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Sport physical education and fitness in Yugoslavia

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Sport, Physical Education and Fitness in Yugoslavia

by

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INTRODUCTION

In the late afternoon of January 31, 1984, Ljubljana, Slovenia, Yugoslavia, was smokey, dreary and colorless. There was no helpful ring of English to be heard. After the affluence of London, Paris and Salzburg and the color of Bavaria and the Austrian Alps, all through which the southbound train to Yugoslavia meandered, this city was a disappointment. Perhaps this project was a mistake.

On February 28, 1984, a different man on a different train headed north. A month has passed, and with it had passed a gloomy impression of the land of the South Slavs. A short four weeks opened an awareness of a new country and a new culture. The XIV Winter Olympic Games, along with newly introduced relatives, friends and colleagues, sparked an understanding of what makes Yugoslavia's culture the way it is.

The following report is a personal description of the Yugoslav Physical Culture (Telesno Kulturo). In February, 1984, the Yugoslav culture, physical and otherwise, was on world display. Being present for the Olympic Games in Sarajevo, or anywhere in Yugoslavia, provided a view of the country not exhibited by the media.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to describe and interpret what was learned about the Yugoslav Physical Culture. Physical Culture includes sport, physical education and

fitness. The system of sport hierarchy and participation is outlined as well as the structure and organization of physical education in Yugoslavia. The Olympic Games are described. Fitness in Yugoslavia is discussed. The philosophy and goals of those responsible for the Physical Culture of Yugoslavia are presented.

Methods of Data Collection

Information for this report was gathered in three principal methods: a review of literature on the subject; personal interviews and communications with teachers, students and others in Yugoslavia; and personal observations of events in Yugoslavia during February, 1984.

A computer search uncovered limited publications in English on the subject. The majority of supportive literature was of Yugoslav origin. Several Yugoslav studies and periodicals are translated into English. Other information was translated for the author by Yugoslav teachers.

Personal interviews were conducted with professors and students of physical education at universities in Ljubljana (Slovenia), Zagreb (Croatia), and Sarajevo (Bosnia-Herzegovina). The Director of the Department of Public Health for Bosnia-Herzegovina, located in Sarajevo, granted an interview, complete with interpretor. Communications with students and teachers from elementary and secondary schools in Slovenia, Croatia, and Bosnia-

Herzegovina provided more information. Interviews, conducted with relatives and acquaintences not professionaly involved with the Physical Culture of Yugoslavia, provided the author with a better understanding of day to day life in Yugoslavia.

Personal experiences provided the remainder of data for this study. Close observation of the schools, universities, sports facilities, and Olympic venues provided a framework to support the information gathered through literature and interviews. Witnessing how people lived and worked added validity to this report.

Limitations

Due to certain limitations on data collection, this report is not a definitive work on the subject. These limitations follow.

The main limitation to gathering information was the language barrier. Each of the six Republics in Yugoslavia has a different dialect, if not an entirely different language. Many Yugoslavians possess a second language. English, however, is not the preferred second language, except perhaps at the universities.

A second limiting factor was exposure to only three of the six Republics in Yugoslavia: Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Slovenia. Personal interviews did include conversations with residents from a fourth Republic, Macedonia. This report includes generalizations that are

perhaps inappropriate for the people of the excluded Republics.

A third limitation is the small amount of English translations of Yugoslav publications on the subject. Much more could be substantiated if more sources on Yugoslavia's Sport Culture were available. Sport Culture is a relatively new field in Yugoslavia and sources are limited.

The most glaring limitation is the shortness of stay in Yugoslavia. Visiting for only one month led to a compressed assessment which made writing this report difficult. The exchange of information continues with colleagues in Yugoslavia. This exchange has clarified some vague or confusing points in the original notes.

Limitations could have been more far reaching if not for three people. The author's uncle, Dr. Max Modic, arranged and translated the first of the personal interviews conducted in Yugoslavia. Through Dr. Modic, arrangements were made for interviews at the University Edvard Kardelj in Ljubljana, Slovenia. Franci Ambrozic, a graduate student in Physical Culture at the University of Ljubljana, was interpretor and friend. He coordinated meetings which resulted in some twelve hours of interviews at the University of Zagreb in Croatia as well as in Ljubljana. Amiru Sadikovic was a sixteen year old Sarajevo native who spoke near perfect English. Because of her efforts, over

eight hours of interviews were arranged at the University of Sarajevo and the Bosnia-Herzegovina Department of Public Health.

The following report comes from the heart as well as from an impersonal block of gathered data. This may add to or detract from its credibility. This study is, to a degree, a phenomenological project; though it is supported with factual information, it should be read with that in mind.

CHAPTER I

History of Yugoslavia

Ethnic and Political Diversity Before 1918

The Federal Peoples Republic of Yugoslavia consists of six Republics: Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia. Serbia is comprised of Serbia Proper plus two autonomous provinces: Vojvodina to the north and Kosovo-Mitohija to the south of Serbia Proper.

Until 1918 there was no united Yugoslav state. The Yugoslavs, or South Slavs, migrated to their present home from north of the Carpathian mountains in the sixth and seventh centuries A.D. In the eighth and ninth centuries the ancestors of the present Yugoslavs were converted to Christianity. Predecessors of the Serbs, Montenegrans and Macedonians received Christianity from the Byzantine Empire in the east. Croats and Slovenians were converted by missionaries from Italy and Germany (Byrnes, 1957).

The division of the Catholic Church in 1054 into the Roman and Eastern Orthodox Churches divided Yugoslavs into two religious camps. The religious dividing line was intermingled with a political one. The Slovenes and the Croats were governed by and participated in the policies and culture of Catholic Europe. To the south and east the Serbs, Montenegrans and Macedonians felt the influence of the Byzantine rule and the latter suffered for five centuries under the Ottoman Turks. The effects of these

contrasting influences are still seen in the religion, architecture, music, and alphabet (Latin among the Catholics, Cyrillic for Orthodox) of the different Republics of Yugoslavia (Map 1).

The Republics

The Slovenes have never formed a united independent state. Conquered by Charlemagne in the eighth century, they remained under the domination of the Germans until the creation of Yugoslavia in 1918. This teutonic influence is present throughout Slovene culture. Due perhaps to their avoidance of Ottoman rule, the Slovenes have a higher level of literacy, industrialization, sport and general culture than those Republics subjected to the rule of the Ottoman. This cultural difference is noted by natives of other Republics. The Slovenes are also set apart from their neighbor Republics by their own language, Slovene (Byrnes, 1957).

