намерением оскорбить или унижить, второй – экспрессивная, содержащая негативную оценку и/или эмоционально-экспрессивный компонент без оскорбительной прагматики. Например, жаргонная лексика относится к первой группе, а обценная лексика (мат) – ко второй группе¹⁶. В число функций ругательства, имеющего стилистические маркеры «вульгарный», «грубый», «бранный», среди прочих входят следующие: 1) катаргическая; 2) установление контакта между равными участниками общения; 3) подталкивание к действию или подбадривание¹⁷.

¹⁰ М.В. Гаврилова, *Поэтика*, с. 46, 55, 292.

¹¹ Там же, с. 73.

¹² М.В. Гаврилова, *Поэтика*, с. 150–168.

¹³ И.А. Морозов, И.С. Слепцова, *Круг игры*, с. 474, 483.

¹⁴ М.В. Гаврилова, *Поэтика*, с. 177. И.А. Морозов, И.С. Слепцова, *Круг игры*, с. 515.

¹⁵ А.П. Костяев, *Дискурсивные маркеры вербальной агрессии в профессиональной коммуникации*, „Мир лингвистики и коммуникации” 2010, № 2 (19), с. 105.

¹⁶ Там же, с. 104.

¹⁷ В.И. Жельвис, *Поле брани: Сквернословие как социальная проблема в языках и культурах мира*, Москва 2001, с. 109–132.

В белорусской фольклористике экспрессивная функция инвективы рассматривалась в песнях купальского цикла и свадебной обрядности. «Экспрессивная» инвектива формирует сниженный (негативный) образ адресата, тем самым вскрывая ритуальную антинорму¹⁸. Вторая цель данной работы – выявить переходный и, следовательно, смешанный характер функции инвективы в игре *Свинка*: от «чисто» инвективной (лексика взрослых пастухов) к экспрессивной. При этом можно предположить, что обе функции повлияли на формирование сниженного образа водящего игрока через приписывание ему негативных характеристик: работника с низкой квалификацией (способен пасти только свиней); социального антиобразца («общается» со свиньями, «нечистый»); этнически чуждого антиобразца (бегает и суетится как владелец пивоварни, что закреплено стереотипом о евреях).

Формирование негативного или сниженного образа молодого работника имело место в обрядах посвящения в ремесло. Родство игры с традиционным обрядом, ее богатый на символизм словесный и сюжетный материал, характер двигательной активности и распределения ролей среди участников игры являются теми преимуществами, которые могут заинтересовать учащихся и молодежь. Метод включенного наблюдения в среде взрослых мужчин позволил апробировать изменения в традиционных правилах игры, чтобы снизить риск получения травм, ускорить темп игры, унифицировать ввод в игру и ведение мяча (исключительно клюшкой) для всех игроков.

Семантика и прагматика народной игры: результаты и обсуждение

В детских версиях игры *свинка* представляла собой округлый камушек, кусок дерева в форме шайбы или шара, шишку, толстый и короткий кукурузный початок¹⁹. Названия самой игры соотносились с игровыми локусами и атрибутами: *Котел, Масло, Лунки, Сучка, Уроп, Рожок, Кубарь, Зевака, Клюшки, Кутючок, Зирочек, Пытка, Шар или касло* (все рус.), *Авечка* (блр.). Однако наиболее популярными оказались названия из сферы

¹⁸ К.В. Шилинговский, *Столб обнимать, перед сопухой лежать: ритуал невесты в бане у белорусов*, „Фалькларыстычныя даследаванні: Кантэкст. Тыпалогія. Сувязі: зб. навук. арт.” 2019, вып. 15, с. 127–139; К.В. Шилинговский, *Мифоритуальный субстрат свадебной инвективной образности*, „Веснік Гродзенскага дзяржаўнага ўніверсітэта імя Янкі Купалы. Серыя 3. Філалогія. Педагагіка. Псіхалогія” 2020, т. 10, № 1, с. 52–59.

¹⁹ Е.А. Покровский, *Детские игры, преимущественно русские*, Москва 1895, с. 254. V. Marjanović, *Tradicionalne dečje igre u Vojvodini*, Novi Sad 2005, с. 84. N. Grinevičienė, R. Jarovaitienė, *Tradiciniai žaidimai*, Kaunas 1997, с. 49.

«свиноводства»: *Свіння*, *Свінка* (чернигов., блр.), *Świnka* (пол., мазов.), *W dziką świnie* 'в дикую свинью' (пол., лодз.), *Svinka* (болг.), *Svinca* (серб., Пирот), *Крмача* 'свинья' (серб., Срем), *Крмачица* 'свинка'²⁰. Сходные названия и у других народов: *Kiaūlė varyti dvarą* (лит.) 'загонять свинью во двор', *Sau treiben* (нем.) 'гнать свинью', *Мегороба* (груз.) 'свинопас', *Le go[u]ret* (фр.) 'поросенок', *La truie* (фр.) 'свиноматка'²¹.

В южнославянских источниках речь идет о двух сферах бытования игры: в среде детей и среде взрослых пастухов²². Сходство южно-, западно- и восточнославянских наименований водящего игрока, названий самой игры заключается в том, что они обозначали выполнение обязанности взрослого пастуха по отгону скота с вольного выпаса: *крмачар* (серб.) 'свиновод, свинопас', *свињар* (серб.) 'то же', *пастух* (рус., блр.), *pasterz* (пол.), *svinjko uganjati* (словен.), *swinku goniš do kotla* (н.-луж.), *swini do mĕsta hnati* (чеш.).

Несмотря на то, что в материале преобладает тематика выпаса свиньи, российский исследователь Е.А. Покровский пересказал в издании 1895г. символическую трактовку игры *Свинка (Сучка)*, предложенную И.П. Сахаровым ранее в 1841г. Повторно было сформулировано предположение, что славяне через игру воспитывали в детях воинский дух и символически приучали их к борьбе с врагом: яма – это город, *лунки* – жилища, игроки – жители, защищающие свою собственность, палки – оружие, *свинопас* – неприятель, *сучка* или *свинка* – какое-то орудие неприятеля²³. Такая трактовка, на наш взгляд, является необоснованной. Прагматика игры также не может быть удовлетворительно объяснена через сюжетный тип игр, причисляемых к «мужским» и «спортивным». В новейшем исследовании М.В. Гавриловой, посвященном поэтике традиционных игр, автор предлагает их типологическую классификацию. В соответствие с ней игра *Свинка* относится к классу антагонистических игр с двусторонним противостоянием, условной целью игры и типом цели «Борьба за территорию»²⁴.

Вне поля зрения исследователей остается инвективный модус игры с палками и мячом (*свинкой*). Между тем очевидно, что инвективы

²⁰ А.Ю. Лозка, *Гульні*, с. 254–256. Е.А. Покровский, *Детские игры*, с. 275–278. Е. Cenar, *Gry i zabawy*, с. 224–226. V. Marjanović, *Tradicionalne dečje igre*, с. 87–88. M. Furlan, *An overlooked comparison by Bezljaj: Slovenian čūlek 'pig' and Lithuanian kiaūlė 'sow'*, [in:] *Etymological Research into Czech*, Praha 2017, с. 130. M. Nawrot-Borowska, *Zabawy dzieci na wsi polskiej w II połowie XIX i na początku XX wieku w świetle literatury pamiętnikarskiej*, „Przegląd Pedagogiczny” 2011, nr. 2, с. 57.

²¹ Е. Cenar, *Gry i zabawy*, с. 225; M. Furlan, *An overlooked comparison*, с. 132. N. Grinevičienė, R. Jarovaitienė, *Tradiciniai žaidimai*, с. 49.

²² M. Furlan, *An overlooked comparison*, с. 127.

²³ Е.А. Покровский, *Детские игры*, с. 278.

²⁴ М.В. Гаврилова, *Поэтика*, с. 97.

и наказания составляют функционально-семантический комплекс. Его источником является «сниженный» образ водящего игрока как пастуха свиней, видимо, в отличие от пастухов лошадей и коров. Необходимо учитывать следующий аспект: в рамках христианских воззрений свинья ассоциировалась у восточных славян с персонажами нечистой силы и их физическими атрибутами, евреями, предательством, неуспехом, осуждаемым поведением²⁵. Эта семантика свиньи могла быть причиной формирования презрительного отношения к свинопасам как своего рода «нечистым», глупым, и, следовательно, как пастухам низкой квалификации. В русских народных говорах зафиксировано шутивное «Тебе свиней пасти с длиною дубинякою, Да с серою кобелякою»²⁶, что можно соотнести с названиями и действиями игры: *Svinjko biti* (словен.), *kiaũlę mùšti* (лит.) ‘свинку/свинью бить’²⁷. Свинопас в соответствии со сниженным образом животного имел право загонять и пасти свиней, используя самый грубый способ: бить животных. Такой способ почти не применялся пастухами лошадей, коров, и, видимо, осуждался в отношении этих животных.

Презрительное отношение к пастуху свиней и водящему *Свинки*, возможно, поддерживалось через двухстороннюю взаимосвязь понятий «бьет свиней» – «не умеет пасти, физически слабый, неполноценный, глупый» и вульгарными коннотациями дубинки, клюшки в играх пастухов и детей.

Следует поставить под сомнение предположение, что пасти большое стадо свиней и кабанов или отгонять их на большие расстояния, можно вооружившись одним лишь гибким прутом. На палку с утолщением на конце как инструмент пастуха-свинопаса – ср. *дубиняка* ‘большая дубина’ (терск.) – указывают родственные *дубец* ‘короткая часть цепа; било’ (перм., вят., арх.) и *дубинка* ‘части молотила: кадочка, пудцо’ (вят., ряз.)²⁸. В ряде областей России игра *Масло* и некоторые игры с центральной ямой *масло* описывались как «игра в дубинки» (яроsl., белг., курск., твер.)²⁹. В играх с названиями *Крмача/Тулање* (серб., хорв., Срем) и мн.ч. *Туле* ‘дубинки’ клюшка называлась срб. *ћула* ‘батина са чвором на горњем крају, буца, кијача, тољага’, представляла собой дубинку, палку с утолщением на верхнем конце³⁰.

В сербской, хорватской, белорусской, русской культурах *дубинка*, *клюшка* и просторечное *палка* имели коннотацию иносказательного

²⁵ О.В. Белова, *Свинья*, [в:] СДЭС, Москва 2009, т. 4, с. 573–578.

²⁶ СРНГ, вып. 8, с. 235–236.

²⁷ M. Furlan, *An overlooked comparison*, с. 130–132.

²⁸ СРНГ, вып. 8, с. 235–236.

²⁹ СРНГ, вып. 18, с. 14.

³⁰ V. Marjanović, *Tradicionalne dečje igre*, с. 88–89. М. Стевановић (ред.), *Речник српскохрватскога књижевног језика*, Нови Сад 1967–1976, т. 6, с. 368.

названия мужского полового органа³¹. Ср. явные ассоциации из припевок «Дубинушки» (костр.), исполнявшихся на свадьбах у русских³². На Севере России для игры шаром участники изготавливали палки-биты (*шаровки*) длиной 70–80 см и похожие на лопатки палки. Каждую из двух команд возглавлял игрок-*матка*, который набирал игроков в команды с помощью альтернативных вопросов, например, такого: «Матки, матки, хер или лопатка?»³³. В этом вопросе клюшка также явно ассоциируется с мужским половым членом: ср. шутил. рус. *хер*.

В игре *Кила* (твер.) выигрыш сопровождался фразой «Килу́ нагнать» 'выиграть игру в клюшки'³⁴. На Севере России шар размером 10–15 см в диаметре вырезали из сучка сосны или из *килы* 'березового капа'. В других обрядовых играх соревновательного характера проигравших парней награждали прозвищами: например, эвфемизм *киловники* в масленичной игре в мяч на Русском Севере. Эта кличка, по сообщению С.В. Максимова, считалась очень обидной, унижительной и обозначала «верх презрения»³⁵.

Прозвище водящего *свинопас*, который к тому же имеет дело с дубинкой специфической формы, оказывается в одном ряду с *киловниками* и другими прозвищами неудачников. Пастуха, последним выгнавшего скот на поле в Духов день, у чехов Славонии дразнили *hounivar*, у хорватов – *pezdec*³⁶, у русских под Петров день – «Кила-килачка, попова собачка» (калуж.)³⁷. При вывозе навоза отставшим молодым повозникам кричали: «Тебе кила, тебе хвост», а отставшим в косье, жатве – «Девка, тебе кила!», «Ой, сзади тебе кила!». Девки учили: «Не оставляй бороздку, а то мужик достанется *нутрец*»³⁸. Таким образом *кила* соотносилась с мужской немощью: *нутрец* означал самца, у которого семенные железы находятся в брюшной полости, или жеребца, подвергшегося неполной кастрации³⁹. Ср. рус. *килун*

³¹ Д.В. Айдачич, *Эротическая лексика в славянских языках*, „Мова і культура” 2003, № 6, т. 5, ч. 2, с. 42; Н.П. Антропов, *Белорусские этнолингвистические этюды: 1. колода / колодка*, [в:] Т.А. Агапкина, А.Ф. Журавлев, С.М. Толстая (ред.), *Слово и культура. Памяти Н.И. Толстого*, Москва 1998, т. 2, с. 28. Н.И. Толстой, *Чур и чушь*, [в:] А.Ф. Журавлев (ред.), *Язык и народная культура. Очерки по славянской мифологии и этнолингвистике*, Москва 1995, с. 368. V. Ardalić, *Godišni običaji (Bukovica u Dalmaciji)*, [в:] *Zbornik za narodni život i običaje Južnih Slavena*, Zagreb 1915, knj. 20, sv. 1, с. 47.

³² А.Л. Топорков (науч. ред.), *Русский эротический фольклор. Песни. Обряды и обрядовый фольклор. Народный театр. Заговоры. Загадки. Частушки. Серия: Русская потаенная литература*, Москва 1995, с. 169.

³³ И.А. Морозов, И.С. Слепцова, *Круг игры*, с. 769–770.

³⁴ СРНГ, вып. 13, с. 206.

³⁵ И.А. Морозов, И.С. Слепцова, *Круг игры*, с. 777.

³⁶ Т.А. Агапкина, *Дразнить*, [в:] СДЭС, Москва 1999, т. 2, с. 130.

³⁷ СРНГ, вып. 13, с. 207.

³⁸ И.А. Морозов, И.С. Слепцова, *Круг игры*, с. 339–340.

³⁹ СРНГ, вып. 21, с. 319–320.

‘о человеке или животном (поросятах) с ненормальным развитием яичек’ (калуж.)⁴⁰.

Поэтому вышеприведенные прозвища у русских не следует обязательно связывать с атрибутом игры *кила* ‘мяч’ и грыжей, которая была нередким недугом в крестьянской среде, ср. рус. *кила* ‘грыжа, человек с грыжей’. Слово сочетание «попова собачка» усиливает синекдоху *Кила-килачка* негативной характеристикой, указывающей на старость и, возможно, половую немощь ее адресата. Ср. *старше (старее, старей) поповой собаки* ‘о пожилом человеке или о чем-л. обветшалом’⁴¹. Игровое прозвище *свинопас*, как и работа по выпасу свиней, определенно указывали на негативную оценку окружающими мужских половых способностей и притязаний парней (см. далее о коннотации ‘боров’).

Неопытные работники в обрядах посвящения награждались не только обидными прозвищами, но и физическими наказаниями. Поляки называли молодого косца *fruc* ‘nowicjusz, новичок’ или *wilk* ‘волк’, после работы его хлестали по лицу крапивой, по телу соломой, били ногами до синяков⁴². Похожие наказания содержатся и в сюжете игры *Свинка*, хотя основным наказанием следует считать наделение проигравшего неприятной ролью свинопаса. Мы предполагаем, что если наказание формулируется участниками в виде грубой, непристойной инвективы или фразы с инвективным подтекстом, то существует вероятность внеигрового источника такого наказания.

Фразы с инвективным подтекстом в игре – это естественное продолжение традиции. В настоящее время игра *Свинка* является частью белорусско-польского проекта по обучению народным физическим практикам. Собственный трехлетний опыт игры показывает, что в среде 30-40-летних мужчин постоянно возникали двусмысленные фразы типа: «Uważaj na swoją dziurę» ‘следи за своей дыркой’ или «Włóż twój kij do dziury» ‘засунь свою клюшку в дырку’. Они выполняют экспрессивную функцию: подталкивают к правильному действию и подбадривают неопытных игроков, что также характерно для обрядов посвящения в ремесло.

Похожие инвективы, но в терминах наказаний, обнаруживаются в южнославянских записях игры в ее названии серб. *Zavrń' дупе свињару* ‘сверни задницу свинопасу’ (Шајкаш, Воеводина и Ковиль, Бачка) и игре *Мусликанье*, записанной у русинов в Куцури. Если кто-то из игроков *Мусликанье* «завонялся» (серб. *засмрдео*), т.е. сыграл не по правилам или ударил кого-нибудь по ноге, его наказывали «царской короной». Наказание было болезненным: игроку клали клюшку (серб. *ћула*) на голову, а затем все

⁴⁰ СРНГ, вып. 13, с. 209.

⁴¹ СРНГ, вып. 29, с. 324.

⁴² Г.И. Кабакова, *Парень*, [в:] СДЭС, Москва 2004, т. 3, с. 634.

по очереди ударяли по клюшке столько раз, сколько изначально договорились⁴³. Возможно, окончание игры или ее промежуточный результат в виде призыва «свернуть задницу свинопасу» также реализовывался как наказание с применением клюшки.

Инвективные послы в сербских играх, содержащиеся в формулировках нарушения и наказаний, выполняют в большей степени экспрессивную функцию, так как адресуются неопытному или проигравшему игроку без намерения оскорбить его. Акцент на таких «вульгарно-подбадривающих» обрядовых действиях был распространен в среде пастухов, например, в ночном выпасе лошадей взрослый парень брал новичка за половой член и обводил его вокруг костра (укр., чернигов.)⁴⁴. Игры детей с клюшками (ср. посох пастуха) могли содержать жаргонизмы и инвективную лексику пастухов, сохраняя сходство с обрядами посвящения в ремесло пастухов.

Логично соотнести другие названия игры – *Browar* (пол., блр.) ‘пивоварня’ и загадочное *Czoromaj* (пол.)⁴⁵ со сниженным образом водящего и специфическим поведением пастуха свиней. В белорусской и польской версиях *бровар* означал яму в центре круга, образованного лунками игроков. Согласно сюжету игры водящий суматошно бежит вокруг символической «пивоварни», формируя образ человека, который больше суетится и мельтишит, чем достигает поставленной цели. Этот образ также воплотился в народных выражениях блр. «бегаць як бровар падпаліўшы», «лятаць як жыд бровар запаліўшы»⁴⁶. Таким образом, водящему игры *Browar* опосредованно приписывали странности в поведении, закрепленные стереотипами о владельцах пивоварен и евреев.

Возможно, польское *Czoromaj* является переделкой детьми фразы, источником которой было словосочетание *czrzoda majtać* ‘стадо загонять, болтая или махая ногами’; ср. пол. стар. *czrzoda* ‘стадо скота (особ, овец, коз, свиней)’, в.-луж. *črjoda* ж.р. ‘отряд, группа’, рус., укр. *чередá* ‘стадо’, блр. *чарада́* ‘то же’ и пол. диал. вульг. *majtac* ‘болтать (ногами); махать, вилять (хвостом); колебать, раскачивать’, ‘приводить в движение, махать, двигать ногами’⁴⁷. Таким образом, оба термина *бровар* и *Czoromaj* содержат оскорбительные коннотации суетливости, глупости водящего, его чуждого или неприличного внешнего вида, манеры передвигаться, непрестижности занятия по выпасу свиней среди пастухов.

⁴³ V. Marjanović, *Tradicionalne dečje igre*, с. 88.

⁴⁴ Т.А. Агапкина, *Посвятельные обряды*, с. 191.

⁴⁵ Е. Сенаг, *Gry i zabawy*, с. 225.

⁴⁶ Т.В. Валодзіна, Л.М. Салавей (уклад.), В.М. Макіенка (наук. рэд.), *Слоўнік беларускіх народных параўнаняў*, Мінск 2011, с. 58–59.

⁴⁷ ЭССЯ, вып. 4, с. 60–62. ЭССЯ, вып. 17, с. 134–135.

Игра *Свинка* или *Czoromaj* может трактоваться как один из технических способов установления очередности у пастухов или внеочередного назначения на выпас скота или свиней. Например, согласно свидетельству из Мазовецкого воеводства тот из детей, кто часто проигрывал, должен был присматривать за скотом, когда остальные продолжали играть⁴⁸. Разделение лунок «по старшинству», возможно, также служило этой цели: по окончании игры или нескольких раундов игрок с младшей лунки был следующим, кто отправлялся пасти стадо после смены игрока, потерявшего лунку последним. В Терской и Кубанской областях России лунки игроков различались по старшинству: водящий после попадания *свинки* в центральную яму становился на старшую лунку, а игрок с последней лунки шел загонять *свинку*⁴⁹. Название игры *Czoromaj* в качестве производного из *czrzoda majtać* может иметь источником и более древнюю семантику 'очередь ходить (как свинопас)'. Это в определенной степени согласуется с гипотезой О.Н. Трубачева о существовании скотоводческого термина праслав. **čerda*, определявшего отсчет времени и хозяйственные расчеты между пастухами и родовой общиной. Исходя из значений 'время, пора' в праслав. **čerda*, обозначающем также 'стадо, отряд, вереница; смена, очередь', ученый предположил, что отсчет мог основываться на применении надрезов и зарубок на дощечках⁵⁰.

Заключение: традиционные правила и народная игра на современной свадьбе, отдыхе и во дворе

Главной задачей всех игроков является удержание своей лунки или быстрый захват чужой. Это достигается тем, что игрок, опуская свою палку-ключку в лунку, не допускает в нее палки других и попутно препятствует свинопасу завести или загнать *свинку* ударами ключки в центральную яму. Пастух вбегает в пределы круга извне, действуя в одиночку. В литовской *Kiaũlė varýti dvarą* и сербских версиях игры *Ђуле* и *Заврн' дупе свињару* все наоборот: *свинка* и сам пастух находятся внутри круга из игроков. Он защищает *двор* и препятствует другим игрокам загнать *свинку* во *двор*.

В правилах сербских игр удивительным образом отсутствует требование занять ключкой чужую лунку на периметре круга. Литовский свинопас обязан это сделать, чтобы сменить незавидную роль и присоединиться к другим игрокам. Он препятствует проходу *свинки*, но

⁴⁸ J. Chałasiński, *Młode pokolenie chłopów*, t. I i II, Warszawa 1984, reprint wyd. Państwowego Instytutu Kultury Wsi, Warszawa 1938, t. 1, s. 188. M. Nawrot-Borowska, *Zabawy dzieci na wsi*, s. 57.

⁴⁹ Е.А. Покровский, *Детские игры*, с. 277.

⁵⁰ ЭССЯ, вып. 4, с. 62.

вынужден чаще проигрывать, оставаясь вместе с попавшей в яму *свинкой*. Таким образом, свинопас (лит. *kiauliaganys*) занимает непрестижную позицию и предстает псевдосвинопасом. Если остальные игроки отождествлялись с дикими кабанам (ср. название *W dziką świnie*⁵¹), то в сюжете литовской игры у псевдосвинопаса обнаруживается вторая незавидная роль, а именно роль борова в хлеву, когда туда попадает *свинка*. По правилам после попадания мяча в яму свинопас не меняет своей позиции и не получает доступа к *свинке*.

