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ASPECTE ALE PRACTICĂRII ACTIVITĂȚILOR MOTRICE LA SCOLARII AMBLIOPI

GEAMBAȘU ADINA¹

ABSTRACT. The essential element of communication is the feed-back of the message, and the essential element of the message is the feed-back of the receptors proper action, which in blind children are altered.

Due to the fact that the terms of communication are meant to be changed through the lack of visual information, an adapted communication skills to the remains possibilities of knowledges are necessary, and the professional perceptive training can compensate the integration of the child in this area.

Keywords: Blind/poor sight pupil, motive act, adapted physical education, integration

Situația copilului cu deficiență de vedere se caracterizează prin stabilirea relațiilor cu mediul exterior prin palpare, prin gust și prin miros, cu ajutorul celorlalte simțuri: auz, tact, gust, miros. Aceste stări duc la încetinirea inevitabilă a dezvoltării psihice și intelectuale. Varianta de a auzi, a palpa, a gusta cere un efort mult mai mare decât a vedea. Pentru copilul orb este mult mai greu de descoperit mediul exterior, de a realiza legătura între obiect și cuvânt. Îi lipsesc foarte mulți stimuli care contribuie la dezvoltarea lui, stimuli pe care îi primește prin alte modalități decât ale văzului.

Copiii orbi, în urma consecinței directe a orbirii se caracterizează prin sărăcia mișcărilor, poziții vicioase, mișcări dezordonate, stări ce influențează și dezvoltarea psihică și intelectuală a copilului.

Datele statistice cu privire la copiii orbi sunt incomplete datorită faptului că stabilirea gradului de vedere este mult mai greu de efectuat la copiii mici și preșcolarii care nu sunt cuprinși decât parțial în statisticile publicate.

4-5% din copiii născuți într-un an sunt strabici, iar 50% au ambliopie (vedere scăzută sau ochi leneș)- după o statistică OftaPro 2005.

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Întreaga manifestare a ființei umane are drept componență permanentă și fundamental structurală mișcarea corporală, în toate formele ei, mai mult sau mai puțin evolute, analitice sau sintetice, înnăscute sau dobândite.

Educația fizică și sportul adaptat trebuie să compenseze efectele deficitului vizual, în toate domeniile (corporal, spațial, relațional) și la toate nivelurile (însușire primară, rafinare, adecvare, perfecționare, etc). În general, activitățile vor viza creșterea eficienței deprinderilor de autoservire, cotidiene și perfecționarea rutinelor compensatorii, prin însușirea unor tehnici particulare.

Caracterizarea copiilor cu deficiență de vedere constituie doar un punct de reper în înțelegerea consecințelor pe care deficiența le are asupra dezvoltării celor în cauză. Pentru aceasta un rol extrem de important îl joacă părinții și specialiștii angajați în procesul de educare-compensare a copiilor respectivi. În echipa de specialiști, kinetoterapeutul reprezintă unul din elementele cheie în buna funcționare a procesului de educare și dezvoltare a copilului ambliop a carui necesitate este una individualizată.

Atât ambliopii cât și nevăzătorii sunt capabili să participe la activități motrice variate, mai ales atunci când sunt asigurate o serie de modificări ale echipamentelor și regulilor de desfășurare ale activităților respective.

Aceste persoane pot participa la diferite tipuri de activități fizice și sportive integrate sau segregate, din punct de vedere al participării sau nu a văzătorilor alături de persoanele cu deficiențe. Aceste activități vor viza îndeplinirea următoarelor obiective specifice:

- ameliorarea atitudinii posturale;
- dezvoltarea simțului tactil- kinestezic, în vederea favorizării proceselor compensatorii;
- formarea și consolidarea autonomiei de deplasare în mediul înconjurător;
- dezvoltarea calităților motrice și psihomotrice necesare însușirii și exercitării eficiente a unei meserii;
- dezvoltarea încrederii în forțele proprii;
- anihilarea inhibiției motrice.

Conduita individului se formează prin contactul cu alții, de exemplu, imitația, identificarea cu anumite modele, primirea de întăriri pentru un anumit comportament, astfel că acțiunile individului au conținut și semnificație socială, chiar în absența altor persoane; comportamentul uman se desfășoară în context social.

Din punct de vedere psihosociologic, individul uman se naște și trăiește în relații cu familia și ambianța socială, fiind un rezultat al combinării originale a factorilor biologici, psihici și ambientali, aceștia din urmă mai ales sociali.

Persoana nu este numai un sistem sincron, închis, ci și diacronic, deschis contactelor cu ambianța externă, fizică și socială. Omul reprezintă pentru om un stimul cu încărcătura informațională cea mai înaltă, furnizorul unor nepuizabile semnificații emoționale, iar nevoia cea mai imperioasă a lui este „nevoia de alt om”. De acest aspect sunt legate procesele interpersonale, preferințele ca și respingerile din grupul școlar, modalitățile de percepere a partenerilor sau a adversarilor.

Mediul social este evident factorul cu cea mai mare influență asupra vieții individului și mai ales asupra dezvoltării personalității sale. În esență, acesta reprezintă o ambianță a relațiilor sociale, cu conținut foarte complex, elementele care o compun fiind totuși eterogene, dar unificate prin acțiunea transformatoare a omului. Homo faber este cel care a transformat natura cultivând-o (în agricultură, zootehnie, industrie, etc), ceea ce a condus la realizarea unui nivel superior de viață. Tot el s-a transformat pe sine, dezvoltându-și propria inteligență și afectivitate, dar, îndeosebi, perfecționând însuși procesul muncii, arta și știința învățării și educației, adică strategia formării tinerei generații prin transmiterea experienței utile a generațiilor anterioare. Profesia, munca, arta, cultura, sportul vor contribui, alături de celelalte produse ale culturii, la definirea calității vieții.

Școala este principalul factor al formării intelectuale, afective și fizice a elevilor, atât prin educația generală și profesională, cât și prin cea de tip sportiv, în lecțiile de educație fizică și mai ales în activitățile de mișcare.

Dacă mediul este un factor important în dezvoltarea personalității omului, problema principală constă în asigurarea caracterului educativ al situațiilor din mediul familial, școlar, profesional, sportiv și de grup informal prin:

- o bună organizare a activităților pe baza stabilirii exacte și concrete a obiectivelor și strategiilor;
- o fundamentare științifică riguroasă a acestor activități după normativele și specificul fiecăreia;
- stabilirea și manipularea corectă a sistemului de cerințe sau situații solicitante, crescând complexitatea lor în vederea dezvoltării funcțiilor adaptative și a structurilor comportamentale adecvate;

- asigurarea unor relații psiho-sociale corecte între membrii grupului și utilizarea lor în sens educogen;

- asigurarea unui climat psiho-pedagogic corect în grupul sportiv, rolul principal fiind deținut de antrenor, care, prin ținută, orientare, trăsături caracteriale pozitive, măiestrie didactică, moralitate, dragoste de muncă și aspirații poate stimula activitatea elevilor săi;

- utilizarea datelor științei în ceea ce privește activitățile organizate, indiferent de direcția sau domeniul de acționare- instruire, antrenament, educație, formare culturală sau moral-civică- ceea ce este fundamentat și organizat științific, va fi sigur urmat de succes;

- asigurarea unui nivel corespunzător de instruire (școlară, profesională și de cultură generală) ca o condiție a receptării de către elevi a „mesajului pedagogic”.

Omul se manifestă în raport cu lumea, fie aceasta naturală sau socială, ca un sistem deschis ca un microcosmos care reflectă și reproduce macrocosmosul.

Omul funcționează nu numai ca un sistem deschis, ci și ca un sistem închis, ca individualitate care rezultă din legăturile interne dintre însușirile persoanei și care dispune de o anumită formă și stabilitate.

Socializarea are doua sensuri, pe care putem să le denumim individual și de grup. Primul este definit ca procesul psihosocial de transmitere-asimilare a atitudinilor, valorilor, concepțiilor sau modelelor de comportare specifice unui grup sau unei comunități în vederea formării, adaptării și integrării sociale a unei persoane.(L. Vlăsceanu, 1993).

Cel de-al doilea sens privește extinderea numărului de agenți individuali care exercită controlul sau participă direct la dezvoltarea unui sistem, subsistem sau sector de activitate.(L. Vlăsceanu, 1993).

Practicarea exercițiului fizic, în cazul copiilor, sub formă de joc, a subliniat elementul de libertate și satisfacție, dar, în același timp, funcția socială, de pregătire pentru viață. Nu mai puțin importantă este funcția de socializare pe care o aflăm în jocul cu reguli, regula fiind o “ invenție” a colaborării indivizilor într-o activitate comună. Reguli găsim în toate manifestările structurate, nesocotirea lor fiind urmată de măsuri care merg de la întreruperea manifestării, până la sancțiuni ca eliminare, suspendare, amendă, etc. Trecând la joc se observă interrelații de tip sociomotric, precum și comportamente reactive de bucurie, supărare, contestare, agresivitate, abandon, etc., adică o gamă largă de manifestări specifice jocului social.

Motivația de autodezvoltare și autoplastie, include în sine dorința subiectului de a fi apreciat pozitiv de alții, de a obține o imagine bună despre sine.

Activitățile compensatorii, în care exercițiul fizic are calitatea de “medicament”, are mai multe conotații, dintre care cea mai importantă este cea a socializării. Performanța umană este un produs al activității psiho-sociale, adică psihică (prin componente cum sunt aptitudinile, cogniția, motivația, capacitățile învățate, etc.), și socială (prin componentele ambianței sociale, de interacțiune, facilitare, evaluare, sancțiune premială sau punitivă, etc).

Constituirea grupurilor mici, a echipelor în jocul de mișcare, dinamica devenirii și a transformării lor, precum și a conducerii lor, este discutată azi în lumina teoriei lui Lewin.

Climatul de grup mic, determină interacțiuni între membrii grupului, conducând la fenomene pozitive cum ar fi: simpatie, atracție, atașament, menținerea în câmpul sarcinii, toleranță, mulțumire, satisfacție, încredere în forțe proprii, dar și fenomene negative: presiune, dominanță, frustrare, agresivitate, conflict, explozie emoțională, etc.

Comportarea individului privită ca reacție a personalității la situație, trebuie privită în mod substanțial în contextul interrelațiilor psihosociale: învățare socială, comunicare interactivă, preferințe personale, apartenență la grup, grup de apartenență, structură de grup, lider, control, imitație, rol, statut, integrare, conformare, ritual, conformism, valori sociale, etc.

Socializarea în jocul sportiv, este problema integrării jucătorului în sistemul atitudinilor, deprinderilor, cerințelor și structurilor sociale ale grupului de joc. Apartenența la grup, obligă la însușirea normelor acestuia. Dacă în practicarea sportului individual se poate face rabat de la valența pozitivă a relației interpersonale, în joc este obligatorie preferința de tip cel puțin operațional (Rioux-Chappuis), dacă nu și aceea afectivă (Moreno). Jocul este competiție, rivalitate, combativitate, dar în același timp cooperare, colaborare, ajutor reciproc, fair-play.

Socializarea prin joc semnifică măsura în care atitudinile, valorile, deprinderile, trăsăturile, regulile învățate în joc, se transferă și se manifestă și în alte activități și instituții sociale.

Astfel profesorul va avea o atitudine pozitivă, va stimula atitudinea activă a copilului ambliop, va evita tendința de hiperprotejar a copilului printr-o asistență suplimentară limitată și intermitentă, asumarea de riscuri controlate, recomandări pentru timpul liber, facilitarea cunoașterii de către

părinți a abilităților copiilor lor, încurajând noile comportamente motrice adaptate și dezvoltate.

Ca **metode didactice** se vor avea în vedere următoarele aspecte:

- folosirea luminii difuze pentru cazurile de glaucom și albinism și a luminii puternice în celelalte cazuri
- ușile încăperilor să fie închise pentru a nu crea confuzii la nivelul percepției
- spațiul de lucru eliberat de obstacole
- zonele periculoase (stalpi, arcade, calorifere, etc) izolate cu materiale protectoare în cazul unui eventual contact cu acestea
- marcarea spațiilor de desfășurare a activităților prin suprafețe cu textură și consistență diferită (iarbă, zgură, sintetic, parchet)
- delimitarea spațiului de lucru prin culori vii pentru orientarea ambliopilor
- la prima sedință, ajutorarea copiilor să cunoască spațiul, materialele, echipamentele, dimensiunile, textura acestora, utilizând simțurile valide
- pentru copiii purtatori de ochelari sau alte sisteme de refracție, folosirea sistemelor de protecție, mai ales în cazul mânăuirii de obiecte (mingii, bastoane, corzi, etc)
- mingiile de lucru variate ca consistență, dimensiune, greutate, culoare, pentru a oferi o gamă variată de informații vizuale și tactil-kinestezice
- folosirea sistemelor de emiterie a sunetelor de contact, cum ar fi mingiile sunatoare, sau a sistemelor electronice activate de contact sau mișcare
- folosirea unui fluier sau indicator verbal, prin care să se marcheze începutul sau sfârșitul unei acțiuni motrice, dar și orientarea spațială
- utilizarea muzicii pentru relaxare, motivare și atitudine pozitivă
- comunicare verbală permanentă pentru creerea climatului de încredere, siguranță, încurajare, prezență, afecțiune
- utilizarea de exerciții analitice, jocuri, întreceri, care furnizează satisfacție imediată copiilor și facilitează contactele sociale cu efect important funcțional
- ghidarea manuală a mișcării copilului spre pozițiile corecte, necesare formării unei anumite deprinderi
- utilizarea unui model (alt coleg sau o papușă cu articulații mobile) astfel încât copilul să distingă cum se relaționează segmentele corpului într-o mișcare
- ghidarea deplasărilor sau a activităților motrice ale copilului nevăzător de către un coleg ambliop, cu resturi de vedere

- utilizarea reperelor auditive în cazul diminuării celor vizuale
- utilizarea de către profesor a unui limbaj clar, concis care vizează repere cunoscute de către copil.

Urmărind metodele didactice adecvate și adaptate, o ședință de kinetoterapie pentru un elev ambliop se poate prezenta astfel:

Se începe cu un parcurs de recunoaștere a terenului și a materialelor de lucru, cu reperarea și orientarea acestora în spațiu; urmează explicația și ghidarea acțiunilor din ședința de kinetoterapie ce va urma prin eventuala utilizare a unui model (păpușă, alt coleg, propriul corp- ghidare pasivă), cu crearea unui limbaj comun cu semnificație legată de începerea, continuarea sau încetarea unei execuții și provocarea copilului la participare activă și conștientă dezvoltând autonomia de deplasare în mediu.

Indiferent de tipul de activitate pe care îl va organiza profesorul, se va urmări utilizarea a cel puțin două **categorii de exerciții**:

- *exerciții fizice* prin care se va realiza consolidarea diferitelor tipuri de senzații: de greutate (analizarea și clasificarea sau ierarhizarea unor greutateți), de presiune (analizarea și ierarhizarea unor obiecte în funcție de presiunea aplicată pe corp sau zgomotul efectuat de ricoșarea lor de sol sau perete), de înălțime (sarituri de la înălțimi variate cu ierarhizare de la mare la mic), termice (folosirea unui eșantion de obiecte diferite ca temperatură și textură și ierarhizarea lor), dar și

- *variante de deplasare* urmărind dezvoltarea orientării spațiale, a echilibrului, deprinderea căderilor și utilizarea sistemului pârghiilor de forță în direcții diferite (în raport de un reper stabil, deplasare, întoarcere, ocolire, mers în pantă, schimbare de direcție spre sau dinspre o sursă sonoră, folosirea unor suprafețe înguste de contact- băncuțe sau bârne cu înălțime mică, sarituri pe o plasă elastică).

Înșușirea elementelor de mișcare se va realiza utilizând secvențe scurte, împărțind exercițiul pe scheme de mișcare mici și urmărind ca etape: conștientizarea propriului corp (prin acțiuni globale sau segmentare), conștientizarea simțului greutății și timpului, conștientizarea spațiului, conștientizarea senzației de mișcare utilizând spațiul și timpul, conștientizarea corporală cu accent pe forma corpului (gestică și ținută), conștientizarea nivelului de efort pe care îl presupune exercițiul. Deasemeni exercițiile se vor combina cu tehnici de respirație și muzică.

Prin folosirea combinată a muzicii, se poate dezvolta o conștientizare a ritmului realizată prin:

- recunoașterea unui ritm constant și reproducerea lui prin percuție;

- organizarea și repetarea a două mișcări ce nu presupun deplasare (cum ar fi îndoirea, răsuciri, legănări, mers sau pas pe loc);
- mișcări ale întregului corp, apoi localizate pe segmente corporale, simetrice sau asimetrice, alternativ sau simultan;
- mers pe un ritm constant;
- asocierea a două mișcări diferite pe un anumit ritm;
- mișcări cu partener sau în șir indian bătând cu palma ritmul; muzicii pe spatele colegului;
- folosirea de obiecte portative, coordonând mișcarea acestora cu mișcarea propriului corp, întâi fără deplasare, apoi combinând și deplasarea;
- îmbunătățirea experienței gestuale prin transmiterea unor cunoștințe generale cum ar fi imitarea zborului păsărilor, valurilor mării, etc, sau exprimarea unui sentiment, a unei muzici, a unei imagini, dând ocazia copilului să-și dezvolte imaginația, să cunoască lumea înconjurătoare într-un mod diferit.

Efectele complexe benefice ale exercițiilor fizice sunt evidente, asociate într-o mare măsură integrării senzoriale, aceste activități asigură condiții excelente pentru conștientizarea propriului corp, orientare spațială, coordonare, formarea deprinderilor perceptiv-motrice, optimiând în același timp condiția fizică a subiecților.

Această activitate trebuie să se impună în programa școlară, cu atât mai mult cu cât în această arie nu există încă o programă adecvată adaptată.

Interacțiunea socială se încadrează în conceptul mai larg de influență socială în care este inclusă întreaga cultura și civilizație, educația, valorile. Emulația, însuflețirea reciprocă, întrecerea, imitația, sugestia, contaminarea sau molipsirea psihică, facilitarea socială, percepțiile interindividuale, opiniile și judecățile sunt subsumate fenomenului de influențare socială. Se poate formula o concluzie cu caracter general, că întreaga personalitate a individului, psihismul său sunt rezultatul acestui gen de influențare.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON HUNGARIAN STUDENTS' SEDENTARY BEHAVIOURS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY BY USING A FREE-TIME DIARY

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ABSTRACT. The political transition in Hungary in 1990 caused value preference-change, and had a strong influence in the role of the physical activity in people's lifestyle. Inactivity became part of our modern age with a huge development in informatics and computer technology and that process developed the „homo sedens” human type. Physically passive, inactive and sedentary lifestyle correlates with the increase of the weight and the body composition. Our research questions are, what is the structure of young people's free-time activities and what the role of physical activity is in their everyday life. In our study we are intending to cover the investigations' circumstances of Hungarian young people's sedentary lifestyle and physical activity as well as the reception of the method, which was used by us. We pay special attention on the respondents, and the methodology of data collection. We review in details, how the 14-17 years of age male and female students have been selected. We also introduce and construe the principal investigation instrument, a self-administered free-time diary. The retrospective method is more commonly used in the literature, as it is useful to gather information from more people in less time however it provides less details and accuracy. Our method is more precise, as the free-time diary measures the momentary status of behaviours, while the recall method is limited to rely on memory bias.

Keywords: Hungarian Youth, Physical Activity, Sedentary Lifestyle, Free-Time Diary

Introduction

The political transition in Hungary in 1990 caused value preference-change, and had a strong influence in the role of the physical activity in people's lifestyle. Inactivity became part of our modern age with a huge development

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in informatics and computer technology and that process developed the „homo sedens” human type. Physically passive, inactive and sedentary lifestyle correlates with the increase of the weight and the body composition. The link between the prevalence of obesity and the change in lifestyle is considered to be evident (Biddle et al., 2003; Bicsérdy, 2002; Aszmann, 2000). Beside the physiological side the mental side of the issue is not negligible: the cumulative aggression, the extreme emotional manifestations, and the weakening concentration and if the study results permanently relapsing are notifying a serious problem in young people already.

The aim of research

Our research questions are, what is the structure of young Hungarian people’s free-time activities and what the role of physical activity is in their everyday life. Further questions are whether how much time they spend generally on exercise and organised sports out of school time, and what is the role of those activities in their life, like TV or video viewing, internet use, computer games, listening to music, telephoning and reading, etc.

Methods

Participants

Participants (n=301) were randomly selected of 14-17 year-old Hungarian primary school and secondary school male (n=121, 40.2%) and female (n=180, 59.8%) students. Eastern Hungarian and Western Hungarian settlements’ and Budapest’s educational institutions were randomly and equally included in the sample.