The Croats are located southeast of Slovenia. Croatia has a long border on the Adriatic Sea. The Croats created an independent state in 925 A.D. which lasted almost two hundred years. From 1102, when the Croatian throne was ceded by the King of Hungary, until 1918 the Austro-Hungarian Empire dominated Croatian life. The Ottoman Turks did get as far as Croatia in the early 16th century. They did not leave as lasting an effect on the Croats as they did on those to the southeast. Dalmatia, the Adriatic coast of

Map 1

The federated units of Yugoslavia since the Second World War.

Note From Yugoslavia (page 228) by Pavlowitch. New York: 1971.

Croatia, has long been influenced by the Venetian culture. This influence is readily visible in architecture and music (Byrnes, 1957).

Serbia is located south and east of Croatia. They are different from their neighbors to the north in religion (Orthodox), race and language. The Orthodox faith to which they were converted by Byzantine missionaries served as a rallying point for Serbian national consciousness when political independence was taken away.

For a brief period (1311-1355) the Serbs were powerful under Stephan Dusan. By 1389 (The Battle of Kosovo) the Serbian state had splintered into dispersed and ineffectual factors. In this weakened condition the Serbian state was destroyed and occupied by the Ottoman Turks. The Turks remained for over five centuries. The refugees from Serbia fled north and later had a strong role in the Yugoslav nationalisitc awakening (Seton-Watson, 1966).

The Montenegrans in 1799 were the first of the Yugoslav peoples to free themselves from foreign rule. The Montenegrans were tribes of Serbian descent which settled in the barren Black Mountains along the Adriatic coast, almost directly south of Serbia. Though sometimes united under common rulers with the Serbians, the Montenegrans usually had their own independent state (Byrnes, 1957).

The Ottoman Turks overran the country in 1514. But they were never able to control the fiesty, hard fighting

people tucked into their protective mountain aeries. From the time of Peter the Great until World War I, the Russians and Montenegrans helped each other to wage war on the Ottoman Empire. This affinity towards the Russians has remained.

Macedonia occupies one of the most strategic and racially mixed areas of the Balkans. It is bordered by Albania, Greece and Bulgaria. Greece, Bulgaria and Yugoslavia each claim part of the old Macedonian Empire. Yugoslavia controls the largest section. Many different dialects are found in this Republic. Macedonia has the dubious distinction of being the first to fall under Ottoman rule and the last to escape it (Byrnes, 1957; Stavrianos, 1958).

The area known today as Bosnia-Herzegovina, with Sarajevo as its capital, is predominately populated by Serbs and Croats. This region has long been a reason for dispute between the Serbs and the Croats. It is the only area in Yugoslavia to have had a large scale conversion to Islam as a result of Ottoman occupation. This conversion was adopted in order to retain their lands. There is still a large Islamic population in this Republic (Byrnes, 1957).

Nationalistic Awakening

At the beginning of the 19th century all of Yugoslavia was under foreign domination except for Montenegro. The Slovenes and Croats were relatively prosperous under the

Austro-Hungarian rule. Most of the South Slavs, however, suffered under the increasingly harsh rule of Ottoman troops and landlords. It was in these regions controlled by the Ottoman Turks that the seeds of nationalism were first sown and grew the fastest (Schevill, 1922).

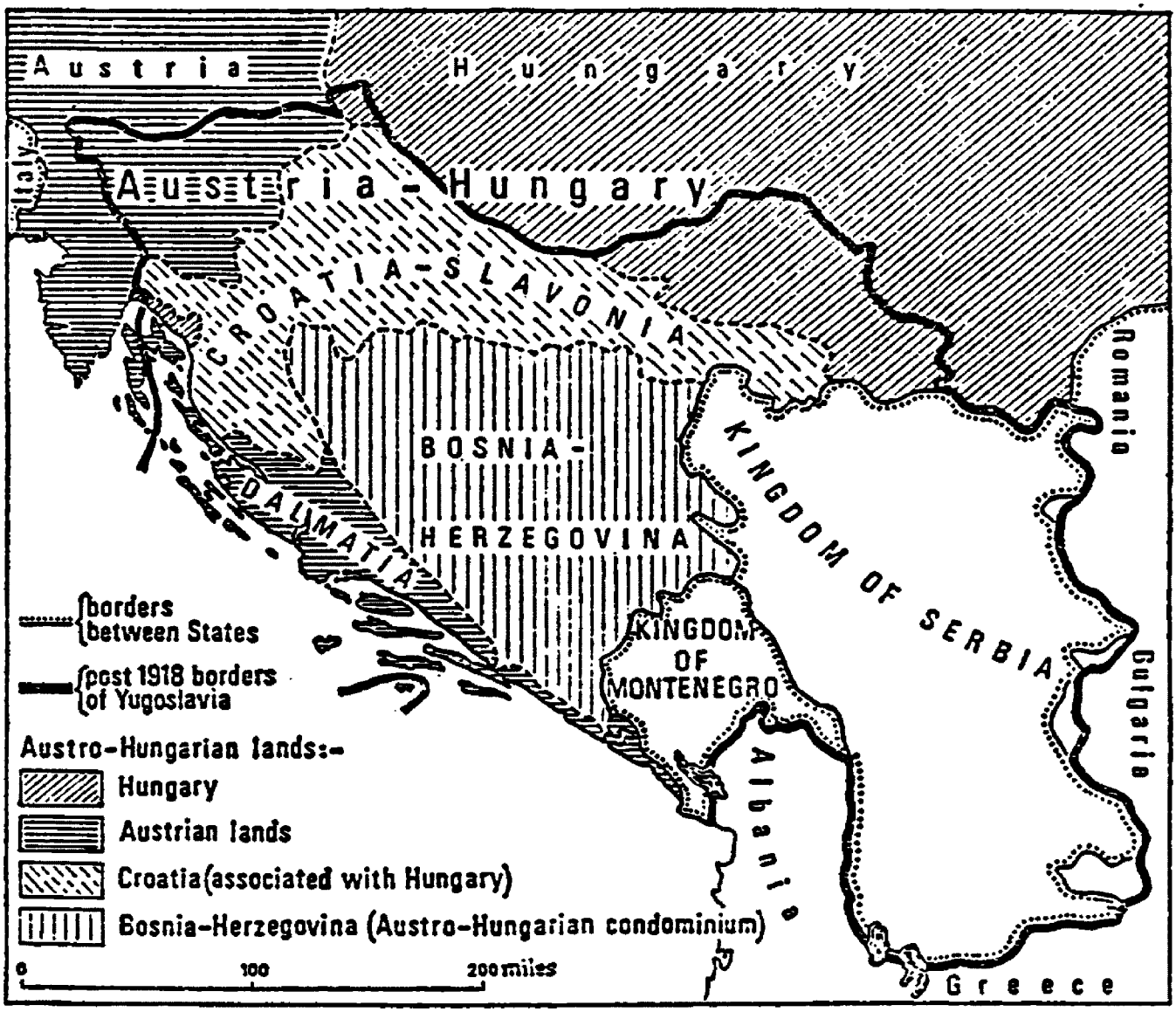
Cultural nationalism (the duty of each nationality to preserve and develop its own culture) and political nationalism (the right of each nationality to form its own independent state) were advanced in northwestern Yugoslavia by reforms augmented by Napolean (Seton-Watson, 1966). Napoleonic innovations, the corruption of Ottoman power, and the efforts of Yugoslav intellectuals to call attention to the affinity of the different South Slav peoples combined to set the movement for a united Yugoslav state in motion.