Упрощение правил в сербских версиях «несправедливо» ставит свинопаса в более выгодную позицию по отношению к другим игрокам, которых он гоняет за выбитой им *свинкой*, хотя и в пределах круга. Он только отбивает шар, имея при этом минимум обязанностей. В большинстве других версий игры водящий игрок направляет все свои усилия на то, чтобы не быть пастухом или свинопасом. Поэтому правила этой сербской игры, возможно, записаны с упущениями; полное описание *Ђуле* не приводится в доступном автору источнике.

Французская игра *Le gofu]ret* ‘поросенок’, *La truie* ‘свиноматка’ и игра *Цуга* из района Бачка в Сербии содержат подтверждение вышеуказанной «несправедливости» и незавершенности игрового сюжета. Сербская игра имеет следующий сюжет: водящий гонит шар извне, чтобы загнать его в *бирцуз*; все игроки по периметру отнимают у него шар, а затем и друг у друга, чтобы загнать его *собственноручно*. Согласно правилам, победителем считается тот, кто смог загнать шар в яму и быстро вернуться на свое место, опустив клюшку в лунку⁵². Чтобы избавиться от роли пастуха, водящему предоставляются два варианта действий: 1) занять чью-нибудь лунку после или до того, как шар загнал другой игрок, и не выиграть, 2) самому загнать шар, успев занять лунку и выиграть.

Во Франции в игре участвовали 11 игроков рядом с лунками и пастух, начинавший игру на удаленной от центральной ямы позиции (рис. 2). Он бросал *свинку* рукой, и при успешном попадании все игроки бежали от лунок к яме и наперегонки засовывали в нее клюшки. Последний становился пастухом. Если мяч приземлялся рядом с ямой, игроки отбивали его обратно в направлении позиции пастуха. Теперь пастух мог гнать мяч только клюшкой, при этом стараясь завладеть лункой зазевавшегося игрока. Оставшийся без лунки игрок заменял пастуха. Пастух также мог загнать мяч в одну из лунок, чтобы запустить процедуру смены⁵³.

В прежней свадебной обрядности *В шар* играли две противоборствующие команды, состоявшие исключительно из мужчин невестинной деревни. Такая традиция может объясняться не только как

⁵¹ M. Nawrot-Borowska, *Zabawy dzieci na wsi*, с. 57.

⁵² V. Marjanović, *Tradicionalne dečje igre*, с. 89.

⁵³ E. Cenar, *Gry i zabawy*, с. 225.

«выкуп невесты из деревни», но, возможно, и дополнение ритуальной защиты жениха, который сам не принимал участия в игре. Жених отдавал шар бесплатно и таким образом посредством *шарового* «откупался» от насмешек и инвективных нападок, которые переходили на проигравших в игре. В качестве развлекательного момента *Свинку* можно включать в сценарий современной свадьбы — деревенской и городской. Игра не сопровождается большими физическими нагрузками: все игроки кроме пастуха по большей части активно передвигаются в пределах четырех квадратных метров. На свадьбе можно ввести правило возрастного ограничения для пастуха: пастух не может быть старше, например, 40 лет.

Игра *Свинка*, как и обряды посвящения в ремесло, способствовала социализации, физическому и психологическому взрослению детей и подростков. Уникальность игры заключается в тактике игроков, защищающих свою лунку и центральную яму. Им необходимо постоянно переключаться с командных действий по защите центральной ямы на сугубо индивидуальные и эгоистические, и обратно. После проведения исследований в рамках педагогики, психологии и социологии игра может успешно практиковаться в образовательных учреждениях с некоторыми ограничениями.

Небольшая площадка для игры диаметром не менее пяти метров не требует ухоженного газона. Она может быстро оборудоваться силами игроков без ущерба для дворовой территории. Деревянные клюшки могут быть как самодельными, так и профессиональными для хоккея на траве. Возраст участников определяется их умением соблюдать требования: не играть высоко поднятой клюшкой и не баловаться с ней. Полагаем, что нужно изъять из правил ввод мяча путем его подбрасывания вверх в направлении центральной ямы в начале игры. В некоторых версиях игры правилами разрешается с лёту отбивать мяч клюшкой, что может приводить к нанесению травмы близко стоящим игрокам. Это изъятие предполагает, что при вводе мяча в игру пастух на выбор или выполняет один удар, или начинает ведение мяча исключительно клюшкой. Целесообразно также ограничить число игроков на периметре круга 4–6 участниками.

Вопреки успешному опыту в Польше автору не рекомендовали развивать и популяризировать игру *Свинка* в Беларуси среди «неорганизованных коллективов», по месту жительства подростков и молодежи в городах. Наличие в руках самодельной клюшки или клюшки для хоккея на траве, и при этом нахождение в общественном месте, например, во дворе многоквартирного дома, может приравняться к ношению бейсбольной биты вне спортивной площадки. Игра *Свинка* не входит в программу спортивно-образовательного проекта «Беларусіяда» для студентов педагогического университета, но, возможно, в будущем заинтересует его руководителей и разработчиков. В данный момент

в программе девять народных игр, включая *Ланту* и *Стрельбу* из рогатки⁵⁴. Можно также надеяться, что игра станет общим белорусско-польским культурным явлением и брендом.

Словари

- Валодзіна Т.В., Салавей Л.М. (уклад.), Макіенка В.М. (наук. рэд.), *Слоўнік беларускіх народных параўнанняў*, Беларуская навука, Мінск 2011.
- Стевановић М. (ред.), *Речник српскохрватскога књижевног језика*, Матица српска и Матица Хрватска, Нови Сад 1967–1976, т. 1–6.
- СДЭС – Толстой Н.И. (общ. ред.), *Славянские древности: этнолингвистический словарь*, Международные отношения, т. 1–5: Москва 1999, т. 2, Москва 2004, т. 3, Москва 2009, т. 4.
- СРНГ – Филин Ф.П., Сороколетов Ф.П., Мызников С.А. (ред.), *Словарь русских народных говоров*, Наука, вып. 1–49: Ленинград 1972, вып. 8, Ленинград 1977, вып. 13, Ленинград 1982, вып. 18, Ленинград 1986, вып. 21, Санкт-Петербург 1995, вып. 29.
- ЭССЯ – Трубачёв О.Н., Журавлев А.Ф. (ред.), *Этимологический словарь славянских языков*, Наука, вып. 1–40: Москва 1977, вып. 4 (*čaběnitī–*děl’a), Москва 1990, вып. 17 (*Ізьь–*matješьпъь).

Библиография

- Агапкина Т.А., *Дразнить*, [в:] СДЭС, Москва 1999, т. 2, с. 129–130.
- Агапкина Т.А., *Посвятительные обряды*, [в:] СДЭС, Москва 2009, т. 4, с. 189–195.
- Айдачич Д.В., *Эротическая лексика в славянских языках*, „Мова і культура” 2003, № 6, т. V, ч. 2, с. 38–45.
- Антропов Н.П., *Белорусские этнолингвистические этюды: 1. колода / колодка*, [в:] Т.А. Агапкина, А.Ф. Журавлев, С.М. Толстая (ред.), *Слово и культура. Памяти Никиты Ильича Толстого*, Индрик, Москва 1998, т. 2, с. 21–33.
- Белова О.В., *Свинья*, [в:] СДЭС, Москва 2009, т. 4, с. 573–578.
- Бернштам Т.А., *Мяч в русском фольклоре и обрядовых играх*, [в:] Б.Н. Путилова (ред.), *Фольклор и этнография: У этнографических истоков фольклорных сюжетов и образов*, Наука, Ленинград 1984, с. 162–171.
- Гаврилова М.В., *Поэтика традиционных восточнославянских игр*, 2-е изд. (эл.), РГГУ, Москва 2019.

⁵⁴ А.В. Дрыгін, *Спартыўна-адукацыйны праект БДПУ „Беларусіяда”*. URL: <https://bspu.by>.

- Грынблат М.Я., Малчанова Л.А., *Новыя з'явы ў быце калгаснай вёскі*, [в:] І.С. Краўчанка (рэд.), *Беларускі этнаграфічны зборнік*, Акадэмія навук БССР, Мінск 1958, вып. 1, с. 5–121.
- Дрыгін А.В., *Спартыўна-адукацыйны праект БДПУ „Беларусіяда”*, URL: <https://bspu.by/blog/drygin/article/publish/spartyuna-adukacyjny-praekt-bdpu-belarusiyada> (дата обращения: 08.09.2020).
- Жельвис В.И., *Поле брани: Сквернословие как социальная проблема в языках и культурах мира*, Ладомир, Москва 2001.
- Кабакова Г.И., *Парень*, [в:] СДЭС, Москва 2004, т. 3, с. 633–635.
- Колчин Б.А., *Новгородские древности. Резное дерево*, [в:] *Свод археологических источников*, вып. Е1–55/2, Наука, Москва 1971.
- Костяев А.П., *Дискурсивные маркеры вербальной агрессии в профессиональной коммуникации*, „Мир лингвистики и коммуникации” 2010, № 2 (19), с. 101–109. URL: <http://www.tverlingua.ru> (дата обращения: 08.09.2020).
- Лозка А.Ю., *Гульні, забавы, ігрышчы*, 2-е выд., Беларуская навука, Мінск 2000.
- Морозов И.А., Слепцова И.С., *Круг игры. Праздник и игра в жизни севернорусского крестьянина (XIX–XX вв.)*, Индрик, Москва 2004.
- Покровский Е.А., *Детские игры, преимущественно русские*, Типо-литография В.Ф. Рихтер, Москва 1895.
- Толстой Н.И., *Чур и чушь*, [в:] А.Ф. Журавлев (ред.), *Язык и народная культура. Очерки по славянской мифологии и этнолингвистике*, Индрик, Москва 1995, с. 364–370.
- Топорков А.Л. (науч. ред.), *Русский эротический фольклор. Песни. Обряды и обрядовый фольклор. Народный театр. Заговоры. Загадки. Частушки. Серия: Русская потаенная литература*, Ладомир, Москва 1995.
- Шилинговский К.В., *Мифоритуальный субстрат свадебной инвективной образности*, „Веснік Гродзенскага дзяржаўнага ўніверсітэта імя Янкі Купалы. Серыя 3. Філалогія. Педагагіка. Псіхалогія” 2020, т. 10, № 1, с. 52–59.
- Шилинговский К.В., *Столоб обнимать, перед сопухой лежать: ритуал невесты в бане у белорусов*, „Фалькларыстычныя даследаванні: Кантэкст. Тыпалогія. Сувязі: зб. навук. арт.” 2019, вып. 15, с. 127–139.
- Ardalić V., *Godišni običaji (Bukovica u Dalmaciji)*, [в:] *Zbornik za narodni život i običaje Južnih Slavena*, Zagreb 1915, knj. 20, sv. 1, с. 32–52.
- Cenar E., *Gry i zabawy ruchowe różnych narodów*, Nakł. Związku Polskich Gimnastycznych Towarzystw Sokolich, Lwów 1906.
- Chałasiński J., *Młode pokolenie chłopów*, t. I i II, Ludowa Spółdzielnia Wydawnicza, Warszawa 1984, reprint wyd. Państwowego Instytutu Kultury Wsi, Warszawa 1938.

Furlan M., *An overlooked comparison by Bezljaj: Slovenian čūlek 'pig' and Lithuanian kiaūlė 'sow'*, [in:] I. Janyšková, H. Karlíková, V. Boček (eds.), *Etymological Research into Czech, Nakladatelství Lidové noviny*, Praha 2017, c. 127–142.

Grinevičienė N., Jarovaitienė R., *Tradiciniai žaidimai, Šviesa*, Kaunas 1997.

Marjanović V., *Tradicionalne dečje igre u Vojvodini*, Matica srpska, Novi Sad 2005.

Nawrot-Borowska M., *Zabawy dzieci na wsi polskiej w II połowie XIX i na początku XX wieku w świetle literatury pamiętnikarskiej*, „Przegląd Pedagogiczny” 2011, nr. 2, c. 39–64.

References

Dictionaries (transliteration)

Valodzina T.V., Salavey L.M. (uklad.), Makienka V.M. (navuk. red.), *Sloŭnik belaruskikh narodnykh paraŭnannyaŭ*, Belaruskaya navuka, Minsk 2011.

Stevanoviĥ M. (red.), *Rechnik srpskokhrvatskoga kȓizhevnoĝ jezika*, Matitsa srpska i Matitsa Khrvatska, Novi Sad 1967–1976, t. 1–6.

SDES – Tolstoy N.I. (obshch. red.), *Slavyanskije drevnosti: etnolingvisticheskiy slovar'*, Mezhdunarodnye otnosheniya, t. 1–5: Moskva 1999, t. 2, Moskva 2004, t. 3, Moskva 2009, t. 4.

SRNG – Filin F.P., Sorokoletov F.P., Myznikov S.A. (red.), *Slovar' russkikh narodnykh govorov*, Nauka, vyp. 1–49: Leningrad 1972, vyp. 8, Leningrad 1977, vyp. 13, Leningrad 1982, vyp. 18, Leningrad 1986, vyp. 21, Sankt-Peterburg 1995, vyp. 29.

ESSYa – Trubachev O.N., Zhuravlev A.F. (red.), *Etimologicheskiy slovar' slavyanskikh yazykov*, Nauka, vyp. 1–40: Moskva 1977, vyp. 4 (*čaběnitī–*děl'a), Moskva 1990, vyp. 17 (*l'ž'–*matješ'n"j').

Bibliography (transliteration)

Agapkina T.A., *Draznit'*, [v:] SDES, Moskva 1999, t. 2, s. 129–130.

Agapkina T.A., *Posvyatitel'nye obryady*, [v:] SDES, Moskva 2009, t. 4, s. 189–195.

Aydachich D.V., *Eroticheskaya leksika v slavyanskikh yazykakh*, „Mova i kul'tura” 2003, № 6, t. V, ch. 2, s. 38–45.

Antropov N.P., *Belorusskie etnolingvisticheskie etyudy: 1. koloda / kolodka*, [v:] T.A. Agapkina, A.F. Zhuravlev, S.M. Tolstaya (red.), *Slovo i kul'tura. Pamyati Nikity Il'icha Tolstogo*, Indrik, Moskva 1998, t. 2, s. 21–33.

Belova O.V., *Svin'ya*, [v:] SDES, Moskva 2009, t. 4, s. 573–578.

- Bernshtam T.A., *Myach v russkom fol'klоре i obryadovykh igrakh*, [v:] B.N. Putilova (red.), *Fol'klор i etnografiya: U etnograficheskikh istokov fol'klornykh syuzhetov i obrazov*, Nauka, Leningrad 1984, s. 162–171.
- Gavrilova M.V., *Poetika traditsionnykh vostochnoslavyanskikh igr*, 2-e izd. (el.), RGGU, Moskva 2019.
- Grynblat M.Ya., Malchanava L.A., *Novyya z'yavy ŷ bytse kalgasnay veski*, [v:] I.S. Kraŷchanka (red.), *Belaruski etnagrafichny zbornik*, Akademiya navuk BSSR, Minsk 1958, vyp. 1, s. 5–121.
- Drygin A.V., *Spartyŷna-adukatsyyuny praekt BDPU „Belarusiyada”*, URL: <https://bspu.by/blog/drygin/article/publish/spartyuna-adukacyjny-praekt-bdpu-belarusiyada> (data obrashcheniya: 08.09.2020).
- Zhel'vis V.I., *Pole brani: Skvernoslovie kak sotsial'naya problema v yazykakh i kul'turakh mira*, Lodomir, Moskva 2001.
- Kabakova G.I., *Paren'*, [v:] SDES, Moskva 2004, t. 3, s. 633–635.
- Kolchin B.A., *Novgorodskie drevnosti. Reznoe derevo*, [v:] *Svod arkheologicheskikh istochnikov*, vyp. E1–55/2, Nauka, Moskva 1971.
- Kostyaev A.P., *Diskursivnye markery verbal'noy agressii v professional'noy kommunikatsii*, „Mir lingvistiki i kommunikatsii” 2010, № 2 (19), s. 101–109. URL: <http://www.tverlingua.ru> (data obrashcheniya: 08.09.2020).
- Lozka A.Yu., *Gul'ni, zabavy, igryshchy*, 2-e vyd., Belaruskaya navuka, Minsk 2000.
- Morozov I.A., Sleptsova I.S., *Krug igry. Prazdnik i igra v zhizni severnorusskogo krest'yanina (XIX–XX vv.)*, Indrik, Moskva 2004.
- Pokrovskiy E.A., *Detskie igry, preimushchestvenno russkie*, Tipo-litografiya V.F. Rikhter, Moskva 1895.
- Tolstoy N.I., *Chur i chush'*, [v:] A.F. Zhuravlev (red.), *Yazyk i narodnaya kul'tura. Oчерki po slavyanskoy mifologii i etnolingvistike*, Indrik, Moskva 1995, s. 364–370.
- Toporkov A.L. (nauch. red.), *Russkiy eroticheskiy fol'klор. Pesni. Obryady i obryadovyy fol'klор. Narodnyy teatr. Zagovory. Zagadki. Chastushki. Seriya: Russkaya potaennaya literatura*, Lodomir, Moskva 1995.
- Shilingovskiy K.V., *Miforital'nyy substrat svadebnoy invektivnoy obraznosti*, „Vesnik Grodzenskaga dzyarzhaj'naga ŷniversiteta imya Yanki Kupaly. Seryya 3. Filalogiya. Pedagogika. Psichalogiya” 2020, t. 10, № 1, s. 52–59.
- Shilingovskiy K.V., *Stolb obnimat', pered sopukhoy lezhat': ritual nevesty v bane u belorusov*, „Fal'klarystychnyya dasledavanni: Kantekst. Typalogiya. Suvyazi: zb. navuk. art.” 2019, vyp. 15, s. 127–139.

Deklaracja braku konfliktu interesów

Autor deklaruje brak potencjalnych konfliktów interesów w odniesieniu do badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Народная игра Свинка: генезис, семантика, адаптация правил игры*.

Finansowanie

Autor nie otrzymał żadnego wsparcia finansowego w zakresie badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Народная игра Свинка: генезис, семантика, адаптация правил игры*.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author declared no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *Народная игра Свинка: генезис, семантика, адаптация правил игры*.

Funding

The author received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *Народная игра Свинка: генезис, семантика, адаптация правил игры*.

Maciej BARANIAK*

<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9200-3182>

“Kumoterki”, tradition, sport and cultural heritage

Jak cytować [how to cite]: M. Baraniak, “Kumoterki”, *tradition, sport and cultural heritage*, “Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” 2021, t. 4, nr 1, s. 75–86.

Kumoterki, tradycja – sport – dziedzictwo kulturowe

Streszczenie

W gwarze podhalańskiej słowo „kumoterki” oznacza małe, dwuosobowe sanki tradycyjnie zaprzęzione w jednego konia. Pochodzi ono od słowa „kumotrzy”, czyli rodzice chrzestni, którzy takimi właśnie saniami zawozili nowo narodzone dziecko do chrztu. Kumoterki, używane przez górali już w XIX w., były arcydziełem sztuki snycerskiej. Wiele uwagi poświęcono precyzji wykonania, wyborowi materiału oraz ornamentyce. Początkowo stanowiły podstawowy środek transportu w okresie zimowym. W okresie międzywojennym, ze względu na stopniowy rozwój motoryzacji, kumoterki utraciły swój użytkowy charakter i stały się pojazdem wyścigowym.

Pierwsze wyścigi kumoterek miały miejsce w Zakopanem w 1929 r. Były one corocznym wydarzeniem aż do 1939 r. Po II wojnie światowej wyścigi kumoterek zostały reaktywowane w 1962 r. w Zakopanem, a po kilku latach przerwy w 1972 r. w Bukowinie Tatrzańskiej. W latach 70. XX w. wyścigi kumoterek traktowano bardziej jako wydarzenia towarzyskie i zabawę ludową niż zawody sportowe. Konie, które w tamtym czasie brały udział w wyścigach, wykorzystywano do codziennej pracy na roli i nie były specjalnie przygotowywane do zawodów. Sytuacja zmieniła się diametralnie z początkiem lat dziewięćdziesiątych, po sprowadzeniu na Podhale koni sportowych. Od tamtej pory wyścigi kumoterek przybrały formę typowych zawodów sportowych, starsi górale zaczęli rezygnować z konkurencji szybkościowych, pozostawiając miejsce młodym zawodnikom. Rywalizacja sportowa oraz chęć osiągnięcia najlepszego czasu przejazdu wyparła element zabawowo-towarzystki tej imprezy.

Słowa kluczowe: kumoterki, wyścigi sań, sport, tradycja, Podhale.

* dr, Polskie Towarzystwo Historyczne, Oddział w Nowym Targu [Polish Historic Association, Nowy Targ Department]; e-mail: maciek.galop@op.pl

Abstract

In the dialect of Polish Tatra highlanders the word "kumoterki" indicates a small two-person sleigh traditionally harnessed to one horse. It is derived from the word "kumotrzy" which is godparents who used the horse team to get with a newborn baby to church to have the child baptised.

Since the mid-19th-century horse-drawn sleighs used by Tatra highlanders have been the masterpieces of woodcarving art. A lot of attention has been paid to the precision of workmanship, the choice of material and ornamentation. Initially, they were used as the means of transport during snowy winters in the Polish Tatra region. During the Interwar period, due to the development of mass motorization, horse-drawn sleighs lost their utilitarian character and people started to use them in racing events. The first horse-drawn sleigh race took place in Zakopane in 1929. It was an annual event until 1939. After World War 2, horse-drawn sleigh races were reactivated in 1962 in Zakopane and after that, after a few-year break, in 1972 in Bukowina Tatrzańska.

In the 1970s horse-drawn sleigh races were treated mostly as social events and folk festivities rather than sports competitions. Horses that took part in the races at that time were used to work mainly on the farmland and were not specially prepared for the races. This situation changed completely at the beginning of the 1990s after sport horses had been brought to Podhale. Since then horse-drawn sleigh races have become typical sports competitions; older highlanders started to resign from speed racing leaving the place for young contestants. Sports rivalry and willingness to achieve the best time of a ride displaced the fun and entertainment factor of this event.

Keywords: kumoterki, horse-drawn sleigh races, sport, tradition, Podhale.

This dissertation aims to present the genesis and development of kumoterki races in Podhale from 1929 until the present day. The history of the competitions, despite great interest in them, has rarely been discussed in scientific studies. M. Baraniak¹ and partly R. Urban² discussed this phenomenon in their studies. Therefore, press releases, protocols on competitions and interviews with organizers of these events were the source basis for this work.

The study uses the method of analysis of historical sources, synthesis, comparison, induction and deduction. The thesis puts forwards the following research problems:

1. What was the genesis of the kumoterka?
2. How did the transformation of the kumoterki proceed?

Podhale is a region where costume, dialect, customs, singing and music are elements cultivated for generations and constantly present in the everyday life of Podhale highlanders. One of such elements maintained until the present day are the "kumoterki" races, a phenomenon not encountered in other regions of Poland.

¹ M. Baraniak, *Sport w Zakopanem w okresie dwudziestolecia międzywojennego*, Novae Res, Gdynia 2015; idem, *Sporty hipiczne w Zakopanem w dwudziestoleciu międzywojennym XX wieku*, [in:] J. Dżereń (ed.), *Z dziejów Kultury Fizycznej Polski oraz wybranych regionów i mniejszości narodowych*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Szkoły Wyższej im. Pawła Włodkowica w Płocku, Płock 2011; idem, *Wy moje koniusie... Studium z zakresu hodowli i użytkowania koni na Podhalu*, Nowy Targ 2018.