Free-time diary

An ecological momentary assessment (EMA; Stone and Shiffman, 2002; Marshall et al., 2003) a self-report free-time diary was used for data collection. It comprised two parts, one with participant-level variables, family-level variables and environmental-level variables. The other part of the diary included questions of the behaviour, the location and the company of students. The free-time diary is based on an ecological momentary assessment (EMA), which was developed by the focus group of Loughborough University. The EMA method, amongst the others, can be used to test the respondents – e.g. to test their behaviours – in their natural environment. This method is beneficial, because it is difficult to uncover the everyday events in a real-world setting. In many cases, scholars are modelling real life situations in laboratory settings, or ask the participant to

remember what happened with them in the past. However these methods have major deficiencies, which could be summarised with the followings. Laboratory researches are well controlled, but at the same time they did not reflect back the fidelity, thus the results don't have generalisability. The data collection is easy by using retrospective self-administered questionnaires, however their validity is weak. The measurements depend on quite a few unpredictable events, which distract the respondents' attention. The EMA method well resolves these difficulties, which researches developed for studying behaviours and cognitive processes in their natural environment. This method monitors the strategies of sampling participants in order to achieve a maximal ecological validity in the measurement of various phenomena, and eliminate mistakes caused by retrospection. Further advantage of EMA, that participant can freely report their activities, the location and the social environment at the very moment. Beside these, the EMA can detect the gender and age differences in physical activity and sedentary behaviours based on the behavioural pattern during the adolescence.

The behavioural structure of students has been tested on three school days between 6.00am and 7.45am in the morning and 2pm and 11.45pm in the evening (*See Supplement*). The weekend day's investigation consisted of three periods (morning, afternoon and evening) from 7.00am till 11.45pm. The examined days have been split for 15-minute intervals. In the 15-minute time intervals we studied the following three categories: 1. activities of the respondents; 2. location of students; 3. who is the student spent his/her time with. Behavioural categories were established for sedentary behaviours, and physical activity.

We paid special attention on the opinion of participants according to the following open-ended question: Is there anything else you want to say about the diary?

Students' opinion of the free-time diary

Students' opinion of the free-time diary can be grouped around three topics:

1. Positive evaluation of the survey
2. The critiques of time intervals
3. Criticism of intimate questions

In the first topic there are some classic examples, see as follows: I was pleased to be involved in this survey. This was a good idea, I was happy to help. It was a pleasure to fill out the diary.

Some examples for the answers in the second topic: First time it was a fun, but later it became fairly boring to do it for four days. I couldn't be awake always until 11.45pm. It would be better to fill out the diary in every 30 or 60 minutes instead of 15 minutes.

Some selected opinions for the third topic: It's too intimate. I think the questions about the adolescent age are my business only. Why is important to know the start date of my period?

These reflections should be taken into consideration for further research.

Conclusions

In summary, we conclude that the usage of EMA reduces the number of errors, which exist in the method of the traditional self-report questionnaires, which arise during the evaluation of the adolescent physical activity and sedentary behaviours. At the same time EMA provides broader information of the details of physical activity and sedentary behaviours, and which are not available during the usage of retrospective measures. Nevertheless the EMA isn't perfect either, as difficulties can occur during its administration. An example for this problem: if the respondents don't follow the instruction properly, while filling out the diary. The other problem is – in contrast with the traditional and simple pen-end-pencil data collection – the sampling deficiency. Amongst students a self-selected sample can be formulated from those, who are more interested in the survey, as far they do a higher amount of physical activity, then their counterpart, those who are inactive, therefore this study is boring for them. It can happen that sedentary students are not willing to fill out the diary, and according to the ethical regulations this task shouldn't be compulsory for them. Further limitation can be that those adolescents, who suffer severe psychological or mental diseases, or may be just live in deprived social circumstances, are not able to follow the EMA's instructions on several days.

At the end we would like to note, that the EMA method wasn't employed in Hungary and Transylvania (Romania) in the past by any researchers, so we claim the originality, as our research group introduced this method in this region at the very first time.

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Supplement

Example

Every 15 minutes, we would like you to answer three quick questions. All questions refer **ONLY** to what is happening at that **EXACT** time. The first question asks about the **MAIN** thing you are doing **at that exact time**. The other questions ask about where you are and who you are with **at that exact time**.

Here is an **example** of what a page in your diary might look like:

<i>BEFORE SCHOOL</i>		<i>SCHOOL DAY 1</i>	
Time	What are you doing? (Write activity) e.g., sleeping, eating, doing homework, talking with friends, watching TV, listening to music, on telephone, walking to school, etc.	Where are you? (Circle one number) 1 = My bedroom, 2 = Living room 3 = Kitchen 4 = Bathroom 5 = Other room in own house 6 = Friend's house 7 = In town (inside) 8 = In town (outside) 9 = At school 10 = In car, bus, train, taxi, etc. 11 = Other inside area (please describe) 12 = Other outside area (please describe)	Who's with you? (Circle one number) 1 = I'm alone 2 = Friends 3 = Family 4 = Friends & Family 5 = Other (e.g., teacher, coach, doctor, dentist, etc).
7:00 am 1	THE MAIN THING I AM DOING IS: Having breakfast	1 2 (3) 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	1 2 (3) 4 5
7:15 am 2	THE MAIN THING I AM DOING IS: Having breakfast	1 2 (3) 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	1 2 (3) 4 5

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7:30 am 3	THE MAIN THING I AM DOING IS: Brushing teeth	1 2 3 (4) 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	(1) 2 3 4 5
7:45 am 4	THE MAIN THING I AM DOING IS: Making sandwiches	1 2 (3) 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	1 2 (3) 4 5
8:00 am 5	THE MAIN THING I AM DOING IS: Being driven to school	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (10) 11 12	1 2 (3) 4 5
8:15 am 6	THE MAIN THING I AM DOING IS: Being driven to school	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (10) 11 12	1 2 (3) 4 5
8:30 am 7	THE MAIN THING I AM DOING IS: Talking	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 (12) at newsagents next to school	1 (2) 3 4 5
8:45 am 8	THE MAIN THING Talking	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 (9) 10 11 12	1 (2) 3 4 5

POLITICAL FATE OF CANDIDATE CITIES FOR THE MODERN SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES

ONYESTYÁK NIKOLETTA¹

ABSTRACT. In the history of the modern Olympic Games the influence of the international political framework appears in many ways. From the very beginning, Olympic sport has played an important role in the international rivalry amongst the nations, it appeared as a propaganda tool for the backing of different ideological systems, it was invaded by terrorist attacks, it suffered from political and racial boycotts, and it also exhibited the divided nations' cold war struggle. These political actions sometimes eventuated even in the violation of the Olympic Charters' fundamental principles, like "the bringing together of the world's athletes every four year at the great sports festival; the practising of sport, without discrimination of any kind; and the functioning of the Olympic Spirit, which requires mutual understanding with the spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play"³.

Cities with important sporting traditions were always greatly interested in organizing the Olympic Games, and host the most expanded sporting festival of the world. On the other hand they mostly realized the positive effect of the organization on their economy, infrastructure, sporting life, and even on national political aims, as making their excellent regime recognized. The Modern Olympic history has celebrated twenty-six Summer Games in twenty-two different cities representing four continents of the world, but an other number of cities can also be enumerated, which finally for international political reasons were at the last moment despoiled from the right of the organization.

The aim of my study is to draw up a comparative analysis on the circumstances of those cases, when already voted, or almost elected host cities suffered from the coincidence of some international political events, which frustrated their dream.

Key words: Olympic hosts, international politics, Budapest 1920, Barcelona, world war

Study

Sport and politics make strange but persistent bedfellows. Although „the Olympic Movement should be free from any political, religious or racial influence”⁴ it is obvious, that “politics lurks around every corner of the

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² Question of East and West Germany, China and Taiwan, North and South Korea

³ Fundamental Principles of Olympism, in Olympic Charter, (2007) p. 12

⁴ Gafner (1998), issue3 p. 26

Olympic Games from who sits on the International Olympic Committee to how host nations are chosen.”⁵ In the ancient Greece Olympics were a demonstrative model of cooperation, achievement of excellence and the pursuit competitive victory. They were also frequently a place where political alliances were formed and broken, where the famous Olympic truce was tested, but as the host city of the Games, Olympia, was a persistent site, nobody happened to question its age-long right to organize the festival every four years. In contrast the modern Olympics couldn't remain immune, they have seen their share of negative incidents as the Movement expanded, and more and more countries of different race, regime, ideology, religion and political ambitions latched on, and competed, performed, rivalled under their national symbols.

As a novelty of the Coubertin Games in spite of some attempts there was no longer permanent site for the Olympic Games, although this possibility turned up during the period of the boycotts. Host cities were elected 4-7 years beforehand to organize the celebration of the sport festival, and to receive the participants. The methods and conditions of the election of the host city are described in the Olympic Charter's Rule 34. The National Government of the country of any applicant city, approved by its NOC must submit to the IOC a legally binding instrument by which the said government undertakes and guarantees that the country and its public authorities will comply with and respect the Olympic Charter. The election of any host city is the prerogative of the Session. “All decisions of the IOC must be sports decisions, not political ones. If big powers wish to play power politics using the Olympic Movement as such, it must be fought by any means we have. It is essential for the IOC to endeavour to foresee such events and act with strength.”⁶ The IOC still had to work under political lobbies concerning the election of host cities, and the defence of the voted hosts against the developing political events was sometimes even more difficult.

In the forthcoming I will analyse the circumstances of host-election for five different Olympiads. The candidate cities were each time enthusiastic and confident to organize Olympic festivals, but finally the international circumstances deprived them from doing so. Berlin in spite of organizing a sporting event in 1916 played an important role in unleashing the first world war; in 1914 Budapest could almost be sure to receive the world's best athletes in 1920, but Hungarian athletes finally couldn't even take part in

⁵ Steel (2008): *The Olympic sport of politics*

⁶ Gafner (1998) Issue 3. p. 75

that Games; Barcelona after many candidatures, in 1936 one day before the opening ceremony of the People's Olympic Games was hit by the Spanish Civil war; Tokyo and later Helsinki were chosen to organize Olympics for 1940, but the second world war broke out and repealed the games, the same cup had to drink London in 1944. Twenty-eight years later the games were almost cancelled underway, as on day twelve the terrorist attack of "Black September" shocked the institution.

The essence of the Olympic Movement and „the objective of the Olympic Games would not only be to bring together people who like each other, but also those who have differences”,⁷ forgetting about them in the sports arena. This objective unfortunately could not be fulfilled in these cases.

Budapest 1920

Hungary, being among the founders of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), after participating prominently in the first few Games, made a decision to candidate for the Organization of the 1920 Olympics. Ferenc Kemény, the Hungarian founding member of the IOC, the introductory of the Olympic Movement in Hungary and good friend of Pierre de Coubertin was in continuous letter contact with the Frenchmen about the questions of sport and physical education. When Budapest debuted as host of the 12th IOC session held in May 1911, was given a good occasion to present itself and its sport culture. The reactions from the IOC, and especially the final speech of Coubertin could give confidence for the Hungarian Olympic Committee about its dream, as Coubertin asked for God's bless to the city, and reassuringly wished the citizens the strengths to maintain the development they were having in their capital.⁸ The next challenge was to show a good performance in Stockholm 1912. "For our little, isolated nation the matter of the performance in the Olympic Games, far exceeds the limits of importance of only the physical education problem. It can create such a strong echo, which could blare over even the biggest nations. In London, among the 22 participant countries Hungary finished fifth, even overtaking Germany. Now again we have a new opportunity, we just have to take advantage of it."⁹ According to the expectations the Olympic

⁷ Gafner (1998) issue3. p. 30

⁸ Final speech of Pierre de Coubertin in the closing ceremony of the Budapest IOC session, on May 26t 1911. – Budapest Capital Archives, VII – 2833/1912

⁹ The MOB's letter to the Ministry of Religion and Public Education on May 30. 1911. – Archives of the Ministry of Religion and Public Education, K 592 – 14 – 48013/68260/1911

participation in Stockholm favoured Hungary's future plans. "Apart from the moral success that our nation achieved with its distinguished final sporting result, and position among the nations, which now has spread all over the world, [...] the experiences, which we could gather about the organization and materialization of the Olympics, resulted us precious knowledge, especially as the Olympic Games of Stockholm has exceeded each earlier in this aspect. These experiences will be profitable for our Olympic Committee [...] in the solution of the big task which is the organization of the Games of the 7th Olympiad in 1920 in Budapest. [...] The IOC in the Stockholm session declared that [...] Budapest capital is to be entitled to the priority, in front of the other candidate cities, to become the host of the 7th Olympic Games in 1920."¹⁰ From then on Hungary was preparing for the organization of the Olympic Games, first of all invited applications for the edification of a National Stadium, and started to separate the needed money for the big event. In spite of this, to the 1914 Paris session of the International Olympic Committee the city of Antwerp arrived with well prepared brochures about their project for the same 7th Olympics. As the candidate cities presented themselves, the IOC proposed an unofficial voting (vote d'opinion) on the question of the 1920 Olympic site, where 21 members promoted Budapest, and only 7 backed Antwerp.¹¹

On the last day of the Congress, 28th June the Sarajevo assassination of the Habsburg Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne took place, which activated a series of alliances that set off a chain reaction of war declarations. Although a few weeks earlier, yet in Lyon in a track and field championship the five interlocking rings first appeared to symbolize the world's sport unity, "the call for international harmony and good will was drowned out by the roar of cannon and the moans of dying men"¹². The warlike fightings were so long lasting that the Olympic rings couldn't debut either in the planned 1916 Berlin Olympics, as they were cancelled, or in Budapest in 1920, as the IOC instead elected Antwerp for being the host city for the 7th Summer Games. In this decision they considered it symbolically important to place the first post-war games in Belgium, which in spite of being neutral, at the beginning of the great war

¹⁰ The MOB's report to the Ministry of Religion and Public Education, November 20, 1912. – Archives of the Ministry of Religion and Public Education, K592 – 14 – 48013 /178099/1ö12/194-197. sheets

¹¹ Proceedings of the MOB's session on July 14, 1914. –, Hungarian Museum of Physical Education and Sport, The documents of the MOB TR 0440

¹² Guttmann, (1992) *The Olympics*, p. 38.

was invaded and tore down by Germany¹³. A British member of the IOC, Theodore Cook, on the first post war IOC session in 1919, held in Lausanne, demanded the expulsion of the German members from the Committee, but his motion was rejected. Nevertheless according to the formula employed since 1896, the invitation to the Olympic Games was in hands of the host city, the IOC could only encourage the organizers not to invite the losers of the war. “If any kind of banishment had been expressed by the IOC, even knowing that we were after such a conflict that enveloped in blood the whole Europe, that would have provoked disunion in the yet resistant Olympic Movement.”¹⁴ Consequently in the question of invitations Antwerp could decide freely, so in 1920, incomplete games were held without the labelled aggressive, hostile nations of the war; Germany, Turkey, Austria, Bulgaria and Hungary.

In the end of the second decade of the twentieth century, the Hungarian sport was stricken by the long war in multiple ways. Not only the privilege of the Olympic Games’ organization was taken away but the possibility of participation in the 1920 festival was also withheld. On the other hand after the war the peace-treaty truncated the country, which meant the loss of two thirds of its territory, and concerning its infrastructure and economy it was also deeply ruined. Beyond that many top athletes, and other people, who worked in favour of the Olympics¹⁵ lost their lives in the battles, others found themselves under the authority of a new nation. Due to all these effects, Hungarian sport was in a very miserable situation in 1920, but thanks to its historical affection to sport it had enough courage to stand up. “We believe that in the forthcoming four years the hearts will clear off the sludge of animosity, and in the peaceful battlefield of sport, hands will be shaken among those nations, which today compete in the Olympics and those who are banished from there by odium and politics.”¹⁶ In the 1922 session of the IOC the topic of a possible Budapest Olympic Games appeared again, as Gyula Muzsa in his speech made the members remember, that Hungary once in 1914 already had the priority for the hosting, and the country

¹³ Guttman, (1992) *The Olympics*, p. 38.

¹⁴ Mayer (1960), *A travers les anneaux olympiques*, p. 88.

¹⁵ Sugár István, Bolla Mihály, Friedrich Nándor, Galambos Ede, Speidl Zoltán, Békessy Béla, Demján Oszkár, Fóti (Fleck) Samu, Göczy Lajos, Kovács György, Las-Torres Béla, Mudin Imre, Mudin István, Szántai Jenő, Zulawsky Béla.. in.: Kutassi – Niedermann, 70.

¹⁶ *Sport hírlap*, August 23, 1920.

insisting on this possibility would like to stage the 10th Olympics.¹⁷ Although neither this dream come true, nor the candidatures for the 1936, 44 and 60 Games resulted the voting for Budapest as a host city but Hungarian athletes kept on participating high level in the forthcoming Olympic sites.

Barcelona 1936

The first application of Barcelona to host the Summer Games dates back to 1921, when the Catalan capital appeared among the candidate cities for the organization of the 1924 Olympics in the Lausanne IOC session, but due to the thirtieth anniversary of the Movement Paris was in advantage. Although a special committee¹⁸ was formed to promote the candidature and many facilities were built on the hills of Monjuic¹⁹, some national political circumstances withheld the IOC members to vote in favour of Barcelona. Two weeks before the 29th IOC session held in Barcelona the political regime changed in the Hispanic country, and parallel with the formation of the second Republic, the internal unsteadiness was significant so only 19 out of the 69 IOC members dared to travel to Barcelona to take part in the elective session. "Owing to the very small number present at the 1931 Session and in order to take into account the number of written votes already received, the Committee decided to wait until the answers of the many absent members reached Lausanne. The votes taken during the Session and those already received were sealed and deposited at Lausanne with the others."²⁰ The final decision was postponed to May 13th, 1931, when the majority of the members, 43 against 16 favoured Berlin as the host of the 1936 Games.

The organization of the Olympic Games of 1936 by the German Nazis in Berlin have provoked a lot of controversies between different organizations and politicians. For most of them the Olympic spirit seemed to be destroyed by the reality of the politics of the Nazis. Especially an intensive conflict between the IOC and the Workers's Organization of Sport

¹⁷ The report of Gyula Muzsa MOB president to the Ministry of Religion and Public Education, July 18, 1922. – Archives of the Ministry of Religion and Public Education, K 592 – 1923 – 14 – 48013/124-125.

¹⁸ Comité de Honor de la Candidatura

¹⁹ The Olympic Stadium, which was completed by 1929, covered swimming pool called Piscinas Picornell

²⁰ *International Olympic Committee. Meeting of 1931 (Fourth Year of the Ninth Olympiad). Barcelona, 25th - 26th April. Bulletin Officiel du Comit, International Olympique, July, 1931, No. 18, p. 14.*

could be recognized. For this reason the newly elected left-wing Popular Front government in Spain with the recommendation of the Soviet ambassador Antonov Ovsenko, decided to boycott the Berlin Olympics and host its own games following its election in February 1936. Invitations were made to the nations of the world and the games were scheduled to be held from July 19 to July 26 and would have therefore ended six days prior to the start of the Berlin Games. In addition to the usual sporting events, the Barcelona games²¹ would have also featured chess, folkdancing, music and theatre. A total of 6,000 athletes from 22 nations registered for the games, most of them were sent by trade unions, workers' clubs and associations, socialist and communist parties and left-wing groups rather than by state-sponsored committees. The largest contingents of athletes came from the United States, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and French Algeria. There were also German and Italian teams made up of exiles from those countries.²²

With the outbreak of the Spanish Civil War the alternate games were hastily cancelled. Some athletes never made it to Barcelona as the borders had been closed while those who were in the city for the beginning of the games had to make a hasty exit. However, at least 200 of the athletes remained in Spain and joined workers' militias that were organized to defend the Spanish Republic.

Barcelona after this special coming out in Olympic history also made a bid for the 1940 Games, but that year finally neither the winner Tokyo, nor the later elected Helsinki organized sport festival due to the second world war.

After the successful 2nd Mediterranean Games held in Barcelona in 1955, the organization of the 1972 Summer Games was the next objective, but this time Madrid was the primer obstacle in this effort. As the Olympic Charter stated; "should there be several potential applicant cities in the same country to the same Olympic Games, one city only may apply, as decided by the NOC of the country concerned."²³ Despite of this two Spanish cities aspired for the organization, and Madrid being the capital took the priority but its Major finally didn't even turn up in 1966 in Rome at the election.

²¹ Juegos Olímpicos del Proletariado

²² Durantez, C. (1988): *Barcelona '92 – XXV. Olimpiada*

²³ Fundamental Principles of Olympism, in Olympic Charter, (2007) p. 12

Barcelona had to wait twenty more years to gain the right of organization for a Summer Olympic Festival.