To the southeast the Serbs were taking a more militant approach to the task of building an independent state. A group of armed Serbs under Karageorge began the revolt in 1804 by occupying the Belgrade Palashik. Under the leadership of Milos Obrenovic, the Serbs forced the Sultan to provide for an autonomous region under Serbian governors. Milos' brother Micheal saw the removal of the last Ottoman troops from Serbian soil in 1867 (Stavrianos, 1958).

The Serbs and Montenegrans continued to battle the Ottoman in the Balkan Wars of 1912-1913. In Sarajevo, on June 28, 1914, Gavrilo Princip, a Bosnian revolutionary supplied with Serbian arms, assassinated the Austrian

Map 2

The Yugoslav lands on the eve of the First World War.



Note: From Yugoslavia (page 49) by Pavlowitch. New York: 1971.

Archduke Franz Ferdinand. Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia on July 28, 1914 (Stavrianos, 1958).

Heavy Serbian resistance kept the Hapsburg troops from making much headway in 1914. By the end of that year the Serbian general command would claim, "On the territory of the Kingdom of Serbia there remains not one free enemy soldier."

The Austrians returned to the fight in October, 1915, with the added help of the Germans and the Bulgarians. This time the Serbs were completely outclassed in manpower and equipment. Rather than surrender or be completely destroyed, the Serbs chose to flee across the Montenegran mountains and through the Albanian passes to the Adriatic coast. From there they were evacuated to the Island of Corfu. These troops later joined Allied forces and led the drive for the eventual liberation of all Serbian territory (Stavrianos, 1958).

On December 1, 1918, the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes was officially recognized with King Alexander on the throne. The Serbian resistance, sympathetic allied negotiators, and a strong nationalistic movement throughout the rest of Yugoslavia helped create a new national state.

Struggling for Unity: 1918-1941

The South Slavs were never before united under one government. Religion, language, culture and even legal systems were different from one region to another. Followers

of Yugoslav nationalism thought in terms of unity and the common interests of all Yugoslav peoples. This was countered by a growing regionalism. Now that Serbs, Croats and Slovenes had no common enemy, disputes between the localities sprang up and greatly hindered Yugoslav national unity between the world wars (Byrnes, 1957).

In 1929 the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes became the Kingdom of Yugoslavia.

As Nazi Germany began its assault of Europe, Yugoslavia was pressured to sign in with the Axis Powers on March 25, 1941. Many citizens rioted upon hearing the news of the alliance of their country to Germany. Hitler sensed the rebellion and weakness in Yugoslavia. On April 16, 1941, the German Luftwaffe bombed Belgrade as German, Italian and Hungarian troops rolled into Yugoslavia from all sides. King Peter fled his country never to return. Yugoslavia surrendered to the Axis Invaders on April 17, 1941, returning to its status of occupied country (Pavlowitch, 1971).

> "The Yugoslav state of the interwar period was really never consolidated. It was kept together by force alone. When the test came in 1941 the whole fabric simply disintegrated . . . whole nations and the great bulk of the population, especially the peasants, apparently felt that the state in the form in which it existed was nothing that belonged to them and thus was not worth fighting for." (Tomasevich, 1955, p. 176.)

Occupation, Liberation and Civil War: 1941-1945

With the collapse of the Yugoslav army, the Kingdom was sectioned and occupied by German, Italian, Hungarian and Albanian troops. Puppet states were created in Croatia and Serbia. Serbia had a puppet provisional government which took its orders from the German military administration. Croatia was set up into an independent state governed by Ante Pavelic and his fascist Ustase. Pavelic was careful, however, to obey any orders he received from the Italian or German military establishment.

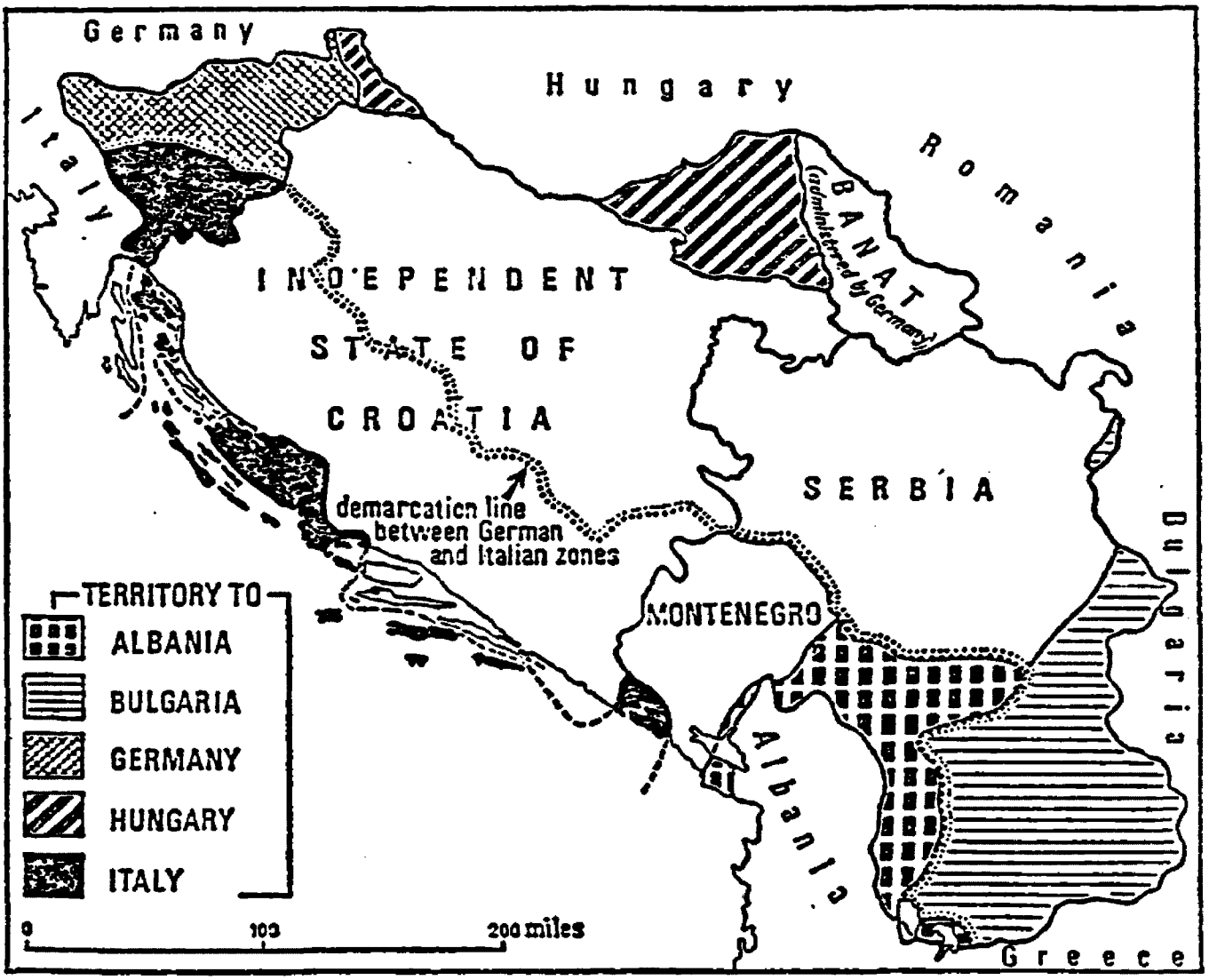
The Ustase "cleansed" the new state with mass exterminations of Jews, those Serbs who refused conversion from Orthodoxy to Catholiscism, and Democratic Croats. These exterminations were part of the plans of the Nazi High Command to depopulate areas of Yugoslavia for later occupation by German families. Pavlowitch (1971) puts conservative estimates of the civilian death toll in Croatia at 350,000.