² R. Urban, *Geneza i rozwój skjøringu i ski-skjøringu w Polsce w okresie międzywojennym*, [in:] L. Rak (ed.), *Sporty zimowe w tradycji polskiej kultury fizycznej*, Wydawnictwo Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie, Częstochowa 2011.

“Kumoterki” are ancient two-person sleighs used by the highlanders of Podhale region as early as the beginning of the 19th century. The name of the kumoterki sleighs is derived from the word “kumotrzy” meaning godparents in the Highlander dialect who used such sleighs to take their newborn children to be baptized, while the parents and the rest of the guests waited at home for their return from church. It was an old custom resulting from the specific religiousness of the Podhale highlanders which was a synthesis of Christian and pagan notions, and even magical practices used in pastoral cultures. One such practice stipulated that a woman in confinement was unclean for six weeks and could not attend services, receive the sacraments, enter the church, or touch relics or consecrated objects³.

“Kumoterki” sleighs were masterpieces of woodcarving art, carefulness of workmanship, choice of material and traditional ornamentation were issues of great significance for highlanders. Most often, local wood species: ash, beech or elm were used for the manufacture of the kumoterki sleighs. There were also copies woven with ash slats. According to Jan Bieniek, a foreman from Bukowina Tatrzańska: “[...] the best material to manufacture kumoterki is wood from ash trees of the female kind growing on southern slopes, seasoned after cutting in a block for two years”⁴.

The sleighs have a specific design with a low centre of gravity, the sleigh man sits with his legs stretched out and leans against the back of the sleigh. The inside of the sleigh was not fitted with a soft seat, but it was padded with straw or hay and a woollen blanket that covered the seat thus prepared. During frosts, people in sledges were covered with sheepskins called “baranica”.

The oldest description of this type of sleighs was found in a work entitled *Zdobienie i sprzęt ludu polskiego na Podhalu. Zarys życia ludowego* [*Decorations and equipment of Polish people in the Podhale region. An Outline of Folk Life*] by Władysław Matlakowski, quote:

The *sleigh*, is almost the most beautiful, most carefully and firmly finished thing in Podhale, some are so slim that they look like a feather. Transferred to the city, and suitably altered for convenience, they would have made an impression on sportsmen who would have adopted them for harnessing and for sliding⁵.

Until the beginning of the 20th century, they were the primary means of transportation during the winter. Sleighs were usually drawn by a single horse, and pairs of horses were rare. Until the end of the 19th century, most of the horses used in Podhale were individuals with features of primitive breeds, of small height and poor conformation, the so-called “mierzyna”. Following an avalanche

³ B. Ogrodowska, *Polskie tradycje i obyczaje rodzinne*, Sport i Turystyka Muza SA, Warszawa 2012, p. 45.

⁴ Jan Bieniek report of 20.10.2020. All transl. – author.

⁵ W. Matlakowski, *Zdobienie i sprzęt ludu polskiego na Podhalu. Zarys życia ludowego*, Warszawa 1901, p. 172.

of tourist traffic that could be observed at the turn of the 19th and 20th, horse transport developed and the number of horses in Podhale increased. The quality of horses used also improved considerably. Individuals with primitive traits were replaced by noble horses of the Małopolska type.

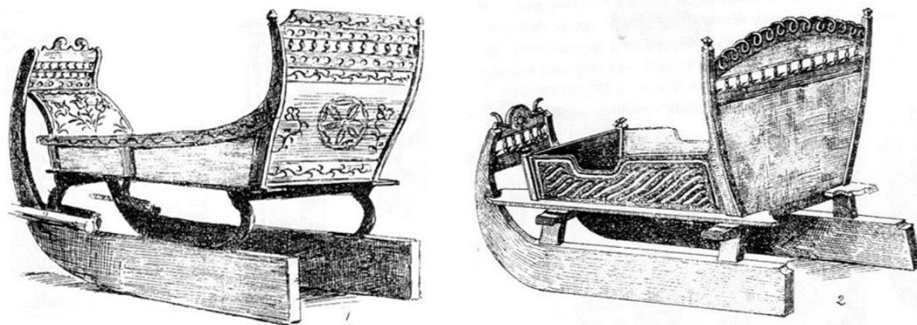


Fig. 1. Kumoterki drawing by P. Paszkiewicz

Source: W. Matlakowski, *Zdobienie i sprzęt ludu polskiego na Podhalu*, Warszawa 1901.

The interwar period was the period of the greatest development of many localities in the Podhale region and the transformation of Zakopane from a small mountain village to a well-known cultural and sports centre. A network of paved roads was developed, as well as railway connections, newly established transport companies were introducing bus transport. With civilisation progress, highlanders gradually gave up on horse-drawn transport, also kumoterki sleighs lost their utilitarian function to be used more and more often as a racing vehicle⁶.

For the first time, kumoterki appeared at the starting line on 29 December 1929⁷. The races were held for the opening of sports stadiums located in Równia Krupowa in Zakopane⁸. The construction of the stadiums was initiated by the Committee for Sports Events (hereafter: KIS) established in 1929 associating representatives of intellectual and sports circles. The main objective of KIS was to organize sports competitions in the city, to build sports infrastructure, and to attract sponsors to execute these tasks⁹. The establishment of the new facility meant a breakthrough in the history of sport in Zakopane which until then was perceived mainly through dynamically developing skiing. In addition to horse competitions,

⁶ M. Baraniak, *Sporty hipiczne...*, p. 615.

⁷ "Ilustrowany Kuryer Codzienny" 1929, no. 357, p. 9; „Światowid” 1930, no. 2, p. 6.

⁸ "Tygodnik Zakopiański" 1928, no. 6, p. 3; R. Urban, *Geneza i rozwój skjöringu i ski-skjöringu w Polsce...*, p. 170–171.

⁹ The most important achievement of KIS is considered to be the construction of two sports stadiums at Równia Krupowa park in Zakopane with funds raised from the resort's budget, Bank Podhalański, Baron Götz Okocimski and J.A. Baczewski.

the stadiums hosted hockey matches, skating and shooting competitions, automobile and motorcycle races, and athletic competitions in the summer. Since 1931, during the summer season, Mountain Opera staged *Halka* and *The Haunted Manor* by Stanisław Moniuszko, *Pomsta Jontkowa* [*Jontek's Vengeance*] by Bolesław Wallek-Walewski and *The Castle of Czorsztyn* by Karol Kurpiński¹⁰.

The first season of KIS winter events in 1929 was opened with horseback riding competitions organized with the significant participation of the Lesser Poland Riding Club based in Lviv presided at the time by Count Robert Lamezan Sallins¹¹. Apart from jumping contests, flat and hurdle races which civilian and military riders competed in, "Highlander Races" were also held which also included the following events: races of cougars, skjöring races (a luge behind a horse), ski skjöring races (a luge behind a rider), and horse-drawn carriage races¹².

Traditionally, one horse with Podhale harness was teamed by a man (gazda – farmer) accompanied by a woman (gażdżina) – both had to wear traditional highlander costumes. Races started jointly with three to five sleighs in a single race. Kumoterki sleigh competition became a popular entertainment among both highlanders and tourists visiting the stadium at Równia Krupowa park. For the highlanders, participation in the races provided an opportunity to test their teaming skills, their horses' training level, as well as to present festive costumes, vehicles and harnesses to the public. "Highlander Races" permanently entered the program of winter sports events in Zakopane, they were held several times during the winter season, from December 1929 to January 1939. The most successful contestants of that period included the following carriage drivers: Jan Ślimak, Józef Klimek, Stanisław Karpiel-Pietrusiak, Józef Stopka, Stanisław Pitoń. Władysław Chyc, Paweł Okręglak, and skiers: Józef Ustupski and Bronisława Staszek-Polankowa (multiple Polish ski champion)¹³.

World War 2 and the 1950s were a tough time for the country. War damage and poverty were not favourable to the organisation of horse-riding competitions. The Slovakian, German and later Soviet troops stationed in the area committed mass requisitions and ordinary thefts following which the number of horses in Podhale decreased significantly.

Only after a 23-year break, in 1962, the tradition returned. In that year, as in 1929 and 1939, Zakopane was selected as the organizer of the International Championships of FIS Ski Federation. During the championships, many accom-

¹⁰ Materials relating to the Sports Events Committee, (AMT), ref. AR/NO/308; L. Długołęcka, M. Pinkwart, *Zakopane – Przewodnik historyczny*, PTTK "Kraj", Warszawa 1989, p. 160.

¹¹ "Wokół Koni" – supplement to "Kości Polski" 2002, no. 3, p. 64.

¹² "Zakopane" 1930, no. 1, p. 4.

¹³ M. Baraniak, *Sport w Zakopanem...*, p. 171–180; "Raz, Dwa, Trzy" 1931, no. 27, p. 1; "Zakopane" 1931, no. 1, p. 3; "Echo Zakopiańskie" 1931, no. 1, p. 4; "Echo Zdrojów Podhala i Karpat" 1932, no. 1–2, p. 4; "Zakopane i Tatry" 1932, no. 1, p. 7; "Raz, Dwa, Trzy" 1933, no. 2, p. 1; "Ilustrowany Kurjer Codzienny" 1936, no. 20, p. 1; 1937 no. 36, p. 1; 1938, no. 17, p. 3.

panying events were held aimed at showing the heritage and cultural achievements of the Podhale region. Regional bands gave concerts, a highland wedding was staged, and a kumoterki and skjörung race was organized which was more like a show than a sports competition with 28 competitors taking part in it¹⁴.



Photo. 1. Kumoterki race start, Zakopane 1931 r.

Source: National Digital Archives, ref. 1-S-2903-23.

Zakopane again held kumoterki races in 1964–65 on the occasion of the “Carnival of Zakopane” and several times in the seventies as part of Smokowiec-Zakopane towns competition and after this period the event was moved to Bukowina Tatrzańska¹⁵.

The first kumoterki races in Bukowina Tatrzańska were held on 14 March 1965. 28 competitors from Bukowina, Gliczarów, Zakopane, Poronin and Zub-suche took part in the competition. The winner of the kumoterki race was Pietras Bronisław, ski-skjörung Budz Franciszek and Sztokfisz Kazimierz, all from Bukowina Tatrzańska. The initiator and organizer of the event were the President of the Folk House, Józef Pitorak and Community Cooperative in Bukowina¹⁶.

After 1965 there was a break in the organization of the Bukowina kumoterki races due to problems with raising funds and with owners of the lands on which the competitions were organized. The breakthrough date in the history of the Podhale kumoterki sleigh race was 1972 when Józef Koszarek, the initiator and creator of the “Highlander Carnival”, a local folklore event which over the years has

¹⁴ “Dziennik Polski” 1962, no. 27, p. 6.

¹⁵ “Dziennik Polski” 1964, no. 33, p. 4; 1965, no. 45, p. 6.

¹⁶ Minutes of the competition on 15.03.1965. Dom Ludowy w Bukowinie Tatrzańskiej [Folk House in Bukowina Tatrzańska].

grown to the rank of a several-day highlander winter festival, was appointed the Chairman of the Folk House in Bukowina. Since 1973, the kumoterki sleigh race has been a permanent attraction of the "Highlands Festival" in Bukowina Tatrzańska¹⁷. With the efforts of chairman J. Koszarek, the owners of the Pod Skocznią (Ski Jump) land have reached an agreement and many sponsors have been attracted, including Cooperative Bank in Bukowina, "Samopomoc Chłopska" Provincial Association of Agricultural Cooperatives, "Rolnik Polski" magazine, "Tatry" Provincial Tourist Economy Company in Zakopane, "Cepelia" Cooperatives in Nowy Targ and Zakopane.



Photo. 2. "Kumotrzy" in kumoterki sleigh, Bukowina Tatrzańska, interwar period.

Source: Dom Ludowy w Bukowinie Tatrzańskiej [Folk House in Bukowina Tatrzańska].

In this period, two competitions were held: the race of kumoterki and the ski-joring and the final result was determined not only by the journey time but also by the points awarded for the coachman and skier outfit, choice of harness and kumoterki sleigh. Over the years, the races were expanded to include other competitions, and in 1988 a race of hackney carriages –

[...] gazdas carrying ladies and gentlemen around our area (horse-drawn carriages in highland sleighs), skjöring and a kumoter parade (a one-horse carriage in traditional kumoterki) were introduced. In the parades, a committee made up of local "horse breeders" judged the outfits of the contestants, the selection and quality of the sleighs, kumoterki and harnesses, as well as the condition and general appearance of the horses. Since then, the event is known as the "Gazda Parade". The "Kumoter Gońba" name also appeared in Podhale as a modern invention of linguists, but it has no historical or dialect justification¹⁸.

¹⁷ A report by by Józef Koszarek dated 10.10.2020.

¹⁸ M. Baraniak, *Spory hipiczne...*, p. 57.

Young amateurs of snowboarding, wanting to try their efforts at racing, came up with a new competition, i.e. "horse boarding" (snowboarding behind a horse) that was held several times on the Bukowina track arousing great excitement especially among the young audience. Over the years the location of the competition has changed several times, in the first period the competition took place in "Pod Skocznią" and after the Bukowina Thermal Baths started to be raised there, the event was moved to Szymkówka clearing, then to Rusinski Wierch next to Rusin-Ski ski station.

In the seventies, the kumoter races were treated more like social gatherings and folk fun than as sports competitions. Horses competing at that time were used for daily work on land and were not specially prepared for racing. Many of them showed no desire to gallop during starts. The situation changed dramatically in the early nineties, after sport horses, once they finished their racing careers, were imported to the Podhale region. Since then, the kumoter races have turned into typical sports competitions. Older gazdas began to give up on speed competitions making way for the younger competitors¹⁹. The sporting rivalry and the desire to achieve the best time displaced the fun and social element of the event.



Photo. 3. The kumoter race, Kościelisko 2017

Source: author's collections.

Following the example of Bukowina Tatrzańska, the competition in Zakopane was resumed and competitions were also organised in Biały Dunajec,

¹⁹ vet. Józef Baraniak report of 10.110.2020.

Kościelisko, Ludźmierz, Poronin, Rabka and Szaflary (tab. 1). Detailed rules were developed based on the Polish Equestrian Federation rules, the competition was judged by the Provincial Agricultural Cooperatives Association referees. At the beginning of the season, a coordinator responsible for running the ranking is chosen from among the organizers based on which the best horse of the season and the winners of individual competitions are selected.

The political and economic changes that took place in Poland in the 1990s had a significant impact on the agricultural economy which resulted in a progressive decrease in the horse population in Podhale. The decisive factors in this process are, above all, the widespread access to agricultural machinery, the development of motorization, the specialization of farms, as well as the liquidation of many farms, especially smaller ones, mainly associated with the economic emigration of highland youth to Western Europe.

Despite the introduction of subsidies for breeding horses, the largest decrease in the horse population, amounting to as much as 50% of the population, was recorded in 2002–2015²⁰. In addition to the decreasing number of horses and riders, an increasingly common problem for organizers was also the lack of suitable areas to organize Kumoterki Races and Gazdy Parades. The places where the competitions were held over the past decades have been mostly built over with tourist and sports infrastructure

Tab. 1. Kumoterki Races in Podhale after World War 2

Year	City
1962	Zakopane – Opening of the FIS Nordic World Ski Championships
1964–1965	Zakopane – ‘Carnival of Zakopane’
since 1973	Bukowina Tatrzańska “Highlander Carnival”
since 1995	Biały Dunajec
since 1998	Zakopane
since 2002	Poronin
since 2003	Szaflary
2005–2006	Rabka
since 2007	Kościelisko
since 2007	Ludźmierz

Source: own study.

To face the above-mentioned difficulties, changes were made to the rules and youths over 16 years of age were allowed to take part in speed events. Additionally, a class of children’s sledges (ponies) was established in the parade ride. To make the competition more interesting, attempts were made to organize a teaming

²⁰ Polish Horse Breeders Association in Warsaw, statistics 2002–2015.

competition (according to Polish Equestrian Federation rules) for two-horse-driven carriages, and a so-called Horseboarding race (snowboarding behind a horse). Another measure to encourage more competitors to compete was the establishment of high cash prizes for the winners of various competitions.

Furthermore, to maintain this beautiful and unique tradition for future generations, in 2017, Podhale Equestrian Association based in Ludźmierz at the request of dr. Maciej Baraniak obtained from the Ministry of Culture and National Heritage consent to enter the kumoterki race to the National List of Intangible National Heritage²¹. The entry documented the indigenous Podhale origin of this discipline and opened new possibilities of acquiring funds for documenting and organizing competitions.



Photo. 4. The youngest participants in the kumoterki race. “Highland Carnival” Bukowina Tatrzańska 2019

Source: Dom Ludowy w Bukowinie Tatrzańskiej [Folk House in Bukowina Tatrzańska].

Summary

The Podhale highlanders’ fondness for horses, native tradition and culture allowed the traditional horse-drawn kumoter carriage to survive until modern times. Small mountain sleighs were commonly used in the Podhale region as early as the 19th century, but with the development of civilization, they gradually lost

²¹ Decyzja Ministra Kultury i Dziedzictwa Narodowego [Decision of the Ministry of Culture and National Heritage] No. Doz.6480.71.2017 dated. 14.11.2017.

their utilitarian function and became a sports vehicle used during the now-famous kumoterki races. An important role in this transformation was played by the representatives of the military and intelligentsia who, fascinated by the Podhale, invited highlanders to compete in horse competitions in Zakopane. After the difficult post-war years, reactivated kumoter races permanently entered the calendar of sports and folk events in Podhale. To support this unique tradition and maintain the intergenerational transmission, the organizers have taken several measures, one of the most important of which was the inclusion of the "Kumoterka Race" on the National List of Intangible Cultural Heritage.

References

A. Sources

1. Archival Sources

Małopolski Klub Jazdy, Ogólnopolskie zawody konne w Zakopanem – propozycje, Lwów 1929. Archiwum Muzeum Tatrzańskiego w Zakopanem [Lesser Poland Equestrian Club, National Equestrian Competition in Zakopane – proposals, Lviv 1929. Archive of the Tatra Museum in Zakopane], sygn. 617.

Materiały dotyczące Komitetu Imprez Sportowych, Archiwum Muzeum Tatrzańskiego w Zakopanem [Materials concerning the Sports Events Committee, Archive of the Tatra Museum in Zakopane], sygn. AR/NO/308.

2. Printed sources

Protocol from the competition on 15.03.1965. Dom Ludowy w Bukowinie Tatrzańskiej [Folk House in Bukowina Tatrzańska].

Polish Horse Breeders Association in Warsaw, statistics 2002–2015.

Decyzja Ministra Kultury i Dziedzictwa Narodowego [Decision of the Ministry of Culture and National Heritage] no. Doz.6480.71.2017 of 14.11.2017.

3. Press

"Dziennik Polski" 1962, 1964–1965.

"Echo Zakopiańskie" 1931.

"Echo Zdrojów Podhala i Karpat" 1932.

"Ilustrowany Kuryer Codzienny" 1929, 1936, 1937, 1938.

"Przegląd Sportowy" 1929.

"Raz Dwa Trzy" 1931, 1933.

"Światowid" 1930.

"Tygodnik Zakopiański" 1928.

"Wokół Koni" – supplement to "Koń Polski" 2002.

"Zakopane" 1930, 1931.

"Zakopane i Tatry" 1932.

4. Reports

Report of a vet Józef Baraniak of 10.10.2020.

Jan Bieniek report of 20.10.2020.

A report by by Józef Koszarek of 10.10.2020.

B. Literature

1. Publications

Baraniak M., *Sport w Zakopanem w okresie dwudziestolecia międzywojennego*, Novae Res, Gdynia 2015.

Baraniak M., *Sporty hipiczne w Zakopanem w dwudziestoleciu międzywojennym XX w.*, [in:] J. Dżereń (ed.), *Z dziejów Kultury Fizycznej Polski oraz wybranych regionów i mniejszości narodowych*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Szkoły Wyższej im. Pawła Włodkowica w Płocku, Płock 2011, pp. 611–620.

Baraniak M., *Wy moje koniusie... Studium z zakresu hodowli i użytkowania koni na Podhalu*, MK, Nowy Targ 2018.

Długołęcka L., Pinkwart M., *Zakopane – Przewodnik historyczny*, PTTK "Kraj", Warszawa 1989.

Matlakowski W., *Zdobienie i sprzęt ludu polskiego na Podhalu. Zarys życia ludowego*, Warszawa 1901.

Ogrodowska B., *Polskie tradycje i obyczaje rodzinne*, Sport i Turystyka Muza SA, Warszawa 2012.

Urban R., *Geneza i rozwój skjøringu i ski-skjøringu w Polsce w okresie międzywojennym*, [in:] L. Rak (ed.), *Sporty zimowe w tradycji polskiej kultury fizycznej*, Wydawnictwo Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie, Częstochowa 2011, pp. 166–180.

Deklaracja braku konfliktu interesów

Autor deklaruje brak potencjalnych konfliktów interesów w odniesieniu do badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu "Kumoterki", *tradition, sport and cultural heritage*.

Finansowanie

Autor nie otrzymał żadnego wsparcia finansowego w zakresie badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu "Kumoterki", *tradition, sport and cultural heritage*.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author declared no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article "Kumoterki", *tradition, sport and cultural heritage*.

Funding

The author received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article "Kumoterki", *tradition, sport and cultural heritage*.

CZEŚĆ II
TEORIA I METODYKA
WYCHOWANIA FIZYCZNEGO I SPORTU

Anna PAWLIKOWSKA-PIECHOTKA*

<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0429-0327>

Sports and recreation facilities in schools – history and present state

Jak cytować [how to cite]: Pawlikowska-Piechotka A. (2021): *Sports and recreation facilities in schools – history and present state*. Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe, 4, 1, p. 89–113.

Obiekty sportowo-rekreacyjne w szkołach – historia i stan współczesny

Streszczenie

Tradycje szkolnej infrastruktury sportowej mają swoje korzenie w cywilizacjach antycznych, przede wszystkim w gimnazjach i palestrach starożytnej Grecji. Zachowane do naszych czasów ruiny starożytnych budynków gimnazjów w Delfach, Olimpii, Milecie, Priene, Dedyne, Pergamonie, Efezie czy Thermessos, dobrze dokumentują, jak ważna była infrastruktura sportowa, traktowana jako niezwykle istotny element systemu edukacji i wychowania. Greckie gimnazjony i palestry były nie tylko obiektami publicznymi o przeznaczeniu sportowym, ale także miejscem spotkań towarzyskich miejscowej ludności oraz edukacji młodzieży. Współczesne przyszkolne obiekty sportowe (sale gimnastyczne i boiska) wywodzą się z XIX-wiecznej koncepcji programu szkoły, obejmującej także obiekty dla „zespołowych ćwiczeń cielesnych”, jak to wówczas określano. Obecnie, zgodnie z podstawą programową Ministerstwa Edukacji Narodowej, celem zajęć wychowania fizycznego jest przede wszystkim kształtowanie wśród dzieci i młodzieży nawyku aktywności fizycznej. Na tych zajęciach powinno się rozwijać odpowiednie zainteresowania i postawy uczniów. Szkolne zajęcia sportowe powinny zatem zaspokajać w możliwie najpełniejszy sposób potrzeby uczniów, uwzględniając ich zainteresowania, wiek, płeć, dojrzałość fizyczną i psychiczną, posiadane umiejętności, stopień sprawności fizycznej. Aby było to możliwe, podstawa progra-

* Professor, Faculty of Physical Education, Józef Piłsudski University of Physical Education in Warsaw; e-mail: anna.piechotka@gmail.com

mowa zaleca, by zajęcia wychowania fizycznego miały miejsce w dobrze wyposażonych salach gimnastycznych lub na boiskach szkolnych.