Host cities and the world wars (Berlin, Tokyo, Helsinki, London)

The International Olympic Committee was established in 1894, with the goal of contributing to a peaceful future for humankind through the educational value of sport. The traditions of the Movement are rooted in the ancient Greece in the 9th century BC, where the "Olympic Truce" or "Ekecheiria" was established by the signature of a treaty between three kings. During the Truce period, the athletes, artists and their families, as well as ordinary pilgrims, could travel in total safety to participate in or attend the Olympic Games and return afterwards to their respective countries. As the opening of the Games approached, the sacred truce was proclaimed and announced by citizens of Elis who travelled throughout Greece to pass on the message. The Modern Olympic Movement decided to revive the ancient concept in order to protect the interests of the athletes and sport in general. As most of the IOC presidents believed; "sport alone cannot enforce or maintain peace. But it has a vital role to play in building a better and more peaceful world."²⁴

Unfortunately in the modern 20th century politics resulted many times more effective than the famous Olympic spirit, so it was exactly for warlike reasons that Olympic Games had to be cancelled.

Berlin was already chosen to host the 1916 Summer Games when the long war started, although the officials of the IOC relied on the Olympic Truce until the last moment, but finally the Games had to be cancelled. Similarly for 1940 Tokyo was already scheduled to organize the sport festival but its country in 1938 due to the conflict with China had to withdraw from the possibility. Neither the city chosen in its place, Helsinki could complete the task of the organization in 1940, as the competition run it's course in the battlefields. Four years later London should have been the host, but the British capital also had to wait until the end of the armed conflict and its Summer Games only effectuated in 1948.

München 1972

Throughout the Olympic history many candidate cities were never elected, others were already in the procedure of the preparations when some international political events resulted in the cancellation of the games, and

²⁴ Dr Jacques Rogge, IOC President, October 2007

there is also one host city, which was almost deprived of the Games completion due to a terrorist attack. The Munich massacre occurred during the 1972 Summer Olympics, when members of the Israeli Olympic team were taken hostage and eventually murdered by Black September, a militant group with ties to Yasser Arafat's Fatah organization. By the end of the ordeal, the terrorist group had killed eleven Israeli athletes and coaches and one German police officer. Five of the eight members of Black September were killed by police officers during an abortive rescue attempt. The International Olympic Committee in spite of the pressure of different speakers, who demanded the cancellation of the Games, identified itself with the idea of the freedom of sport from politics, and decided to continue the competitions. „Every civilized person recoils in horror at the barbarous criminal intrusion of terrorists into peaceful Olympic precincts. We mourn our Israeli fiends, victims of this brutal assault. The Olympic flag, and the flags of the whole world fly at half mast. Sadly, in this imperfect world, the greater and more important the Olympic Games become, the more they are open to commercial, political and now criminal pressure...I am sure that the public will agree that we cannot allow a handful of terrorists to destroy this nucleus of international cooperation and good will we have in the Olympic Movement. The Games must go on and we must continue our effort to keep them clean, pure and honest, and try to extend the sportsmanship of the athletic field into other areas.”²⁵

Conclusion

The influence of the international political circumstances affects in many ways the field of sport and especially the history of the Olympic Games. As these festivals are the greatest sporting events now existing in the world, the privilege of the organization has various positive and profitable outcomes, for this reason throughout the twentieth century many candidates struggled to gain the right of being an Olympic host. As sport history demonstrated the voting of the International Olympic Committee couldn't mean the certain guarantee that the chosen city would really have the possibility to invite the world's athletes for the Olympic Games. International wars resulted in the cancellation of three already scheduled festivals. On the other hand many Olympic candidates were deprived even of the possibility to be voted for political reasons, as Budapest or Barcelona.

²⁵ Guttman, A. (1992): *The Olympics*. p. 140

And even during the two weeks of the competitions the host organizers have to be so aware to exclude hostile pressures and events.

The Olympic Movement didn't prove itself to be enough strong to filter the impact of the international conflicts and bellicose activities out, and insure the spirit of kalokagathia. We can just be hopeful, that in the present 21st century no more political influence will show up concerning the Olympic Games.

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SPORT FOR THE STUDENTS OF THE „BABEȘ- BOLYAI” UNIVERSITY CLUJ-NAPOCA

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ABSTRACT. According to the Charter „SPORT” means all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organized participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels. The Romanian legislation stipulates that „the public authorities ensure the necessary conditions in order to enable young people to take part in the political, social, economic, cultural and sporting life of the community.”

Keywords: students; pshysical education; romanian legislation.

Regarding physical education as a necessity in the life of every individual of modern society, as an aspect of their culture, and not as something compulsory – in the sense of being imposed – is an older pursuit.

The comparative studies published during the last years dealing with the fitness level of students from faculties of the Babes-Bolyai university, studies which revealed the stagnation or even the regress of the students’ fitness level as compared to the standards required by the baccalaurate, and then the more and more obvious and expressed reluctance of the students regarding the weekly sports course imposed by the university curriculum, have led to writing this article.

1. Legal frame

The European Sport Charter (1992) offers the frame for a sports policy, to which all European states have adhered to. It constitutes a reference point for public authorities and sports organizations.

According to the Charter „SPORT” means all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organized participation, aim at expressing

¹ FEFS Cluj-Napoca

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or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels.

Regarding the infrastructure necessary for practicing sports the same document states: „all educational institutions have to be able to offer the necessary and corresponding facilities and equipment for practicing physical education activities and sports.”

The Romanian legislation stipulates that „the public authorities ensure the necessary conditions in order to enable young people to take part in the political, social, economic, cultural and sporting life of the community.”

2. The Current Status of Physical Education as a Discipline in Universities

2.1 In Europe

As representative for the current status of physical education in Europe I have studied the sports programme offered by three universities from European countries, which have a well-known and appreciated university system. I have chosen France (the University of Nantes, the University Douphine-Paris and the Paul Verlaine University in Metz), the United Kingdom (Buckingham University, Kent University and Oxford University) and Germany (Würzburg University, Potsdam University and Heidelberg University), countries who have promoted, sustained and realized the idea of the European Union.

The program offered by all universities aims at promoting physical exercise and sports, as well as at encouraging a great number of students to practice individual sports, to play a team sport, to express themselves through the different forms of art – dance, ballet etc. or to practice a martial art or cultivate their habit of spending time outdoors.

Again through the university programmes the universities offer the students, who practice sports at performance level the opportunity to continue their training and to take part in official competitions by means of associations or university sports clubs.

Beginners are provided with qualified staff, who can train them and supervise them while exercising.

Another aspect of the programme is that students are continuously informed about the sports they are interested in, they are kept up to date with news and modifications, hereby improving both their theoretical knowledge and their practical skills with respect to their sport and its effects on their health condition.

The target is to install a healthy social climate through sports – „fair-play” in the academic field.

The universities owe sports campuses with multifunctional sports halls, dancing studios, aerobic studios, gyms for martial arts etc.; fitness rooms, cardio rooms, stretching rooms; courts with natural and artificial grass, and running tracks; swimming pools with diving facilities; climbing walls indoors or outdoors.

Access: The access to the sports campus is allowed for the students and the staff of the respective university.

Requirements: Requirements differ from university to university and from country to country, nevertheless there are common conditions:

- signing a collective insurance in case of accidents during exercise;
- filling in an application form;
- copy of a document proving the status as a student or staff member of the university;
- a photograph;
- a medical certificate to prove the ability to practice sports;
- paying a semestrial fee – differs according to particular criteria: student with scholarship or not, active staff member, retired staff member – in exchange for a card which is to be used for gaining access to the sporting premisses.

Offer: see appendix

Some universities, for example in France, also offer wellness centers with: therapy through hypnosis, reflexology, acupuncture, indian head massage, recuperation massage, well-being coaching etc.

The offer comprises of the schedule of the activities, the place where they happen and the person responsible. Some activities imply additional costs, as they require specific equipment (yachting, windsurfing etc.) or a special maintenance of the premisses (swimming, waterpolo, riding) or even a remunerated specialized trainer (judo, karate, taekwondo).

The programmes offer the students the opportunity to opt for a sports activity as an optional course, thus obtaining credit points according to the Bologna system.

The curricular sports course lasts 90 minutes, once a week. Presence is compulsory and the student has to take an exam at the end of the semester consisting of a practical part – where the evolution of the student compared to their initial level is considered and a theoretical part – the student presents

a research project on the activity he has performed. These two parts are merged for the final result.

As noticeable from the above mentioned, the university sports programmes have three main directions:

- Sports for the masses – remaining fit;
- Performance sports – the elite;
- wellness – recuperation and relaxation.

2.2 At the „Babeș-Bolyai” University

Chapter 7, point 9 of the Babeș-Bolyai University Charter mentions that the physical education and sports activities of the students take place according to the demands of the students or according to the syllabuses using the sports facilities of the university's sports park „Dr. Iuliu Hațieganu” and other sports courts. These activities are organized by the Faculty of Physical Education and Sport in cooperation with the administration of the sports park for all UBB students.

Physical education and sports is a discipline present in the syllabuses of all faculties of the „Babeș-Bolyai” University representing the so called compulsory complementary disciplines (like foreign languages). It is compulsory for the duration of two or three semesters (two hours a week), and has no credit points assigned to it. In all faculties physical education is present in the students' timetable in the first two or three semesters.

Evaluation takes place every semester on a „pass” and „fail” basis by a verification during the semester or at the end. Evaluation criteria are usually active participation and progress shown in the physical tests.

The objectives of the physical education activities at the Babeș-Bolyai University fully comply with the principles of the above mentioned documents:

- ✓ involve all students in doing their preferred physical education activities and sports in a systematical and organized manner;
- ✓ maintain general good health among the students and increase the strength of the organism against possible harms by environmental factors and factors of their specific profession;
- ✓ ensure superior indices for correct and harmonious physical development of the organism;
- ✓ correct the deficient attitudes or physical disabilities and prevent deficient attitudes favoured by the specific professional activities;
- ✓ improve the general dexterousness;

- ✓ improve the physical abilities and skills, develop the physical qualities and learn new physical skills by doing new kinds of sports;
- ✓ develop the habit to do physical education activities and sports on their own for recreation purposes, for corrective, compensatory, fortifying or competition purposes;
- ✓ improve self-controlling and self-organizing skills;
- ✓ direct the students showing sports skills towards performance within university clubs;

The physical education courses take place according to the timetable established at the beginning of the semester, as practical courses with a group of 50 students. Teachers try – within the limits of possibilities – to organize the activities taking into account the students’ preferences, the availability of the facilities, the seasons.

The sports activities take place in the universities’ sport park „Dr. Iuliu Hațieganu”; with the students from Faculty of Economic Sciences and Business Management also the two gyms on the faculty campus are used. The infrastructure available at the sport park includes the following gyms and courts:

- ✓ bitumen basketball, handball, volleyball and football fields;
- ✓ clay football field;
- ✓ athletics stadium;
- ✓ games Hall „Vasile Geleriu”
- ✓ sports hall „Gheorghe Roman”;
- ✓ athletics hall;
- ✓ beach volleyball field;
- ✓ aerobics hall.

Students have the possibility to use the facilities Saturdays and Sundays for independent activities, without assistance from specialized staff.

3. Reorganizing proposal

3.1 Introduction of the physical education and sports card

At registration every student will receive, along with the student’s card, another personalized card for physical education and sport activities. This card grants access to the university’s sports facilities, where physical education and sports activities are organized according to a semester timetable, which will replace classical physical education and sport courses.

We suggest having students fill in a form during the application, with a section requesting them to mention their favourite sports or physical education

activities, which they would like to do during their study period. By centralizing this information (with a specialized programme) the university can evaluate the students' preferred options correctly and a corresponding schedule of the activities can be set up.

At the beginning of each university year information sessions for the students will be organized regarding the physical education activities, where the offer of activities, the requirements, the timetable and the places where the activities take place along with the responsible person will be presented. The information sessions will include meetings with the educational staff, conferences at the faculties, students' dormitories and other places preferred by students. Flyers, posters and presentation films will be realized. The bill boards at the faculties, the university site and the web pages of the faculties will be used.

A computer equipped with the corresponding soft (data base with the students registered) and a scanner will be provided at the sports facilities where the physical education activities will take place. Using this equipment the students will mark their card at every activity. At the end of the study period the students will have gathered a number of points (credit points), based on which they will receive a certificate to attest their participation in the physical education activities (like in the case of the language certificate). This personalized certificate will show the number of hours and the activities in which the students have taken part during their study period (training sessions, competitions, performances etc.) and they will be aligned with the physical education courses during 2 or 3 semesters (depending on the syllabuses of the faculties).

We suggest organizing the following physical education activities:

- ✓ Games: basketball, football, handball, volleyball, rugby;
- ✓ Athletics;
- ✓ Aerobics;
- ✓ Fitness;
- ✓ Dancing;
- ✓ Tourism, ski;
- ✓ Martial arts;
- ✓ Aquatics;
- ✓ Compensatory gymnastics;
- ✓ Physical activities for disadvantaged or disabled students;

The list of activities can be completed with other activities according to the preferences of the students.

The bill boards at every field, gym or swimming pool will display the necessary rules for a good functioning of the activities during the university year. The educational staff holding the physical education activities will elaborate the syllabuses for every discipline or activity.

In the case of students with health problems, which doctors usually recommend to be freed from doing physical education activities and sports, specific kinesitherapeutic activities will be organized. These activities will be led by staff specialized in kinesitherapy and will take place in specially equipped gyms. These activities are also considered physical education and sport activities, in order for the students participating to have the possibility to accumulate the necessary credit points for obtaining the physical education and sport certificate. We plan on reducing the number of students freed from physical education and sport to zero.

The timetable of the activities will be scheduled in such a manner that the students be able to chose from a wide range of options, extended to Saturdays and Sundays.

The physical education and sport activities will necessarily include competitions as well. University comeptitions used as an instrumental programme can help accumulate a great deal of fundamental skills and values. Skills and values gained through sport are essential for the school of life.

SKILLS: cooperation, communication, respecting rules, means of problem solving, understanding, interpersonal relationships, leader qualities, respecting others, cherishing the effort, victory management, loss management, comeptition management.

VALUES: fair-play, self-esteem, confidence, honesty, tolerance, optimism, team work, discipline, empathy.

Competition types which can be used in this respect are:

- ✓ Comeptitions during the courses between groups or study years;
- ✓ Comeptitions as championships on kinds of sports, between faculties or the entire university, based on tournament, elimination or play-off systems;
- ✓ Comeptitions „with oneself’ when students practice a fitness programme, which implies psycho-physical and biological achievements;
- ✓ Season-dependant short term programmes, whith as little financial effort as possible: ski, tourism and orientation, thematic hikes;
- ✓ Crosses or marches which could become a tradition in university life.

3.2 Operational activities

Choosing and naming 3-5 educational staff members by the Administration Board of the Babeș-Bolyai University and the Teaching Council of the Physical Education and Sports Faculty, along with students representatives which will form a work group for coming up with a plan of application for this project. This plan will also include the modifications necessary in the „Guidelines for the functioning of educational activities based on the TRANSFERABLE CREDIT SYSTEM” and will be provided to the University Senate for approval.

Assigning a faculty (we suggest The Economic Science and Business Management Faculty) to test this system for one year. Evaluating the results, followed by possible corrections will enable the programme to be gradually extended to other faculties. We consider that the system can be generalized at university level within 4 years.

Coming up with a project regarding the required budget for equipping the sports facilities which will be used with computers, scanners, software, cards and identifying the financing sources.

Conceiving and realizing the presentation materials used for the information sessions for the students.

Assigning the educational staff members to lead the activities, indicating the way of establishing the norms.

3.3 Advantages

Through the diversity of the offer and the flexibility of the programme the level of attractiveness of the physical education and sport activities will raise for the students.

Necessary conditions will be created for all students to take part in the physical education and sports activities, even for those working during the study years.

The number of students freed from physical education and sports activities out of medical reasons will drop.

The number of vacancies in the at the Physical Education and Sports Faculty will drop.

4. Conclusions

The stipulations of the European Sports Charter, of Law no. 69/2000 of the Romanian state and of chapter 7, point 9 of the Charter of the Babeș-

Bolyai University encourage adapting the physical education activities in higher-education to the options of the students.

Flexibility and diversity of the offer need be main aspects in this respect. Approaching activities from three directions (wellness, performance, possibility of obtaining credit points) offers the students the possibility to opt for that direction which is most representative for them, and at the same time excludes the risk of deterring the students from doing physical activities in general. Moreover, in order to arise the interest of the students the social aspect of doing sports need not be neglected, as they ensure for the students the confort of being part of a healthy academic context, at the same time protecting them from the embarassment of public gyms or sports clubs where everybody is granted access.

Conferences, information sessions, seminars organized under the guidance of specialized staff and with active participation on behalf of the students fulfill the picture of the literatus of tomorrow, whose culture does not lack one of the utmost important aspects: health maintainance and physical well-being through sports.

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12. European Sports Charter 1992

Appendix 1

aikido	handball	real tennis
american football	hockey	riding
athletics	ice hockey	rifle
aussie rules	jitsu	rowing clubs
badminton	judo	rugby fives
baseball	karate	rugby league
basketball	karate kds	rugby union
boat	kendo	shorinji kempo
boxing	kickboxing	ski and snowboard
canoe and kayak	korfball	squash racquets
cave	kung fu	sulkido
cheerleading	lacrosse	surf
company of archers	lawn tennis	swimming
cricket	lifesaving	table tennis
croquet	lightweight rowing	taekwon-do
cross country	modern pentathlon	tai chi
cycling	motor drivers	trampolining
dancesport	mountaineering	triathlon
eton fives	netball	ultimate frisbee
fencing	orienteering	underwater
floorball	pistol	exploration
football	polo	volleyball
gaelic games	pool	walking
gliding	powerlifting	waterpolo
golf	punting	windsurfing
gymnastics	rackets	wrestling
		yacht

ACTIVITĂȚILE LUDICE MIJLOC DE SOCIALIZARE A COLECTIVULUI DE ELEVI

RUGINĂ EMILIA¹, BĂLTEANU VERONICA²

ABSTRACT. The game offers children an of impressions that contributes to the enhancement of knowledge about the world and life, also increases the capacity of understanding of complex situations, creates restraint capacity stimulating memory, concentration ability, the capacity of obeying certain rules, ability to make quick decisions, to resolve problem-situations, in other words develops creativity. Each game has its own rules so as, when a child wants to play with another group of children, he has to accept the rules of that group willingly; in other words, he will accept the established, adopted and respected rules of the group before he entered the game.

Keywords: games; physical education; socialize

REZUMAT. Jocul oferă copiilor o sumă de impresii care contribuie la îmbogățirea cunoștințelor despre lume și viață, totodată mărește capacitatea de înțelegere a unor situații complexe, creează capacități de reținere stimulând memoria, capacitatea de concentrare, de respectare a anumitor reguli, capacități de a lua decizii rapide, de a rezolva situații-problemă, cu alte cuvinte dezvoltă creativitatea. Fiecare joc are propriile reguli astfel că, atunci când un copil vrea să se joace cu un alt grup de copii, el trebuie să accepte regulile grupului respectiv în mod deliberat, voit; cu alte cuvinte, el va accepta normele stabilite, adoptate și respectate de grupul respectiv înainte ca el să intre în joc.

Cuvinte cheie: *joc, educație fizică, socializare*

INTRODUCERE

Conținutul și caracterul jocurilor s-a schimbat în decursul timpului datorită schimbării mediului social în care acestea se desfășurau, a condițiilor mediului înconjurător. Jocurile se regăsesc în procesul de educare a tinerei generații sub denumirea de activități ludice, care au început să capete o importanță din ce în ce mai mare în procesul de socializare a elevilor.

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Activitățile ludice privite ca mijloc de socializare a colectivului de elevi constituie o temă de actualitate. Copiii care sunt lipsiți de posibilitatea de a se juca cu alți, rămân nedezvoltați din punct de vedere al personalității și al integrării în societate; unii copii, cu cât înaintează în vârstă, le este din ce în ce mai greu să se integreze în colectivități, astfel că jocul face copilul să-și învingă timiditatea, devine mai îndrăzneț, preia inițiativa în anumite situații, atât în joc cât și în viața de zi cu zi. Studiarea rolului socializator al activităților ludice are o importanță deosebită în procesul de socializarea al colectivelor de elevi. Prin creșterea nivelului de socializare a colectivului de elevi crește implicit și nivelul de pregătire a acestora datorită stabilirii unor noi relații la nivelul acestuia.

I. METODE DE CERCETARE

Metodele de cercetare la care am apelat pentru realizarea acestei lucrări sunt cunoscute ca: metode de investigare și recoltare a datelor (studierea bibliografiei, recoltarea datelor); metode de cercetare a relațiilor interumane (sociometria și testul sociometric), metoda grafică (sociomatricea și sociograma)

II. ORGANIZAREA CERCETĂRII

II.1. Subiecții, locul de desfășurare a experimentului

Subiecții experimentului sunt elevii de 10-11 ani, respectiv clasa a V-a, de la Școala Generală Numărul 15 „Ștefan Bârsănescu”, din Iași. Clasa experimentală cuprinde 20 elevi, dintre care 11 băieți și 9 fete, iar clasa martor are 20 de elevi dintre care 10 băieți și 10 fete.

II.2. Durata și etapele cercetării

Experimentul s-a desfășurat pe parcursul anului școlar 2007-2008, împărțit în etape.