Two groups of resistance fighters emerged to battle occupation forces in 1941. The final fight for control of post-war Yugoslavia would be between these two groups.

One group was known as "Cetniks." These were headed by Colonel Drazu Mahajlovic, a professional soldier loyal to the Yugoslav absentee monarchy in London. Mahajlovic had plans for the slow construction of a cohesive

Map 3

The territory of Yugoslavia during the Second World War.



Note; From Yugoslavia (page 116) by Pavlowitch. New York: 1971.

underground army. He tried to avoid open conflict with the Germans to prevent reprisals against civilians (Pavlowitch, 1971).

The Communist Partisans were led by Joseph Broz "Tito", the secretary-general of the Yugoslav Communist Party. Tito's plan was to force an insurrection. He hoped to bring the population to the fight as quickly as possible. Tito set up his own armed units and a secret headquarters in Belgrade.

In 1941, the Yugoslav resistance groups were involved in three armed insurrections against occupation forces. These uprisings were the first against the Axis occupation dictatorship in Europe. Yugoslav resistance resulted in a harsh response by the Nazis. The severe reprisals were blamed primarily on the Communist Partisans. Tito was forced to regroup for most of 1942.

The Chetniks gained much support in 1942 from the native population and the forces allied against the Axis. Resorting to sabotage, Mahajlovic forces mired German supply lines in North Africa. British commanders praised the Chetnik efforts in the defeat of Rommel.

Mahjlovic's success made him a focus of German attention, leaving Tito to rebuild. Tito's success in regrouping hinged on his ability to learn from his mistakes. He now adopted a strike and scatter military tactic along with a political strategy which focused on

religious and ethnic tolerance. By Autumn of 1942, Tito had united and controlled a section of Bosnia nearly the size of Switzerland.

Tito's strong party organization brought together infighting local militias to form a non-sectarian Peoples Liberation Army. The Partisans helped bring life, in the form of schools and organized communications and services, back in this section of Yugoslavia.

Tito also needed to fortify his political organization. The Partisans convened a congress of the Peoples Liberation Movement on November 26, 1942. This was the first session of the Anti-Fascist Council for the National Liberation of Yugoslavia. The Council would eventually become the sole governing body of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (Pavlowitch, 1971).

Tito made his move for control of Yugoslavia as North Africa and Italy fell to anti-Axis forces in 1943. As the Italians surrendered, Tito disarmed them in the name of the Yugoslav Government in London. His well organized army now had the arms to better advance their cause.

Russian, American and British support was now with the Partisans. Tito's anti-fascist council survived to convene again on November 29, 1943, in Jajtse in Bosnia. Tito became President Marshall of the provisional government, the National Committee for the Liberation of Yugoslavia. The new government stripped the London government of its

right to power. The new government declared Yugoslavia a federation of six republics: Serbia, Slovenia, Macedonia, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Montenegro (Pavlowitch, 1971).

As Germany began its retreat, Tito continued to expand. Cetnik-controlled Serbia was all that remained in the way of a Communist controlled Yugoslavia. On September 6, 1944, Russian troops reached the Yugoslav border. On September 21, Tito had a clandestine meeting with Stalin. Stalin agreed to aid for Tito in the form of troops for pursuit of retreating Nazi forces. Russian aid was awarded under the provision that Tito's National Committee operate the civilian administration in areas the Russian troops patrolled. Mahajlovic fled Serbia as the Russians disarmed remaining bands of Cetniks. By October 20, 1944, Tito had Serbia.

The final retreat of the Germans from Western Yugoslavia saw a flood of refugees go with it. Collaborators from the Croatian Ustase and other factions ran for their lives in front of the advancing Partisans. A large force of the anti-Communist Slovenian army fled to Austria and was disarmed and interned by the British. On May 7, 1945, the Partisans arrived in Ljubljana. Thousands of anti-Communist refugees were turned back attempting to get to British occupied Corinthia and were executed by the Partisans.

The Germans officially surrendered to allied forces on May 9, 1945. Pavlowitch (1971) explains that German forces

in Yugoslavia held out until May 15, reluctant to surrender to the Communists.

> "Left to native forces, the war in Yugoslavia had gone on for seven months after the liberation of Belgrade, and for a full week after the end of the war, on other European fronts." (Page 217.)

A New Yugoslavia - The Communists Take Control: 1945-1950

The war left Yugoslavia one of the most severely ravaged countries in Europe with 1.7 million dead and much of its limited industry and agriculture in ruins.

A brutal civil war was waged in Yugoslavia at the same time as the war for liberation was fought against the Axis. Tito and the Partisans won the civil war, assuring them control of the new government.

There was no political organization from the non-Communist section. The Communists absorbed many political splinter groups. Former political leaders, returning from exile, found their leverage had disappeared. At least 164,000 disidants were dispersed throughout Europe. Another 250,000 had been stripped of the rights of citizenship though they were allowed to remain in Yugoslavia (Pavlowitch, 1971).