Słowa kluczowe: historia sportu, edukacja, obiekty sportowe

Abstract

The tradition of school sports facilities has its roots in ancient civilizations, primarily in ancient Greece. The preserved ruins of gymnasiums at Delphi, Olympia, Milet, Priene, Dedina, Pergamon, Ephesus or Thermessos, document well that sports facilities were a major part of the education system. They served not only for students and sports training but were opened to the public, used for social gatherings, political meetings and disputes. Contemporary school sports facilities derived from the 19th-century concept of the school's educational program. It also included the indoor and outdoor physical education classes and facilities used for 'body-building exercises' - as it was named. In Poland, according to the current basic curriculum of the Ministry of National Education, the goal of physical education is to shape the long life habit of physical activity. The school activities should develop the appropriate interests and attitudes of students. Therefore, school activities should meet the needs, interests and abilities of the individual student as fully as possible. The present regulations of the Ministry of Education demand, that such classes should take place in a well-equipped sports hall or on a school playground.

Keywords: history, sport, education, sports infrastructure.

Introduction

School children must have access to sport and games. Numerous physical benefits include maintaining a healthy weight, preventing obesity and chronic diseases, learning the skills and helping to maintain a healthy lifestyle. The importance of sports in school encompasses more than that. It promotes higher self-esteem, motivates students, increases their mental alertness [15, 16, 25]. The appropriate sport and recreation facilities are extremely helpful to complete these tasks.

The origins of sports and recreation infrastructure accompanying educational facilities have their roots in ancient civilizations, primarily in Greek gymnasiums and palaestras. Preserved ruins of gymnasiums in Delphi, Olympia, Pompeii, Ephesus, Miletus, Priene, Thermessos or Aspendos, along with the accompanying sports fields and baths, prove and document very well, how important, the prioritized element of the education and upbringing system sports and recreation infrastructure was in the ancient world. How important it was in the structure of the city. This was mainly due to the multiple functions of the gymnasium, extremely important for the Greek society at that time. They were public facilities not only for sporting and educational purposes but also served as a place for social gatherings [4, 9].

In Europe, contemporary sports and recreational facilities in schools, come from the nineteenth-century concept of the school's functional program, which also included 'team physical exercises', as it was then described [9, 19].

Currently in Poland, according to the core curriculum of the Ministry of National Education (MEN), the main goal of physical education classes should focus on shaping the habit of long-life physical activity [28]. It means that students' interests and attitudes towards sports and active recreation should be stimulated and developed. For this reason, school activities should meet the needs, interests and abilities of an individual student in the broadest possible way and the appropriate sports facilities (indoor and outdoor) are necessary to complete these tasks responsibly [15, 16].

Today the core curriculum of the Ministry of National Education requires that physical education classes should take place in the gym halls or on the school playgrounds. The school is obliged to provide sports facilities and equipment necessary for students to acquire skills and knowledge in different sports disciplines [27, 28]. However, based on Statistical Office Poland data (years: 2010–2014), it is known, that the spatial distribution of school-based sports and recreation infrastructure in Poland (playgrounds, gym halls, indoor swimming pools) is still neither sufficient nor even [27, 28, 29] (Table 1, 2).

Table 1. Quantitative status of school sports and recreation infrastructure in Poland (years: 2012–2014)

Year / Sports facilities	Basketball court	Soccer field	Handball court	Volleyball court	Beach soccer court	Tennis courts
2012	6572	8965	5697	7328	856	994
2014	6997	9516	6174	3250	1063	11301

Source: author's study, based on Statistical Office Poland, Ministry of Sports and Tourism, Ministry of National Education data [27, 28, 29].

Table 2. Quantity of school sports and recreation infrastructure in Poland, sports halls and indoor swimming pools (years: 2012–2014)

Year / Sports facilities	Sports halls	Indoor swimming pools
2012	<p>Total: 18115</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Sports halls larger than 44 m × 22 m: 634 – Sports halls with dimensions from 36 m × 18 m to 44 m × 22 m: 978 – Sports halls with dimensions from 24 m × 12 m to 36 m × 18 m: 4524 – Sports halls smaller than 24 m × 12 m: 11979 	<p>Total: 229</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Sports swimming pools 25 m × 16 m: 16 – Swimming pools 25 m × 12.5 m: 101 – Training and recreation pools 16.67 m × 8.5 m: 112

Table 2. Quantity of school sports and recreation infrastructure in Poland... (cont.)

Year / Sports facilities	Sports halls	Indoor swimming pools
2014	Total: 18921 (No detailed data for this period)	Total: 236 – Sports swimming pools 25 m × 16 m: 37 – Swimming pools 25 m × 12.5 m: 81 – Training and recreation pools 16.67 m × 8.5 m: 118

Source: author's study based on Statistical Office Poland, Ministry of Sport and Tourism, Ministry of National Education data [27, 28, 29].

The presented material was prepared on the base of the statutory research projects carried out at the Józef Piłsudski University of Physical Education in Warsaw. These scientific projects were undertaken on the base of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education grants. The research was focused on the systematic collection and analysis of data related to the school sports infrastructure – in the past and today. To achieve these goals the research process involved using a variety of methods, research techniques and tools such as historical research (extensive literature survey connected with the problem), contemporary school infrastructure requirements (extensive literature, law regulations and documents survey together with a case study undertaken in the selected schools in Warsaw, a survey performed with the use of structured forms). Analysis and interpretation of the collected data (primary and secondary, qualitative and quantitative) allowed formulating conclusions. This article presents selected research results and the synthesis of a general character.

School sports infrastructure in the antiquity

The concept of functional linking a school with sports and, consequently, educational facilities with sports buildings have their origins in ancient times. Greek gymnasiums were partly roofed constructions, intended primarily for physical exercise under the guidance of a coach, but later they served also for other school activities. There were classrooms for teaching, talking and discussing (exedras), changing rooms (apodyterium), rooms for massages and rubbing with oil (elaiothesion), rooms for sand massages (conisterion), rooms for exercising wrestling and other martial art disciplines (palaestras), indoor racetracks (dromos) and baths (balaneion). In the Hellenistic period gymnasiums were formal structures of diversified programmes, comprising courts for athletes, tanks for bathers, dressing rooms and toilets, stores, places for rest and conversation, exedras and ephebeums, which served as classrooms. It is to be highlighted that palaestra was a wrestling school, whereas today the term is usually used interchangeably with

gymnasium [4, 9]. It should be noted that the gymnasium was a public place, an open educational centre, serving not only young people for education and physical exercise of all kinds but also serving city residents of different age who went there not only for sports training but also for political and philosophical discussions. Few gymnasia had an outdoor swimming pool (Olympia) or stadiums or hippodromes (Olympia, Delphi, Ephesus). The ancient Greek stadium was a 182-metre running track. The first stretch of the track was straight and the last stretch was semicircular. The multifunctional gymnasia, as these located at Olympia, Ephesus and Pergamon, were functionally the prototypes of the Roman *thermae* [4, 9].

School sports infrastructure in the 19th and the early 20th century

Since the end of the 19th century, in many European countries (England, France, Germany, Sweden and Switzerland) educational facilities (schools and boarding schools) have been built along with rich sports infrastructure facilities such as playgrounds, gym halls, even outdoor and indoor swimming pools [1, 3]. In Poland at the beginning of the 20th century, examples of European schools, having various sports facilities (including toilets and showers), were presented in the professional literature and recommended as a good practice in school planning [5]. Unfortunately, this time in Poland, mainly due to financial barriers, such projects were rarely implemented, especially in rural areas of Russian and Austrian partitions. It was no better in the cities, where school classes were regularly conducted in common housing facilities (tenant houses), often short-time rented and poorly adapted to education functions. For example, small, private schools used to be located on a single floor, occupying a regular apartment in a tenement house. In these rooms, physical education classes were not possible to be carried out. One can read about it in numerous memoirs from that period (Zofia Nalkowska, Maria Dąbrowska, Józef Hen, Melchior Wańkiewicz and Kornel Makuszyński). Józef Holewiński, who noticed this problem, wrote in 1908:

Gymnastics, as one of the most important factors in the proper physical development of children, should be included in the programs of all schools without exception. Gymnastic exercises, if weather conditions allow, should be held outdoors; while in bad weather and too much cold – in spacious and well-ventilated school gym halls [5] [all transl. – author].

The guides for architects published in Europe before World War I recommended to erect school gym halls as a separate building (for better sound insulation); recommended dimensions for primary schools were: 10 m × 15 m × 5.5 m; recommended dimensions for secondary schools were: 22 m × 14 m × 5.5 m. Moreover, it was suggested that a multifunctional sports field for team games should be located near the gym hall, and its area should be planned per the number of students – approximately 4 m² per student. To conduct gymnastics classes, it

was recommended to provide an outdoor gym pitch with ‘Swedish ladders’ and a gym hall equipped with climbing ropes, climbing poles, asymmetric bars, pommel horse, vaulting horse, horizontal bars, rings, trampoline spotting rig, parallel bars, springboards.

The books and papers that appeared at that time showed practical examples of how to plan school infrastructure, but the real obstacle was not the lack of knowledge, but the serious limits of financial resources. In Poland, which was then an invaded and conquered country, it was mainly due to the lack of interest of the occupant governments in raising the level of education, including physical culture. Furthermore, within the partition regions, the differences could be also noticed. The educational facilities, including school sports infrastructure, had a relatively better level in the Prussian partition (although they were far worse equipped than schools located in wealthy cities in the interior of Germany), than the sports infrastructure of the schools located in the Austrian and Russian partitions. These were much more neglected. In Poland before World War I, Szkoła Handlowa w Lublinie [the Lublin School of Commerce], which had a gym hall of area 180 m² and additionally a storeroom for gymnastic equipment, was proudly described by the professional press as a unique example of a state-owned educational institution, well equipped in the respect of sports infrastructure (Journal “Architekt”, 1904, pp. 74–75). Another widely praised sensation was the project of the primary school in Warsaw, located at Leszno Street, which was provided with a modern, well-equipped gym hall (Journal “Architekt”, 1907, p. 122).

Naturally, the situation was different in the luxury private schools, which had their edifices and resources and could offer to their students exceptionally rich sports and recreation infrastructure (as gym halls and auditoriums for recreational purposes, exercise fields and well-kept school gardens – a recreation parks). These were based on the functional program modelled on the examples of contemporary modern schools of wealthy European countries: England, France, Germany, Sweden or Switzerland. An example of such a well-equipped private school was the project of Niepubliczne Gimnazjum im. Adama Mickiewicza we Lwowie [Adam Mickiewicz Secondary School in Lviv], located at Senatorska Street, prepared by architects Sosnowski and Zachariewicz (Journal “Architekt”, 1908, p. 94).

It was soon after Poland gained its independence after World War I that Ministerstwo Wierzeń Religijnych i Oświecenia Publicznego [the Ministry of Religion and Public Education] (MWRiOP), introduced several strict and mandatory regulations for planning standards for educational facilities. This way the problem of equipping schools with adequate sports facilities and necessary sports equipment was solved comprehensively – unfortunately only for secondary schools. It should be emphasized, that this does not mean that there were no school gym halls and playing fields in Poland before 1918. However, as it was mentioned earlier, such school sports facilities were very rare, considered mainly

as an unaffordable luxury. The school infrastructure, including sports facilities, largely depended on the investor funds (private, government) and the occupant legislation, which was different in the three partitions: Austrian, Prussian and Russian.

It should also be emphasized that the various names of sports facilities and sports activities at that time, were very different from modern terms. For example, in the professional literature on the subject of physical education in schools in the 19th and the first half of the 20th centuries, the authors used the following terms: for gym halls – ‘a gym house’, ‘a ball house’, ‘a games room’ or ‘an assembly hall’; for the school playground – ‘a body training area’, ‘a physical activities field’; for the indoor ice rink – ‘an artificial slide’, ‘an ice stadium’ or ‘a winter stadium’; for the indoor swimming pool – ‘a bathing house’; for the physical education teachers – ‘a physical exercise teacher’ or a ‘physical educator’ [1, 3, 5].

The Second Republic of Poland (1918–1939)

During the Second Republic of Poland, due to legal regulations and increased awareness of the importance of physical exercise in the development of children, newly erected schools, especially secondary schools (junior high and high schools), were routinely equipped with rooms for conducting sports activities following the latest European trends in this field. Ustawa o zakładaniu i utrzymywaniu publicznych szkół powszechnych [The Act on the Establishment and Maintenance of Public Elementary Schools] (Dziennik Ustaw [Journal of Laws] No. 18 of the Year 1922) imposed the obligation to provide secondary schools with gym halls and sports fields. The guidelines of the Ministry of Religion and Public Education set out in detail the principles of the program [13, 14]. For example, rural primary (elementary) schools only had to provide a ‘recreation room’ of an area of 40 m², where the indoor physical exercises could be carried out. Furthermore, the communication corridors in schools, at least 4 m wide, were considered to be suitable for indoor physical education classes. The legislator also stipulated that in schools not having a special ‘recreation room’ (this was particularly true concerning small rural schools) – simply a classroom could be used for conducting physical exercises lessons, after sliding off the benches. One should not be surprised by such an approach of the Polish government: in 1918 the country was in ruin, funds were scarce, and the main task was primarily to eliminate illiteracy and reorganize public education in the spirit of universal access. Even with these shortages and limits – there was a huge difference and significant progress in comparison to the 19th century when the invaders most often neglected schools and education, as well as physical education and sports infrastructure in schools. It is to be underlined, that during the Second Republic of Poland (the interwar years: 1918–1939), restrictions and limits on sports and rec-

recreation investments mostly concerned only remotely located, rural schools, with a small number of students [13, 14].

The situation was different for junior high and high schools, where more demanding requirements were imposed on school sports infrastructure. This time, the dynamic development of physical education and new teaching methods for this education level, required adequate sports infrastructure in schools. As a consequence, the construction of gym halls for indoor exercise and playgrounds for outdoor exercise was recommended for secondary schools [13, 14]. Reservation of outdoor areas for the team games and physical exercise⁷ of the total area of c. 2000 m², with a minimum width of at least 36 m was recommended. Furthermore, building gym halls with dimensions of 20 m × 10 m × 5.5 m and in its vicinity provide changing rooms, toilets and showers. In 1936, the gym hall equipment was regulated in details by the MWRiOP directive [13]. According to the Ministry's catalogue such apparatuses as, climbing ropes, climbing poles, asymmetric and parallel bars, horizontal bars, vaulting horses, pommel horse, trampoline spotting rig, springboards and benches had to be found in the gym hall. It was interesting that the Ministry regulations did not mention basketball tables or volleyball nets. In 1918–1939, following the Ministry directive, many new schools were planned and erected with sports facilities required by the regulations. For example, in the interwar period of the Second Republic, all the secondary schools newly planned and built in Warsaw had playgrounds for outdoor team games and gym halls for indoor physical exercises, along with cloakrooms, sanitary facilities and showers. The following secondary schools were very well equipped: Gimnazjum im. Stefana Batorego [the Stefan Batory High School], planned by architect Tadeusz Tołwiński; the Miejskie Gimnazjum Żeńskie [Municipal Junior High School] in Rozbrat Street, planned by architect Tadeusz Majewski; the secondary schools [gimnazja miejskie] Stawki Street and Żelazna Street, planned by architect Roman Sołtyński; the secondary school [gimnazjum miejskie] in Krajewskiego Street, designed by architects Romuald Gutt and Józef Jankowski; the school in Kolektorska Street, designed by Wilhelm Henneberg; the secondary school [gimnazjum miejskie] in Zuga Street, planned by Jerzy Przymanowski; secondary school [gimnazjum miejskie] in Raszyńska Street, designed by architects Mieczysław Łokciowski and Maria Wroczyńska; Gimnazjum im. Juliusza Słowackiego [the Juliusz Słowacki High School], designed by architect T. Nowakowski. Not only schools erected in large cities had such rich sports facilities (playgrounds and gym halls). Similar schools were located in wealthy industrialized regions of Gdynia and Silesia. They were: the Zakład dla Głuchoniemych w Lublińcu [School for the Deaf in Lubliniec] (designed by architects Tadeusz Łobos and Jan Zarzycki); Seminarium Nauczycielskie w Pszczynie [the Teachers' Seminary in Pszczyna], which not only had gym hall and the outdoor pitch, but also an open swimming pool (designed by architects E. Cmielowski and W. Soboń). It is true that the sports facilities in the

schools located away from central Poland, in the so-called borderlands (in the eastern regions), were poorly equipped with sports infrastructure. One of the rare examples of a well-equipped school was Gimnazjum Państwowe w Lidzie [the State Junior High School in Lida] (designed by architect Jerzy Beill, 1929). It should be emphasized that the concept of school sports facilities, was developed on the base of activities, enthusiasm and efforts of several professional groups – physical education teachers, coaches, architects, medical doctors, social groups and associations (such as sports clubs), government and private institutions.

It is also worth recalling that since the 19th century, to improve the conditions of students' recreation and learning environment, 'school gardens' have been established in Europe. In Poland, school gardens became popular much later, at the beginning of the 20th century. School gardens had different functions and programs (recreation, didactic), depending on the region of Europe, the period of creation and the degree of education (primary, secondary, vocational schools), but always had a common goal – to provide children with a healthy environment for leisure and learning. During the Second Republic, school gardens were created based on legal regulations, inseparably connected with the construction of a school. Consequently, hundreds of schools in Poland were then designed with a "school garden". In Warsaw, there were: Gimnazjum im. Stefana Batorego [the Stefan Batory Secondary School] (1924), Gimnazjum im. W. Giżyckiego [the W. Giżycki Junior High School] (1924), Państwowe Gimnazjum im. Emilii Plater [the Emilia Plater State Junior High School] (1929), Gimnazjum im. Juliusza Słowackiego [the Juliusz Słowacki Junior High School] (1933). Some of these gardens had occupied a relatively large area and had developed mature landscape forms with a rich composition of park-like character. After 1945 some of these school gardens were converted into urban, public parks (Łódź, Łowicz, Piotrków Trybunalski). Unfortunately, only a few historical school gardens survived until our times, and the current regulations of the Ministry of National Education do not consider creating school gardens [2].

The period after World War II (1945–1990)

In Poland after World War II, due to war damages, despite the enormous efforts to rebuild the country, in the first post-war years, there were significant difficulties with the public access to sports infrastructure. During this period, schools were mostly deprived of playgrounds and gym halls. Even if a school building survived, rarely did it have a playground with sufficient equipment or a gym hall with facilities necessary for physical education classes. An anonymous author of the article titled *Nowy Rok Szkolny* [New School Year], which was published in the weekly Polish magazine "Sportowiec" ["Athlete"], wrote about this problem:

Schools must be helped. They must be provided with sports equipment and have access to gym halls, pitches and swimming pools. They must have qualified instructors and trainers to conduct physical education classes. It is necessary to convince parents (and often school managers) of the importance of physical education in the general process of education (“Sportowiec”, September 1, 1949, p. 3).

The efforts to rebuild Polish schools after the war damages posed a real challenge. The reconstruction process very often involved participation not only of professional building workers but also of teachers, schoolchildren and their parents, often supported by soldiers or volunteering workers from nearby industrial plants. This was the case of the Szkoła Podstawowa [Primary School], located in Dobra Street in Warsaw. In 1948, the school was rebuilt and in 1953 – a gym hall and a playground were completed, through a community effort.

In Poland, shortages of school sports facilities and equipment were so common, that physical education teachers and coaches were forced to look for unconventional solutions. For example, better-equipped schools shared their facilities with the neighbouring schools. Public sports and recreation areas, city parks, riverside boulevards, and in lower urbanized areas – meadows and pastures were used for physical education classes. Know-how manuals were published to help prepare the open area for physical education classes properly, just as in the inter-war period. These guides were addressed to school managers, physical education teachers, coaches and parents, provided them with tips and ready-made technical and organizational solutions. For example, the guide *Wiejskie budownictwo sportowe* [*Rural Sports Constructions*] published in 1951, was probably extremely useful for those, who searched for advice on how to construct school playgrounds, small-calibre shooting ranges, open swimming pools (bathing areas), marinas and ice rinks [8]. Furthermore, another author, who wrote the *Poradnik organizatora – budowa urządzeń i sprzętu sportowego* [*Manager’s Guide – Construction of Sports Facilities and Equipment*], being aware of the shortages on the sports equipment market, even recommended that some of the facilities for school gym halls equipment could be made by ‘DIY’ method [21]. One of the examples was a gymnastic bar that could be made of half of a tree trunk. The book contained detailed instructions on how to do it. Another example from the book was the detailed instruction on how to build a swimming training area on a river or lake, with a starting platform made of wooden boards. These and similar guides were re-published many times in 1950–1960, which indicates great interest and demand.

In Poland, the governmental project ‘One Thousand Schools for the 1000th Anniversary of the Polish State’ initiated at the turn of the 1950s and 1960s (in fact, more than 1,400 primary and secondary schools were erected), became a great opportunity for the implementation of many updated educational facilities, especially in small towns, located in neglected areas of the eastern provinces. It was a chance for these centres to obtain school sports facilities, well equipped, with modern gym halls and sports fields.

At the beginning of the 1950s, the Ministry of Education [Ministerstwo Oświaty] and the Ministry of Construction [Ministerstwo Budownictwa] jointly developed technical and construction recommendations for new educational facilities. According to that document, three elements of the school sports and recreation infrastructure were required: a gym hall, a sports field and an outdoor recreation area. They formed the basis for the organization of indoor and outdoor physical education classes. The Ministry recommended planning several separate outdoor playgrounds: recreational with greenery and leisure benches (approximate area of 3 m² per student was anticipated), an area of 500 m² for outdoor gym exercise (communicated with the gym hall) and a 25 m × 50 m sports field for team games and athletic exercise. It means, that the program of the sports field was to include: a 60-meter or 100-meter run treadmills with 4 tracks, each 1.25 m wide; a long jump with a 2.75 m × 9.00 m landing pit and a 40 m run-up; a high jump with a 5.00 m × 5.00 m crash mat for landing and 15 m run-up; as well as a covered circle for throws (shot). Arranging volleyball or basketball courts was not recommended on the outdoor school field pitch, because in winter when an ice – rink could be arranged on this pitch, the boards and posts might be damaged. If there was more space, the courts for these games were arranged (a volleyball had an area of 14.00 m × 23.00 m and a basketball court had an area of 18.00 m × 30 m). Interestingly, the construction of larger sports fields, e.g. for playing football, was not recommended. The argument against playing football indicated the aggressive nature of this sport, which was considered unsuitable for children and schoolchildren [10]. Depending on the type of school (primary level – secondary level), the recommended dimensions of the gym halls were different. The recommended area for primary schools was 9 m × 18 m × 5 m and for secondary schools it was – 11 m × 22 m × 5.5 m. Placement of changing rooms, toilets and showers functionally connected with the gym hall was obligatory.

In Poland, in the decades after World War II, the aforementioned normative standards for school sports facilities were modified several times, based on subsequent legal acts and following changes in physical education syllabuses. They were in chronological order: Zbiór normatywów technicznych projektowania Instytutu Urbanistyki i Architektury z 1953 roku [Collection of Technical Design Standards IUiA (Institute of Architecture and Urban Planning), Warsaw 1953]; Dziennik Budownictwa nr 17 z 1962 roku [Building Law No. 17 of 1962]; Dziennik Budownictwa nr 1 z 1964 roku [Building Law No. 1 of 1964]; Wytoczne programowo- funkcjonalne projektowania szkolnych terenowych urządzeń kultury fizycznej, Zarządzenie Ministerstwa Oświaty i Wychowania z 1979 roku [Program and Functional Guidelines for the Design of School Physical Culture Facilities, Ordinance of the Ministry of Education and Upbringing of 1979]; Wytoczne programowo-funkcjonalne projektowania szkolnych sal sportowych, Zarządzenie Ministerstwa Oświaty i Wychowania z 1979 roku [Program and Functional Guidelines for the Design of School Gym Halls, Ordinance of the Ministry

of Education and Upbringing of 1979]; Założenia programowe budynków szkolnych szkół podstawowych Zarządzenie Ministerstwa Oświaty i Wychowania z 1979 roku [Design Program Assumptions for the Primary School Buildings, Ordinance of the Ministry of Education and Upbringing of 1979].