Etapa I (septembrie-octombrie 2007), consultarea bibliografiei, întocmirea fișelor bibliografice, stabilirea claselor experimentale și martor, discuții cu profesorii, pentru a corela informațiile în organizarea și desfășurarea activității viitoare. S-a urmărit și formarea unor deprinderi motrice corespunzătoare jocurilor de mișcare, care să favorizeze executarea corectă a sarcinilor de îndeplinit și a respectării regulilor, în vederea sporirii relațiilor dintre elevi în vederea socializării, a integrării lor în colectivul clasei. La sfârșitul acestei etape s-a efectuat o testare inițială, aplicându-se un test sociometric pentru stabilirea liderului de grup.

Etapa a II-a (noiembrie-decembrie 2007), s-au prelucrat datele culese la testarea inițială la clasa experimentală și cea martor, rezultatele fiind trecute în matricele sociometrice din tabelul nr.1 și tabelul nr.1a. S-a continuat cu efectuarea lecțiilor de educație fizică conform planului de desfășurare a experimentului.

Etapa a III-a (ianuarie-martie 2008) jocurile de mișcare au fost prezente în continuare în toate lecțiile de la clasa experimentală, s-a efectuat testarea finală (Tf) prin aplicarea testului sociometric și s-au trecut rezultatele în tabelul nr.2. reprezentând matricea sociometrică la clasa experimentală și tabelul nr. 2.a-la clasa martor.

Etapa a IV-a (aprilie-mai 2008), s-a concretizat prelucrând datele culese la testarea inițială (Ti) și cea finală (Tf), studiul din cadrul proiectului finalizându-se prin interpretarea rezultatelor și stabilirea concluziilor.

III. CONȚINUTUL EXPERIMENTULUI

Ca mijloc al educației fizice jocurile de mișcare fac parte integrantă din lecția de educație fizică, aducându-și contribuția la realizarea obiectivelor generale ale acesteia.

S-au folosit jocuri de mișcare adecvate fiecărei verigi de lecția care să contribuie la creșterea gradului de socializare a copiilor, în cadrul clasei și între a acestora cu celelalte clase

IV. PREZENTAREA ȘI INTERPRETAREA DATELOR

În urma finalizării cercetării, a prelucrării rezultatelor de la testările efectuate se desprind o serie de aspecte care atestă necesitatea imperioasă a acordării unei importanțe mai mari folosirii jocurilor de mișcare în lecțiile de educație fizică în scopul creșterii gradului de socializare a colectivului de elevi,

Compararea datelor în ceea ce privește relațiile de simpatie – antipatie s-a făcut între testarea inițială și cea finală, stabilindu-se în felul acesta coeziunea de grup și gradul de socializarea a elevilor din grup. Comparând rezultatele obținute în urma aplicării testului sociometric în ceea ce privește relațiile de simpatii am constatat că: la clasa experimentală, la testarea inițială numărul elevilor izolați este de 8, iar la testarea finală este de 3 elevi, ceea ce înseamnă că în urma practicării în mod continuu și sistematic a jocurilor de mișcare în lecția de educație fizică am reușit să creez relații de prietenie, întraajutorare, simpatie, socializare.

CONCLUZII

Ipoteza stabilită s-a confirmat, afirmație susținută de următoarele concluzii:

- Jocurile de mișcare adecvate structurii de lecție, contribuie la îmbunătățirea relațiilor de grup, respectiv de simpatie, de ajutor reciproc, de colaborare unii cu alții, dobândind încredere în propriile forțe
- Întrecerile și ștafetele au contribuit substanțial la dezvoltarea spiritului colectiv,
- S-a creat între membrii grupului raporturi de prietenie și a fost dezvoltat un accentuat simț al răspunderii
- S-a format priceperea și dorința de a îndeplini sarcinile la timp și fără ezitare, s-a dezvoltat inițiativa, perseverența
- A crescut capacitatea organizatorică a elevilor privind activitatea desfășurată în timpul liber A crescut gradul de socializare a colectivului de elevi

Tabelul nr. 1.

Sociomatrice privind testarea inițială la Clasa experimentală: X – alegeri; x – respingeri; () - presupuneri alegeri; [] presupuneri de respingeri

	AV	AR	BJ	BD	CD	CV	CZ	EF	EA	GN	HR	LO	LI	MS	MI	PD	SC	TM	VI	VS
AV		-2		x			1					(3)	-1				-3	[]	2	
AR			-1	3					-3	2					[]	-2		1		
BJ	3	-3				-1	[]			2						1				-2
BD	3		()					-2		2			1					-1		
CD	1	-2				3	-1						2			-3				2
CV		-3						1	-1	(3)		-2				2				
CZ	(3)		[]		-1	-3				2								1	-2	
EF		-2				-1	1			2				(3)		-3				
EA			3	-1	-3			2				[-1]								1
GN	2					()			-1						-3	1		[]	3	
HR	()	-2		3							-1					-3	2	2		1
LO	1								-3		-1		[]	3			2		-2	
LI		-2				-1	1			3						-3	2			()
MS				-1				(3)	-3		2	-2					-3			1
MI		-1		2	-3					1			-2	[]						3
PD	3				-2	[]			-3	2	[-1]						1			
SC	2	-2				1								-1		-3				(3)
TM	3	-3		-1					-2	2										1
VI	1		()	[]	-2							-1				-3	3			2
VS		-2		1			-1		[]	2						(3)		-3		

Tabelul nr. 1.a.

Sociomatrice privind - testarea inițială la Clasa martor: X – alegeri;
x – respingeri; () - presupuneri alegeri; [] presupuneri de respingeri

	AI	AV	BI	CA	CL	CO	DM	ES	EF	FL	IN	LD	MA	MC	NT	PE	SI	TA	VB	ZC
AI			1	-2				(3)	2						-1			-3		
AV	1		3			-2						[]		[-3]					2	-1
BI		-2					1		(2)	-1					3			[-3]		
CA	-2							2	-3		1					-1	()			3
CL	1			-2					()	1			[]	2				-3		
CO	2		3		[-1]						-3	(1)								-2
DM		-2						1	3	3	-1				2		[-3]	()		
ES	3	-2	1							2			3	-3		[-1]				
EF				-2	3			1		2	-1				[-3]					(2)
FL	1		[3]	-2		3			-1				2						-3	
IN	2					-2	-3							-1	1					3
LD		-3		()				3	1								-1	[-2]	2	
MA			3	-3								-1			-2	2				1
MC					-3			-2		2	-1					1				3
NT		-1						3	[-2]	-1				-3		1		()	2	
PE			1			-2		[-1]		2	-3									3
SI			3	[-3]		-2		1					2		()					-1
TA	-1				-2		3		-3			[-1]				2				1
VB			(3)			-1			2	1				-3			-2			
ZC	2		(3)		-3						-2					[-1]				1

Tabelul nr. 2.

Sociomatrice privind testarea finală la clasa experimentală: X – alegeri;
x – respingeri; () - presupuneri alegeri; [] presupuneri de respingeri

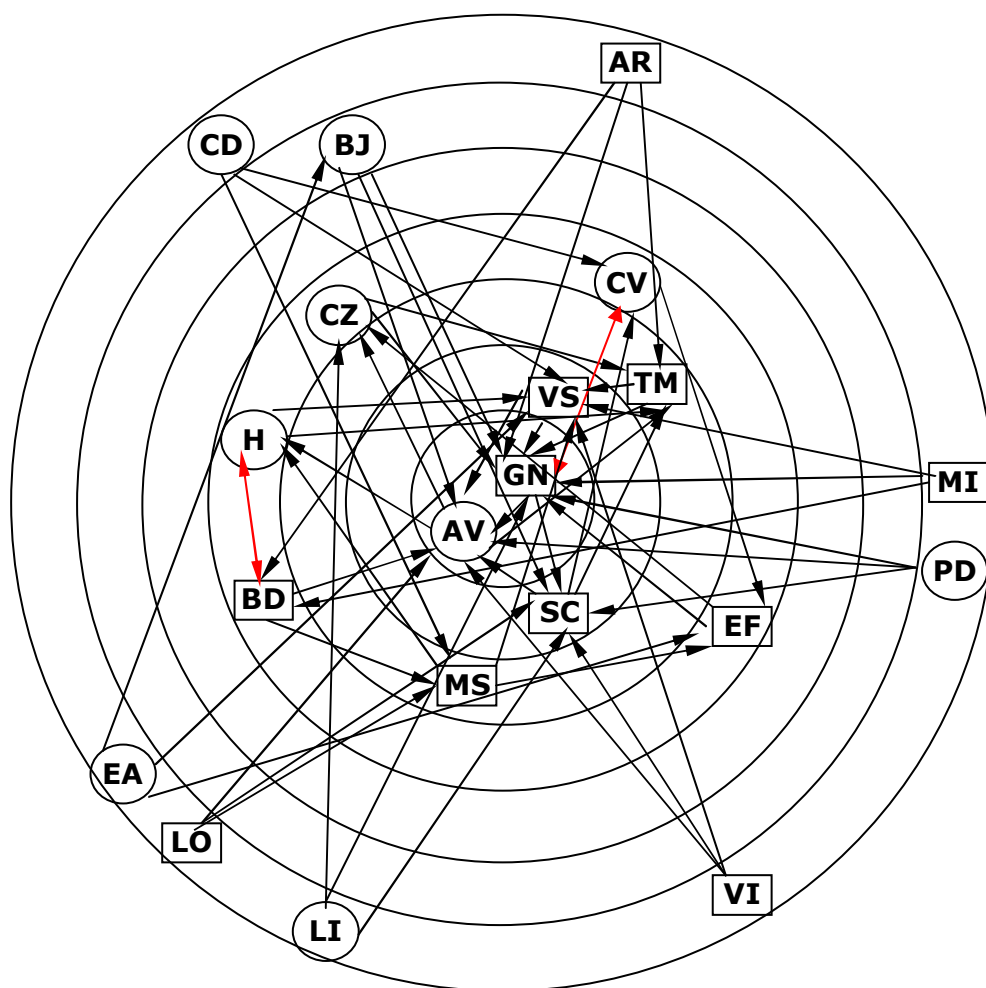
	AV	AR	BJ	BD	CD	CV	CZ	EF	EA	GN	HR	LO	LI	MS	MI	PD	SC	TM	VI	VS
AV					-3	1					(3)		-2		[]			2		-1
AR					2	()				3			-3		-2				1	
BJ				3						(1)			-3			-2	2			-1
BD	3					2		-1		1	-2									-3
CD				()				-2	3					1				-3	-1	2
CV		-1	[]		-2		3								-3	1				2
CZ	2				[]				1		(3)	-3								-2
EF					-3				3	-2	(1)	2						-1		
EA			2			3					-3	-2		-1						1
GN	3				()	2		-3			-2				[]		(1)		-1	
HR	()	-1				1										-3		2	[-2]	3
LO				3	-2		()	-3					1	-1		2				
LI		-3					(1)	-2	3		-1					2				()
MS				1	()	2										-3				3
MI				1	-1	2			[-2]	()								3		-3
PD	2		[]		-1	-3			3	[]	-2						1			
SC	1	-3						-2		2				-1						(3)
TM	(2)	-3	3		-1				1							-2				
VI			()			-3	1					[]	-1		2		(3)	-2		
VS				-3			-1		()	3		-2		2	-1		1			[]

Tabelul nr. 2.a.

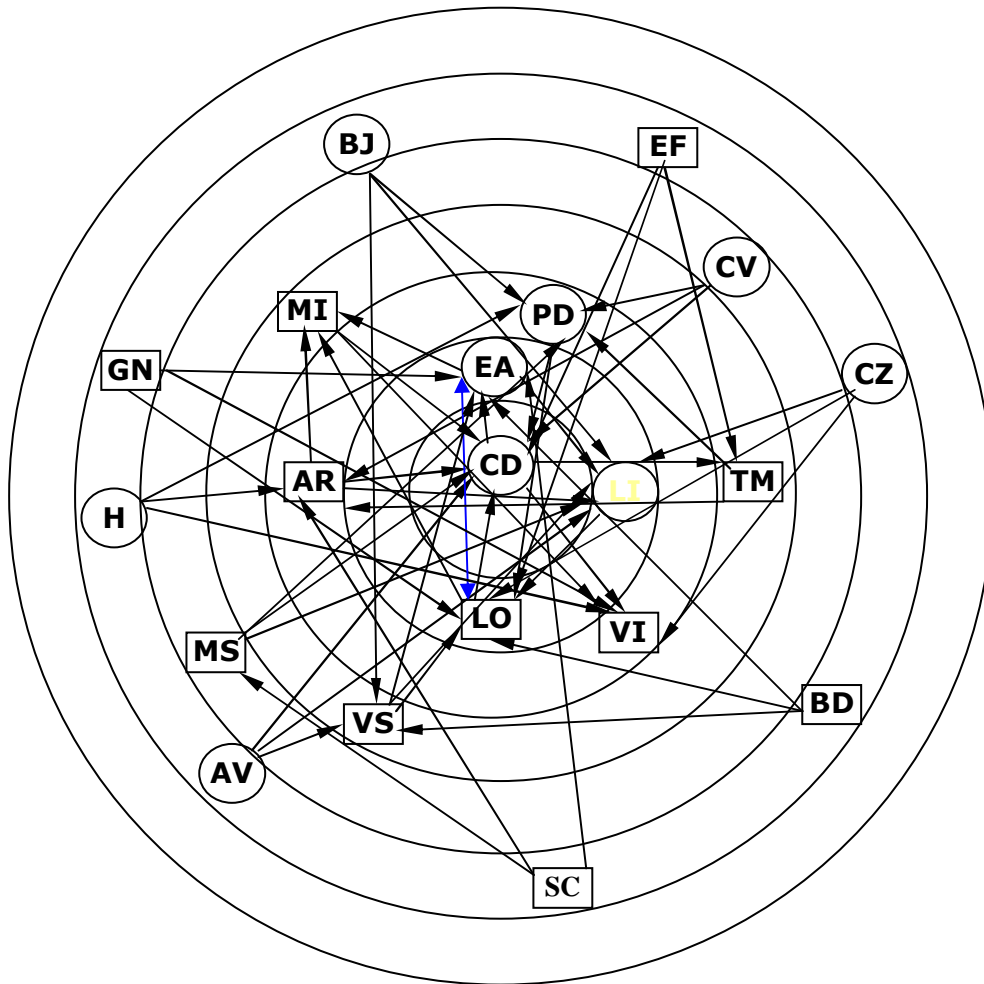
**Sociomatrice privind testarea finală la clasa de control: X – alegeri;
x – respingeri; () - presupuneri alegeri; []presupuneri de respingeri**

	AI	AV	BI	CA	CL	CO	DM	ES	EF	FL	IN	LD	MA	MC	NT	PE	SI	TA	VB	ZC
AI			1	-3				()		3				-1				-2	2	
AV			2		-2			3						-3					1	-1
BI		-2				1			(2)					-1	3			[-3]		
CA	-1	-3				()		2	[]	1					-2					3
CL			1				[-2]	3		2	-1							-3		
CO	1		()		-2		-1		2		[-3]		3							
DM	3	-2							1					-3	-1	()	[]			2
ES			3			-2			-1	(2)						[-3]				
EF	1					()				2					-3			-2	3	-1
FL	(3)							1			-1			-2					[-3]	2
IN			2	-1		-2	-3			3					1					
LD	2				-2					1	3							-3	[-1]	
MA				[-3]				(1)			2				-2	3				-1
MC			3	-1	-3				2		-2									1
NT		-2	2					3	[-3]		-1						1			
PE		3					1	-2		2	-3		()	-1						
SI			2	[-3]			-2			3	1				()					-1
TA		1				-2	-2			-1	[]				2				-3	3
VB			()			-2		2				-3			1		-1			3
ZC		3	(2)	-1	-3						1					[-2]				

SOCIOGRAMĂ
PRIVIND PREFERINȚELE ELEVILOR
DIN CLASA EXPERIMENTALĂ
LA TESTAREA ÎNȚIALĂ



SOCIOGRAMĂ
PRIVIND PREFERINȚELE
ELEVILOR DIN CLASA EXPERIMENTALĂ
LA TESTAREA FINALĂ



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PHYSICAL ACTIVITY VERSUS OBESITY: SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS

SEKOT ALEŠ¹

ABSTRACT. Present time brings many various risks for the mankind. One of them is an increased occurrence of obesity, especially in industrially advanced countries. The growing technological, economic, cultural, biomedical and social developments of European societies produced a high level of comfortable living for a very large segment of population. For increasing amount of inhabitants, the need to perform considerable physical activity in daily lives no longer exists. We are living a time when society, culture and science have become increasingly aware of the great importance of sport not only as a part of mass culture, but broadly understood, for individual and social health and well-being. Physical activity of people plays increasingly more important role in scientific interest regarding way of life of contemporary society and it is very important factor in the process of officiating of the level of healthy and active life style, quality of life and health in general. Indispensable role of physical activity in the course of human life is permanently scientifically confirmed. From sociological point of view three categories of physical activities are established: No physical activity, regular sustained physical activity, regular vigorous physical activity. The development of a sedentary life style is the result of a socialization process towards physical inactivity developed in youth and continued into adulthood. Social analysis of inactivity and patterns of sedentary living – in Czech Republic summarize very high level of prestige of sport and sportive activities in Czech society. But at the same time it was confirmed generally known fact that the significant part of population its positive attitude to physical activities does not realize in practical personal everyday life in the form of regular sport activities. Such “*desocializing phenomenon*” is reflected in declines and lack of membership in physical activity organized neighbourhood local groups. Resulting effect is apparent: people are more and more individualized, losing beneficial impacts of community activities, involved in passive way of life lacking proper level of physical activities and active sport. If we want to change nutrition itself with the ever worsening trend of overweight and obesity prevalence, we have to distinguish the areas and boundaries of individual and social responsibility.

Keywords: Physical activity, sport, obesity, risk, society, inactivity, socialization

1. Introductory note

Not long time ago the obesity formation was connected with gluttony and lowering the amount of physical activities of the population only.

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Although poorly understood, the *aetiology of obesity* has been considered from a range of perspectives, including genetic, environmental and behavioural factors and their interaction. Even though genetic factors received considerable attention within the literature, they are unlikely to account for the sudden increase in obesity noted worldwide given the relative stability of the gene pool. Therefore, recent research has focused on the role of environmental and behavioural factors in the development of obesity. At present the authors put more and more importance to other factors that used to be neglected. So these factors are clearly listed, as follows (Blaze club, 2003):

1. demographic factors (age, sex, ethnic)
2. social and cultural factors (education, income)
3. biological factors (genetics, motherhood)
4. behavioural factors (dietary habits, smoking, alcohol, physical activities).

A number of scholars have noted the increased social currency that a risk vocabulary has come to assume in the late modernity. This concept has been deployed also in context of discussions on physical inactivity and obesity. Chiefly children have increasingly been identified as an *at-risk population* leading a sedentary lifestyle, which is culturally represented as a primary risk factor for obesity and ultimately ill health. Within the discourses and practices of groups and institutions governmental, medical, health promotion and academic, whose efforts are directed at building effective barriers against obesity and inactivity “epidemics”: Physical inactivity and obesity are comprehended as risks to both individual body’s health and to the social body. Responding to such opinion, some scholars have begun to overcome our contemporary disquiet with obesity in particular and inactivity to a lesser extent (Evans, 2003). Anyway, inactivity and obesity is complex phenomenon regarded in general as risk factors conveying their to self-responsibility and self-control imperatives deploying so as to accomplish the normative “healthy citizen”.

Physical activity is in some contexts and cases and under special circumstances positioned as the modern effective panacea for prevention diseases as diabetes., the contrary opinion could accents stressful and dangerous situations during sportive activities. Despite existing diversity of opinions, physical activity is an effective means for to reach and maintain good health, physical and psychical shape.

To discuss “at risk in a world of physical inactivity and obesity epidemics” we have to specify above mentioned relevant concepts: *Risk* is

the reflection of an attempt to manage and tame disorder and uncertainty, *epidemic* vocabulary serves as a technology of governance as it operates to intensify the perceived sense of risk attached to inactivity and obesity as having ill effects for individual as well for society (McDermott, 2007, p. 314). “Epidemic” suggests the potential for sudden spread, disorder and needs for decisive measure to be taken to keep disease in check: Immediate action and regulatory practices. A *variety of collated risk factors* have been delineated within active living discourses that are unquestioningly accepted as culminating in an unhealthy lifestyle for population (often initially identified through bodily appearance as overweight or obese), including poor eating habits, physical inactivity, smoking, television watching and playing video games, and having inactive or obese parents. The relevant response – the strategic representation of human inactivity and obesity as epidemics - thus invokes a discourse of risk and creates a socio-political climate that legitimizes mobilizations, intervention, and modes of regulation by active living: “There is an epidemic of inactivity among our children, and we have to start tackling this problem like an epidemic... It is not just a good idea to be active, it is essential to their health” (Picard, 2002, p. A13).

Some time ago only low percentage of obesity was supposed to be on a genetic base, but nowadays we think about a 20 – 40 % share of genetic factors acting in the formation of obesity (Kunešová, 2001).