When the votes of a plebiscite election were tallied on November 11, 1945, Tito received 90% of them. The newly elected Constituent Assembly met on November 29 to abolish the monarchy and establish the Federal Peoples Republic of Yugoslavia. The new constitution was ratified on January 31, 1946.

Pavlowitch (1971) notes that the new constitution was modelled on Stalin's constitution of 1936. The new Republic was controlled by the security forces and the judiciary in the first unsettled years. The country was still in a revolutionary and unpacified condition, basically a Stalinist police state.

The trial of Mahajlovic in June and July, 1946, was the beginning of the purge of anti-Communists, collaborators and dissidents. He was sentenced to hang with several of his commanders. This helped in the suppression and discrediting of any remaining anti-Communist groups. The Catholic and Orthodox churches were also attacked, though less intensely. The intent of this suppression was not to do away with the religions, but to decentralize its power into the hands of the Communist government.

The Break With Russia

The Yugoslav Communists emerged from the war fanatically devoted to the Soviet Union. They had been the first Communist party in Eastern Europe to eliminate all competitors, take over the state and organize a political machine and economy on the Soviet model. In 1947, they joined with the USSR and the rest of the Communist countries of Europe to form the Information Bureau of Communist Parties, or Cominform.

But tensions grew between the USSR and Yugoslavia. Tito pushed for a Balkan alliance with policies independent

from those of the Soviets. Yugoslavia was still trying to annex Bulgaria and Albania. Tito refused a summons to Moscow in February, 1948, rejecting Stalin's treatment as a subordinate in constant need of instructions.

In March, 1948, the Soviets delayed concluding new trade agreements which were due to expire in April. This came after Tito expelled a Soviet agent who was heading plans to undermine Tito's position in the party. Next, Stalin removed military advisors and civilian experts. When Tito protested, Stalin replied with charges of revisionism and imperialism. Finally, a meeting of Cominform was held in Bucharest. The Yugoslav delegation feared reprisals and refused to attend. The session attacked the moderation of Communists in the West and accused Yugoslavia of ideological deviation. Yugoslavia, under Soviet pressure, was then expelled from the Cominform. The seat of the Cominform was transferred from Belgrade to Bucharest. Economic sanctions and political propoganda were levied against Yugoslavia by neighboring Cominform countries.

Faced with bankruptcy, the threat of Soviet military intervention and unfriendly overtones from its bordering countries, Tito went to the West for aid. The United States released Yugoslavia's gold revenues in exchange for reparations for nationalized American assets. The United States also gave guarantees that they would aid Yugoslavia in case of Russian invasion.

Stalin's plan to control Tito had failed. His political and economic sanctions greatly weakened Yugoslavia. Tito had to give up his ambitions of claiming Albania and the rest of Macedonia. He also needed credit from the West to completely implement his new industrial and agricultural plans. Nevertheless, both the country and the regime had survived. Before 1950, Stalin had expected he could generate internal convulsions which would sweep Yugoslavia into his fold. This failing, only military intervention was left. But by 1950, that had become too dangerous (Pavlowitch, 1971).

Reforms and an Evolving Political System: 1950-Present

Horvat (1967) claims that the USSR stopped in the first stage of the socialist revolution and has developed a despotic, capitalistic state hierarchy. Rather than developing dictatorship of the proletariat with ownership of production and distribution by the people, the Soviet system has degenerated into a dictatorship over the proletariat.

Starting in 1950, the Yugoslav system branched away from the Soviet model. The self-management system in Yugoslavia began with reforms in judiciary systems and the introduction of the workers government. New electoral laws made participation in the government more attainable and attractive. A new criminal code did away with crime or punishment unless demanded by a specific law. Investigation proceedings were reformed and prison conditions improved.

The attempts of the late 1940's to centralize and communalize farms were revamped and relaxed. Universities were reorganized and censorship eased. Persuasion was replacing intimidation. Citizens were made to feel more of a part of the day to day running of the country (Pavlowitch, 1971).

Reforms in 1961 attempted to make Yugoslavia's economy more convertable in the foreign market. Allowances for free trade were extended to about one-third of imports. Banking and monitary systems also were revamped in an attempt to increase investment opportunities for the workers. Tito continued his crusade for the rights of the neutral countries in the Belgrade Conference of non-aligned states in September, 1961 (Pavlowitch, 1971).

The 1961 reforms were mostly ineffective. Exports still fell behind imports. Unemployment was still high. The bureacracy seemed too big for the economy. Reforms in 1965 called for belt tightening and cutting of unnecessary, inefficient programs.

The invasion of Czechoslovackia by Soviet troops in August, 1968, put Yugoslavia on alert. Invasion of their own borders seemed imminent. But the United States' support of Yugoslavia against a possible Soviet invasion helped bring popular opinion and the party line a little closer. Tito still held on to his non-alignment philosophies and his continued aim of decentralization and

self-management. Although the ninth party congress in March, 1969, called for a strong central leadership, Pavlowitch (1971) cites the continued efforts for final implementation of the self-management system.

Reforms continued with the new constitution in 1974. The Associated Labor Act of 1976 was passed in order to more clearly define the self-management system.

Self-management, explained by Horvat (1967), is based on social ownership of the means of production and distribution. Workers in a given company also have the right to make decisions, as a group, on production methods, design, and pay scales. This system has been integrated into all areas and levels of government, industry and education.

The system is unwieldly and inefficient at times. Yugoslavia's economy today is still weak. But the system has enabled Yugoslavia to grow in an independent, peaceful, and unaligned fashion in a portion of the world predominantly controlled by the Soviet Union.

Development of Yugoslav Sport Culture

The history of Yugoslav sport begins, for the most part, after World War I. Now unified, in name anyway, the new country could turn towards developing a more structured form of recreational culture.

Prior to the unification of Yugoslavia after World War I, physical education and sport was limited primarily to

military training and folk dancing. The type and intensity of military training depended on the region one lived in as well as the government in charge of that region. Folk dancing was an activity enjoyed by both sexes and all ages. Innumerable styles could be encountered, depending again on the region. Folk dancing was a prized cultural commodity. A Germanic form of gymnastics was practiced in the Slovenian and Croatian regions. But again, these activities usually resulted from military need.

Yugoslavia topography is ideal for skiing in all six republics. The mountains provide the largest arena for mass sport in the country. Skiing and mountaineering are developed as a mass sport mainly in primary and secondary schools. Skiing's beginnings as an organized activity can be traced back to 1920 with ski jumping and the Nordic disciplines. Alpine skiing joined the Nordic disciplines in 1927. The largest ski jump was built in 1934 in the Tamar Valley on Mount Planica. Although there are ski centers or resorts in all Yugoslav Republics, most are in Slovenia. There are over 100 ski jump sites in Slovenia.