School sports facilities today

Today the basic conception for facilities in schools is the assumption, that the role of the school is both education and integration of community group. The idea includes the possibility of using school infrastructure for the local community needs (gym hall, library, playgrounds). In Europe, this philosophy is not new. It was originated in the early 20th century and had been related to the idea of a cooperative housing estate program. In Poland, the creation of a ‘community school’, opened to all residents, as a sports and cultural centre, was popular especially in the years 1970–1990. There is no doubt, that the origin of the ‘community school’ idea was the program of the ancient Greek gymnasium. Primary schools and secondary schools, with such a rich socio-cultural program, were established throughout Poland, accompanying the construction of some more ambitious and prosperous cooperative housing estates. Examples of such a solution are the school built in Sadyba District in Warsaw (designed by an architect, professor. H. Skibniewska, 1972) or the school built in the housing estate in Opole (designed by architects J. Grzegorzak and J. Rak, 1990). The two schools have rich educational, sports and cultural programme, which goes far beyond the needs of a standard school. It means the extensive sports indoor and outdoor facilities and equipment, spacious school gym halls designed as a meeting place for residents; the spacious libraries, exceptionally well-stocked with an opulent collection of books. Today modern theories of ‘communal school’ planning [23] draw attention to the legitimacy of equipping the school not only with a gym hall with space for the audience, a set of pitches with places for small stands but also an indoor swimming pool (12.5 m × 25 m) and even separate sports clubrooms. Such assumptions, of the rich sports infrastructure and equipment, additional to the standard school syllabuses and open for the local community needs and expectations enable the school to perform important integrating functions. The way of designing the sports segment of their school, understood as a separate and independent part, should enable the residents of the nearby housing estate to use the sports infrastructure (gym hall, swimming pool, playground) without any interference, especially during out of class hours (at weekends and in the afternoons).

In Poland, since the beginning of the 20th century, the design standards for sport educational facilities have recommended a gym hall size of 10.5 m × 18 m × 4.5 m, which excluded the possibility of organizing many sports activities. It was changed in 1983 when the Ministry of Education directive recommended

a group of rooms for the indoor physical education classes: 30 m × 18 m (main gym hall), 18 m × 12 m (supplementary gym hall) and a storage room with an area of 80 m². However, in 1994 the planning normative for sport schools facilities was suspended and today there are no longer norms, applying to school design. In consequence, it means, that there are no recommendations concerning school sports infrastructure and equipment. As for the number and size of gym halls and the size and equipment of playgrounds, it is to the school manager and an investor of the building process to decide. Usually, they are the Ministry of National Education (MEN), school manager and members of the school board and municipal authorities. The situation is different with investments co-financed by the European Union grants because the instructions of the grant coordinator should be strictly followed then. As it happens very often the grant formal conditions usually require a rich sports infrastructure program and increased parameters for multifunctional gym halls.

As a consequence, we deal with multiple solutions concerning school sports facilities in Polish schools which were created in various formal and legal conditions during the past 150 years. Currently, the Statistical Office in Poland and Ministry of National Education statistics, distinguish the division into four types of school gym halls [27, 28, 29]:

- a) Gym halls smaller than 24 m × 12 m (the most popular in our schools, there are currently 11979 such gym halls in Poland),
- b) Gym halls of dimensions from 24 m × 12 m to 36 m × 18 m (less popular, currently there are 4524 of them in Poland),
- c) Sports halls of dimensions from 36 m × 18 m to 44 m × 22 m (less popular, there are currently 978 of them in Poland),
- d) Sports halls with dimensions over 44 m × 22 m (rather a rare solution, there are currently 634 such sports halls in Poland).

In contemporary European literature on the subject of school sports infrastructure, we can observe multiple approaches to the design of sports facilities aimed at physical education. The differences depend on the tradition of physical education in a given country, regulations of the law, the role of schools in the local community and its resources. It means that the sports infrastructure and equipment in the newly erected schools are different in England, France, Germany or Switzerland (e.g. a school in Dorpen, Germany; a school in Borkop and Nordre-Hobro, Denmark; a school in Eindhoven, Netherlands; schools in Warsaw, Poland; a school in Uglegårds, Norway; a school in Vaudreuil, France).

It is worth to highlight the recent project of school sports facilities in London designed by the famous architect Zaha Hadid from Zaha Hadid Architects Design Office (project 2010, implementation 2012). The project investor was the British government, the Ministry of Children, Schools and Families. This project has been recently widely commented on in the architectural professional press because the architects unconventionally treated school sports grounds. For example,

the treadmill is partially covered with a roof (as it was in the ancient Greek gymnasiums), which allows conducting outdoor physical education classes despite the vagaries of the weather. The long and wide red treadmill penetrates the school interior and is treated as the main communication corridor, forming the symbolic backbone of the school and having integrative importance for students. Besides, the school has three pitches, including one football-sized, having an area compliant with the latest FIFA recommendations: 70 m × 120 m and is aimed not only for educational needs but also for the use of the local community [26].

Although there is no uniformity in the program of school sports and recreation infrastructure within a given country, it is clear, that enthusiasts of the ‘open community school’ dominate among the European pedagogues, teachers, social activities and local community members who are attracted by this ideology. It seems, that a philosophy developed in the 20th century (based on cooperative housing estate assumptions) still serves well as an answer for physical education facilities. Moreover, the philosophy of ‘open community school’ is even more popular today; supported by the belief in the significant value of educational inclusion, the need for integration of students and local community residents (all age groups, three generations – including people with different impairments).

Following the principles of the open community school according to which a school should be a base for sports and active recreation for all local community members, the program of school sports facilities should be of universal character. Spatial layout, sports infrastructure and equipment, must consider the requirements of physical education classes, as well as local community needs and expectations. It means that both, the gym hall and outdoor playground should be prepared (in terms of parameters and equipment) for a school program and extracurricular activities. For example, a gym hall should, if there are adequate space and equipment, be used for different popular sport and recreation activities, such as team games (netball, basketball), gymnastic, yoga, boxing, wrestling and martial arts (aikido, judo, kendo, karate), table tennis, fencing or fitness. It creates more opportunities for indoor physical education classes and could be used as the local community sports club. As sports equipment must be easily accessible, storage must be ideally placed next to the gym hall. It should be noted that inadequate storage space (for sports equipment) or its distant location from the gym hall, happens to be a very common mistake.

The outdoor sports courts should allow playing various team games, such as volleyball (18 m × 9 m with a free zone of at least 3 m), basketball (15 m × 28 m), football and handball (50 m × 100 m), netball (30 m × 25 m), tennis (24 m × 11 m), badminton (6 m × 14 m) and athletics activities (treadmill, shot, long jump and high jump), gymnastic exercise (including on handrails and ladders). A universal outdoor playing field (multi-purpose, including football) should have dimensions of at least 50 m × 100 m (if not even 70 m × 100 m), plus a racetrack for runs,

long and high jump areas, grassy areas for gymnastics (possibly enriched with 'green gym' equipment).

Such a versatile use of school sports facilities and equipment requires appropriate zoning of functions, enabling the simultaneous or multiple uses of such facilities and devices. Because the area should also include greenery, plus places for recreation, like walking and rest (benches) – the whole site may require an area of even 24,000 m²: 16,000 m² for sports fields and exercise areas, and 8,000 m² for strolling, quiet recreation and greenery – [7, 20]. Such an opulent sports and recreation programme needs to be rationalized by integrating the school facilities with public recreational areas, intended for universal use. It could be treated by local community members as a sports and recreation park.

Naturally, the school sports infrastructure and its arrangement (although shared with residents) must strictly correspond to the requirements of the school program. For example, in Poland, the recent introduction of structural changes into the organization of schools resulted in closing down junior high schools. As a consequence, it forced changes in the organization of school sports areas and their preparation for specific physical education lesson programs, recommended at a given stage of the child's development. Today, the organization of the primary school includes 'zero' (pre-school) classes for 6-year-old children. It means that there is a need to implement the necessary changes in sport and recreation infrastructure and reorganization of physical education. The infrastructure and equipment must be adapted to the needs of this age group. Usually, the problem of pre-school sport and recreation facilities is solved by providing a separate outdoor playground with a safe surface and such devices as 'spider', swings and slides, 'monkey bridges', low climbing wall – a bit more complex than typical kindergarten facilities.

It should be underlined, that the described concept of an 'open community school' and the possibilities of the multi-purpose use of the school sports and recreation infrastructure also could be welcomed by teachers, who thus could have more freedom and flexibility in planning their physical education classes. Furthermore, such a rich and varied program of gym hall equipment and outdoor sports facilities could also serve various forms of permanent learning (life-long learning), including seniors attending the Uniwersytet Trzeciego Wieku [University of the Third Age] classes.

School sports facilities without barriers

Since both disabled school children and local community members with different impairments should be able to access school grounds, these facilities must be safe and accessible to them. Therefore, when the creation of an 'inclusive environment' and barrier-free space is the case – entrance to the buildings, their

surrounding, interior communication, cloakrooms, toilets and showers must be accessible to people with different disabilities. In particular, the wheelchair users needs and movement limits should be taken into account, together with the anthropometric data of wheelchair users [6, 11, 12, 18, 24]. For example when details are considered, the equipment of showers with waterproof 'white wheelchairs' should be taken into account and special handrails helpful for people with movement disabilities should be installed in toilets and showers.

The literature on the subject [6, 24] does not recommend major changes to be introduced to the dimensions of the gym hall itself or the outdoor pitch, except for the removal of level differences, ensuring adequate passage widths and anti-slippery surface. However, there are several changes in the selection of sports equipment suggested. For example, the special devisees to adjust the height of the suspension of the board for basketball (to allow the wheelchair team to play basketball) are recommended.

It should be emphasized that the storage room at the gym hall should be much larger to be able to store such specially designed equipment as sports wheelchairs, which have a different design and parameters. Such a room could be also a convenient place to change a standard wheelchair into a sports one. If the school has a swimming pool – it must ensure its accessibility for wheelchair users. Special requirements for people with disabilities must be met. In addition to adjusting the cloakroom, sanitary and hygienic rooms, there should be enough space for wheelchair movement, enabling a convenient and safe transfer of the disabled person to a waterproof 'white' wheelchair. Furthermore, special equipment is necessary to enable wheelchair users to descend into the pool. A specially designed moving ramp, water pool basin properly profiled and adjusted or gentle, anti-slippery steps with handrails could be helpful. Some swimming pools have special cranes helping to transfer a disabled person directly from the wheelchair into the water.

The above remarks could also apply to the way school outdoor playgrounds for 'zero' (pre-school) classes are arranged. These facilities should be unquestionably accessible to children with different disabilities and their careers. This applies to special devices, for example, the specific construction of swings, rockers, slides and trampolines – enabling secure attachment of a wheelchair, as well as a thoughtful arrangement of devices on the playground. For example, walking paths should be even, smooth, but not slippery; sidewalks should be wide enough to be accessible to wheelchair users, with no surface-level differences higher than 2 cm.

Summary

In Poland, despite the visible improvement, some primary and even secondary school students do not have access to safe and functional sports infrastructure.

This applies especially to rural locations, which is indicated in the Statistical Office in Poland, Ministry of National Educational the Ministry of Sports and Tourism (MSiT) data in their recently published reports [26, 27, 28]. These issues are also confirmed by other documents, for example, the research study ‘Diagnoza Społeczna Zapotrzebowania na Infrastrukturę Sportową i Rekreacyjną’ [‘Social Diagnosis of the Demand for Sports and Recreation Infrastructure’] by the MSiT. It shows, that the shortages in school sports facilities, is a fact. Moreover, the accessibility to the outdoor and indoor swimming pools, sports halls, multi-purpose sports fields, climbing walls and green gyms for people with different impairments is often difficult. These limitations happen, despite constant efforts of subsequent government institutions, responsible for the conditions of physical education classes and youth sports activities.

It turns out, that many decades (or one may say – centuries) of neglecting school sports facilities are not easy to overcome. It requires long-term uninterrupted actions and serious investments. No one dares to neglect this problem, as the importance of school sports has been shown in numerous works published by sociologists, pedagogues, economists, historians, physical education teachers, psychologists and medical professionals. In February 2017, the Ministry of Sport and Tourism (Department of Sports Infrastructure) announced the ‘Program rozwoju szkolnej infrastruktury sportowej na lata 2017–2020’ [‘Program for the development of school sports infrastructure for 2017–2020’]. The goal of the program was to improve the condition of school sports infrastructure, facilities dedicated not only for the sole purposes of physical education classes but enabling the organization of different sports activities. Moreover, as this project was inspired by the ‘open community school’ idea, the new sports facilities should serve the local communities [28, 29]. The important assumption of the planned investments was their public access and openness during the extracurricular period to the residents living nearby: in the afternoons and at weekends. Undoubtedly it is an extremely important postulate for the effective promotion of the idea of ‘sport for all’. Accordingly to the Ministry documents, the funds would be allocated for the construction of indoor swimming pools, sports fields, sports halls and for the renovation of existing, but neglected and in poor technical state school sports facilities. Therefore, it should be expected that as a final result of this and other similar projects, numerous school sport and recreation facilities will be created, enabling various types of physical activities for a wide group of recipients: i.e. students, and in the after-school time – residents of nearby settlements. Hopefully, the school sports and recreation facilities, through appropriate development and diversity, have a chance to play an important integration role for the entire local community. Hopefully, it will also apply to the well-equipped school playgrounds erected for the youngest children (attending ‘zero’ pre-school classes) – unfortunately currently not always available to external users.

Finally, it should be emphasized that the appropriate design of greenery surrounding school sports and recreation facilities cannot be overestimated. Green areas are not only more aesthetic and pro-ecological (as improving the school microclimate: regulating humidity and lowering the temperature of the atmospheric air, absorbing pollution and suppressing noise), but also functional, helping to zone individual segments of the outdoor sports area, isolating from them from one another – also optically. These can significantly increase the qualities of school sports and recreation facilities and enhance the comfort of its users.

Another important aspect of sustainable and rational managing is the problem of the economical use of expensive sports and recreation infrastructure in schools. It means, that these facilities should be used almost all year-round (as multi-seasonal). The appropriate design could make outdoor sports facilities available throughout the year in changing weather conditions. For example team games, gymnastic and athletic exercises can take place outdoors, in comfortable conditions when having good artificial lighting, screens and greenery protection against wind, noise and dust; as well as partial roofing, which might protect outdoor recreation grounds against excessive insolation or rain and snow. Nothing new under the sun – such solutions were already well known in the ancient Greek gymnasiums.

Funding for school sports facilities might have come from a variety of sources, including central government, local government, self-government authorities, National Lottery 'Lotto', different kind of foundations, private sector companies, voluntary sector, EU funds and public donors. These institutions might be either solo investor or one investor. However, it is clear, that the main responsibility for providing school sports and recreation facilities has the government. Why is that? Sports and physical recreation at schools have a vital role by giving students a sense of pride, an opportunity for self-expression, provide a sense of camaraderie and friendship. Sport teaches students how to win and how to lose, helping to alleviate the consequences of social and economic disadvantages, having a positive effect on their mental and physical wellbeing. Moreover, sports has been also an important part of the Polish school culture and tradition, in past and present.

Since there is no single, universal and ideal model of the school sports facilities, the program concept is still an idea open for discussions. Furthermore, professional studies and researches, discussions with all the involved parties, should be constantly conducted – theoretically, in the form of scientific researches and practically, in the form of experimental planning [17, 22].

Overall, one universal planning rule should always be applied: the openness and inclusiveness of sports facilities must be granted. Therefore, to meet new expectations, only flexible solutions should be considered, allowing the possibility of adapting the sport and recreation facilities to the current needs of not only the school program but also the ever-changing nature of the local community.

Therefore, it is a necessity and obligation to monitor constantly such needs, discuss with the school children, physical education teachers, parents and local community members – what their opinions and expectations are (Table 3).

Table 3. The school sports and planning recreation facilities – main stages of the decision-making process

No	Decision-making stages
1	Defining a problem, gathering information and identifying possible solutions of school sport and recreation grounds
2	Consulting implications and solutions with students, physical education teachers, parents, local community members investors (donors)
3	Making the decision and deciding a course of action to implement a selected and formulated project
4	Communicating the decision to all parts interested: students, physical education teachers, parents, local community members
5	Implementing and following up the decision to create (improve) school sports and recreation facilities
6	Monitoring, considering the opinions of users of the school sports and recreation facilities and equipment
7	Evaluation, feedback and modification accordingly to the expectations of the school sport and recreation facilities users

Source: author's study on the base of statutory research projects: ds-114, ds-300 and ds-316 – carried out at the Józef Piłsudski University of Physical Education in Warsaw.

Acknowledgement: The presented material was prepared on the base of the statutory research projects ds-114, ds-144 and ds-316, carried out on the Józef Piłsudski University of Physical Education in Warsaw. The scientific projects were undertaken on the base of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education grants.

References

- [1] Clay F. (1906): *Modern School Buildings, Elementary and Secondary*. London B.T. Batsford, 94 High Holborn, London.
- [2] Dudek-Klimiuk J. (2019): *Ogrody szkolne w Polsce międzywojennej [School Gardens in the Second Republic of Poland]*. Wydawnictwo Naukowe Semper. Warszawa.
- [3] Faber R. (1898): *Schulhauser fur Stadt Und Land*. Bernhard Friedrich Voigt. Leipzig.
- [4] Fletcher B. (2002): *A History of Architecture*. University of London, The Athlone Press. London.

- [5] Holewiński J. (1908): *O budowie i urządzaniu szkół. Podręcznik praktyczny* [About School Building and Furnishing. Practical Know-how]. Skład Główny w Księgarni E. Wende i S-ka (T. Hiż i A. Turkuł). Warszawa.
- [6] Jaranowska K. (1991): *Obiekty oświaty dostępne dla osób niepełnosprawnych* [School accessible for impaired persons]. Centralny Ośrodek Badawczo-Projektowy Budownictwa Ogólnego. Warszawa.
- [7] Korzeniewski W. (1989): *Budownictwo mieszkalne. Poradnik projektanta* [Housing Estates. Know-how for planners]. Wydawnictwo Arkady. Warszawa.
- [8] Kuchar T. (1951): *Wiejskie budownictwo sportowe* [Country sports building]. GKKFIT. Warszawa.
- [9] Lipoński W. (2012): *Historia sportu* [History of sports]. Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN. Warszawa.
- [10] Łukasiewicz S. (1954): *Architektura szkół* [School architecture]. Wydawnictwo Budownictwo i Architektura. Warszawa.
- [11] Maszczak T. (2018): *Wychowanie przez rozwój* [Education through development]. Fundacja Centrum Edukacji Olimpijskiej. Warszawa.
- [12] Maszczak T. (2019): *Kultura fizyczna osób niepełnosprawnych – misja i etos* [Physical culture of the disabled – mission and ethos]. [in:] Dziubiński Z. (ed.), *Kultura fizyczna a etos* [Physical culture and ethos]. Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego Józefa Piłsudskiego w Warszawie, Salezjańska Organizacja Sportowa Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej. Warszawa, pp. 291–299.
- [13] Ministerstwo Wyznań Religijnych i Oświecenia Publicznego [Ministry of Religion and Education] (1937): *Publiczne Szkoły Powszechnie Pierwszego Stopnia. Teren, budynki, sprzęty* [Public Elementary Schools. Site, buildings and furnitures], MWRiOP, Skład Główny Nasza Księgarnia, S.A. Związku Nauczycielstwa Polskiego, Warszawa.
- [14] Ministerstwo Wyznań Religijnych i Oświecenia Publicznego [Ministry of Religion and Education] (1936): *Gimnazja Ogólnokształcące. Teren, budynki, instalacje, meble* [Secondary Schools. Site, Buildings and furnitures], MWRiOP, Skład Główny Nasza Księgarnia, S.A. Związku Nauczycielstwa Polskiego, Warszawa.
- [15] Nowocień J., Liedtke A. (2019): *Etos kultury fizycznej w procesie wychowania fizycznego i edukacji zdrowotnej* [Ethos of physical culture in the process of physical education and health education]. [in:] Dziubiński Z. (ed.), *Kultura fizyczna a etos* [Physical culture and ethos]. Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego Józefa Piłsudskiego w Warszawie, Salezjańska Organizacja Sportowa Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej. Warszawa, pp. 331–343.
- [16] Nowocień J. (2019): *Pedagogika sportu* [Pedagogy of sports]. Polski Komitet Olimpijski. Kraków – Warszawa.

- [17] Pasicznik W. (2020): *Physical education in general education schools in Ukraine (selected aspects)*. Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe”, 3, 3, p. 57–67; <http://dx.doi.org/10.16926/sit.2020.03.20>.
- [18] Pawlikowska-Piechotka A. (2016): *Przestrzeń sportu, rekreacji i turystyki bez barier* [*Sports, recreation and tourist space barriers – free*]. Józef Piłsudski University of Physical Education in Warsaw. Warszawa.
- [19] Pawlikowska-Piechotka A., Piechotka M. (2017): *Dzieje obiektów sportowych. Historia architektury sportowej od czasów starożytnych do współczesności* [*History of sports Buildings. History of sports architecture from the ancient times until today*]. Józef Piłsudski University of Physical Education in Warsaw. Warszawa.
- [20] Piątkowska K., Scholtz A., Wirszyłło R. (1976): *Rekreacja w osiedlu* [*Recreation in the housing estate*]. Centralny Ośrodek Badawczo-Projektowy Budownictwa Ogólnego. Warszawa.
- [21] Stefanowicz L. (1951): *Poradnik organizatora – budowa urządzeń i sprzętu sportowego* [*Know-how for managers – building the sports facilities*]. GKKF. Warszawa.
- [22] Torkildsen G. (2005): *Leisure and Recreation Management*. Routledge. London.
- [23] Włodarczyk J. (1992): *Architektura szkoły* [*School Architecture*]. Wydawnictwo Arkady. Warszawa.
- [24] Woolley H.E. (2012): ‘Now Being Social: The Barrier of Designing Outdoor Play Spaces for Disabled Children. *Children and Society*, 27 (6), pp. 448–458; <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1099-0860.2012.00464.x>.
- [25] Zwozdiak-Myres P. (2007): *Childhood and Youth Studies*. SAGE. Exeter.

Net-resources

- [26] www.zaha-hadid.com [access: 2016].
- [27] www.msport.gov.pl [access: 2017, 2019].
- [28] www.men.gov.pl [access: 2017, 2019].
- [29] www.gus.gov.pl [access: 2017, 2019].

Figures 1–6



Fig. 1. The ruins of an ancient gymnasium in the Greek city of Thermessos dated the 2nd century AD (now: southern Turkey, Taurus Mountains). Almost 100 meters long and 14 meters wide, the relatively well-preserved facade of the building is decorated with pilasters and arches from the later Roman period. Source: photo by Maciej Piechotka, 2017.