In light of obesity problem, there is a focus on public health messages and recommendations in an attempt to increase physical activity levels. And – it is accented – a physically active lifestyle, either as a child or as adolescent, is conducive to a healthy lifestyle and contributes to prevention of disease, whereas sedentary lifestyle is associated with chronic disease and ill health. It is currently a paradox that, despite growing health concerns and an increase in the publicity of physical activity recommendations, a majority of Czech people remain physically inactive. It is part of a trend towards an increase in sedentary, inactive lifestyles across most of the developed countries. Unfortunately, the opportunity for many youngsters to be physically active has reduced over time, probably as a result of series of changing environmental factors, whose impact of physical activity has a strong influence. In particular, children are at risk from their susceptibility to a *technologically changing environment* that facilitate an inactive lifestyle, mostly reflecting in very low active transport levels, the widespread use of labour-saving devices, playing computer games and watching television.

Physical activity and food are basic necessities for survival. It is generally defined as bodily movement that is produced by the contraction of skeletal muscle and that substantially increases energy expenditure (US Department of Health and Human Services, 1996). Therefore, *physical activity* is an all-encompassing term that includes exercise, sports, dance and leisure activities. In contrast, *exercise* is commonly undertaken with the intention of developing health and/or physical fitness (Hills et al, 2007, p. 113).

However, cultural changes in many parts of the daily lives of the world have "engineered" spontaneous physical activity out of the daily lives of many. Behaviours undertaken by mass of people in wealthy "developed" countries are predominantly sedentary in nature and involve minimal physical activity. A combination of environmental pressures, technological factors and societal transitions from childhood to adolescence are likely to promote sedentary behaviour that could respectively lead to weight gain. Despite a lack of concrete and robust evidence to prove a causal association, it is intuitive that sedentary behaviour in population should be limited because of their contribution to a reduction in energy expenditure and promotion of a positive energy balance. When energy expenditure automatically decreases in individuals who become sedentary, energy intake is not down-regulated to a new lower level in equilibrium with the reduced energy expenditure: Physical inactivity does not automatically reduce food intake. The implications for weight gain and obesity are of particular concern, especially in light of the evidence that inactivity-induced reductions of energy expenditure are occurring naturally in the free-living environment because people are becoming less active. And contrariwise: an increase in physical activity does not automatically protect against inappropriate food choice. The widespread overestimation (or underestimation) of the energy consumed by food and underestimation (or overestimation) of the amount of energy used by exercise, could generate a misleading impression of a measure of behaviour control required for energy balance and weight control. There needs to be a proper understanding for an individual human variability regarding additional or alternative strategies for healthy weight.

In the late 1990s of the last century a comprehensive review of existing data on the relation between social class and obesity revealed a strong inverse relationship with respect of socio-economic status and obesity in women: Higher proportion of obese women coming from the lower social classes., by contrast in developing countries, there was a strong positive relationship between socioeconomic status and obesity in women,

men and children. Some study identified some specific socioeconomic factors supporting children's overweight and obesity: General atmosphere of neglect (poor parental support and poor cleanliness) connected with being brought up in a *deprived area* of the city increased the risk of being overweight by over three times that of being brought up in a more affluent area (Hills et al, 2007, p. 81).

There are some data regarding *discrimination against obese people* in the United Kingdom and in the United States. Women who had been overweight since adolescence completed fewer years of school, earned significantly less, had higher rates of household poverty and were less likely to be married than their lean peers. In this context it is need to remind the fact that modern society highly values attractiveness and thinness, and stigmatizes obesity, particularly in women. This negative perception of obesity is more and more widespread and intense, and means that obese people often face discrimination in education, work, social relations and healthcare (Gortmaker et al., 1993).

Growing emergence and negative impact of the *stigma of obesity* is reflected as:

1. The stigmatization of *bodily appearance*. Obesity is a highly visible state and physical appearance (particularly body shape) plays the most important factors in how people judge one another.

2. The stigmatization of *character* that holds obese individuals personally responsible for their own state.

It has been suggested that these negative attitudes originate in childhood, preferring the peers, pals and mates with no handicap, including overweight and obesity, that is usually labelled "lazy", "stupid", "sloopy", "naughty", "mean" and "ugly". The fat figure is usually judged to be extremely unhealthy, unfit and extremely unlikely to eat healthily. In general, girls are less accepting of their overweight peers that are boys, and that negative attitudes towards obesity are more likely to be voiced from the higher socio-economic status background (Hills et al, 2007, p. 82). Regarding psychological factors it has been detected significantly higher rates of depression and anxiety in obese than non-obese individuals, particularly among women and adolescent females (Carpenter et al, 2000). From the point of view of body dissatisfaction, obese adults and young people (especially among girls) are more dissatisfied and preoccupied with their physical appearance, and avoid social situations on account of their appearance. They are stigmatized in

society, where obesity is often thought to have negative impact on western way of self esteem.

Transferring the concept of *risk society* to the issue of diminishing physical activity in daily life, health risks are caused by a physically inactive and a sedentary lifestyle. The epidemic of *inactivity* in everyday life throughout western industrialized countries is the result of the effort put into producing these sedentary lifestyles. As a consequence, today's young generation in Europe is the first generation to grow up in a society that at the same time produces the comfort leading to a sedentary lifestyle and the health related risks caused by such a lifestyle. At the same time extensive evidence about the importance of physical activity for health and well-being has been produced. The alarming figure on the rise of sedentariness take into account the emergence of a sedentary lifestyle as "a social risk" concept. This means that sedentary, physically inactive lifestyle, is not only an individual and biomedical issue to be studied from a medicalized perspective of the human body. Also „socially generated risk“ of sedentary way of life is accented, mostly with special focus on the positive role of sportive activities in the everyday life of mass of people.

We are living a time when society, culture and science have become increasingly aware of the great importance of sport not only as a part of mass culture, but broadly understood, for individual and social health and well-being. If we face the main motto of the 2004 EU declaration European Year of Education through Sport „*Move your body, Stretch Your Mind*“, we can understand the indispensable role of sport and physical activity in promoting health. An overwhelming evidence points to the positive correlates of physical activity in countering risk factors, delaying the aging process, etc. We know lack of exercise increases the risk of at least 20 diseases, and we all share the idea to decrease the high individual and social costs of sedentariness and unhealthy lifestyles via regular physical activity and sport. As we focus on the phenomenon of obesity, we obviously consider healthy diet and active lifestyle. But it is in the nature of men – a wide gap between what people know and what they actually do: „Healthy eating is not as pleasurable as unhealthy one and physical activity and exercise are so boring and exhausting“.

Fitness as a concept reflects physical competence comprises organic (inherited, inborn) preconditions and dynamic competence created as a result systematic exercising and training. From biomedicine and psychology sportive activities are resulted in improvement of cardiovascular capability,

prevention of tumors and diabetes diseases, reduction of overweight and obesity and reduction depression and stress. Sportive activities fortify physical fitness and healthy, form physical skills and support healthy life style – *wellness*.

Educational systems of our cultural system includes also training methods supporting healthy life style, harmonization physical and psychical personal shape, appeals for proper nutrition and incentives for physical activity. For elementary schools in Czech Republic the project „*Physical education and well-being*“ was contrived during late 1990s (Mužík, Krejčí, 1997). This project is based on experience of the project „*Die Bewege Schule*“ implemented in Germany, Austria and Switzerland, accenting usefulness of physical exercising during school teaching. Physical education is oriented to forming the universally pleased personality enjoying in regular everyday healthy physical activities. Connected project „*Healthy weeks in schools*“ strives to deeper practical interest and involvement teachers and pupils in healthy life style from the point of view of physical activities and convenient nutrition (Stojaníková et al, 2001).

Physical activity of people plays increasingly more important role in scientific interest regarding way of life of contemporary society and it is very important factor in the process of officiating of the level of healthy and active life style, quality of life and health in general. Indispensable role of physical activity in the course of human life is permanently scientifically confirmed. Plenty of relevant researches and studies (Ainsworth and Tudor-Locke, 2005,

Lewis et al 2002, Craig et al., 2003, Froměl et al, 2006) confirm: The more accent for prevention, personal responsibility and consistent economical policy, the more systematic research on physical activity and health. Systematic scientific interest on physical activity is also accented with growing level of obesity in many highly economically developed countries. The growing number of scientific journals on physical activity is evident too (Journal of Physical Activity and Health, Journal of Aging and Physical Activity, American Journal of Preventive Medicine, American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, American Journal of Health Promotion, Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry, Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise, International Journal of Obesity, Journal of Nutrition, etc.). As a positive impact of systematic interest and research in physical activity and obesity we can refer to codification of relevant indicators of physical

activity (vigorous physical activity in particular), walking and sedentary way leisure time.

People today lead very different lives than their parents and grandparents did. For the most part, our generation is more educated, better off financially, and geographically more mobile than our predecessors. And – having the *right weight and shape and being fit* are the important attributes in our culture: To be obese means to be personally and socially handicapped. Physical activity in combination with dieting has been acknowledged as a complete weight-loss strategy, and therefore one might expect people attempting to lose weight to be more willing to embrace a strategy that includes regular exercise.

In recent years the concept of „lifestyle“ and „active lifestyle“ have become the focus of attention of the biological and social science and of their often different system approaches. The reason for this is due to the fact that the active lifestyle is closely related to significant human values, people's duality of life and health status. Social demographic and psychological characteristics such as a age, gender, social and economical status, including his or her physical activities, all form part of the attributes of the lifestyle.

The transformation from industrial to an information society since the 1960s and fueled big advances in computer technology cause “the great wave of change“. Significant changes in the composition of the workforce transferred the economic and the social roles of men and women, but also affected matters of health. To define concept of *healthy* people we mean these are free of disease and have not yet acquired certain dangerous health habits nor have they an age at which they run a higher risk of developing a health threat. *At risk* individuals are engaged in certain activities or experience certain circumstances that increase their vulnerability to disease. Individuals who are obese, smoke, or lead sedentary lives fit into this at-risk category. So do individuals who experience physiological changes (e.g. high blood pressure, high blood cholesterol levels) that increase the likelihood of developing chronic disease. This category also includes men who are more than 40 years of age and women entering menopause. The state of *illness* applies to individuals who have acquired a health disorder and are under supervision of a medical professional.

The picture of population and its development is a result of dynamic influence of various cause and various health determinants which can either strengthen health, and thus stimulate a potential of human health, or on the

contrary disturb health, and thus lead to its destruction. The opinions on health determinants, their activity and character have been during several last decennia on a scheme whereby health is a result of complex influence of the four basic determinants (Drbal, 2004):

1. genetic base
2. environment
3. health care
4. lifestyle

It is generally accepted that genetic participates in population health 10 to 15 % as well as health care. The share of environment is about 20 % and lifestyle participates in forming health or disease 50 %. In the context of time and space the phenomenon of nutrition and physical activities as a part of an environment and lifestyle play crucial role.

2. SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

In the past, many of our daily responsibilities involved considerable application of human energy. People were forced to be much more involved in physical activity, and physical labour. People typically spent much of the day in a physically active state, such a walking, lifting, and working with the hands. Whereas human motion was once an inescapable part of normal daily routine, today people must consciously appreciate positive physical activities and intentionally to include it as part of their daily practices to maintain good health and balanced physical and mental shape. People in Czech Republic, are in many respects permeated with „busy capitalist rhythm of “post-transformed society” oriented one-sidedly at performance, success, popularity, money, societal admiration. In such milieu endangered and problematic groups of population are busy, stressed, feel the lack of leisure and long car driving and high technology involved top businessman, managers and „workholics“, as well as socially deprived groups as jobless people or ethnic minorities (mostly Gypsies) lacking proper value orientation accenting healthy and sustainable style of life absorbing healthy dietary habits, regular intentional physical exercising, sportive and outdoor activities (Slepičková, Flemr eds, 2007).

The physical activity specialists recommend for adult complete 30 or more minutes of moderate-intensity physical activity, preferably on most days of the week. Unfortunately, widely circulated health messages have not been effectively translated into increased physical activity among most Czech people. Despite the accepted value of the multiple benefits of

physical activity, most people lead sedentary lives, especially as they become middle-aged and older. In such way, general frequency (number of times), duration (the average number of minutes), and intensity (perceived degree to which heart rate is increased) are for most part of population very low (Sekot, 2006, pp. 193-198).

From sociological point of view *three categories of physical activities* are established:

1. No physical activity (no reported activity of any type during the previous two weeks).
2. Regular sustained physical activity (more than five times per week and more than 30 minutes per occasion of physical activity).
3. Regular vigorous physical activity (more than three times per week and performed at more than 50 per cent of estimated age- and sex-specific cardio respiratory capacity).

Physical activity and physical fitness are often used interchangeably but they are not synonymous and before proceeding the terms require clarification. *Physical activity* is a complex set of behaviours that encompass any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscles that results in energy expenditure (Casperson et al, 1985). Physical activity is therefore a component of total energy expenditure, which also includes resting metabolism, growth and the thermal effect of food (Armstrong, 2007, p. 27). Another definition says it as „any activity that increases hearth rate and makes you out of breath some of the time. Physical activity can be done in sports, school activities, playing with friends, or walking to school. Some examples of physical activity are running, brisk walking, roller skating, biking, dancing, skateboarding, swimming, soccer, basketball, football and surfing“ (Currie et al, 2004, p. 91). A common activity target for adult physical activity is the accumulation of 10 000 steps per day (Hatano, 1993). The minimum recommended number of steps/day for girls and boys is 12 000 and 15 000 respectively. In terms of time, the step counts translate to about 120 minutes of daily activity for girls and 150 minutes for boys (Hills et al. 2007, p. 115). Commonly, girls´ participation in all forms of physical activity, including sport, rapidly declines during their early high school years, including club-organized sport or physical activities. Regarding the phenomenon of transport to school, it is evident in the North America, Australia and Europe, various transportation surveys show that nearly 50-60 per cent of 5-15 yours old are driven to school in cars, while 30 per cent travel by bus and only 10 per cent walk. The irony is that, where studies have assessed preference to

mode of transport to school, children commonly indicate a preference for walking or cycling

Physical fitness is a complex phenomenon that is difficult to define in the context of health. It can be conceived as a set of attributes that people have or achieve and that relate to the *ability to perform physical activity* (Casperson et al., 1985). This defined, physical fitness includes discrete components such as aerobic (or cardio respiratory) fitness, muscle strength, muscle power, flexibility, agility, balance, reaction time and body composition. The physical fitness component usually associated with fitness is aerobic fitness and another components are related to it. Aerobic fitness depends upon pulmonary, cardiovascular and hematological components of oxygen delivery and oxidative mechanism of the exercising muscle. Its efficiency in relation to chronological age depends on cordial output.

More than 30 methods of estimating physical activity has been identified but the reliability, objectivity and validity of many of these methods have not been fully confirmed. Anyway, on overall level, the data across Europe are remarkably consistent and show physical activity declines with age, at least through the teen years, and that girls are less likely be physically active than boys. There is no evidence to indicate major differences in the level of physical activity of youth living in Europe in comparison to those in North America (Curie et al, 2004). Regarding the aerobic fitness of European youth: There is no convincing evidence to suggest that low levels of aerobic fitness are common amongst European children and adolescents. Recent data indicate an emerging polarization with the difference between fit and unfit young people increasing over time. On a population basis, aerobic fitness is not increasing in line with the increase long term of body mass and therefore maximal performance in activities involving moving body mass is declining. Data from several EU counries are very similar: Boys of all ages participate in more physical activity than girls and the gender difference is more marked when moderate to vigorous physical activity is considered. The physical activity levels of both genders are higher during childhood and decline as young people move through their teen years. Physical activity patterns are sporadic and sustained periods of moderate to vigorous physical activity are seldom experienced by many children and adolescents. The evidence linking habitual physical activity with aerobic during youth is not compelling and young people with different level of aerobic fitness do not necessarily bigger in their physical activity. It is supposable that the habitual physical activity of European youth *lacks the*

proper intensity and long time duration. (Armstrong. 2007, p. 46-47). One primary reason for the deterioration in motor skills is the lack of physical activity in everyday life. In addition the differences with respect to a decreasing overall coordination are more pronounced in children from urban areas than in those from rural areas (Brettschneider, Naul, eds. 2007, p. 292).

At the time being we face increasing amount of reports in the media and scientific literature focusing on adolescents and depict them as a *high-risk group*: they are allegedly becoming fatter and fatter, supposedly as a consequence of they eat too much, mostly fat and sugar, spent too much time sitting in front of the computer and of the television, fail to take enough exercise in their daily life and are less physically fit than any generation before them. To find out whether this scenario represents a distorted view or an accurate description of the reality is not easy task. Despite the fact of almost identical and equally alarming reports in the media of all European countries, scientific front has not been able to offer a clear and convincing answer. The relevant data on the overweight and obesity of children and young people are mostly inconsistent as that relating to nutrition, media consumption, physical activity and fitness, and in some cases reflects considerable variance. In particular we can take into account the activities and relevant outcomes of World Health Organisation (WHO) and the International Obesity Task Force (IOTF), who have increased efforts to promote research into the question and to establish guidelines for diagnostics, prevention and therapy of obesity. Also EU Commission, Directorate for Education and Culture, have tried since 2003 to compile an intercultural comparative analysis of adolescents' lifestyles within EU with the emphasis on lack of physical exercise (*sedentariness*). An emerging increasing polarization with the difference between active and inactive as well as fit and unfit European youth, clustering the risk healthy factors related to low physical activity, low level of effectiveness of dietary programs, correlation of physical activity and fitness, are observed and ascertained in this context (Brettschneider, Naul, eds. 2007).

Physical activity has been seen as a means to prevent overweight at young age. On the other hand overweight can be barrier of participation in physical activity. Overweight and obesity are diagnoses on the basis of the proportion of fat in relation to body weight. This definition is generally agreed upon throughout Europe, but there are considerable differences as to the methods used to measure the various quantities. Among direct methods of measurement, skin fold thickness enjoys a certain popularity., body mass

index (BMI) has achieved international acceptance not at least because it is easy to use, being calculated from the subject's weight and body length (kg/m^2), which are themselves measured with a set of scales and a tape measure or taken from statements made either by the children being surveyed or by their parents. For children and young people, with respect to changes of body weight and physical form associated with puberty age and sex related percentiles are used. The percentage of overweight children is highest in the countries of Southern Europe, lowest in those of Eastern Europe, with the Scandinavian and Western European countries (apart from Great Britain). Overweight of children aged 7-10 years is most typical for Malta, Greece and Spain, relatively most 13 year old overweight children is in Malta, Spain and England, and „leading“ position of Malta is confirmed for 15 year old adolescents in addition of their contemporaries in Spain and Greece (Curie et al, 2004).

Specific aspects of obesity in the context of nutritional habits and physical activities play eating habits of *Romany populations*. In this connection it is expected that eating habits and knowledge of healthy eating would be somehow linked and that better knowledge in this area would positively influence the eating habits. Research of eating habits confirmed hypothesis that socially secured families have better eating habits than those from socially weaker class. In Gypsy community, the total standard of eating is insufficient: There is a preference of meat and smoked products, while bread and cakes and the lack of diary consumption, fruit, vegetable, dark bread and especially fish. In Romany community the eating habits reflect insufficient knowledge of health and education in general (Pavelková, Peterková, 2007, p. 762).

Specific situation of Romany populations is reflected on the level of their attitude to physical and sportive activity too. In traditional Romany culture the positive attitude to sport is derived from relevant value attitudes of majority society. Mostly young generation of this minority appreciate sport in positive way, thanks to peers and school education. Despite such positive tendency only 14 per cent of gypsy youth are involved in regular sportive activities – mostly in football, jogging, biking, swimming and dancing (Hastrmanová, Houdek, 2007, p. 61). Also the 9-11 old pupils of *practical elementary schools* are not properly and proportionally involved in extracurricular movement activities. Just 19 per cent of them participate in organized physical activities, compared with 55 per cent of children from ordinary elementary schools (Lejčarová, 2007, p. 79).

Also recent data on the attitude of parents of obese children to the physical activity programme are rather surprising. Only marginal proportion of families positively responded to the chance to assign their obese children into free of charge long term highly specialized physical activity programme (Schuster, 2007, p. 59).

As an attempt to respond to the rise of a sedentary lifestyle, most European countries have developed specific programs based on sport for all philosophy. These programs offer recreational sport related physical activities for all social, cultural a age group of the population. Easy access and democratic participation have been the attendant principles. Practical impact of such programs has been mostly reflected in growing level of participation in sport activities, But it is correctly reminded, that in contrast to these sport participation figures, decreasing numbers of young people meet fitness norms with parallel increasing levels of sedentaries and growing prevalence of overweight and obesity among youngsters. This paradox reminded us that participation in sport and physical activities is not complete and valid indicator of our reports of sedentaries. This phenomenon is multidimensional: Sedentaries must be caused and affected by various aspects of given lifestyle. As a consequence of this paradox, a *changing paradigm in the approach of physical activity* is presented, accenting „healthy enhancing physical activity“ (HEPA) promoting so called „enlarged school“ concept stimulating an advancement of healthy physical activities into regular daily life. Sedentary approach is comprehended as a serious form of a social construction, as a *social risk*, caused by developments in society: On this idea based three working hypothesis on the *social construction of a sedentary life style* in youth are presented:

1. A sedentary life style is culturally learned, confirmed and rewarded.
2. The development of a sedentary life style is the result of a socialization process towards physical inactivity developed in youth and continued into adulthood.
3. The development of a sedentary life style is reinforced by social inequality (Vanreusel, Meulders, 2007, p. 121 - 122).