Dragovic, Alipijevic and Holovka (1972) state the pioneer of Yugoslav winter sports was Stanko Blondik. Blondik was a ski jump engineer with a knack for organization. Besides promoting ski jumping and other forms of that sport, he organized figure skating and ice hockey in Yugoslavia. He set up the first hockey club in

Ljubljana in 1924. Blondik organized the skating section of the Slovene Sport Federation in 1922. The fortunes of ice sports depended greatly on the cooperation of the weather. Popularity waxed and waned until 1954, when the first indoor rinks were built. By the early 1970's, there were over 50 registered hockey clubs containing over 5,000 members.

The team sports of basketball, volleyball, soccer (football), waterpolo, and team handball have developed steadily since the late 1950's.

Yugoslav teams have achieved great success in basketball to the extent of exporting players to American Universities. There are currently over 700 registered basketball clubs in the country. This puts the number of people playing organized basketball in Yugoslavia at over 50,000 (Stanojevic, 1978).

Soccer is the number one sport in Yugoslavia and many quality soccer players are developed there. Soccer players are highly visible and sought after by the media. The youth idolize them. Like so many areas of Yugoslav culture, soccer coaches and players tend to leave for better opportunities elsewhere in the world. Though losing ground in popularity to basketball, it is still the sport of the masses (Kos, 1979).

Individual sports such as swimming, gymnastics, and track and field have also gained popularity and prowess

since the early 1960's. Yugoslavia's socialistic consciousness, however, is closer to the team sports. Individual sports are predominantly reserved for the higher classes, which is a situation Yugoslav political theorizers would like to see remedied (Petrovic, 1983).

F. Ambrozic points out that women's sports are quite a ways behind those enjoyed by the men (personal communication, February, 1984). This is especially true in the small, rural villages. Women in skiing and figure skating are getting more training and exposure. Women's team handball, basketball, and volleyball are growing and are popular in the larger urban areas. Swimming and tennis are also sports in which women can advance. Education officials feel the Olympic games will increase participation by women in the future.

Women's sports organizations or clubs are structured and funded in the same manner as the men's, only to a lesser extent. Girls are initiated into the same activities as boys in elementary schools, but there the similarity stops (L. Davidovska, personal communication, June, 1984). Emphasis on men's sports takes the more talented boys immediately to clubs or a more competitive setting. Girls have to be extremely talented in order to get follow-up coaching after the initial exposure in grade school.

CHAPTER II

Sport in Yugoslavia

Club Structure and Funding

Sport in Yugoslavia is structured like education, industry, transportation, and agriculture. They are all based on the structure of the government. According to F. Ambrozic, three groups are contained in the sport framework. The elite athletes perform at the Federal level. These athletes form the national teams that represent the country in international and Olympic competition. In addition, in some sports (soccer, basketball), leagues are formed with teams which represent a Republic and play on a national circuit. These players receive lodging and other expenses while on the circuit. Athletes on the national teams come from teams organized at the Republic level. The bottom rung of the system is at the town or commune level (F. Ambrozic, personal communication, February, 1984).

The major component of all three levels of sport competition is the sport club. The club has a structure all its own. All athletes on the national teams come from the club system. There are some clubs in the school system, though most are organized outside of the school.

D. Grilj points out that athletes in clubs compete at three levels: pioneer, intermediate and senior divisions (personal communication, February, 1984). These divisions exist at the communal, Republic and national levels. Pioneer

level athletes are the elementary school aged children. These children are given the basics of whatever sport in which they are determined to be gifted. Intermediate level athletes parallel high school aged athletes in the United States. Coaches hone athletes' skills to prepare them for Republic of national competition. There are regional and Republic competitions for even the pioneer level athletes. These competitions decide which is the best team in the Republic and which players may be skilled enough to move to the next phase of competition.

There are sport clubs in the schools and universities. Competition in these clubs seldom goes further than the town or school in which they are situated. Most of the athletes, funding, and facilities go to the clubs outside of the school. School clubs may form for an annual or semi-annual competition between rural schools or towns. The most gifted of these athletes may be recruited by a larger club.

According to D. Grilj and M. Vranesic, the club system outside of the school setting has the most power in the Yugoslav sport system. Governed by the Federal Union of Organizations for Physical Culture, these clubs are also sponsored by industry and other economic concerns (personal communication, February, 1984).

Some clubs compete only in communal or town leagues. Participants at this level can be compared to recreational leagues in the United States. Larger urban areas can

support, with talent and money, Republic level caliber teams. A large club, such as Red Star or Partizan from Belgrade or Dinamo from Zagreb, may have satellites in smaller towns throughout their Republic. This ensures them of a "farm system" for continuing talent development.

The club has always been a school of basics for the player. According to Kos (1979), without them there would be no possibilities for a strong national team. Coaching for the clubs is the best available in Yugoslavia. It is from the clubs that coaches are selected for the national teams. Coaches for the clubs are trained in two ways. They may be former players trained by and for the club to continue in service after their playing careers. Yugoslav universities also offer two year degrees for coaching and training in the club system. These programs are specific to individual sports (D. Grilj, personal communication, February 1, 1984).

All sports in Yugoslavia are governed by the Federal Union of Organizations for Physical Culture (Howell and Van Uliet, 1965). The Union is headed by an honorary president. A general secretary is the effective leader of the Union. As of 1984, there were 46 sports organizations in the Union. Each sport has its own president who presides over the heads of the sport in each Republic. The Union forms a network down to the commune and town levels. A club must be registered with and recognized by the Federal Union

of Organizations of Sport Culture in order to receive funding allocations from the yearly budget. Clubs in conjunction with specific sport committee organizations (soccer, basketball, skiing, etc.) operate Republic or national level sport schools or training centers for their elite athletes.

According to B. Elsner, funding for sports in Yugoslavia comes from the annual budget alloted for sport from the Federal government (personal communication, February, 1984). Money for this budget comes from several sources. First, there is tax revenue. Each citizen pays approximately .05% of his tax income for sports. In 1983, taxes paid into Solvenia's sports coffers was 800,000,000 dinar ($6.6 million United States dollars). This covered 40% of their needs for the year. The remaining 60% came from private sources.

There are two private sources of sport revenue. One source is private donations from either industry or wealthy private citizens. Business and industry play a large part in the Yugoslav sport club system. Many companies have their own clubs. This extra, donated money raises mediocre general participation clubs to the elite status of the national caliber teams. Some 260 industries also contributed to the staging of the XIV Winter Olympic Games in Sarajevo. Another source of funds is the sport lottery. Ten percent of this lottery goes to soccer, 40% to special

causes, and 50% to the general national sport budget. All sport in Yugoslavia is at least partially funded by the state. Taxes from employed citizens of Yugoslavia go to the funding of physical culture. Funding for women's sports clubs is achieved in the same way as men's. Women's clubs are fewer in number, due mostly to lack of participants (Aleksic, 1979).