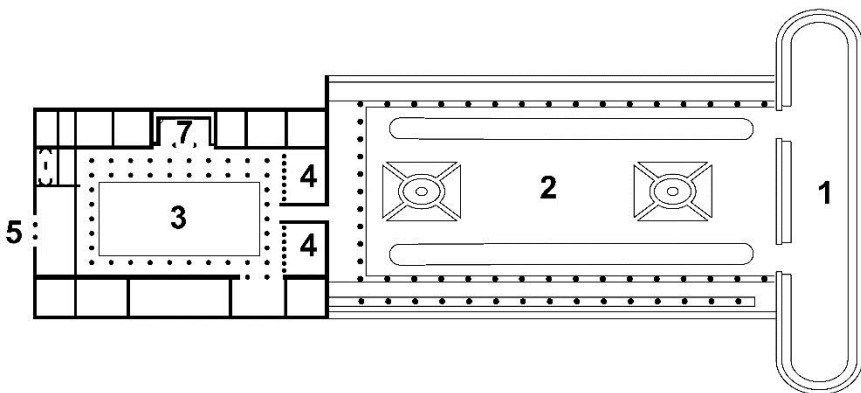


Fig. 2. The theoretical plan of an ideal gymnasium. Notes: 1 – stadium, 2 – gymnasium, 3 – bar, 4 – exhedra, exercise rooms, warehouses, 5 – entrance, 7 – ephebeon. Source: drawn by Anna Pawlikowska-Piechotka, Maciej Piechotka, study based on: Wojciech Lipoński, *Historia sportu* [*History of sports*], Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa.



Fig. 3. The school gymnasium and school playground in Gdańsk-Oliwa (Jahnstrasse), dated at the end of the 19th century. Source: Photo (author unknown, about 1900), collection of archival photographs 'Sedina', with the consent of the Society of Friends of Szczecin (Poland) 'Sedina'.



Fig. 4. The school gymnasium and school playground in Gdańsk-Oliwa (formerly: Jahnstrasse), erected at the end of the 19th century. The school view after renovation works. Source: Photo Yaneck, digital photo archive from the platform <fot opolska.eu>, a public domain (no copyright restrictions), access in 2016.



Fig. 5. The primary school playground and primary school gymnasium in Jelenia Gora. Presented is a typical school constructed in 1971 ‘tysiąclatka’ (called after 1000 – years anniversary of Poland). The presented state is after major renovation and modernization work. Source: Photo Antypuszka, digital photography archive platform <fotopolska.eu>; public domain (no copyright restrictions), access in 2016.



Fig. 6. The newly built secondary school in London (years of construction: 2006–2010). The long track and field track is embracing and ‘encircling’ the school complex, running both outside and inside school buildings (similar to the ancient ‘dromos’ in gymnasiums – allows students to exercise in various weather conditions). Source: www.zaha-hadid.com (access: in July 2016), published with permission obtained from Zaha-Hadid Architects, London.

Deklaracja braku konfliktu interesów

Autor deklaruje brak potencjalnych konfliktów interesów w odniesieniu do badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Sports and recreation facilities in schools – history and present state*.

Finansowanie

Autor nie otrzymał żadnego wsparcia finansowego w zakresie badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Sports and recreation facilities in schools – history and present state*.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author declared no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *Sports and recreation facilities in schools – history and present state*.

Funding

The author received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *Sports and recreation facilities in schools – history and present state*.

BASUKI*

<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3250-3334>

NURHASAN**

<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2262-399X>

SUROTO***

<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8186-1210>

Movement and Sports Activities through Games to Enhance the Skills of Creative Thinking and Quality of Learning Process for Children Aged 14–15

Jak cytować [how to cite]: Basuki, Nurhasan, Suroto (2021): *Movement and Sports Activities through Games to Enhance the Skills of Creative Thinking and Quality of Learning Process for Children Aged 14–15*. Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe, 4, 1, p. 115–128.

Działania ruchowe i sportowe poprzez gry w celu podnoszenia umiejętności twórczego myślenia i jakości procesu uczenia się dla dzieci w wieku 14–15 lat

Streszczenie

Badanie dotyczy rozwijania ćwiczeń ruchowych poprzez gry, celem wzmocnienia kreatywnego myślenia uczniów. Aby osiągnąć cel nauczania przedmiotu sportowego i zdrowotnego, nauczyciele

* S.Or., M.Pd., Surabaya State University, Surabaya, Indonesia, Faculty of Sports Science; email: basuki.stkipjb@gmail.com

** Prof. Dr., M.Kes., Surabaya State University, Surabaya, Indonesia, Faculty of Sports Science; e-mail: nurhasan@unesa.ac.id

*** M.A., Ph.D, Surabaya State University, Surabaya, Indonesia, Faculty of Sports Science; e-mail: suroto@unesa.ac.id

mogą zastosować opcjonalne metody kształcenia. Sprawdzono to przy użyciu eksperymentalnego projektu badawczo-rozwojowego o nazwie The Posttest-Only Control Group Design. Analizując jakość procesu uczenia się, wykorzystuje się technikę analizy ilościowo-opisowej opartą na kwestionariuszach Formative Class Evaluation (FCE). Stwierdzono, że wynik wykonania wszystkich wskaźników wynosi 89%. W małej grupie wskaźnik prawdopodobieństwa jest mniejszy niż 0,05%, czyli 0,000, a wskaźnik FCE 89,35%. W dużej grupie – 0,000, a kategoria FCE wynosi 85,26%. Konieczne jest prowadzenie badań nad rozwijaniem uczenia się ruchów wzmacniających twórcze myślenie, wykonywanych w czasie gier. Wpływ na kreatywne myślenie uczniów – zarówno tych z grupy testującej projekt, jak i grupy kontrolnej – ma także przenoszenie ćwiczeń pomiędzy grami. Bazując na FCE, można stwierdzić, że jakość uczenia się jest ważna dla zatrudnienia, a zdaniem ekspertów istotne jest wdrożenie całości projektu.

Słowa kluczowe: ruchome działania, kreatywne myślenie, jakość uczenia się, edukacja, sport.

Abstract

The study aims to develop mobile exercises through games to strengthen students' creative thinking. To achieve the goal of learning a sports and health subject, teachers may use optional teaching methods. It is carried out using an experimental research and development project called The Posttest-Only Control Group Design. When analyzing the quality of the learning process, a quantitative descriptive analysis technique based on Formative Class Evaluation (FCE) questionnaires are used. The implementation rate for all indicators was found to be 89%. The small group shows a probability index of less than 0.05% or 0.000 and an FCE index of 89.35%. The large group reveals 0.000 and the FCE category is 85.26%. It is necessary to research developing the activity of learning the movements performed by games to strengthen creative thinking, another influence on the creative thinking of students from both the product test group and the control group is the transfer of exercises through games. Based on FCE, it shows that learning quality is important for employment, and according to experts, the entire product design is also important to apply.

Keywords: moving activities, creative thinking, quality of learning, education, sport.

1. Introduction

The development of education is getting much more advanced for realizing highly competitive graduates. The increasing population surely makes the world of education encouraged to provide highly creative graduates for the tough competition. It includes the education of physical, sport, and health. The importance of the case said in the [11] explaining the need for capable, flexible, adaptive, initiative, and independent generations. They are also required to have social and cultural skills and the productivity, accountability, responsibility tradition, leadership mindset as well head to the advanced technology development. Moreover, as stated in *Tough Choices or Tough Times National Center on Education and the Economy* (2007) creativity plays a very important role in the high technology era and the world of contemporary occupations.

To create creative students, it is necessary to commence the available learning process. Krathwohl states that the higher capability is creative and it is developed

through the learning process of any fields of study [9]. Figure 1 says that creativity takes place at the top.

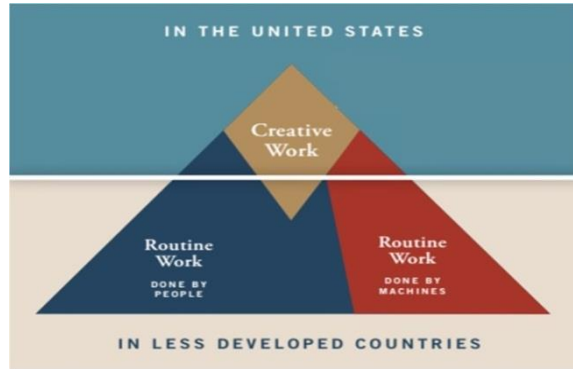


Figure 1. The position of creativity

Source: *Tough Choices or Tough Times National Center on Education and the Economy*, 2007.

The high quality of the learning process is inseparable from the well-designed curriculum. It functions as the main consideration in the learning process. It also guides the teachers in performing their tasks. The curriculum formulated in Indonesia is expected to enhance the students' creativity, critical mind, communicative competence, and collaborative works in the learning process [4]. According to Carroll; Trilling & Fadel it is necessary to transform the old into the new skills and create a new standard based on the old for the new expectations [2], [14]. To realize the so-called aspects, the schools are expected to support the transformation.

The creative students must be the focus of today learning process and the teachers, including the sport and health teachers, should make it come to reality. Referring to the Law of Indonesian Government No. 14/2005 on the Teachers and Lecturers; The Government Regulation No. 19/2017 on the Teachers say that the teachers of sport and health must have some competencies, namely: 1) personal competency, meaning that they are healthy, responsible with societies and the government; 2) professional competency, referring to the ability to perform their jobs related with their profession; 3) pedagogic competency, referring to the ability of teaching and developing the students; and 4) social competency, referring to the ability to appreciate the students, maintaining the relation among the other teachers, and keeping a sound contact with societies.

It is well known that each student has distinctive various ways of learning based on their development phase and historical learning. Therefore, it is necessary to present the best-fit and best-practice method of learning [12]. High moves and skills may be achieved by encouraging students to do much more practices and designing time-based learning. The other related ideas are also proposed by

[13] that the teacher of sport and health plays a very important role in designing the instructional for the students' motoric skills.

To make the goal of the learning process of sport and health subject achieved, the teachers may employ some optional methods of learning. Some of them are formulated in the Curriculum 2013 focusing on the scientific model, problem learning, problem-solving, inquiry, contextual and project [1]. Particularly, sport and health subject is taught with the popular model of TGFU (*Teaching Game for Understanding*) perceived as one of the teacher-centred approaches [8]. The other one that may be also employed is TPSR (*Teaching Person Social Responsibility*) in which highly competent and skilful teachers are required [5].

The study brings fort a particular activity or interview related to the employment of methods and process of learning. Some of the sport and health teachers based in 10 schools in Jombang are deeply interviewed. It is identified that 1) most of the teachers perform a direct model of learning focusing on providing a teacher-model as the type to be followed; 2) the materials are mostly presented individually without any collaboration, especially for the material of athletic and aerobic; 3) the materials are rarely provided with the games-approach; 4) most of the students keep sitting on the line waiting for a turn rather than following the given model; 5) the teachers have never performed any efforts leading to encourage and develop creative thinking. Based on the so-called ideas and reasons, the study on developing the learning activities of moves performed through games for enhancing creative thinking is necessary to conduct.

Based on the explanation above, the research question is whether moving activities can significantly affect students' creative thinking. This research will do a post-test and pre-test to investigate the assessment before and after moving activities. The study is aimed at developing moving activities through games to enhance the students' creative thinking. The product of development contains the moving activities of sport through games for enhancing the students' creative thinking. The strengths of the model are: 1) providing a stimulus for the students' creative thinking; 2) attracting the students' interest to perform moving activities; 3) the students may perform physical moves easily and happily; 4) the teachers may share a contextual learning experience.

Achieving the instructional objectives depends on the teachers' competencies and their strong will. The failure in understanding the curriculum surely affects the effectivity of teaching and learning. Therefore, they must have some important elements, such as (a) content knowledge; (b) basic pedagogy; (c) content knowledge of pedagogy; (d) knowledge of curriculum; (e) knowledge of learning contexts; (f) knowledge of the students and their characteristics; (g) knowledge of learning on the effective, interesting objectives, and ability to motivate the students to actively participate in any learning activities of the subject.

2. Research Method

The study is development research with pre-test and post-test design. Development research is defined as being designed for a product and a new procedure [6]. The phases contain testing the group, evaluating, and sorting for specific, efficient, and qualified criteria close to the standard. In addition, Gall & Borg propose ten phases in this case, such as (1) the research commences with collecting information containing the previous studies, classroom observation, preparing report of the main issues; (2) planning performed by defining some skills, formulating the goals, defining the sequence of teaching activities, and testing the small scales; (3) making an introductory book by preparing the materials, providing the guidance book, and preparing the instrument of evaluation; (4) introductory testing for 1–3 schools or 6–12 subjects; (5) revising the main product under selected recommendations of the test result of the introductory group; (6) testing the main group of 5–15 schools or 30–100 subjects; (7) revising a product based on the recommendations of test results of the main group; (8) testing group including 10–30 schools with 40–200 subjects; (9) revising the final product; and (10) making the final report on the product in a journal cooperating with a publisher for distribution and commercial publication [6].

The subject of the study consists of two teachers of physics, sports, and health of the State Junior High School in Jombang, three experts of learning (one of them a lecturer at the Universitas Negeri Surabaya and two lecturers of Universitas Negeri Malang), and some from the seventh-year-students of the State Junior High School 1 Diwek, Jombang. Two classroom-students are needed for testing the small group. One is for product testing and the other for control. For testing the large group, four classroom-students are needed, two are for product testing and the other two are for the control. The data is analyzed using SPSS 20 aimed at looking into the different effects of each group supported with *The Posttest-Only Control Group Design: Appropriateness* use to the appropriateness of the materials with the objectives, appropriateness with the students' characteristics; *Validity* use to the adequacy of material components, the updated-materials and the depth of materials; *Attractiveness* use to types of play, and the materials encourage the students' development; *Importance* used to enrich the students' knowledge, enhancing the students' skills, increasing the learning quality, and making the objective is easily achieved; *Applicability* use to best practice for the teachers, no need of expensive types of equipment, and no need of difficult adjustment of procedures for the students; and *Average of percentage*. To investigate the quality of the learning process, the technique of quantitative descriptive presented in the form of percentage and the form of Formative Class Evaluation is used. The technique is used for the data collected from the

questionnaire of testing the small and the large group. The formula used to analyze the data as stated below:

Table 1. Analysis of Percentage of Expert Evaluation and Subjects of Testing

Percentage	Category	Notes
80–100%	Very good	Used
66–79%	Good	Used
56–65%	Fair	Used
40–55%	Not Bad	Changed
<40%	Bad	Changed

3. Results

3.1. Need Analysis

The data collected in the process of learning are 1) the learning model used by the teachers is a direct model in which the teachers provide a model followed by the students; 2) there is no particular problem to solve, if any, they are not encouraged to discuss it and collaborate for the solution; 3) there is no specific approach for the materials, especially those for athletic and aerobic; 4) particularly for the big ball games, they are not instructed to join the games, but they just stand on line for turn making their move limited; 5) the materials containing aspects of encouraging them to think creatively are not given.

3.2. Product Specification

Based on the need analysis, the process of product development is performed through the games to encourage creative thinking. The following is the product made as to the outcome.

1) Volleyball play

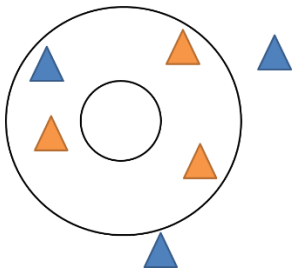


Figure 2. Rounded-Volleyball

Source: the researcher.

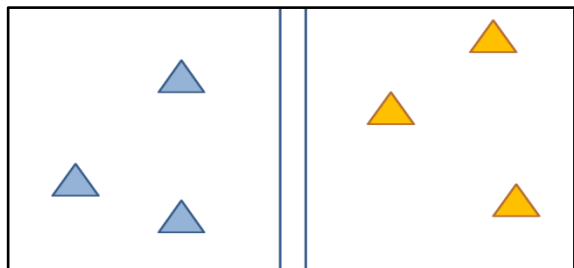


Figure 3. Connected Volleyball

Source: the researcher.

2) Basketball play

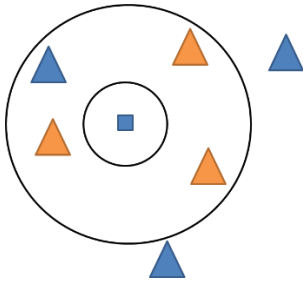


Figure 4. Rounded Basketball

Source: the researcher.

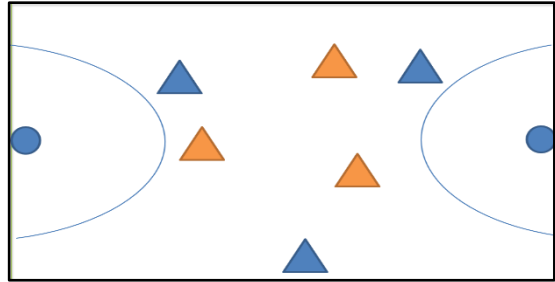


Figure 5. Basketball with 2 balls

Source: the researcher.

3) Football game

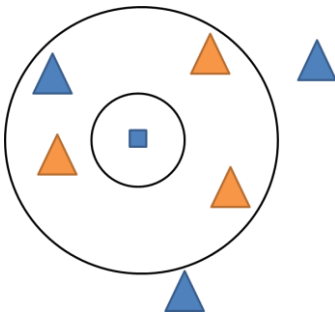


Figure 6. Rounded Football

Source: the researcher.

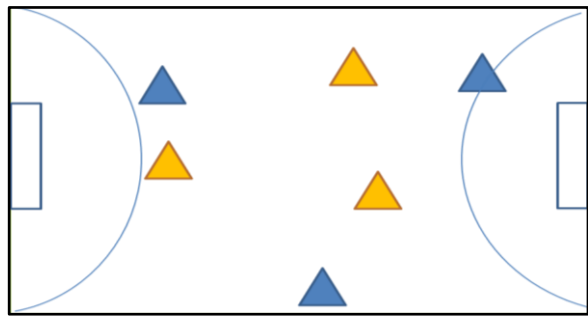


Figure 7. Football with 2 balls

Source: the researcher.

The three games above are played with the court modification, but the moves and the goal to achieve are similar. The students are divided into small groups with a small court, then they are given the right to make their own rules of the game. Finally, they come to the match. The teachers' roles are the facilitators, guiding them more for play and even giving more inputs for the better leading to creative thinking. At the end of the play, they should give any suggestions, encouragement and rewards to them.

3.3. The Result of Expert Test

The product of moving activity through games for enhancing creative thinking skills and the learning process of 14–15-year-old students are tested below. The test is done under expert evaluation. It is also done for the small group

and the large group. Each of the experts of teaching and learning is from – Universitas Negeri Malang, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, and Universitas Negeri Surabaya. The experts' review concerns appropriateness, validity, attractiveness, importance, and applicability as presented below.

Table 2. The Result of Expert Evaluation

INDICATORS	The Results	Descriptors	Results
	%		%
Appropriateness	92.5	Appropriateness of the materials with the objectives	90
		Appropriateness with the students' characteristics	95
Validity	88.33	Adequacy of material components	75
		The updated-materials	90
		The deepness of materials	100
Attractiveness	87.5	Types of play	75
		The materials encourage the students' development	100
Importance	85	Enriching the students' knowledge	75
		Enhancing the students' skills	100
		Increasing the learning quality	85
		Making the objectives easily achieved	80
Applicability	93.33	Best practice for the teachers	100
		No need for expensive equipment	80
		No need for difficult adjustment of procedures for the students	90
Average of percentage	89		89

Source: own research.

The result of an expert review on the appropriateness of the materials and the students' characteristics is 92.5%. The validity of play related to the updated-materials and the deepness is 88.33%. The attractiveness of play related to the type of play and the ability to encourage the students' development is 87.5%. The importance of play related to the students' enrichment of knowledge, skill enhancement, learning quality, easiness in achieving the objectives is 85%. The applicability of play related to best practice for teachers, adequacy of the types of equipment, and procedural easiness is 89%. Finally, in the view of the experts, the product design is valid to come to further steps of testing.

3.4. The Small Group Test

The subject for the test is one-classroom of students (24 students) of the State Junior High School 1 of Diwek, Jombang for the product test, and another

classroom from the same school is also prepared for the control test. The test is aimed to look into the effect of activities of play on the students' creative thinking and the learning process. The design used for the so-called term is The Posttest-Only Control Group Design, known as the research design containing two groups of treatment and a control group. Having analyzed the data related to normality and homogeneity, the researcher analyzes the comparative aspects to investigate the difference between the groups. In short, the difference is also presented in the following tables.

Table 3. Data Descriptions for Small Group Test

State Junior High School Diwek	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Testing product	24	87.21	5.48	1.12
Without product	27	73.11	6.07	1.17

Source: own research.

Table 4. The Result of Small Group Test

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	8.66	49	.000	14.09	1.63	10.83	17.37
Equal variances not assumed	8.72	48.98	.000	14.09	1.62	10.85	17.35

Source: own research.

Based on the selected data, it is described that the average product test of the group is 87.21 and 73.11 of the control group. The result also indicates that the probability rate of the product test is less than 0.05, and that is 0.000. It means that the null hypothesis is rejected but the research hypothesis is accepted. Thus, there is an effect of movement activities through games on the students' creative thinking. Based on the data collected from the questionnaires of *Formative Class Evaluation*.

Based on the above tables, the items may be explained that 1) the result containing the impressive experiences, skills, and knowledge is 91.67% of the sample of 24 students; 2) the indicator of wills containing eagerness and fun in the process of learning is 85.42% of the sample of 24 students; 3) indicator of the method containing fresh of learning and effort of learning, and cooperation explained in FCE for quality of learning are 89.35%. Those indicate that the product design on the view of the experts and the subjects of a small group are mostly valid for further phases.

The test needs four-classrooms of students of the State Junior High School 1 of Diwek, Jombang. Two of them are prepared for the product test, and the other two are also prepared for the control test. The data collected from the large group is analyzed related to the normality and homogeneity, the researcher analyzes the comparative aspects to investigate the difference between the groups. The differences are presented in the following tables.

Table 6. Data Description of Large Group Test

Group Statistics					
	Product Test	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Results of Test	Product Test	52	83.52	6.45	.895
	Without product	54	66.58	6.47	.879

Source: own research.

Hypothesis test

If probability ≥ 0.05 , the Hypothesis accepted

If probability ≤ 0.05 , the Hypothesis rejected

Table 7. The Result of Large Group Test

Independent Samples Test							
	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	13.50	104	.000	16.95	1.25513	14.46	19.43
Equal variances not assumed	13.50	103.86	.000	16.95	1.25508	14.46	19.43

Source: own research.

The above table indicates that the average of the product test of the large group is 83.52% and the control group is 66.58%. The result also indicates that the probability rate of the product test is less than 0.05, and that is 0.000. It means that the null hypothesis is rejected but the research hypothesis is accepted. Thus, there is a different effect of movement activities through games on the students' creative thinking in the group of product test and the control group. Based on the data collected from the questionnaires of *Formative Class Evaluation*, it is presented as follows.

Table 8. The Result of *FCE* Questionnaires Analysis of Small Group Test

Components	%	Items of Question	Number of items	N	Y	T	TT	Y %	T %	TT %
Results	85.9	Impressive experiences	1	52	141		8	90.38		5.13
		Skills	2	52	141		8	90.38		5.13
		Knowledge	3	52	120		22	76.92		14.1
Wills	83.65	Eagerness	4	52	117		12	75		7.69
		Kesenangan	5	52	144		6	92.31		3.85
Method	75	Fresh of learning	6	52	117		24	75		15.38
		Efforts of learning	7	52	117		24	75		15.38
Cooperation	96.15	Efforts of learning	8	52	153			98.08		
		Learning to cooperate	9	52	147		4	94.23		2.564
	85.18	Average						85.26		7.692

Notes:

N: Number of sample for a small group test

Y: Optional answer "Yes" of the question asked

T: Optional answer "No" of the question asked

TT: Optional answer "I don't know" of the question asked

Source: own research.