To discuss such hypothesis we have to remind that many aspects of *consumer culture* and leisure are directly enhancing the risk for sedentary lifestyle. More general studies resumed that physically active and inactive groups of young people systematically digger from each other with regard to feelings of competence in physical activities, attitudes towards physical

activity, perceived social support from peers, perceived family norms towards physical activity (Rzewnicki, 2003). Through all relevant studies, *social inequality* appears as a constant and important determinant of involvement in physical activity among youngsters. Youngsters growing up in unfavourable conditions in average have a less physical active lifestyle than those that live in a more advanced environments: Less than 5 % of children from parents with high status job are not participating in sports. In contrast, vice versa 1 out of 4 children from unemployed parents is not-participant (Vanreusel, Meulders, 2007, p. 125).

It is reminded that economic recession may effect rate of increase in obesity levels. Some countries have reported a fall of obesity rates: in Russia the prevalence of overweight and obesity declined from 15,6 % to 9,0 % between 1992 and 1998, a period of severe socio-economic difficulties of that poorly integrated country. In Poland in 1994, during a period of economic crisis, a survey of over two million young people found 8 % to be overweight compared with the national reference figure of 10 % (Andersen et al, 2007, p. 87)). In the Czech Republic economic prosperity reflects growing rate of overweight in the period 1991-1999 from 10 % to 12,5 % (Bláha, Vignerová, 2002). At present there it is estimated the proportion of overweight of men is 45,9 per cent (32,4 per cent of women), the prevalence of obesity of men is 25,5 per cent (28,1 per cent of women) in Czech Republic (Schuster, 2007, p. 64).

3. OVERWEIGHT AND OBESITY AS A SOCIO-CULTURAL PROBLEM

The problem of *cause of overweight and obesity* is not properly solved, but there is a general agreement with the assumption that both *genetic factors* and *lifestyle variables* are „fundamental players“ on the field of the obesity. At the present, medical specialists revealed genetically important *gene of obesity*, determined in physical constitution of almost 17 % of Czech population! Genetic specialists search for a chance and ways to control or determine it. But with respect to the nature of human gene pool, a genetic predisposition cannot adequately explain the rapid spread of overweight over the last 20 years nor the steepness with it has risen. Anyway – it is properly reminded that genes do not operate in a vacuum, but in physical context represented by the broader environment and can be influenced by inter cellular and extracellular events, including environmental factors (Parisi, 2007, p. 109-110). The increase in overweight

in childhood and adolescence can be seen as the result of the persistent energy imbalance that occurs when the *energy output is too low in comparison to the energy intake*. Whereas food is available in abundance, many children's (and adult's too) everyday lives are increasingly characterised by physical inactivity. And it is inevitable to remind: Increased acceptance of obesity is reducing incentives for weight loss.

Global aspects of overweight and obesity are now at epidemic proportions in most countries. Data from individual countries indicates that in Europe 10-20 % of men and 10-25 % of women are obese. The prevalence of obesity has increase by 10-40 % in European countries since 1990. Between 2-8 % of the total medical care expense of western countries is estimated to be attributable to obesity. Very interesting picture offers the data regarding prevalence of overweight and obesity among school children aged 5-17 years in global regions in 1990s (Andersen at al , 2007, p. 74):

<i>Prevalence (%)</i>	<i>Overweight</i>	<i>Obese</i>
Worldwide	8	2
The Americans	26	8
Europe	15	4
Near/Middle East	11	6
Asia-Pacific	4	1
Sub-Sahara Africa	2	0

Really important and interesting problem for determining the potential cause of overweight and obesity is not so much which foodstuffs are consumed in which categories and quantities and how energy supplied is distributed among those foodstuffs. The far more significant and relevant issue is that relating to the question whether the overall energy intake exceeds the recommended level and might thereby contribute to a positive energy balance. Of course in the relevant context of level of physical activity. For example in Czech Republic, Slovakia and Switzerland the energy intake to be around 10% below the recommended level in spite of existing incidence of obesity. It is possible to conclude that in many cases children and youth do not eat so much but rather do not exercise enough! So we face the growing problem of a downward trend of energy output: The increase of overweight and obesity reflects the imbalance that occurs when the energy output is too low in comparison to the energy intake. From the sociological point of view is more and more observed a polarisation of adolescents' nutritional behaviour: This indicates that adolescents in high-

income groups, and children of better educated parents, have better eating habits than children and young people of the same age from uneducated and lower social strata.

Maintaining and increasing the physical activity among young people is one of the most important aims of physical education and sport policy. A crucial question is, how can children's physical activity be maintained and increased and the decline of activity be diminished or prevented. In order to enhance the habitual physical activity of young people it is important to know the factors which correlate with physical activity and which promote or prevent participation in physical activities. The information about correlated and determinants of physical activity is also important when planning physical activity interventions. Speaking about the casual factors which are related to the physical activity of young people we can mention gender, age, environmental factors and parent's physical activity and support. Many personal variables like perceived physical and physical competence and value orientation play role both in determinants or outcomes of physical activity. To remind some *important determinants and correlates of physical activity among European youth*, we present some topical empirical data (Telama et al, 2007, pp. 266 - 274):

1. Low sport participation of girls in Southern Europe.
2. Diminishing of gender differences in sport participation in Northern countries.
3. Polarisation of physical activity of boys reflecting at the same time both increasing level of inactivity and number of vigorous sportive activity too.
4. The decrease of age of beginners in sport.
5. Pre-school participation of children in organized sport.
6. Non significant correlation between physical activity and weight and height.
7. Non significant correlation between participation in competitive sport and BMI.
8. Physical activity is seen as means to prevent overweight at young age.
9. Overweight and obesity can be carrier of participation in physical activity.
10. Perceived physical competence has been found to be positively related with physical activity intentions.

11. Among boys fitness and sport or athletic competence have been connected with a positive self image.

12. Among girls fitness and sport or athletic competence have been connected mainly with attractiveness of body and self worth.

13. Parents' and siblings' physical activity correlates with children's and adolescent's physical activity.

14. The influence of parents is more important for children's participation in organized sports than for physical activity in general.

15. Best friends are a good predictors of adolescents' physical activity.

16. Physical activity and sport participation is to a great extent a social activity.

17. Positive relations between family's socioeconomic status and children's physical activity and sport participation.

18. Urban environment offer better access to different facilities and more possibilities to participate in organised sport.

19. A trend seems to be that physical activity happens more and more in constructed facilities, and if possible, indoors.

20. Individual perception of body in physical activity is very important to motivation for and intention to participate.

Up until the 1980s, scientific interest in physical activity followed studies by epidemiologists and studies conducted by exercise psychologists. Since this time we can monitor two views of the effects of physical activity: 1. In promoting health. 2. In improving fitness. Last three decades we face improving accents to positive role of physical activities to the prevention of disease. At the present time the main focus of objectives related to physical activity are children, adolescents and people over 65 years. Overall physical activity of our population is in some way polarized. Proportion of responsible people involved in regular physical activities and sport is growing, but at the same time percentage of overweight sedentary people had not declined. A change in thinking has permeated the field of health promotion. The modification of individuals' behaviours coordinated with bolstering of the social and environmental supports within the local community is accented. Main physical activity goals with respect to improving health and fitness are:

1. Reduce the proportion of population who engage in no leisure-time physical activity.

2. Increase the proportion of adults who engage in regular vigorous physical activity that promotes the development and maintenance of cardiorespiratory fitness, muscular strength and endurance.

3. Increase the proportion of adolescents who engage in regular vigorous physical activity that promotes cardiorespiratory fitness.
4. Increase the proportion of the nation's and private schools that require daily physical education for all students.
5. Increase the proportion of adolescents who participate in daily school physical education.
6. Increase the access of the population to physical activity spaces and facilities.
7. Increase the proportion of trips made by walking and or by bicycling.

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COMPARISON OF SOMATIC AND MOTORIC PARAMETERS OF ROMANY AND MAJOR POPULATION PUPILS OF YOUNGER SCHOOL AGE

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ABSTRACT. The paper presents results of research aimed at evaluating and comparing the physical development and motor performance of Romany and standard children's population. The research results have confirmed the existing differences in favor of the standard population.

Keywords: Motor prerequisites, somatic prerequisites, Eurofit test, Romany population, standard population.

INTRODUCTION

The available research data (Bernasovský, 1987; Bernasovský - Bernasovská, 1999; Daňo, 1999; Portík, 1999; Zelina, 2001) suggest that the Romany ethnic group differs from the non-Romany population in terms of social-economic, bio-physiological, and psycho-educational characteristics. Any positive and active approach to the existing problems of the Romany population is conditioned by objective examination and reflection of all these unique features.

All previous research into somatic and motor abilities of Romany children (e.g., Horváth, 1999, 2001; Adamčák et al., 2006) indicate that the level of somatic and motor abilities in Romany children is much lower than that in the standard population.

Our present research is aimed at examining the somatic and motor abilities in Romany pupils of younger school age by means of selected EUROFIT test items. The data obtained for Romany and non-Romany pupils are compared and evaluated in terms of age and gender. We hypothesized that the results of non-Romany children are better than those of Romany pupils in the majority of test items.

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SAMPLE AND METHODS

Our research covered 293 7-10-year-old pupils attending primary schools in East Slovakia, including 135 Romany pupils and 158 non-Romany pupils. The sample counts 71 non-Romany male pupils, 58 Romany male pupils; 87 non-Romany female pupils, and 77 Romany female pupils.

The following Eurofit test items were used to test the physical development and motor performance (MORAVEC et al., 1996):

- TV - Physical height
- TH - Physical weight
- TR - Balance test
- TAP - Tapping
- PRKL - Forward bend in sitting position
- SKOK - Standing broad jump
- RD - Hand dynamometry
- LS - Sit-ups – 30 s.
- CBH - Shuttle run 10x5 m
- VBEH - Endurance shuttle run.

The data obtained were processed and evaluated by mathematical-statistical methods: arithmetic average, root mean square deviation, hypothesis testing by a T-test.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In addition to the comparison of average values in the two tested groups of population by age and gender, the hypothesis of the significance of the differences was tested by T-test. The data for boys are given in Tables 1 and 2, those for girls in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 1

	Romany	10	21,31	1,52		**	15	22,93	2,46		**
TR	Non-Romany	20	12,67	7,51	1,572		25	12,00	7,79	2,996	
		+					+				
	Romany	10	8,09	7,38			15	7,71	4,07		**
TAP	Non-Romany	20	25,69	4,95	3,849		25	24,87	6,36	3,539	
		+					+				
	Romany	10	33,10	4,33		***	15	33,61	7,72		**
PRKL	Non-Romany	20	16,36	3,07	1,820		25	15,86	4,41	0,141	
		+					+				
	Romany	10	14,25	2,56			15	15,61	5,60		

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SKOK	Non-Romany	20	108,83	6,82	0,058		25	117,73	18,29	0,947	
	Romany	10	109,13	13,71			15	111,36	20,50		
RD	Non-Romany	20	14,94	4,36	1,300		25	16,05	3,95	0,773	
	Romany	10	16,88	3,06			15	15,00	3,98		
LS	Non-Romany	20	5,61	3,95	1,489		25	9,00	5,72	2,780	
	Romany	10	8,19	4,13			15	16,11	8,41		**
CBEH	Non-Romany	20	27,16	3,33	0,719		25	27,13	2,51	0,736	
	Romany	10	28,01	2,50			15	25,52	7,93		
VBEH	Non-Romany	20	22,11	6,85	0,616		25	22,77	5,09	0,724	
	Romany	10	20,50	5,81			15	20,71	9,84		

It follows from Table 1 that seven items show differences in average values in the group of 7-year-old boys in favor of the non-Romany pupils, with the exception of long jump, hand dynamometry, and sit-ups. Significant differences were observed in physical height, weight, and tapping.

The differences in average values in favor of the non-Romany population were identified in seven items, with the exception of sit-ups, shuttle run 10x5 m and endurance shuttle run. Significant differences were observed in physical height, weight, tapping, balance test, and sit-ups.

Table 2

		9-year-old boys					10-year-old boys				
		N	x	s	t	Sign.	n	x	s	t	Sign.
TV	Non-Romany	21	132,00	4,73	4,729		24	136,28	6,73	2,823	
	Romany	17	124,56	4,44		**	16	130,75	4,93		**
TH	Non-Romany	21	30,33	4,27	4,202		24	31,24	5,35	2,345	
	Romany	17	24,50	3,82		**	16	27,67	3,75		
TR	Non-Romany	21	12,61	5,77	2,050		24	13,16	6,59	4,036	
	Romany	17	9,20	7,13			16	6,66	3,75		**

TAP	Non-Romany	21 +	24,15	5,34	5,382		24 +	21,44	3,64	5,032	
	Romany	17	34,69	6,00		**	16	28,09	3,82		**
PRKL	Non-Romany	21 +	16,47	2,86	1,817		24 +	17,11	2,72	3,387	
	Romany	17	14,47	3,48			16	14,38	2,06		**
SKOK	Non-Romany	21 +	128,61	16,80	3,593		24 +	137,44	18,62	3,386	
	Romany	17	110,75	12,01		**	16	118,92	13,87		**
RD	Non-Romany	21 +	18,06	4,89	1,278		24 +	20,00	3,30	1,266	
	Romany	17	16,06	4,23			16	18,08	4,73		
LS	Non-Romany	21 +	14,92	11,63	0,638		24 +	13,52	9,18	0,374	
	Romany	17	12,36	11,72			16	12,20	10,42		
CBEH	Non-Romany	21 +	26,15	3,48	0,936		24 +	24,90	2,77	1,519	
	Romany	17	27,24	3,30			16	26,44	2,94		
VBEH	Non-Romany	21 +	25,61	7,85	1,787		24 +	31,48	9,09	2,391	
	Romany	17	20,63	8,33			16	24,50	7,91		*

Table 2 shows the differences in average values for the 9-year-old population in favor of the non-Romany pupils in all nine test items. However, the T-test results confirmed the significance of the differences only for physical height, weight, tapping, and standing broad jump.

The differences in average values for the 10-year-old population in favor of the non-Romany pupils could be identified in all nine test items, but their significance was only confirmed for physical height, balance test, tapping, forward bend in sitting position, standing broad jump and endurance shuttle run.

Table 3

		7-year-old girls					8-year-old girls				
		N	x	s	t	Sign.	n	X	s	t	Sign.
TV	Non-Romany	17	119,69	6,20	2,963		25	124,18	5,21	1,360	
	Romany	14	108,27	11,70		**	19	121,12	8,03		
TH	Non-Romany	17	24,38	3,08	4,369		25	25,41	2,71	3,520	
	Romany	14	20,09	2,02		***	19	22,71	2,08		**
TR	Non-Romany	17	9,13	6,44	3,962		25	12,55	6,11	2,419	
	Romany	14	3,14	1,73		***	19	7,91	6,94		*

COMPARISON OF SOMATIC AND MOTORIC PARAMETERS OF ROMANY AND MAJOR POPULATION ...

TAP	Non-Romany	17 +	24,97	4,83	5,547		25 +	24,72	5,92	3,075	
	Romany	14	34,81	4,31		***	19	30,99	6,60		**
PRKL	Non-Romany	17 +	19,78	4,39	4,280		25 +	18,36	3,99	1,335	
	Romany	14	13,55	3,17		***	19	16,59	4,19		
SKOK	Non-Romany	17	111,25	12,49	12,959		25 +	115,95	16,68	3,163	
	Romany	14 +	93,82	18,42		***	19	97,59	18,91		**
RD	Non-Romany	17 +	16,69	3,25	3,994		25 +	16,73	2,93	2,151	
	Romany	14	12,36	2,38		***	19	14,71	2,89		*
LS	Non-Romany	17 +	8,30	4,70	2,251		25 +	8,71	5,02	3,472	
	Romany	14	4,61	3,79		*	19	4,29	2,84		**
CBEH	Non-Romany	17 +	26,02	2,80	4,941		25 +	27,14	2,19	1,060	
	Romany	14	30,49	1,90		***	19	28,05	2,97		
VBEH	Non-Romany	17 +	18,44	5,70	2,662		25 +	23,68	4,06	3,284	
	Romany	14	14,27	2,60		*	19	18,47	5,48		**

Table 3 indicates that the differences in average values in the group of 7-year-old girls favor the non-Romany group of population in all test items, except for standing broad jump. T-test confirmed the significance of these differences in all nine test items.

The differences in average values for the 8-year-old girls in favor of the non-Romany pupils could be identified in all nine test items, and their significance was confirmed for seven test items: physical weight, balance test, long jump, hand dynamometry, sit-ups and endurance shuttle run.

Table 4

		9-year-old girls					10-year-old girls				
		n	x	s	t	Sign.	N	x	s	t	Sign.
TV	Non-Romany	21 +	130,55	4,89	3,74		24 +	141,71	8,21	4,623	
	Romany	24	122,53	8,02		**	20	129,17	8,64		**

TH	Non-Romany	21	29,95	3,71	4,806		24	36,19	7,25	4,257	
		+					+				
	Romany	24	24,79	2,97		**	20	27,00	6,23		**
TR	Non-Romany	21	11,60	6,15	1,626		24	10,43	7,03	0,761	
		+					+				
	Romany	24	8,79	7,63			20	12,17	7,19		
							+				
TAP	Non-Romany	21	24,05	4,08	4,462		24	21,50	3,74	3,543	
		+					+				
	Romany	24	31,93	6,59		**	20	27,38	6,13		**
PRKL	Non-Romany	21	17,18	3,08	1,812		24	17,40	3,57	0,568	
		+					+				
	Romany	24	15,17	3,79			20	16,72	3,85		
SKOK	Non-Romany	21	118,00	15,56	4,173		24	124,05	18,55	1,612	
		+					+				
	Romany	24	100,05	11,02		**	20	115,28	15,41		
RD	Non-Romany	21	17,10	4,09	1,954		24	17,43	4,15	1,515	
		+					+				
	Romany	24	14,58	3,96			20	15,33	4,45		
LS	Non-Romany	21	6,94	5,06	0,998		24	6,19	4,69	1,139	
		+					+				
	Romany	24	8,83	6,61			20	8,43	7,12		
							+				
CBEH	Non-Romany	21	26,55	2,85	1,112		24	26,14	3,86	1,943	
		+					+				
	Romany	24	27,89	2,42			20	28,17	2,62		
VBEH	Non-Romany	21	23,45	6,44	3,397		24	25,90	8,62	0,439	
		+					+				
	Romany	24	16,95	5,49		**	20	24,83	6,57		

n – No. of pupils
results

s –root mean square deviation

* - P=0,01

* - P=0,05

* t - t-test result

+ better average

Table 4 indicates that the differences in average values in the group of 9-year-old girls favor the non-Romany group of population in all test items, except for the sit-ups item. T-test confirmed the significance of these differences for the following items: physical height, weight, tapping, standing broad jump, endurance shuttle run.

The differences in average values for the 10-year-old girls in favor of the non-Romany pupils were identified in eight test items, with the

exception of the balance test and the 30 s sit-ups test. Their significance was only confirmed for three test items: physical height and weight, and tapping.

CONCLUSIONS

The data obtained in our research enable us to draw the following conclusions:

1. A comparison of the average values of test items for the non-Romany and the Romany populations confirmed our hypothesis of different average values in favor of the non-Romany population.
2. The T-test confirmed the significance of the differences in the majority of the test items.
3. Romany children of younger school age fall behind the non-Romany children in somatic and motor parameters, which is in accordance with former research data.
4. It is recommended to continue with testing the Romany children and comparing their results with those of the non-Romany population also in the field of co-ordination and motor (sport) skills.
5. It is recommended to examine the possible factors and reasons for the existing differences.
6. It is recommended to make more effective use of motion and sport activities within compulsory physical education classes at schools as well as within sport activities outside school in order to improve physical parameters and an overall socialization of Romany children.

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RAFTINGUL ACTUALITATE ȘI NECESITATE

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ABSTRACT. River rafting. River rafting is a fascinating sport, it means to go with a boat on a mountain river. Professional boats for commercial purposes can take up to 12 people+1 guide. Beside the paddle and waterproof clothing the safety equipment (helmet, life jacket) is compulsory. Mountain rivers are divided in 5 categories of difficulty based mainly on the aspects of their rapids.

As many and powerful these rapids are as difficult the river is considered. For commercial purposes the best rivers are those of class 3 and 4, these rivers provide a good balance between fun and safety.