Professionalism

Theoretically, there are no professional sports in Yugoslavia. The consensus of my interviews, however, indicates otherwise. Soccer is a professional sport in Yugoslavia (Kos, 1979). The football market within the country is far from a free-trade system. The player gets a signing-on fee, but this cannot exceed a certain limit regardless if he is renewing his contract or moving to a new club. There is a lack of financial incentive to change clubs. A star player in a small provincial town will probably receive more fringe benefits, such as food, clothing or extra employment, than in a big city where control on such matters is more rigid.

Basketball players also receive incentive payments to sign with one club or another. National teams and athletes who compete on an international or Olympic level are supported by the state from the national budget for physical culture. This funding may include living expenses and perhaps a job.

Another avenue for Yugoslav athletes to make their living in sport is to leave the country. Many soccer players and coaches are working for other countries. Basketball players from Yugoslavia are now seen in major United States college programs. Other countries in Europe also recruit the Yugoslav basketball players. Yugoslav players and coaches do not have to defect to leave the country. They are free to go. However, the process involved in leaving is a little more difficult with the economic slowdown in the country. In an attempt to keep the economy at home, the government has levied a 5,000 dinar ($40.00) fee to leave the country (M. Modic, personal communication, January, 1984).

Sport in the Military

Military service is something very few young men in Yugoslavia are able to avoid. All are required to serve 15 months in the regular army upon graduation from high school. Like any military service, there is basic training. Boot camp lasts six weeks. Morning calisthenics, lasting 20 minutes, are mandatory through the first three months. Though not required after three months, they are encouraged. Cousin Mako Modic did not bother with his morning workouts after the mandatory period and said many others did the same (personal communication, January, 1984).

Fitness tests are performed on the regular army before and after basic training. No follow-up is done after that.

For military academy cadets and officers, physical fitness and strength are tested twice a year. Two hours of training are required per week for this group (Maric, 1978).

Military garrisons have their own facilities not used by the public. The larger the urban area, the better the facility. The one in Ilistra Bistrica, Solvenia, was closed due to water damage. The facility was small, disheveled and had small amounts of outdated equipment. Articles on the subject claim that the military has fine facilities as well as high participation in their physical training programs (Maric, 1978). Perhaps this is so for cadets and officers. For the regular army, the activity levels appear to be as low as the soldiers, or their commanding officers, can get away with.

For over 35 years the Annual Sports Championships of the Yugoslav Peoples Army have been held at various sites throughout the country. There are 32 disciplines for individual and team contests. Marksmanship, 2000 meter run, martial art matches, swimming and team handball, plus military precision contests are held at the annual meet. The championships give those who do train rigorously a chance to test themselves. It also gives a little spark of excitement to the otherwise dull existence of army life.

The Olympics in Sarajevo

The City

Sarajevo is at the geographical center of Yugoslavia. It is also the administrative, economic and cultural center of the Socialist Republic of Bosnia-Herzegovina. Nearly 500,000 people inhabit the city. Surrounded by mountains nearly 7,000 feet above sea level, it is also close to the Mediterranean Sea.

Few cities have the long history of turbulance Sarajevo has. By reason of geopolitical circumstances, this region has always been in the frontier zone between great powers and global ideologies. It marks the boundary between Papal Christiandom and the Ottoman Turkish Empire, between the Christian and Islamic worlds, between Eastern and Western Europe.

What is perhaps most unique about Sarajevo is the meeting of old and new. If arriving by train or air, the first sights are of new high-rise buildings, housing, hotels and industry. As one travels north into the city, the buildings are older and the residential sides of the city fold up to form a chute with the river Miljacka running down the middle. Rocket shaped mosques are dispersed among the old city. A one hundred year old Catholic church is on the same street as a five hundred year old mosque.

World War I started in Sarajevo when Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria was assissinated by Gavrilo Princip.

All of Europe and the Ottoman Empire fought over this piece of land. A peaceful gathering of the world's nations in Sarajevo now brings a more quiet bit of history to the already full annals (Sarajevo Tourist Association and the Organizing Committee of the XIV . Olympic Winter Games, 1983).

Sarajevo Gets the Bid

In May of 1978, the 80th session of the International Olympic Committee convened in Athens, Greece. The decision was made on May 18 to award Sarajevo the privilege of hosting the XIV Olympic Winter Games. Over the next nearly six years the Yugoslav Olympic Committee, the City of Sarajevo, and the people of all six Republics combined efforts to prepare for an Olympic event that was described in February, 1984, by a Japanese reporter (Sekomoto Tetsuo) this way, "I think it's enough to say that the organization of the XIV Olympic Winter Games, as compared to those in Sapporo, Innsbruch and Lake Placid, all of which I covered, is perfect, the best." (Olympic Informator, February, 1984).

Preparations: Finance

In six years organizers, architects and construction workers built an Olympic city that did not exist in 1978. More than 160 facilities were built in Sarajevo ranging from sports stadia and halls to hotels for the accommodation of competitors and visitors, telecommunications centers and service centers as well as cultural and entertainment

facilities. Organizational and construction costs were over $140 million (Spilvec, 1984).

Some of the costs were to be offset by ticket sales and concessions revenue during the games. Before the games began, $10 million was raised in donations from the general Yugoslav public. Over one million citizens contributed. At the same time, 260 Yugoslav industrial and business concerns furnished financial, organizational and construction assistance. Nearly 100 foreign firms were also engaged in sponsorship. A considerable sum was earned from the sale of television rights to the American Broadcasting Company (ABC).

Flags or banners were flown throughout Sarajevo on telephone poles and street light stanchions representing each of the 260 contributing businesses. Coke was the official soft drink of the games. Merrill Lynch printed the tickets and it's logo was on every one of them. Diners Club advertisements proclaimed they were the official credit card of the games. Camera companies showed off everywhere. And, of course, ABC crews were everywhere in the streets of Sarajevo.

When the International Olympic Committee (IOC) awarded the Winter Olympics to Sarajevo, the Yugoslav economy was relatively strong. But by 1980, a dramatic economic slowdown was effecting the Yugoslav financial system. Dr. M. Vransic notes the people of Sarajevo levied a tax upon

themselves (personal communication, February, 1984). Every working citizen of Sarajevo was taxed 3% of their total income in order to help pay for the expense of the Olympics. Parts of the budget for physical culture also went to the financing of the event.