Based on the above tables, the sample of 52 students reveals that 1) the results containing the impressive experiences, skills, and knowledge are 85.9%; 2) the indicator of wills containing eagerness and fun in the process of learning is 83.65%; 3) the indicator of the method containing fresh of learning and effort of learning is 75%, and 4) attitude to friends and cooperation is 96%. The explanation of questionnaires of *FCE* for quality of learning gets 85.26%. Those indicate that the product design in the view of the experts and the subjects are valid to be used.

4. Discussion

Designing and making the product of movement activities through games for enhancing the students' creative thinking surely needs a relatively long time and

meets some weaknesses. The developed product is revised for improvement under expert considerations and recommendations and tested through the small and large groups. It is being revised for a final product. There are some revisions recommended by the experts, namely: 1) the play should be focused on the type of dependent thinking; 2) the adequacy of time and limitation of time for play should be defined; 3) the implementation of learning should be systematically constructed extending from the lower to higher level of difficulty or from the simple to the complicated one.

The product may be practised as one of the models of learning the subject of physics, sports, and health especially in the State Junior High School 1 Diwek, Jombang. The project-based learning for such a subject at the school makes the team unified and guarantees the continuance of practice for better results in the competition between groups. There are some core aspects to be enhanced through games of the sports, such as health, biological potentials under the evaluation of anthropometric index, physiological and functional, motorial capacity, the relation of psychosocial and social integration [3]. Moreover, Hastie & Peter state that the play with a cooperative learning strategy may develop a higher level of thinking, positive social behaviour, and encourage motivation and involvement [7]. Besides, the plays of innovation, target, striking, speed and net supported with planning, modification and identification of steps performed through discussion and interaction between groups are considerably urged to be a development of creative approach [10].

The product of development contains the moving activities of sport through games for enhancing the students' creative thinking. The strengths of the model are: 1) providing a stimulus for the students' creative thinking; 2) attracting the students' interest to perform any moving activities; 3) the students may perform physical moves easily and happily; 4) the teachers may share a contextual learning experience.

Achieving the instructional objectives depends on the teachers' competencies and their strong will. The failure in understanding the curriculum surely affects the effectivity of teaching and learning. Therefore, they must have some important elements, such as (a) content knowledge; (b) basic pedagogy; (c) content knowledge of pedagogy; (d) knowledge and curriculum; (e) knowledge of learning contexts; (f) knowledge on the students and their characteristics; (g) knowledge of learning on the effective, interesting objectives, and ability to motivate the students to actively participate in any learning activities of the subject.

5. Conclusion and Suggestion

5.1. Conclusion

The product of moving activity through games for enhancing creative thinking skills and the learning process of 14–15-year-old students are mostly best fits and best practices. The product is designed and made throughout a few phases, namely: (1) collecting information; (2) designing the product; (3) making the introductory product; (4) expert test; (5) revising product; (6) testing small group; (7) revising product; (8) testing large group; and (9) revising the final product. The results of the expert test, small group test, and large group test are explained as follows: Expert Test (The total rates of indicators say 89%), Small Group Test (The average rate of product test of the small group is 87.21 and the control group is 73.11), Large Group Test (The average rate of the product test of a large group is 83.52% and the control group is 66.58%).

Generally, based on the explanation of the test results and questionnaires of FCE for learning quality, the product design on the view of the experts and the subjects of tests may be implemented (best fit and best practice).

References

- [1] Baswedan A. (2016): *Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia No 22 Tahun 2016 Tentang Standar Proses Pendidikan Dasar Dan Menengah*. Indonesia, pp. 1–3.
- [2] Caroll T.G. (2007): *Building a 21st Century U.S. Education System*. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future.
- [3] Dacica L. (2015): *The Formative Role of Physical Education and Sports*. *Procedia – Soc. Behav. Sci.*, 180, November 2014, pp. 1242–1247, <http://dx.doi.org/10.16926/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.02.256>.
- [4] Edy Susanto M. (2019): *Permendikbud No 22 Tahun 2016*. *J. Chem. Inf. Model*.
- [5] Escartí Carbonell A. (2012): *Applying the teaching personal and social responsibility model (TPSR) in Spanish schools context: lesson learned*. *ÁGORA para la Educ. Física y del Deport*. N°14 (2) mayo – Agosto, pp. 178–196.
- [6] Gall M.D., Gall J.P., and Borg W.R. (2003): *Educational Research, an Introduction*. Seven. United States of Amerika. New York: Library of Congress Cataloging.
- [7] Hastie P., Peter A. (2010): *Student-Designed Games*. Human Kinetics, Inc: United States.
- [8] Jarrett S., Kendall H. (2016): *Similar, but not the same: Comparing the game based approaches of Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) and*

- Game Sense*. Ejournal de la recherche sur l'intervention en éducation physique et sport – *Ejrieps*, 38(38): pp. 92–113.
- [9] Krathwohl D.R. (2002): *A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy*. Theory into Practice, vol. 41, no. 4, pp. 212–219.
- [10] Lavin J. (2008): *Creative Approaches to Physical Education Helping*. Routledge. USA.
- [11] *Partnership for 21st Century Skills, Education & Competitiveness A Resource And Policy Guide* (2008). Partnership for 21st Century Skills.
- [12] Silverman S. (2005): *Thinking Long Term: Physical Education's Role in Movement and Mobility*. *Quest*. Vol 57(1), pp. 138–147.
- [13] Silverman S., Mercier K. (2015): *ScienceDirect Teaching for physical literacy: Implications to instructional design and PETE*. *J. Sport Heal. Sci.*, 4, 2, pp. 150–155, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jshs.2015.03.003>.
- [14] Trilling B., Fadel C. (2009): *21st Century Skills Learning for Life in Our Times*. First Edit. United States of America: Jossey-Bass A Wiley Imprint.
- [15] *Tough Choices or Tough Times National Center on Education and the Economy* (2007). National Center on Education and The Economy.

Deklaracja braku konfliktu interesów

Autorzy deklarują brak potencjalnych konfliktów interesów w odniesieniu do badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Movement and Sports Activities through Games to Enhance the Skills of Creative Thinking and Quality of Learning Process for Children Aged 14–15*.

Finansowanie

Autorzy nie otrzymali żadnego wsparcia finansowego w zakresie badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Movement and Sports Activities through Games to Enhance the Skills of Creative Thinking and Quality of Learning Process for Children Aged 14–15*.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *Movement and Sports Activities through Games to Enhance the Skills of Creative Thinking and Quality of Learning Process for Children Aged 14–15*.

Funding

The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *Movement and Sports Activities through Games to Enhance the Skills of Creative Thinking and Quality of Learning Process for Children Aged 14–15*.

Marta SZYMANEK-PILARCZYK*

<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6179-0849>

The effects of supplementary plyometric training on the development of selected motor skills of young football players from Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club

Jak cytować [how to cite]: Szymanek-Pilarczyk M. (2021): *The effects of supplementary plyometric training on the development of selected motor skills of young football players from Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club*. Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe, 4, 1, p. 129–138.

Wpływ uzupełniającego treningu plyometrycznego na rozwój wybranych zdolności motorycznych młodych zawodników piłki nożnej Akademii Raków Częstochowa

Streszczenie

Współczesna piłka nożna wymaga od zawodników wysokiego poziomu sprawności i wydajności na boisku. Statystyki meczowe prezentują zwiększoną ilość czynności ruchowych o krótkotrwałej, lecz wysokiej intensywności. W związku z kierunkiem zmian charakteru dyscypliny, poszukiwane są optymalne proporcje kształtowania parametrów motorycznych w treningu piłkarskim.

Celem badań było uzyskanie wiedzy, jak trening plyometryczny wpływa na poprawę wyników skoku w dal oraz skrócenie czasu sprintu na odcinku 5 m w wybranej grupie młodych zawodników Akademii Raków Częstochowa.

Badania zostały przeprowadzone na 24 zawodnikach piłki nożnej Akademii Raków Częstochowa w wieku 16–18 lat. Po zastosowaniu treningu plyometrycznego uzyskano istotnie statystycz-

* mgr, Department of Social Policy, Social Work and Tourism, Faculty of Social Science, Jan Długosz University in Częstochowa; e-mail: m.szymanek-pilarczyk@ujd.edu.pl

nie polepszenie wyników, zarówno w skoku w dal ($p < 0,001$), jak również w sprincie na dystansie 5 m ($p < 0,001$). Zaobserwowano także ujemną korelację długości skoku z czasem biegu na odległość 5 m. Otrzymany wynik był istotny statystycznie ($p < 0,001$).

Zastosowanie wybranego zestawu ćwiczeń plyometrycznych w uzupełniającym treningu piłkarskim w Akademii Raków Częstochowa wpłynęło na polepszenie wyników skoku w dal z miejsca oraz na skrócenie czasu sprintu na odcinku 5 m. Rezultaty zaobserwowano już po 8 tygodniach treningu.

Słowa kluczowe: trening plyometryczny, skok w dal z miejsca, sprint, piłka nożna.

Abstract

Contemporary football requires from players a high level of fitness and efficiency on the pitch. Match statistics display an increased number of short-term movements of high intensity. Due to the changes in the nature of this sports discipline, optimal proportions of shaping motor parameters in football training are sought for.

The aim of the research was to learn how plyometric training influences better results in long jump and decreased sprint time for the distance of 5m in a selected group of young players from Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club.

24 football players from Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club, aged 16–18, were subject of the research.

After using plyometric training, there were statistically relevant better results obtained, both in long jump ($p < 0.001$) and in a 5m sprint ($p < 0.001$). One could also notice negative correlation between the jump length and 5m sprint time. The obtained result was statistically relevant ($p < 0.001$).

The use of a selected set of plyometric exercises in supplementary football training in Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club led to better results in long jump without a run-up and shortened 5 m distance sprint time. The results were observed already after 8 weeks of training.

Keywords: plyometric training, long jump without a run-up, football.

Introduction

Due to growing competition in football, there is a bigger need to increase the efficiency of young football players [14]. In football training, like in the game itself, there are efforts of different intensity level. Walking on the pitch and trotting belong to low intensity efforts. Free run and executing basic technical elements are characterized by average intensity. Activities characterized by high intensity are sprints, jumps, changes of running direction, football kicks. The proportions of efforts during the game depend on how skilled players are and a game style preferred by a given team [8].

Although high intensity efforts statistically take the shortest period of time during the match, they decide to the greatest extent on the course of the match and its result [13]. That is why this type of training stimuli characteristic of football are in high demand [7].

Coaches all over the world look for efficient training methods, which shall improve their players' speed capacity. One of these well-tried methods used for speed capacity and strength development in football is plyometric training [2, 11, 16]. It was developed in 1975 by an American athletics coach, Fred Wilt [10].

Plyometric exercises consist in stretching a muscle before executing a fast concentric contraction. This activity is called the stretch-shortening cycle (SSC) [11]. Training with the use of SSC improves the muscle capacity to generate maximum strength in the shortest time. It also positively affects neuromuscular functions, muscle and tendon flexibility, and reduces the risk of injury [9, 11].

An efficient plan of plyometric training shall reflect a given player's individual needs and abilities. Plyometric exercises can be used within the framework of technical-tactical training and as isolated training. Professional literature shows that using unilateral, bilateral and combined plyometric exercises renders the best results in improving the aforesaid parameters [12].

The aim of the research was to learn how plyometric training influences better results in long jump and decreased sprint time for the distance of 5m in a selected group of young players from Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club.

Research questions

There were the following research questions formulated:

1. Has the set of plyometric exercises in supplementary training used in Akademia Raków positively affected the results of long jump without a run-up and shortened 5 m sprint time?
2. Is there a relationship between the length of long jump and 5 m sprint time?

Material and methods

The research was conducted in two groups of players, aged 16 to 18, representing Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club. The first group (1) consisted of 24 players, whose football skills were advanced but speed and lower limbs strength relatively low. The second group (2) was a control group and consisted of 21 players, the remaining members of the training group, whose speed capacity was at a satisfying level.

The research covered the measurement of long jump without a run-up distance and 5 m sprint time. Speed was measured with the help of Fitlight photocell. The jump distance was measured with the measuring tape, the result was registered at an accuracy of 1 cm. During parameter monitoring, a standard test protocol implemented in Akademia Raków was used (repeatable day in a microcycle, testing technique, rest breaks, warm-up before tests). In both groups, there were

3 measuring cycles, every 8 weeks – at the beginning of the season (July 2020), at the beginning of the autumn round (September 2020) and at the end of the round (November 2020).

In the fixed microcycle plan used in Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club, the players from a selected group characterized by lower parameters of speed capacity completed plyometric training as a supplementary training unit. During this training, they performed long, high, lateral and rotational jumps. A given unit included jumps without and with obstacles: both feet landing on both feet, both feet landing on one foot, and one foot landing on one foot. In each set of exercises the level of difficulty grew by increasing the height of hurdles (15 cm, 30 cm, 45 cm, 60 cm) and determining jump distance. There were also both feet and one foot jumps on the vaulting box used. Similarly to hurdle exercises, the height of the vaulting box was increased – 30 cm, 45 cm, 60 cm, 75 cm. In selected sessions, jumps were combined with a short sprint. The intensity of given training could also be increased by increasing the number of repetitions in a series. When a given player maintained a high technical level of exercises performed, the volume was increased by increasing the number of series. A training session consisted of 4–5 exercises, 2–4 series, 6–16 repetitions each. Initial sessions included 50–60 contacts with the ground, and as the number of training sessions grew, training units for technically skilled players consisted of 100–120 contacts with the ground.

Statistical methods used

The test results were presented in the form of average values and standard deviations of registered variables. The normality of distribution was assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk test. The analysis of variance uniformity was performed with the help of the Brown-Forsythe test, and when a statistically relevant difference occurred, post hoc – the relevance of differences between the tested variables was assessed by the T-Student test for related values within each group. While assessing the relevance of differences in the registered variables between the groups, the T-student test was used for independent groups of the same variance. Moreover, the relationship between the length of the jump and the 5 m sprint time was calculated with the help of the Pearson correlation coefficient.

Test results

The characteristics of the tested groups, taking into account age, body weight, height and BMI, are shown in Table 1. Tables 2 and 3 present test results for the aforesaid parameters.

Table 1. Characteristics of the players participating in the testing programme

	Number	Age [years]	Height x±sd [cm]	Body Weight x±sd [kg]	BMI x±sd [pts]	Training time [years]
Group (1)	24	16–18	179±9	70±9	22±2	6–8
Group (2)	21	16–18	182±7	73±10	20±5	
Differences (1) and (2)	—	—	p = 0.131	p = 0.113	p = 0.216	

Source: own research.

Table 2. Long jump without a run-up results

	Test I x±sd [cm]	Test II x±sd [cm]	Test III x±sd [cm]	Test I and II p	Test II and III p
Group (1)	229±17	240±15	246±11	p = 0.000	p = 0.000
Group (2)	239±14	242±14	244±13	p = 0.055	p = 0.165
Difference relevance between (1) and (2)	p = 0.012	p = 0.315	p = 0.338	—	—

Source: own research.

Table 3. 5 m sprint time results

	Test I x±sd [s]	Test II x±sd [s]	Test III x±sd [s]	Test I and II p	Test II and III p
Group (1)	1.228±0.58	1.096±0.68	1.041±0.61	p = 0.000	p = 0.000
Group (2)	1.105±0.52	1.077±0.58	1.042±0.4	p = 0.029	p = 0.008
Difference relevance between (1) and (2)	p = 0.000	p = 0.000	p = 0.164	—	—

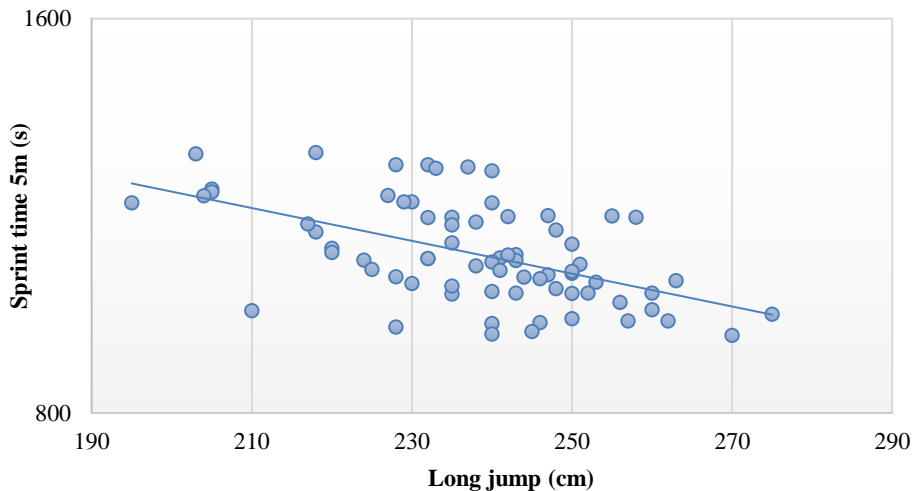
Source: own research.

The performed analysis pertaining to the distribution of the tested variables in both groups shows that the normality of distribution can be assumed. A one-factor analysis of variance in group (1) showed the occurrence of statistically relevant differences between subsequent tests both for long jump without a run-up ($F = 8.6311$; $p = 0.00045$) and speed test ($F = 56.8166$; $p = 0.000$). In the control group, the one-factor variance analysis showed lack of differences for long jump without a run-up between subsequent tests ($F = 0.5823$; $p = 0.5617$), whereas the differences for 5 m average sprint time results turned out to be statistically relevant ($F = 6.8488$; $p = 0.002$).

In group (1) a statistically relevant increase in average long jump length values (by 11 cm) was noted, and a decrease in average values of sprint time (by 0.132 s) was noted in test II in comparison to test I. The next test (III) showed further improvement in long jump without a run-up results and sprint time results in comparison to the results obtained in test II, and this difference was also statistically relevant. However, average results improvement was smaller. The average length of long jump without a run-up was 6 cm longer, whereas the 5 m sprint time decreased by 0.055 s in average.

In the control group there was no significant increase in long jump without a run-up length neither in test II in comparison to test I, nor in test III in comparison to test II. On the other hand, both cases show statistically relevant shortening of 5 m sprint time.

Test I, performed before the implementation of a supplementary session of plyometric training in group (1), shows statistically relevant worse average results both for long jump without a run-up and registered 5 m sprint time in group (1) in comparison to the control group. Once the first training cycle was over (test II), there were no statistically relevant differences between both groups. Similarly, once the next training cycle was completed (test III), there were no statistically relevant differences between the averages of the analysed variables in both groups.



Graph 1. The relation between the results of long jump without a run-up and 5 m sprint time

Source: own research.

Moreover, there was a statistically relevant ($p < 0.001$) relationship between the length of long jump and shortened 5 m sprint time (Graph 1). The Pearson correlation coefficient equalled -0.53 .

Discussion

Plyometric training contains natural forms of movement performed in everyday activities, such as jumps and leaps, which use the SSC system to generate muscle power [6]. Using the form of movement that teenagers find natural, watching proper technique and following the rules of programming of training positively influences the development of young sportspeople in many sports disciplines [2].

The group (1) players participating in the research displayed a high level of technical and tactical skills (they compete in the Central League), but they were selected for supplementary training in order to improve the strength of their lower limbs and their speed. The test results of the footballers from Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club show that supplementary plyometric training combined with football training positively influenced the improvement of the results for the tested variables for all the players. The efficiency of the training used was confirmed by the statistical analysis showing significant improvement in average results. Before the commencement of supplementary training, the players from group (1) reached 229 ± 17 cm on average, which constituted 95.8% of long jump without a run-up of the players from the control group (the average result was 239 ± 14 cm), and average results of both groups differed, which was statistically relevant (see Table 2). After the first 8 weeks of supplementary training in group (1), average results in both groups converged (respectively 240 ± 15 cm and 242 ± 14 cm in group 1 and 2), and differences proved statistically irrelevant (see Table 2). The situation repeated after the next 8 weeks of training (see Table 2). Exactly the same relationship could be noticed in average 5 m sprint time results (see Table 3). The data show that already a period of 8-week supplementary plyometric training used in group (1) made it possible to even out the level of the variables tested in relation to the control group, and the original programme of plyometric training used in Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club proved its efficiency (see Tables 2 and 3).

The positive influence of plyometric training in football training has been also confirmed by other research. The data presented by Meylan and Malatest [11] show that using plyometric exercises led to a significant decrease in 10 m sprint time, better agility and higher countermovement jumps (CMJ). The authors point to other benefits linked to this training method, among all, the fact that it can be used easily in any area and low equipment costs [11]. Professional literature contains numerous research pertaining to the relationship between the length of long

jump and sprint time [5, 17]. The test results pertaining to high jump (CMJ) and 5m sprint obtained by Chelly et al. [4] are similar to the ones presented in this paper. They noticed a significant growth of speed in the distance of 5 m and higher jumps after the implementation of plyometric training for young footballers, with the use of hurdle jumps and long jumps. They also assumed that plyometric exercises should find their place in all-year training programmes. Other authors who noticed improvement in sprint time after an 8-week plyometric training programme are Rimmer and Sleivert [15]. The efficiency of short-term plyometric training is also confirmed by the research conducted by Asadi et al. The authors point out that using such exercises twice a week efficiently improves strength and sprint time of young footballers [1]. Many authors dealing with the aforesaid training method think that plyometric exercises in football training significantly improve lower limb strength and shorten sprint time [2, 12, 16].

Conclusions

1. Using a selected set of plyometric exercises in supplementary football training in Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club improved long jump without run-up results and decreased 5 m sprint time.
2. The players participating in the supplementary training obtained similar results to those in the control group already after 8 weeks of training.
3. The research showed statistically relevant relationship between the length of long jump without run-up and 5 m sprint time.
4. The results obtained confirm numerous opinions presented in professional literature about positive effect of plyometric training on the improvement of strength and speed of young footballers.

References

- [1] Asadi A., Ramirez-Campillo R., Arazi H., Sáez de Villarreal E. (2018): *The effects of maturation on jumping ability and sprint adaptations to plyometric training in youth soccer players*. Journal of Sports Sciences, 36, 21, pp. 2405–2411.
- [2] Bedoya A.A., Miltenberger M.R., Lopez R.M. (2015): *Plyometric training effects on athletic performance in youth soccer athletes: A systematic review*. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research, 29(8), pp. 2351–2360.
- [3] Besier T.F., Lloyd D.G., Ackland T.R., Cochrane J.L. (2001): *Anticipatory effects on knee joint loading during running and cutting manoeuvres*. Medicine Science Sports Exercises, 33, pp. 1176–1181.