In Romania we can do quite good rafting on several rivers among the best are; Jiul, (3,4 class of difficulty), and Bistrița Aurie (2,3 class). During the spring when snow melts few other rivers turn in little monsters with whitewater rolling powerfully over rocks and boulders making them very good for river rafting.

One is Rebra river in our county a river witch at the end of April and beginning of May is a heaven for rafters enthusiasts.

Keywords: rafting, tourism, prognosis, water debit

Pe măsură ce omul modern este tot mai tare prins în societatea urbanizată, computerizată, și tehnologizată acesta caută cu înfrigurare modalități de a păstra legătura cu natura, de a-și îmbunătăți condiția fizică, de a se recrea în mediul natural, într-un mod activ și antrenant. Nu este deci de mirare că în zilele noastre, activitățile sportive și turistice au capatat o amploare și un fenomen de masă.

Tot mai mulți oameni sunt interesați de tot mai noi și mai interesante mijloace de petrecere a timpului liber. Și cum trăim într-o economie de piață, este firesc ca piața să răspundă imediat acestor oportunități comerciale, oferind consumatorilor produsele și serviciile solicitate.

Raftingul este doar una dintre aceste activități sportive de recreere care a trecut în zona comercială ca răspuns la solicitările pieței, devenind în

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unele tari o adevarata industrie, practicandu-se la o scara si un nivel egal cu oricare alt mijloc de agrement tursitic comercial.

De ce acest sport a devenit o activitate pentru care oamenii sunt dispusi sa plateasca bani pentru a-l practica ?

In primul rand raftingul este un sport de echipa si astfel el este foarte atractiv pentru firme si corporatii care doresc sa dezvolte spiritul de echipa al salariatilor lor in conditii de mediu diferite fata de cele in care isi desfasoara activiatatea zilnica.

Apoi ele se desfasoara in plina natura, un alt motiv pentru ca raftingul sa fie deosebit de atractiv, in conditiile in care omul modern, in criza de timp cauta sa castige cat mai multe beneficii de la o singura actiune.

Apoi, raftingul presupune aventura si adrenalina, ceea ce il face incitant si provocator.

Nu este de mirare ca in prezent si in tara noastra tot mai multe firme aleg sa le ofere salariatilor lor acest mod de recreere si agrement, prin care castiga totodata si beneficii la capitolul spirit de echipa, interactiune, cunoastere reciproca si in final colective mai sudate si mai eficeinte.

Din păcate în tara noastră există un vid teoretic și legislativ în ceea ce privește organizarea comercială a activității de rafting. Legea prevede doar la modul general ca activitatile de turism trebuie conduse de catre ghizi specializati dar nu spune nimic despre posibilitatile de obtinere a acestei calitatii profesionale – ghid specializat de rafting. Și asta deoarece practic nu exista nici o institutie educativa acreditata sau neacreditata care sa furnizeze pregatirea profesionala in vederea obtinerii brevetului de ghid specializat de rafting.

RAFTINGUL MODERN IN ROMANIA.

Desi au existat categoric multe incursiuni nautice pe raurile din Romania, dintre care unele in epoca moderna, avand un caracter evident sportiv si turistic, totusi nu putem vorbi de rafing in adevaratul sens al cuvantului si cu atat mai mult de raftingul comercial decat abea incepand cu a doua decada a anilor 90. Raftingul practicat dupa toate normele sale (pe ape repezi de munte, cu barci si accesorii adecvate, cu echipaje de vaslasi conducand barca la comanda unor ghizi si folosind procedeele si manevrele sale specifice) nu a aparut decat in anul 1999 cand o firmă specializată din Vatra Dornei, a efectuat la 26 aprilie, prima coboarare de rafting comercial din Romania, pe raul Bistrita Aurie, pe sectorul dintre Cheile Zugreni si Cheiele Toance. Anterior, intre anii 1995-1998, proprietarul firmei lucrase

ca și ghid de rafting comercial în Elveția, iar prima barcă profesionistă de 12 locuri și-a cumpărat-o în octombrie 1999. Crăciun Todasca a condus și primele coborâri de rafting televizate și continuă și în prezent să practice raftingul comercial.

A doua firmă care a început să practice raftingul comercial a fost Agenția de turism Caliman Club Holidays din Bistrița, cu o barcă profesională de 10 locuri.

Firma continuă să practice raftingul comercial și în prezent, în anul 2006 achiziționând a doua barcă de 10 locuri și încă 5 bărci de capacități mai mici, precum și seturi de accesorii, costume de neopren, etc. În prezent poate furniza acest serviciu la nivel comercial pentru un număr de până la 40 de clienți odată.

Serviciul Salvamont Gorj, prin agenția de turism Gorj Adventure au început să practice raftingul comercial în anul 2003, iar firma Peregrinus din Târgu Mureș și Serviciul Salvamont Oradea au debutat în anul 2004. În anul 2005 s-a înscris pe lista practicantilor de rafting comercial și firma Gotech SRL din Baia Mare iar în 2006 Serviciul Salvamont Vatra Dornei.

În prezent doar 4 firme practică raftingul comercial în mod constat, SC Special Impex SRL, Agenția de turism Caliman Club Holidays, Gorj Adventure și Peregrinus. Restul firmelor fie au renunțat la această activitate fie o practică în mod sporadic.

METODOLOGIE ȘI CERCETARE:

RÂUL REBRA – MUNTII RODNEI

Scopul acestei cercetări este identificarea perioadei optime de practicare a raftingului pe râul Rebra din Munții Rodnei și stabilirea debitelor minime și maxime între care se pot efectua coborâri cu barcă profesională de rafting de 8 + 1 persoane.

Raurile de munte pe care se poate practica raftingul atunci când debitul lor crește au ca sursă de creștere a acestui debit doi factori: topirea zăpezilor și precipitațiile. Dacă în cele mai multe cazuri când este practicabil pentru rafting, un râu își are originea surplusului sau de apă în topirea zăpezilor de pe crestele montane odată cu venirea primăverii atunci avem de-a face cu un râu sezonier de primăvară.

Dacă din contra un râu este bun pentru rafting în cele mai multe cazuri datorită precipitațiilor bogate atunci avem de-a face cu un râu de tip spontan.

Daca cele sezoniere au avantajul ca sunt predictibile ele prezinta dezavantajul ca nu au o durata lunga de debite mari si nu se pot folosi pe toata perioada anului. In schimb cele spontane care-si datoreaza apa ploilor si precipitatiilor sunt practicabile tot anul dar perioada propice raftingului nu este predictibila, ea diferind de la un an la altul.

IPOTEZE

Ipoteza de la care pornim este aceea ca Raul Rebra este un rau sezonier cu debite crescute in principal datorita topirii zapezilor din Muntii Rodnei odata cu venirea primaverii.

Ipoteza am formulat-o bazandu-ne pe urmatoarele fapte:

- datele rezultate din observatiile informale obtinute cu ocazia deplasarilor in zona

- situarea geografica a raului
- caracteristicile lui hidrologice
- tipologia albiei
- discutii cu locuitorii din zona

OBIECTIVE

Obiectivele studiului nostru sunt:

1. Analiza debitelor zilnice ale raului Rebra pe o perioada de 3 ani.
2. Identificarea debitelor medii lunare ale raului Rebra pe o perioada de 3 ani

ETAPE

Pentru atingerea obiectivelor propuse am stabilit 3 etape:

Etapa a 1-a - Evaluarea datelor rezultate din vizitele pe teren si coborarile cu barca efectuate pe raul Rebra in anii 2006 si 2007.

In primavara anului 2006, in data de 21 aprilie, am realizat prima coborare experimentală de rafting pe raul Rebra impreuna cu o echipa de la Asociatia sportiva Caliman Club. Debitul raului in acea zi a fost de 30 mc/sec. Conditiiile pentru practicarea raftingului cu o barca de 8+1 persoane au fost apreciate ca **foarte bune**. S-a parcurs sectorul Izvorul Ursului – satul Parva – satul Rebra. Sectorul Izvorul Ursului – Satul Parva a fost cotate la gradul III cu pasaje de gradul IV iar sectorul satul Parva – satul Rebra la gradul II cu pasaje de gradul III. Ambele sectoare sunt ideale pentru practicarea raftingului comercial atat datorita spectaculozitatii traseului cat si datorita existentei drumului de acces care insoteste raul pe toata lungimea sectorului.

În primvara anului 2007 s-a repetat coborarea pe același sector al râului. De data aceasta s-a ales luna Mai, pentru compararea condițiilor climatice o luna mai târziu decât prima dată. Astfel în ziua de 12 Mai am efectuat 2 coborări pe sectorul Izvorul Ursului – satul Rebra împreună cu membrii asociației Caliman Club și a asociației Pro Somes, condusă de prof. Ștefan Buia. Debitul a fost de această dată de 24 de mc/sec. Condițiile pentru practicarea raftingului cu o barcă de 8+1 persoane au fost apreciate ca **satisfacătoare**.

Etapa a 2-a - Colectarea datelor statistice necesare.

În etapa următoare am luat legătura cu Administrația Națională a Apelor Române Agenția Bistrița – Nasăud de unde am obținut date statistice din arhiva Agenției pentru perioada cuprinsă între anii 2005-2007. Practic s-au cules debitele zilnice pentru anii 2005, 2006, 2007. În total s-au cules debitele râului pentru 1096 de zile consecutive.

Etapa a 2-a – Aranjarea datelor în tabele grafice și analizarea lor.

Datele statistice obținute s-au aranjat în tabele excel pentru a facilita cercetarea lor corespunzătoare. Au rezultat tabelele prezentate în Anexele 1, 2 și 3.

În continuare s-a trecut la întocmirea unor grafice ale debitelor zilnice pentru cei 3 ani luați în studiu și s-au obținut graficele prezentate în anexele 4, 5 și 6. Ultima acțiune a constat din calcularea mediilor lunare pe baza debitelor zilnice. (prezentate în tabelele grafice din anexele 7, 8, și 9.

SUBIECTUL STUDIULUI CERCETĂRII

Subiectul cercetării îl reprezintă debitul râului Rebra în amonte de satul Rebrisoara.

LOCAȚIA GEOGRAFICĂ

Râul Rebra este situat în Județul Bistrița – Nasăud. El izvorește din Munții Rodnei și se varsă în râul Somes în dreptul localității Rebrisoara.

METODE ȘI MIJLOACE DE CERCETARE

Principala metodă de studiu a fost observația cu ocazia vizitelor în teren și analiza matematică unor date statistice.

DATE OBTINUTE ȘI INTERPRETAREA LOR

Datele obținute indică clar perioada din an în care se pot efectua coborări pe râul Rebra. În urma observațiilor pe teren s-a constatat că pentru

o coborare satisfacatoare este necesar un debit de minim 20-22 mc/sec. La un debit de 23-25 mc/sec coborarea este buna iar intre 25-30 mc/sec conditiile sunt ideale. La peste 30 mc/sec se poate continua practicarea raftingul chiar si comercial cu conditia adaugarii unui grad de dificultate in plus fata de clasificarea obsinuita .

GRAFICE

Tabel nr. 1 – Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2005 (Anexa 1)

Tabel nr. 2 - Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2006 (Anexa 2)

Tabel nr. 3 - Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2007 (Anexa 3)

Graficul nr.1 - Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2005 (Anexa 4)

Graficul nr.2 - Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2006 (Anexa 5)

Graficul nr.3 - Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2007 (Anexa 6)

Graficul nr.4 - Media lunara a debitului raului Rebra in anul 2005

(Anexa 7)

Graficul nr.5 - Media lunara a debitului raului Rebra in anul 2006

(Anexa 8)

Graficul nr.6 - Media lunara a debitului raului Rebra in anul 2007

(Anexa 9)

CONCLUZII ALE CERCETARII

- Din studiul efectuat rezulta ca raul Rebra are debite mari de peste 25 mc/sec (valoarea ideala pentru practicarea raftingului) in lunile de primavara, datorita topirii zapezii in Muntii Rodnei, principalul sau bazinet.
- In afara lunilor Aprilie si Mai, exista si alte cateva perioade, in principal in perioada de vara, cand datorita ploilor ocazionale se inregistreaza cresterea debitului peste limita a 25 mc/sec, propice practicarii raftingului.
- Raftingul pe raul Rebra se poate practica asadar in mod regulat in perioada de primavara si numai ocazional in perioada de vara.
- In restul anului, valoarea debitului scade dramatic de pana la 10 ori, la valori de 2,5 - 3 mc/sec, insuficient pentru practicarea raftingului de agrement.

CONCLUZII:

1. România dispune categoric de conditii naturale propice pentru practicarea raftingului si anume râuri repezi de munte cu gradiente si grade de dificultate propice prcaticarii raftingului sportiv si comercial.

2. În principal activitatea de rafting trebuie sa se desfasoare in lunile aprilie – mai deoarece majoritatea raurilor repezi de munte au debite corespunzatoare ca urmare a topirii zapezilor in perioada primaverii.
3. Exista o cerere apreciabila din partea firmelor si corporatiilor pentru organizarea unor coborari de rafting comerciale
4. Exista suficiente firme si agentii turistice care ofera rafting comercial dar piata este inca in dezvoltare in acest sector.
5. Nu exista nicio institutie didactica care sa ofere cursuri pentru calificarea ghizilor de rafting.
6. Nu exista o literatura de specialitate in Romania despre rafting ca si sport individual si cu atat mai putin despre raftingul comercial.
7. Nu exista nici un manual de rafting tiparit in Romania
8. Raftingul nu figurează in aria curriculară a nici unei facultăți de profil,(nici la discipline facultative).

PROPUNERI:

1. Includerea raftingului ca si curs facultativ(optiional) în cadrul F.E.F.S – extensia Bistrița.
2. Elaborarea unui manual de rafting.
3. Înfiintarea unei scoli de ghizi de rafting
4. Organizarea unor cursuri de ghizi de rafting
5. Continuarea cercetarii teoretice in domeniul raftingului.
6. Definirea si uniformizarea terminologiei specifice in limba româna
7. Stabilirea metodologiei de predare a raftingului
8. Continuarea cercetarii practice in special a conditiilor naturale (rauri repezi de munte)

ANEXE

Tabel nr. 1 – Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2005 (Anexa 1)

Tabel nr. 2 - Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2006 (Anexa 2)

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Graficul nr.1 - Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2005 (Anexa 4)

Graficul nr.2 - Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2006 (Anexa 5)

Graficul nr.3 - Debitul zilnic al raului Rebra in anul 2007 (Anexa 6)

Graficul nr.4 - Media lunara a debitului raului Rebra in anul 2005 (Anexa 7)

Graficul nr.5 - Media lunara a debitului raului Rebra in anul 2006 (Anexa 8)

Graficul nr.6 - Media lunara a debitului raului Rebra in anul 2007 (Anexa 9)

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FEBRA MUSCULARĂ, RĂUL NECESAR

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(traducere și interpretare **Bogdan Vasile**²)

ABSTRACT. Muscle-bound, necessary evil. Specialists trying for more than a quarter of a century to identify the cause muscle pain, which occurs after training, felt pain even for a few days. Muscle pain, and sensitivity of the latter exercise a muscle-bound call. To know is that fever is due to the muscle accumulation of lactate, which focuses on muscle fiber following exercises anaerobe. Much is known that lactate, once reached the blood circulation, leaving the muscle fiber in a relatively short time. After the first ten minutes of effort to end the quantity of blood lactate will have a much more elevated than that seen in the relaxed position. But then what would be the real cause of the occurrence of fever muscle?

Keywords: muscle; muscle pain; muscle injury.

Traumatism muscular sau reconstrucția musculară?

Specialiștii încearcă de mai bine de un sfert de secol să identifice cauza durerii musculare, care apare în urma antrenamentului, durere resimțită chiar și timp de câteva zile. Durerea musculară, respectiv sensibilitatea acesteia din urma antrenamentului o numim febră musculară. De știut este că febra musculară se datorează aceluși cumul de lactat care se concentrează în fibra musculară în urma efectuării exercițiilor anaerobe. De mult este cunoscut faptul că lactatul, odată ajuns în circulația sangvină, părăsește fibra musculară într-un interval de timp relativ scurt. După primele zece minute de la terminarea efortului cantitatea de lactat din sânge va avea o valoare mult mai crescută decât cea întâlnită în poziție relaxată. Dar atunci care ar fi adevărata cauză a apariției febrei musculare?

Febra musculară = traumatism muscular?

De obicei febra apare ca urmare a unor inflamații ale organismului. Din punctul acesta de vedere termenul de „febră musculară” ar putea să

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semnifice starea inflamată a mușchiului. Această inflamație, apărută în fibra musculară ca răspuns la *traumatismele minore*, ar putea constitui principala cauză a durerilor musculare datorate antrenamentului sportiv? Specialiștii nu au reușit deocamdată să ajungă la o înțelegere în privința găsirii unui răspuns echivoc la această întrebare. Probabil acesta ar putea fi motivul pentru care literatura de specialitate definește acest fenomen ca fiind o *sensibilitate musculară întârziată* (delayed onset of muscle soreness, DOMS). Durerea musculară începe cu 12 ore după terminarea efortului fizic, 2-3 zile se accentuează în mod continuu, după care dispare. Cea mai accentuată durere este simțită în a doua sau a treia zi.

Febra musculară nu apare în mod obligatoriu în urma unui efort fizic. Specialiștii au demonstrat că acest fenomen apare numai în cazul în care mușchiul respectiv execută un efort cu o intensitate cu care acesta nu este obișnuit și este supus unor extensii proeminente (adică efectuează o contracție excentrică). Din acest motiv în mușchii flexori ai articulațiilor (antigravitaționale), febra musculară apare mult mai ușor decât în mușchii extensori, deoarece flexorii sunt supuși în timpul exercițiilor fizice la extensii repetate.

Cauzele și simptomele febrei musculare întârziate și prelungite

Mușchii supuși unor extensii forțate nu numai că devin mai sensibili, dar se și umflă, devin mai rigide, capacitatea de flexie și extensie se diminuează și nu mai au capacitatea de a depune un asemenea efort. Astfel, în urma antrenamentului, capacitatea efortului scade până la 50%, iar mușchiul va fi capabil să exercite o forță cu 20% mai mică timp de câteva zile (Newham și colab. 1987). Odată cu scăderea forței crește cantitatea enzimei *Creatin Kinaze* (CK) din sânge, care poate să atingă o valoare de 5-50% mai mare decât cea din timpul poziției de relaxare. Există o anumită corelație lineară între valoarea durerii musculare și cantitatea de CK. Scăderea capacității la efort nu se datorează însă creșterii CK: scurgerea de CK din mușchi se produce în cazul în care, în urma unei întideri prea puternice, sarcolema se deteriorează și se rupe structura *sarcomerelor*.

Marea majoritate a specialiștilor sunt de părere că scăderea efortului se datorează modificării structurii sarcomerului (care constituie o subdiviziune a contracției musculare), mai precis a descompunerii parțiale a *plăcilor Z*, care leagă sarcomerii. Unii cercetători (Warren și colaboratorii săi, 2002) presupun că regresia inițială a efortului este cauzată de disfuncția stimulului care sosește dinspre nervii aferenți. Această concepție este

confirmată de rezultatele acelor cercetări, care dovedesc că traumatismul sarcolemei induce o disfuncție a homeostazei ionilor de Ca^{++} . Numărul ionilor de Ca^{++} scade în interiorul celulei și crește în afara acesteia, ca urmare a scăderii numărului de legături dintre filamentele de miozină și actină (*albumini contractili*), idee concepută de Armstrong – 1991. Scăderea efortului susținut de pe urma traumatismului muscular se datorează pierderii parțiale a albuminelor contractili. O altă cauză posibilă a scăderii efortului ar fi creșterea coeficientului dintre cantitatea fosfatului anorganic (Pi) și a *creatinfosfatului* (Pcr). În mod normal coeficientul Pi/Pcr este stabil. Scăderea cantității de Pcr ar avea ca efect perturbarea sintezei de ATP, care generează scăderea efortului și apariția unor senzații de strângere sau durere în mușchii vizați.

De ce dor mușchii?

Specialiștii consideră că durerea musculară apare în două cazuri: atunci când se produce o perturbare a homeostazei de Ca^{++} , respectiv în cazul în care traumatismele minore produc starea de inflamație a mușchiului. Unii cercetătorii care au studiat acest proces de inflamație musculară au observat că în urma extensiei accentuate a mușchiului apar *celule inflamatorii* (spre exemplu neutrofilul) atât în mușchi, cât și în sânge, semnalizând creșterea numărului acelor substanțe din mușchi care trebuie scum înlăturate. Creșterea numărului de celule moarte din mușchi modifică structura biochimică a acestuia, irită terminațiile nervoase senzitive și ne dau senzația de durere musculară.

Se poate diminua durerea musculară?

Nu s-a dovedit că durerea musculară cauzată de traumatismul survenit din urma antrenamentului ar putea influența intensitatea efortului, totuși s-au efectuat numeroase investigații cu scopul de a stabili că *medicamentele* antiinflamatorii, frecția pe tegument cu diferite unguente și *masajul* pielii în ce măsură ameliorează durerea musculară și concomitent capacitatea scăzută a mușchiului la efort. Rezultatele investigațiilor sunt contradictorii. Marea majoritate a acestor investigații confirmă că folosirea produselor antiinflamatorii (ex. prostaglandinul), aplicarea unguentelor și masajul nu au ameliorat această stare patologică și nu au contribuit la regenerarea mușchiului. Rezultatele obținute de alți cercetători sunt opuse celor mai sus prezentate. O’Graady și colaboratorii săi (2000) au constatat că folosirea diclofenacului diminuează senzația de durere musculară.

Se pune adeseori problema dacă este indicat ca sportivii să-și continue antrenamentul în cazul în care au febră musculară. Teama de atrofierea continuă a fibrelor musculare este motivată. Și cercetătorii au fost preocupați de această problemă. Rezultatele au arătat că în timpul febrei musculare repetarea antrenamentelor nu au accentuat durerea și nu au prelungit perioada de regenerare. Prof. Tihanyi Jozsef a ajuns la următoarea concluzie: capacitatea la efort scade abia în a doua zi de **antrenament de tip excentric** desfășurat pe perioadă de o săptămână, după care, în pofida durerii musculare, treptat crește această capacitate. Acest aspect se datorează unei **adaptări neuronale** precoce care ar compensa scăderea efortului din urma traumatismului minor suferit.

Aspectul cel mai interesant de semnalat ar fi faptul că mușchiul lezat devine mai rezistent în fața traumatismelor minore. S-a dovedit că antrenamentele repetate pe parcursul mai multor săptămâni și identice celui dintâi nu au mai produs febră musculară în pofida faptului că intensitatea efortului a fost aproape identică cu cea anterioară.

Regenerare

La câteva ore după producerea traumatismelor minore începe regenerarea fibrelor musculare afectate, proces în care o contribuție semnificativă le au **celulele-satelit**. Acestea sunt prezente și în mușchii scheletici și se leagă de fibrele musculare. În cazul fibrelor musculare lente numărul celulelor-satelit este de trei ori mai mare decât a celor care sunt legate de fibrele musculare rapide (Gibson și Schultz 1982). Cercetările au dovedit însă că la întinderea mușchiului sunt afectate în primul rând **fibrele rapide**. Astfel se presupune că durerea musculară prelungită se datorează regenerării mai lente a fibrelor rapide. Ca urmare a traumatismului celulele-satelit se activează și determină regenerarea structurală și funcțională a fibrei musculare lezate. Celulele-satelit pot reface porțiunea lezată a fibrei sau pot genera noi fibre în locul celor *necrotizate*. **Hiperplazia** apărută în cazuri rare determină creșterea porțiunii secționată a mușchiului (hipertrofie). Însă nu acesta este aspectul primordial al hipertrofiei mușchiului, ci creșterea porțiunii secționată a fibrei, care se datorează **genezei sarcomerului**.

Geneza sarcomerului

Numeroase lucrări au confirmat că întinderea prelungită, pasivă a mușchiului produce o multiplicare longitudinală a sarcomerului. După unele estimări într-o fibră musculară având diametrul de 2000 μm^2 , numărul

sarcomerilor poate crește într-o oră până la opt mii (Caiozzo și colaboratorii, 2002). Întinderea pasivă nu duce însă la creșterea transversală a numărului sarcomerilor, adică la hipertrofie. Pentru producerea acestui fenomen mușchiul trebuie să devină activ și trebuie să prezinte o extensie puternică în timpul contracțiilor. Cel mai indicat în acest caz este antrenamentul de tip excentric, pe parcursul căruia mușchiul poate produce o extensie mai mare decât în cazul altor contracții, cum ar fi: contracția izometrică sau cea concentrică. În același timp, la începutul acestui tip de antrenament se produce o febră musculară împreună cu caracteristicile mai sus descrise.

Atrofiere musculară sau *revigorare* /regenerare musculară?

Inițial durerea musculară din urma antrenamentului datorată întinderii mușchiului activ a fost identificată cu atrofierea musculară, care nu a fost considerat ca fiind un proces benefic. Specialiștii și oamenii de știință sunt de părere că este necesară ameliorarea cât mai rapidă a febrei musculare prin administrare de medicamente, masaj și procedee de relaxare (*electronică*). Astfel pe perioada febrei musculare nu au fost recomandate antrenamentele intense. Este evident că febra musculară este necesară regenerării musculare, dar constituie mai degrabă un proces, care se desfășoară în mod independent. Cercetările lui Yo și colaboratorilor săi (2003) au confirmat că geneza sarcomerului este o condiție indispensabilă pentru descompunerea structurii musculare. Ei au constatat, că inițial, în urma antrenamentului de tip excentric a scăzut cantitatea numărului de albumine, care alcătuiesc sarcomerul (a-actină, titină, nebulină, desmină), după care numărul albuminelor a crescut în urma integrării treptate a acestora în structura sarcomerului, multiplicând astfel numărul sarcomerelor. Privită astfel febra (durerea musculară îndelungată și prelungită) și modificările structurale ale acesteia nu au fost considerate ca fiind un traumatism muscular, ci mai degrabă începutul regenerării, indusă de activitatea complexă și organizată a genelor care controlează albuminele contractile.

OBEZITATEA COPILULUI

UGRON AGNES

ABSTRACT. CHILD OBESITY. Obesity is an endemic health problem in most developed countries, requiring serious public health attention. The dramatically increasing prevalence of obesity, especially among children, has become a major public health problem in Europe. In reaction to this alarming trend, a series of initiatives and actions has been launched in recent years. Diet and physical activity approaches may improve obese status in the short term. However, obesity interventions appear more effective when strategies are combined, rather than when used in isolation. Psychological interventions, such as behavioural and cognitive behavioural therapy, show promise in achieving the necessary lifestyle changes for obesity reduction.

Keywords: obesity, overweight, treatment, physical activity.

Importanța teoretică și practică a temei

Obezitatea copilului este o realitate curentă și cunoștințele noastre asupra acestei probleme sunt insuficiente pentru a-o recunoaște din timp și pentru a-o supraveghea prin tratamente eficiente.

Dacă obezitatea adultului a fost amplu studiată, nu aceleși lucru putem spune despre obezitatea copilului, căreia i se acordă atenție abia în ultima vreme.

În decursul anilor obezitatea copilului a fost considerată ca o simplă dizgrație fizică, chiar și de medici, iar de către părinți ca un semn de sănătate. Invers față de situația copilului slab pentru care părinții se agită și solicită medicului fortifiante. Obezul, care are un apetit bun, o mină veselă și un aspect robust, preocupă puțin anturajul, părinții neconsiderând supraîncărcarea ponderală dăunătoare, ci mai degrabă o dovadă de sănătate.

Mitul ”copilului dolofan și frumos” este azi total depășit. Numeroase publicații atrag atenția asupra consecințelor fizice, metabolice și psihologice ale acestei supraîncărcări adipoase, cât și asupra prevenției acestei boli metabolice.

Nu este de mult trecut timpul când un copil de 8-9 ani consideră că cel mai grozav cadou pe care l-ar putea primi este o bicicletă. Astăzi, copii de această vârstă își doresc un computer sau un Play-Station. Acest lucru

atrage atenția asupra unui aspect deosebit de important - nivelul de activitate fizică este în continuă scădere. Mulți copii preferă să petreacă ore întregi în fața monitorului sau televizorului, în defavoarea practicării unui sport ca activitatea recreativă sau de performanță.

Din păcate prognosticul obezității din copilărie rămâne nefavorabil, deoarece mulți copii ajung în observația medicală atunci când factorii care accelerează starea de obezitate apar deja bine conturați. Copii obezi sunt văzuți de pediatru abia la vârsta școlară sau pubertară, deși această stare durează din perioada de copil mic sau chiar de sugar. Este unanim acceptat că majoritatea sugarilor supraponderali își mențin surplusul ponderal în continuare. Azi, știm precis, că nu există limite de vârstă pentru apariția obezității.

Multe dintre confuziile din literatura curentă se datoresc neînțelegerii definiției stării de obezitate și mai ales explorării datelor despre obezitatea copilului. Conținutul și limitele noțiunii de obezitate sunt încă imprecise. Mulți preferă termenul de supraponderal – *overweight* – rămânând să se stabilească din ce moment supraponderalul se consideră obez. La ora actuală numeroși autori consideră că un copil cu 10% peste greutatea sa ideală este supraponderal, iar cel cu 20-30 % peste greutatea ideală este obez.

În ultima vreme, pentru a stabili dacă un copil este supraponderal sau obez se folosesc frecvent graficele de creștere, cum ar fi greutatea calculată în funcție de vârstă și greutatea în funcție de înălțime. O modalitate de calcul a obezității recomandată de unii specialiști este indicele masei corporale - IMC.

Obezitatea reprezintă o problemă mondială, afectând în prezent sute de milioane de oameni, de pe toate continentele. Frecvența obezității a crescut îngrijorător în ultimele decenii, în numeroase țări mai mult de jumătate din populație este supraponderală sau obeză.

Date recente arată că în lume trăiesc peste 250 milioane de obezi, iar Organizația Mondială a Sănătății (OMS) estimează că în anul 2025 acest număr va crește la aproximativ 300 milioane.

Obezitatea copilului a dobândit în ultimii ani un interes tot mai larg, reprezentând tema de cercetare a unor studii epidemiologice extinse, derulate în mai multe state. În urma prelucrării datelor din 79 de țări, experții OMS estimează că în lume există în prezent aproximativ 22 de milioane de copii obezi, cu vârsta mai mică de 5 ani.

În *Statele Unite*, în anul 1961 obezii reprezentau 13% din populație (unul din 8 americani), în 1991 acest procentaj a crescut la 22% (unul din 5 americani), iar în anul 2025 procentul va fi probabil de 40-45% (doi din 5 americani).

După cum se știe, obezitatea este o problemă foarte gravă de sănătate, contribuind la 300.000 de decese anual în SUA, și mult mai mult în întreaga lume. Statisticile spun că în 2005, obezitatea a făcut mai multe victime decât SIDA și tutunul.

Cele mai recente statistici din *Marea Britanie* arată că 15% din cei 5 milioane de copii cu vârste între 2 și 11 ani suferă de obezitate și încă 15% sunt supraponderali.

În *România*, din cauza alimentației dezechilibrate, la sfârșitul anilor '90 prevalența supraponderiei a ajuns la 53% și cea a obezității la 22%. Nici în prezent nu se cunoaște frecvența reală a obezității copilului în România.

În ultimii ani, obezitatea tinde să devină o maladie de nutriție gravă a copiilor din România.

Un studiu efectuat în partea de vest a țării, prin examinarea unui număr de 5.250 de copii cu vârsta cuprinsă între 3 ani și 16 ani, s-a identificat 14,77% copii obezi de ambele sexe. Frecvența pe grupe de vârstă a fost următoarea: 18,62 % la sugari, 15,05 % preșcolari și 14,20 % elevi.

Din datele expuse anterior trebuie să observăm că obezitatea primei copilării este frecventă, iar prognosticul obezității este cu atât mai nefavorabil cu cât momentul debutului este mai precoce și cu cât excesul ponderal este mai mare. În afară de frecvența crescută a obezității copilului, pediatrii trebuie să-i acorde o atenție sporită acestei probleme deoarece obezitatea poate apare la orice vârstă, în orice moment al copilăriei sau al vieții adulte – și întrucât o mare proporție a copiilor grași devin adulți obezi.

Pe baza acestor concluzii, la ora actuală se impune depistarea timpurie a obezității, dacă vrem să ajungem la o terapie rațională și eficientă.

Dezvoltarea copiilor obezi în prima copilărie

Cercetările comparative la copii obezi și normoponderali ne arată că în anamneza obezilor se citează mai des complicații în evoluția sarcinii și în timpul travaliului, comparativ cu normoponderalii. Viitorii copii grași prezintă o frecvență relativ mai mare a complicațiilor perinatale, cât și o tendință antenatală la îngrășare, având în general o greutate medie mai mare la naștere în comparație cu lotul martor, mai ales în grupa băieților. Această diferență este mai puțin evidentă în rândul fetelor obeze.

S-a dovedit, din studiul specialiștilor Timișoreni, că greutatea la naștere (Gn) a fost peste 4000g într-un procent de 27,34 % în rândul copiilor obezi, față de numai 16,4 % în cazul lotului martor. Se poate deci admite ipoteza unei accelerații antenatale ponderale.

Dar, în multe cazuri greutatea la naștere a fost normală și în unele cazuri chiar inferioară. Obezitatea s-a dezvoltat totuși în primele luni sau ani de viață. Astfel constatat importanța fenomenului de accelerare a creșterii postnatale la copiii cu greutate și talie mică la naștere (ca urmare intervenției unor factori care au dus la încetinirea creșterii intrauterine- fumatul, subalimentația, etilismul.).

După 5 ani de viață, s-a constatat că acești copii care au fost mici la naștere aveau o talie, o greutate și o masă grasă corporală mai mari decât ale copiilor cu parametrii somatometrici normali la naștere. Se avansează astfel ipoteza riscului creșterii accelerate din mica copilărie pentru dezvoltarea ulterioare a obezității.

Reținem și faptul că la aproape toți copiii obezi, înălțimea la naștere s-a corelat cu greutatea mare la naștere. Astfel, la cei cu înălțime între 52-54 cm, greutatea a variat între 3500-4000g. Iar la toți cei cu talii de peste 54 cm, greutatea la naștere a fost peste 4000g. Mai reținem faptul că majoritatea viitorilor copii grași se recrutează dintre copii alăptați, ca un fel de supraprotecție maternă.

Referitor la caracterul familial al obezității s-a avansat ipoteza că factorii ereditari influențează efectul factorilor de mediu asupra terenului individual – cum ar fi de exemplu impactul supraalimentației asupra greutateii.

În afară de frecvența mare a obezității familiale, existența factorilor genetici în dezvoltarea obezității copilului a fost sugerată și de proveniența frațiilor obeze aproape exclusiv din rândul familiilor cu ambii părinți obezi. Obezitatea lor a evoluat analog și a avut același grad, la fiecare pereche în parte.

Studiul gemenilor a suscitat un larg interes pentru numeroși clinicieni. Datele conduc spre aceleași concluzii avansate până în prezent în literatură.

Obezitatea și diabetul zaharat de tip II sunt cunoscute cu ereditate încrucișate și printr-o pondere destul de mare se relevă susceptibilitatea copiilor care au părinți cu astfel de boală.

Aportul alimentar

Este unanim acceptat că supraalimentația stă la originea debutului îngrășării. Pentru a judeca realitatea acestui exces alimentar se impune un bilanț riguros, o anchetă dietetică.

La anchetele care relevă rația excesivă, hiperfagia este găsită doar în faza dinamică a obezității și este relativ paralelă cu rapiditatea câștigului ponderal. Supraalimentația (cantitativă și calitativă) a survenit mai ales în prima copilărie. Mulți dintre mame sunt convinse că îngrășarea este sinonimă

cu o bună stare de sănătate. La copilul mai mare excesul alimentar a constituit în multe cazuri o compensare orală a unei anxietăți induse de momente conflictuale, traume psihice, regresie afectivă, frustrări diverse, etc.

Activitatea fizică a copiilor obezi

În societatea contemporană, tendința de creștere a frecvenței obezității copilului se acceptă ca fiind favorizată în primul rând de reducerea activității fizice, în contextul menținerii unui aport energetic comparabil cu cel de acum câteva decenii.

Cea mai mare parte a copiilor au tendința de a-și reduce activitatea fizică în paralel cu îngrășarea. Astfel, copii obezi sunt puțin activi și obțin rezultate mediocre la programul școlar de sport.

Această activitate fizică redusă este mai frecventă în rândul fetelor obeze. Pe lângă toate acestea s-a constatat că obezii au o capacitate de muncă mult mai redusă.

În timpul activității fizice la copii grași s-a format o cantitate mare de substanțe acide, acidoza lor metabolică fiind mai semnificativă decât la cei normoponderali. Se cunoaște legătura dintre acidoza lactică dezvoltată în timpul activității fizice și oboseala, înseamnă că în comparație cu normalul, copilul gras este un neantrenat.

Tratament

Copilul obez nu are nici o șansă de vindecare spontană. Obezitatea, așa cum s-a mai subliniat, nu este o simplă particularitate fizică, un dezavantaj estetic, ci o veritabilă boală cronică și în consecință atât medicul cât și pacienții, respectiv familiile lor, trebuie să înțeleagă că succesul tratamentului este condiționat de un efort de lungă durată.

Rezultatele depind însă în primul rând de precocitatea instruirii acestuia.

Bazele tratamentului le constituie principiul patogenetic al apariției obezității: creșterea lipogenezei indusă de o alimentație excesivă absolută (ca o consecință a perturbării comportamentului alimentar) sau relativă (prin nevoi energetice scăzute datorită sedentarismului). Ca urmare, tratamentul se fundamentează pe crearea unui bilanți energetic negativ. Acesta se poate realiza pe de o parte prin reducerea aportului caloric și pe de altă parte prin creșterea consumului energetic.

Rolul hotărâtor îi devine dietei, iar alături de aceasta, planul terapeutic include activitatea fizică și uneori ca metodă adjuvantă, tratamentul medicamentos.

Pentru ca mijloacele terapeutice să devină operaționale se impune efectuarea unei *educații comportamentale temeinice*, care să asigure complianța terapeutică și succesul pe termen lung. Cu ajutorul tratamentului psihologic și prin terapie comportamentală se corectează obiceiurile care au determinat creșterea ponderală și se promovează un stil de viață sănătos. Achiziționarea unor obiceiuri noi este importantă nu numai pentru perioada de slăbire, cât mai ales ulterior, pentru menținerea unei greutate cât mai apropiate de cea normală. Este foarte util ca întreaga familie să adopte noul stil de viață, exemplul de conduită al părinților având mare valoare pentru copilul obez.

Tratamentul trebuie individualizat și adaptat vârstei copilului, necesităților legate de procesul de creștere și dezvoltare și nivelului socio-cultural al familiei.

Premizele tratamentului specific

Înainte de inițierea tratamentului se impune efectuarea anamnezei alimentare și a activității fizice, după care se eliberează protocolul terapeutic.

1. *Anamneza alimentară* este esențială pentru alcătuirea regimului de slăbire. Anamneza cuprinde toate datele legate de obiceiurile alimentare ale familiei și copilului. Întrebările se concentrează pe punerea consumului de lipide, glucide și proteine, cantitatea de alimente consumată la o masă, numărul de mese pe zi, durata de timp alocată unei mese, orarul meselor, consumul de dulciuri concentrate, sucuri carbogazoase dulci și de produse alimentare cu conținut caloric mare. O mare parte din aceste date sunt omise de familie pentru simplul considerent că unele produse nu prezintă de fapt „o masă propriu-zisă” și de cele mai multe ori tocmai acestea sunt cele mai importante pentru a explica obezitatea.

2. *Anamneza activității fizice* este important să se cunoască în primul rând care este atitudinea copilului față de activitatea fizică, dacă desfășoară o activitate programată, de ce tip este aceasta, durata (minute-ore/zi, ore/săptămână) și cât timp din zi are o activitate sedentară (inclusiv orarul școlar și timpul alocat studiului). Totodată se stabilește toleranța individuală la efort. În acest sens se impune monitorizarea funcției cardiace și consumului de oxigen în timpul exercițiului fizic.

Studiind nivelul de activitate fizică și inactivitatea specialiștii au constatat o deosebire netă între obezi și normoponderali în ceea ce privește inactivitatea, aceasta fiind mult mai frecventă la copiii obezi. Ei au tendința de a-si reduce activitatea fizică în paralel cu îngrășarea. Astfel, 58 % dintre copiii obezi sunt puțin activi și obțin rezultate mediocre la educație fizică, dar și capacitatea de muncă a copiilor obezi este mult mai redusă decât la normoponderali.

3. *Alcătuirea protocolului terapeutic* cuprinde prescrierea regimului dietetic, educația nutrițională a familiei, terapia comportamentală, planul de activitate fizică și tratamentul afecțiunilor asociate.

Tratamentul kinetic va fi subordonat tratamentului etiologic și constituie o parte importantă a cheltuielii energetice zilnice, dar există o serie de dificultăți reale în instruirea tratamentului.

După evaluarea inițială, în prima etapă a tratamentului kinetic individualizat utilizăm exerciții simple combinate cu exerciții de respirație în concordanță cu etapa tratamentului tehnico-metodic al obezității (lipolitică, musculopoetică, întreținere) și urmărim reacția organismului la efort. Apoi, folosind principiile metodice, putem să ajungem la exerciții mai complexe, cu obiecte portative, la aparate, la exerciții aplicative în funcție de toleranța organismului la efort.

Este recomandabil utilizarea jocurilor în cadrul tratamentului kinetic, cum ar fi: "Să culegem ciupercuțe!", "Să ne urcăm în pod!", "Să prindem cățelul!", "Șoarecele și pisica!", "Să jucăm fotbal!", "Mini basket!" .

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