-
- [4] Chelly M.S., Ghenem M.A., Abid K., Hermassi S., Tabka Z., Shephard R.J. (2010): *Effects of in-season short-term plyometric training program on leg power, jump- and sprint performance of soccer players*. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research, 24(10), pp. 2670–2676.
- [5] Cronin J.B., McNair P.J., Marshall R.N. (2000): *The role of maximal strength and load on initial power production*. Medicine Science Sports Exercises, 32, pp. 1763–1769.
- [6] Faigenbaum A., Kraemer W., Blimkie C., Jeffreys I., Micheli L., Nitka M., Rowland T. (2009): *Youth resistance training: Updated position statement paper from the National Strength and Conditioning Association*. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research, 22, pp. 60–79.
- [7] Helgerud J., Engen L.C., Wisloff U., Hoff J. (2003): *Aerobic endurance training improves soccer performance*. Medicine Science Sports Exercises, 33: pp. 1925–1931.
- [8] Implellizzeri F.M., Marcora S.M., Castagna C., Reilly T., Sassi Alaiia F.M., Rampinini E. (2006): *Physiological and performance effects of generic versus specific aerobic training in soccer players*. International Journal of Sports Medicine, 27: pp. 483–492.
- [9] Markovic G., Mikulic P., (2010): *Neuro-musculoskeletal and performance adaptations to lower extremity plyometric training*. Sports Medicine, 40, pp. 859–895.
- [10] Matthew R., Kutz M.S., MEd, CSCS: *Theoretical and Practical Issues for Plyometric Training*. NSCA's Performance Training Journal. Volume 2, Number 2, www.nscalift.org/perform [accessed: 8.02.2021].
- [11] Meylan C., Malatesta D. (2009): *Effects of in-season plyometric training within soccer practice on explosive actions of young players*. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research, 23(9), pp. 2605–2613.
- [12] Ramírez-Campillo R., Burgos Ch., Henríquez-Olguín C., Andrade D.C., Martínez C., Álvarez C., Castro-Sepulveda M., Marques M.C., Izquierdo M. (2015): *Effect of unilateral, bilateral, and combined plyometric training on explosive and endurance performance of young soccer players*. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research, 29(5), pp. 1317–1328.
- [13] Rampinini E., Coutts A.J., Costagna C., Sassi R., Impellizzeri F.M. (2007): *Variation in top level soccer match performance*. Int J Sports Med, 28: pp. 1018–1024.
- [14] Reilly T., Bangsbo J., Franks A. (2000): *Anthropometric and physiological predispositions for elite soccer*. Journal of Sports Sciences, 18, pp. 669–683.
- [15] Rimmer E., Sleivert G. (2000): *Effects of a plyometrics intervention program on sprint performance*. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research, 14, pp. 295–301.
- [16] Sa'ez de Villarreal E., Suarez-Arrones L., Requena B., Haff G., Ferrete C. (2015): *Effects of plyometric and sprint training on physical and technical*

skill performance in adolescent soccer players. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research, 29(7), pp. 1894–1903.

- [17] Young W., McLean B., Ardagna J. (1995): *Relationship between strength qualities and sprinting performance.* Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness, 35, pp. 13–19.

Deklaracja braku konfliktu interesów

Autor deklaruje brak potencjalnych konfliktów interesów w odniesieniu do badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *The effects of supplementary plyometric training on the development of selected motor skills of young football players from Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club.*

Finansowanie

Autor nie otrzymał żadnego wsparcia finansowego w zakresie badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *The effects of supplementary plyometric training on the development of selected motor skills of young football players from Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club.*

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author declared no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *The effects of supplementary plyometric training on the development of selected motor skills of young football players from Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club.*

Funding

The author received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *The effects of supplementary plyometric training on the development of selected motor skills of young football players from Akademia Raków Częstochowa football club.*

INFORMACJE DLA AUTORÓW

1. „Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” ukazuje się jako kwartalnik. Publikacje powinny dotyczyć problemów badawczych, którymi zajmują się nauki o kulturze fizycznej (historia, teoria i socjologia kultury fizycznej, problemy rozwoju fizycznego, sprawności i wydolności fizycznej, turystyki i rekreacji, zdrowia i edukacji prozdrowotnej).
2. Publikujemy prace eksperymentalne, przeglądowe, doniesienia i artykuły polemiczne – w języku polskim i językach obcych, po uzyskaniu pozytywnej recenzji.
3. Procedura recenzowania materiałów autorskich publikowanych w „Sporcie i Turystyce. Środkowoeuropejskim Czasopiśmie Naukowym” jest dostosowana do wytycznych MNiSW „Dobre praktyki w procedurach recenzyjnych w nauce” oraz „Kodeksu etyki pracownika naukowego”. Pierwszym etapem recenzowania nadesłanych prac jest recenzja wstępna dokonywana przez Redakcję czasopisma. Na tym etapie praca poddawana jest ocenie pod względem jej zgodności z profilem czasopisma, zachowania wymogów redakcyjnych obowiązujących w wydawnictwie oraz ogólnej poprawności językowej. Tekst spełniający wymogi recenzji wstępnej otrzymuje kod identyfikacyjny i zostaje skierowany do dwóch recenzentów będących specjalistami z zakresu nauk o kulturze fizycznej. Zgodnie z zasadą „double-blind review process”, recenzenci, jak i autorzy, pozostają wobec siebie anonimowi. Recenzenci swoją opinię o pracy przedstawiają, wypełniając formularz recenzji.
4. Redakcja „Sportu i Turystyki. Środkowoeuropejskiego Czasopisma Naukowego”, dbając o rzetelność w nauce, wdraża zapory „ghostwriting” oraz „guest authorship”. Autorzy są zobowiązani do przedstawienia oświadczenia dotyczącego rzetelności nadesłanych prac, a w przypadku artykułów opracowanych przez kilku autorów – do ujawnienia wkładu poszczególnych osób w powstanie pracy. Wszelkie wykryte przypadki nierzetelności naukowej będą demaskowane, włącznie z powiadomieniem odpowiednich podmiotów (instytucje zatrudniające autorów, towarzystwa naukowe, stowarzyszenia edytorów naukowych itp.).
5. Autor artykułu jest zobowiązany poinformować Redakcję o źródłach finansowania publikacji, jeżeli nadesłana praca powstała dzięki dofinansowaniu instytucji naukowo-badawczych, stowarzyszeń lub innych podmiotów („financial disclosure”).
6. Objętość nadsyłanych tekstów nie może przekraczać 15 stron (w tym tabele, wykresy, przypisy, bibliografia). Dokument powinien być napisany w formacie A4 standardowego maszynopisu (1800 znaków na stronie, marginesy: górny i dolny – 25 mm, lewy – 35 mm). Zaleca się stosowanie kroju Times New Roman, 12 punktów, odstęp 1,5 wiersza.
7. Pracę należy przesłać w wersji elektronicznej w edytorze Word (w formacie .doc lub .docx) z dwoma egzemplarzami wydruku. Praca powinna zawierać: a) imię i nazwisko autora lub autorów; b) tytuł naukowy, identyfikator ORCID oraz afiliację; c) tytuł publikacji; d) streszczenie pracy; e) słowa kluczowe pracy; f) dodatkowo w języku angielskim: tytuł pracy, streszczenie, słowa kluczowe (½ strony); 7) adres kontaktowy, nr telefonu, e-mail (służbowy).
8. W razie umieszczenia w pracy rycin, tabel itp. pochodzących z opracowań zamieszczanych w innych czasopismach lub publikacjach książkowych, autor ma obowiązek uzyskania zgody na ich wykorzystanie.

9. Tabele i materiał ilustracyjny (ryciny, wykresy, fotografie) można zamieścić w osobnych plikach i dokładnie opisać. Miejsca ich wstawienia zaznaczyć na prawym marginesie wydruku tekstu.

a) Stopień pisma w tabeli powinien wynosić 9 p., zaś szerokość tabeli nie może przekraczać 125 mm. Nie stosuje się innego formatowania tabeli niż siatka. Tytuł umieszcza się nad tabelą. Przypisy do tabeli umieszcza się bezpośrednio pod nią. W tabeli nie zostawia się pustych rubryk.

Obowiązują następujące znaki umowne:

pauza (—) – zjawisko nie występuje,

zero (0) – zjawisko istnieje, jednakże w ilościach mniejszych od liczb, które mogą być wyrażone uwidocznionymi w tabeli znakami cyfrowymi,

kropka (.) – zupełny brak informacji lub brak informacji wiarygodnych,

znak x – wypełnienie rubryki ze względu na układ tabeli jest niemożliwe lub niecelowe,

„w tym” – oznacza, że nie podaje się wszystkich składników sumy.

b) Wykresy należy sporządzać za pomocą programów Microsoft Office (Excel, Microsoft Graph). Szerokość wykresu nie może przekraczać 125 mm. Numer i tytuł wykresu zapisuje się pod wykresem. Wykresy sporządzane innymi programami i wklejane jako rysunki muszą spełniać następujące kryteria:

– minimalna rozdzielczość to 300 dpi,

– dane i opisy zamieszczone na wykresie muszą być zapisane Times New Roman w stopniu 9 p.,

– nie należy projektować trójwymiarowych wykresów, które będą nieczytelne; zaleca się wykresy jednowymiarowe,

– nie stosuje się obramowań pola wykresu ani obramowań legendy,

– nie stosuje się tła innego niż białe,

– nie powtarza się tytułu wykresu ani zapisu „Źródło:...” na obszarze kreślenia.

c) Wielkość ilustracji musi być dostosowana do formatu B5. Minimalna rozdzielczość ilustracji to 300 dpi.

10. Zasady opisów bibliograficznych:

a) w pracach z zakresu humanistycznych i teoretycznych podstaw kultury fizycznej i turystyki należy stosować przypisy dolne; obowiązuje alfabetyczny układ bibliografii (pozycje bibliografii nie są numerowane);

– przykładowe przypisy: A. Pawlikowska-Piechotka, M. Piechotka, *Dzieje budowlanej sportowych*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Wychowania Fizycznego Józefa Piłsudskiego w Warszawie, Warszawa 2017, s. 50; W. Motoczyński (red.), *Polski Związek Piłki Nożnej. Zarys historii 1919–1994*, Wydawnictwo Sport i Turystyka, Warszawa 1994, s. 33; R. Stefanik, *Kultura fizyczna w środowisku wiejskim na Pomorzu Zachodnim w latach 1945–1950*, [w:] T. Drozdek-Małołępsza (red.), *Z najnowszych dziejów kultury fizycznej i turystyki w Polsce*, t. 1: *Dzieje kultury fizycznej i turystyki w Polsce w końcu XIX i XX w.*, Wydawnictwo Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie, Częstochowa 2011, s. 215; J. Chełmecki, *Wychowankowie Związku Towarzystw Gimnastycznych „Sokół” w Polsce w igrzyskach olimpijskich 1924–1936*, „Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” 2020, t. 3, nr 1, s. 60.

– przykładowe opisy bibliograficzne: Pawlikowska-Piechotka A., Piechotka M., *Dzieje budowlanej sportowych*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Wychowania Fizycznego Józefa Piłsudskiego w Warszawie, Warszawa 2017; Motoczyński W. (red.), *Polski Związek Piłki Nożnej. Zarys historii 1919–1994*, Wydawnictwo Sport i Turystyka, Warszawa 1994; Stefanik R., *Kultura fizyczna w środowisku wiejskim na Pomorzu Zachodnim w latach 1945–1950*, [w:] T. Drozdek-Małołępsza (red.), *Z najnowszych dziejów kultury fizycznej i turystyki w Polsce*, t. 1: *Dzieje kultury fizycznej i turystyki w Polsce w końcu XIX i XX w.*,

- Wydawnictwo Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie, Częstochowa 2011, s. 211–224; Chelmecki J., *Wychowankowie Związku Towarzystw Gimnastycznych „Sokół” w Polsce w igrzyskach olimpijskich 1924–1936*, „Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” 2020, t. 3, nr 1, s. 59–83; <http://dx.doi.org/10.16926/sit.2020.03.04>.
- b) w pozostałych pracach numer pozycji bibliograficznej podajemy w nawiasie kwadratowym wewnątrz tekstu głównego; obowiązuje alfabetyczny układ bibliografii (pozycje bibliografii są numerowane w nawiasach kwadratowych). Przykład opisów bibliograficznych:
- [1] Pilicz S. (1988): *Zmiany sekularne w rozwoju fizycznym i sprawności ruchowej studentów polskich*. Wychowanie Fizyczne i Sport, 4, s. 3–12; [2] Tatarczuk J. (2002): *Charakterystyka porównawcza struktury somatycznej i typologicznej słuchaczy I roku kierunków pedagogicznych i wychowania fizycznego Wyższej Szkoły Pedagogicznej w Rzeszowie*. [w:] Malinowski A., Tatarczuk J., Asienkiewicz R. (red.): *Ontogeneza i promocja zdrowia w aspekcie medycyny, antropologii i wychowania fizycznego*. Uniwersytet Zielonogórski. Zielona Góra, s. 369–373; [3] Wawrzyniak G. (1997): *Normy wybranych cech somatycznych kandydatów na studia wychowania fizycznego*. AWF. Poznań.
- c) bez względu na język artykułu, źródła (tytuły publikacji, czasopism, nazwy archiwów) oraz nazwy własne (np. Zrzeszenie Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe, Dar Pomorza) podajemy w brzmieniu oryginalnym, ewentualne tłumaczenie podajemy w nawiasie kwadratowym;
- przykład opisu bibliograficznego (język artykułu angielski, źródło polskie): Z. Szafkowski, *Światowe Igrzyska Polonijne z lat 1999–2000 [World Polonia Games in the years 1999–2000]*, [in:] B. Woltmann (ed.), *Z najnowszej historii kultury fizycznej w Polsce [From the most recent history of physical culture in Poland]*, vol. 5, Gorzów Wlkp. 2002.
11. Autor oświadcza, że sprawdził, czy źródła bibliograficzne przywołane w artykule są zarejestrowane w systemie Digital Object Identifier (DOI), i czy posiadają identyfikator DOI. W przypadku jego występowania, właściwy dla artykułu przywołanego w bibliografii/przypisach numer DOI został podany w stosownym przypisie, po danych bibliograficznych przywołanego źródła, w formie aktywnego hiperłącza. Numery DOI należy weryfikować bezpośrednio na stronach internetowych czasopism czy wydawców lub na stronie agencji CrossRef: <http://www.crossref.org/guestquery/>
12. Termin składania prac do kolejnych numerów upływa 31 stycznia 2021 r. (numer 2, 2021); 30 kwietnia 2021 r. (numer 3, 2021); 30 czerwca 2021 r. (numer 4, 2021).
- Prace należy nadsyłać na adres redaktora naczelnego i redaktorów naukowych:
Eligiusz Małolepszy (e.malolepszy@ujd.edu.pl)
Teresa Drozdek-Małolepsza (t.drozdek-malolepsza@ujd.edu.pl)
Błażej Cieślik (b.cieslik@ujd.edu.pl)
Katedra Polityki Społecznej, Pracy Socjalnej i Turystyki
ul. Waszyngtona 4/8
42-200 Częstochowa
tel. (34) 378-42-97

Redaktor naczelny informuje, że każdy numer czasopisma będzie umieszczany również na stronie internetowej Biblioteki Głównej UJD w Częstochowie, w wersji elektronicznej.

INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS

1. "Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe" appears as a quarterly. Publications should relate to research problems dealt with in the field of physical culture (history, theory and sociology of physical culture, physical development problems, fitness and physical efficiency, tourism and recreation, health and health education).
2. We publish papers about experiments, reviews, reports and polemic articles – in Polish and in foreign languages, after they have been positively reviewed.
3. The procedure for reviewing the copyright materials published in "Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe" is adapted to the guidelines of the MNiSW (Ministry of Science and Higher Education) "Dobre praktyki w procedurach recenzyjnych w nauce" (Good Practices in Reviewing Procedures in Science) and "Kodeks etyki pracownika naukowego" (The Code of Conduct for Researchers). The first stage of reviewing the submitted publications is a preliminary review made by the editorial staff of the Journal. At this stage, the publication is evaluated in terms of its compatibility with the profile of the Journal, the editorial requirements of the publishing house and general linguistic correctness. The text satisfying the requirements of the initial review receives an identification code and is directed to two reviewers, who are specialists in the field of physical culture. According to the principles of the "double-blind review process", reviewers and authors remain anonymous to one another. The reviewers present their opinions on the work by completing the review form.
4. Taking care of the integrity of science, the editors of the "Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe" implement barriers for "ghostwriting" and "guest authorship". The authors are required to submit a statement regarding the reliability and copyright to the submitted texts, and in the case of articles prepared by several authors – to disclose the rate of contribution of individual authors to the creation of their work. All detected cases of scientific misconduct will be exposed, including notification of relevant entities (institutions employing authors, scientific societies, associations of scientific editors, etc.).
5. The author of the article is obliged to inform the Editorial Office of the source of funding for the publication, if the submitted work was created thanks to funding of scientific and research institutions, associations or any other entities ("financial disclosure").
6. The volume of submitted texts should not exceed 15 pages (including tables, graphs, footnotes, bibliography). The document should be written in the A4 format of a standard typescript (1800 characters per page, margins: upper and lower – 25 mm, left – 35 mm). It is recommended to use the Times New Roman typeface, 12 points and a 1.5-line spacing.
7. The work should be sent in an electronic version in the Microsoft Word editor (in .doc or .docx format) with two copies of the printout. The work should include: a) the name and surname of the author or authors; b) academic title, ORCID iD and affiliation; c) the title of the publication; d) an abstract of the paper; e) keywords of the text; f) additionally in English: the title of the paper, an abstract, keywords (½ page); 7) contact address, telephone number, e-mail (business).
8. In the case of placing engravings, tables, etc. in the work, coming from studies published in other magazines or books, the author is required to obtain permission to use them.
9. Tables and illustrations (figures, graphs, photographs) can be placed in separate files and accurately described. Place their insertions should be marked in the right margin of the text printout.
 - a) The font in the table should be 9 points, while the width of the table should not exceed 125 mm. There is no other table formatting than the grid. The title is placed above the table. Footnotes to the table are placed directly below it. No empty boxes are to be left in a table.The following conventional symbols apply:
pause (—) – the phenomenon does not occur,

zero (0) – the phenomenon exists, however in quantities smaller than the numbers that can be expressed in the table with numerical digits,

dot (.) – complete lack of information or lack of reliable information,

x sign – it is impossible or pointless to fill in the boxes, because of the layout of the table,

“incl.” – means that you do not give all the components of the sum.

b) Charts should be prepared using Microsoft Office programs (Excel, Microsoft Graph). The width of the chart must not exceed 125 mm. The chart number and title are saved below the graph. Charts made with other programs and pasted as drawings must meet the following criteria:

- the minimum resolution is 300 dpi,
- data and descriptions placed on the chart must be Times New Roman to 9 pt,
- you should not design three-dimensional charts that will be illegible,
- the field of the chart field and the borders of the legend are not used,
- no background other than white is used,
- the title of the chart or the record “Source: ...” is not repeated in the area of plotting.

c) The size of the illustrations must be adapted to the B5 format. The minimum resolution of the illustrations is 300 dpi.

10. Rules for bibliographic descriptions:

a) footnotes should be used in articles concerning humanistic and theoretical foundations of physical culture and tourism; the alphabetical arrangement of the bibliography applies (bibliographic entries are not numbered);

- sample footnotes A. Pawlikowska-Piechotka, M. Piechotka, *Dzieje budowl sportowych*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Wychowania Fizycznego Józefa Piłsudskiego w Warszawie, Warszawa 2017, p. 50; W. Motoczyński (ed.), *Polski Związek Piłki Nożnej. Zarys historii 1919–1994*, Wydawnictwo Sport i Turystyka, Warszawa 1994, p. 33; R. Stefanik, *Kultura fizyczna w środowisku wiejskim na Pomorzu Zachodnim w latach 1945–1950*, [in:] T. Drozdek-Małołepsza (ed.), *Z najnowszych dziejów kultury fizycznej i turystyki w Polsce*, t. 1: *Dzieje kultury fizycznej i turystyki w Polsce w końcu XIX i XX w.*, Wydawnictwo Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie, Częstochowa 2011, p. 215; J. Chełmecki, *Wychowankowie Związku Towarzystw Gimnastycznych “Sokół” w Polsce w igrzyskach olimpijskich 1924–1936*, “Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” 2020, vol. 3, no. 1, p. 60.

- sample bibliographic descriptions: Pawlikowska-Piechotka A., Piechotka M., *Dzieje budowl sportowych*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Wychowania Fizycznego Józefa Piłsudskiego w Warszawie, Warszawa 2017; Motoczyński W. (ed.), *Polski Związek Piłki Nożnej. Zarys historii 1919–1994*, Wydawnictwo Sport i Turystyka, Warszawa 1994; Stefanik R., *Kultura fizyczna w środowisku wiejskim na Pomorzu Zachodnim w latach 1945–1950*, [in:] T. Drozdek-Małołepsza (ed.), *Z najnowszych dziejów kultury fizycznej i turystyki w Polsce*, vol. 1: *Dzieje kultury fizycznej i turystyki w Polsce w końcu XIX i XX w.*, Wydawnictwo Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie, Częstochowa 2011, p. 211–224; Chełmecki J., *Wychowankowie Związku Towarzystw Gimnastycznych “Sokół” w Polsce w igrzyskach olimpijskich 1924–1936*, “Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” 2020, vol. 3, no. 1, p. 59–83; <http://dx.doi.org/10.16926/sit.2020.03.04>.

b) in other papers, the number of a bibliographic item is enclosed in square brackets within the main text; the alphabetical arrangement of the bibliography applies (bibliographic entries are numbered in square brackets). A sample of bibliographic descriptions:

- [1] Pilicz S. (1988): *Zmiany sekularne w rozwoju fizycznym i sprawności ruchowej studentów polskich*. Wychowanie Fizyczne i Sport, 4, p. 3–12; [2] Tatarczuk J. (2002): *Charakterystyka porównawcza struktury somatycznej i typologicznej słuchaczy I roku kierunków pedagogicznych i wychowania fizycznego Wyższej Szkoły Pedagogicznej*

w Rzeszowie. [in:] Malinowski A., Tatarczuk J., Asienkiewicz R. (eds.): *Ontogeneza i promocja zdrowia w aspekcie medycyny, antropologii i wychowania fizycznego*. Uniwersytet Zielonogórski. Zielona Góra, p. 369–373; [3] Wawrzyniak G. (1997): *Normy wybranych cech somatycznych kandydatów na studia wychowania fizycznego*. AWF. Poznań.

c) regardless of the language of the article, sources (titles of publications, magazines, names of archives) and proper names (e.g. Zrzeszenie Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe, Dar Pomorza) are given in the original version, plus possible translation in square brackets;

– sample of a biographic description (language of the article: English, source: Polish): Z. Szafkowski, *Światowe Igrzyska Polonijne z lat 1999–2000* [*World Polonia Games in the years 1999–2000*], [in:] B. Woltmann (ed.), *Z najnowszej historii kultury fizycznej w Polsce* [*From the most recent history of physical culture in Poland*], vol. 5, Gorzów Wlkp. 2002.

11. The author declares that he has checked whether the bibliographic sources referred to in the article are registered in the Digital Object Identifier (DOI) system and whether they have the DOI. In the case of its occurrence, the DOI number appropriate for the article recalled in the bibliography / footnotes has been given in the relevant footnote, after the bibliographic data of the referenced source, in the form of an active hyperlink. DOI numbers should be verified directly on the websites of magazines or publishers or on the CrossRef agency website:

<http://www.crossref.org/guestquery/>

12. The deadlines for submitting papers to subsequent issues are: 31 January 2021 (number 2, 2021); 30 April 2021 (number 3, 2021); 30 June (number 4, 2021).

The articles should be sent to the address of the editor-in-chief and scientific editors:

Eligiusz Małolepszy (e.malolepszy@ujd.edu.pl)

Teresa Drozdek-Małolepsza (t.drozdek-malolepsza@ujd.edu.pl)

Błażej Cieślik (b.cieslik@ujd.edu.pl)

Katedra Polityki Społecznej, Pracy Socjalnej i Turystyki

al. Armii Krajowej 13/15

42-200 Częstochowa

tel. (34) 378-42-97

The editor-in-chief informs that every issue of the journal will also be placed and available on the website of the UJD Central Library in Częstochowa, in an electronic version.