Preparation: The Venues

Seven Olympic venues were built in the four years preceeding the games. The "heart" of the Olympic city was the Zetra, located in the Kesovo section of the city little more than a mile from the center of Sarajevo. The Zetra grounds contained the Olympic Stadium, Olympic Hall and the speed skating rink. The games opened on February 3, 1984, in the 50,000 seat Olympic Stadium. Olympic Hall held skating and hockey events as well as the closing ceremonies on February 19, 1984. The hall holds 8,500 fans and has an ice surface measuring 100 x 60 meters. Sarajevo architects Lidumil Alikalfic and Dusan Djapa designed the complex. The auxiliary hall holds 2,000 seats. This complex was designed by Halid Muhasilovic of Sarajevo and built by a Sarajevo construction firm, Vranica. The Skenderija provided a shopping mall, ticket and tour offices, as well as Olympic events and the press center. This center was in downtown Sarajevo between the old and new sections on the river.

The bobsled and luge runs were built at Trebevic. Three runs were built: the Bobsled, Men's Luge, and Women's Luge. The top of the runs were over 3,500 feet

above sea level. The average drop was over 300 feet with the average gradient at 10.2%. There was a press center at Trebevic. This facility was to become a public recreational area after the games.

The only way to get to the Trebevic was by bus. No taxis or private cars were allowed, so there were no real traffic problems. Capacity for spectators was 15,000 in the stands with room for 5,000 along the course. Gorzad Bucar designed the area. Bosna of Sarajevo did the construction work. Trebevic was a little over six miles from the Olympic Village. The lights of the Trebevic could be seen from the northwest side of Sarajevo, the old town, at night.

Alpine events for women were held at Jahorina which, organizers claim, has slopes covered with snow from November until May. Foreign reporters liked the mountain because skiing began right outside of the hotel entrance. Women's downhill, slalom and giant slalom were held at Jahorina, which is less than 18 miles from the Olympic Village.

The highest race run, the downhill, started at over 5,000 feet. The combined length of the three runs was over 2.25 miles. The mountain holds over 25,000 spectators. A complete press center kept the world abreast of the events. Jahorina's venue was designed by Peter Lakota from Bled. The construction firm was Hidrogradnja of Sarajevo.

Bjelasnica mountain was the home of the Alpine skiing events for men. This venue covers nearly 700,000 square meters and is covered by snow on the average of 180 days a year. Two roads from different directions provide access to Bjelasnica. The men's Alpine events were just over 12 miles from the Olympic Village.

The start of the downhill perched at 6,500 feet. The combined length of the downhill, giant slalom and slalom was close to three miles. Press guides put spectator capacity at 25,000 but it was estimated that over 5,000 witnessed the finals of the men's slalom at Bjelasnica. Peter Lakota from Bled also designed the Alpine venue for men with Vodoprivreda of Sarajevo doing the construction.

Igman is located on the southwest side of Sarajevo. The big field, Veliko Polje, was the home of the cross country and biathalon (men's and women's), as well as some of the nordic combined. Malo Polje, the small field, contained the 70 meter and 90 meter ski jumps, plus a portion of the nordic combined as well.

Janez Gorisek designed the duo Poljes at Igman. The construction was a combined effort by Bosnaputevi of Sarajevo, Monter of Split and Gmart of Gorazde. Veliko Polje held 25,000 spectators; Malo Polje held 20,000 (Sarajevo Tourist Association and the Organizing Committee of XIV Olympic Winter Games, 1983).

Preparations: Food, Lodging, Transportation

All of Yugoslavia contributed to the Olympic effort (M. Vranesic, personal communications, February, 1984). Buses came from as far away as Slovenia, complete with drivers. Travel agencies in every Republic sold plane, bus and rail transportation to Olympic fans from Yugoslavia and the world. Group excursions were planned in trade unions and industry so as many Yugoslavs as possible could travel to the games. Group pressure was placed on schools and businesses to provide time and equipment to workers and students so they might witness the Olympiad on television. Yugoslav television provided complete, day long coverage of the Olympic Winter Games during the entire twelve days. This coverage extended the spectacle to even the smallest rural villages. It seemed everyone, everywhere was excited about and interested in the events in Sarajevo.

Meanwhile, in Sarajevo the real work was going on. Several hotels were built for the occasion, including a Holiday Inn. Hotel reservations were taken up long in advance. Prices were $60-$120 a night, which would be steep even in the United States. Hotels were taken up by dignitaries and well off foreign and domestic visitors. Zoi-tours, a government tourist group, coordinated lodging, tours, and ticket arrangements in Sarajevo.

The homes of many Sarajevo residents were opened to Olympic visitors. Zoi-tours in conjunction with residents

turned homes into hotels for $12-$30 a night. The residents received about one third of the fee. The government took the rest for administrative purposes. This was an ideal arrangement. It allowed visitors inexpensive lodging plus a cultural exchange that could never be achieved in a hotel. Zoi-tour offices were located all over the city and were easy to find. The Olympic Village at Mojmilo provided lodging for Olympic athletes, coaches and trainers. This was a town of its own with stores, dining facilities, offices, transportation, and security provided for all of the teams and their entourages.

Transportation in Sarajevo was efficient and accessible. Buses from all over the country bolstered what already appeared to be a more than adequate mass transit system. Taxis were also available with drivers who were humorous, friendly and dependable. Fares were very inexpensive.

Eating could be a gamble, but it was always unique. Open markets, in February, and grocery stores provided all the staples of a Bosnia-Herzigovinian diet, slightly upgraded in availability for the Olympics. Small street side shops served a wide variety of Bosnian food in a fast food type of setting. Little English was spoken in these shops so a slight risk was taken when eating there. The food was good, inexpensive and very warming during the cold days of February.

Tourists had the options of safe hotel eateries, old town Bosnian restaurants, or the sidewalk shops. Except during the opening ceremonies, one found these restaurants crowded, noisy, smokey, and always warm.

Sarajevo, as a city, dug into the preparations for the Olympiad completely and as a unit. The University of Sarajevo suspended classes for two months. Professors and students worked and learned as they aided in the organization. Cooperation between the Yugoslav organizers and foreign advisors was complete. M. Vranesic notes that 3,000 people in Sarajevo alone worked on preparations for two months prior to the start of the Olympics (personal communication, February, 1983).

Students either went home or found lodging elsewhere, as the dormitories were closed to students to provide lodging for more incoming Olympic visitors. There was a one month holiday for grammar and high school students. Special classes on Saturdays were held and upon the resuming of classes, school was scheduled to continue until July to make up for lost time.

Many of these students became part of a mass volunteer army of snow removers. When the heavy snows hit Sarajevo, one could see troops of these snow soldiers with their shovels at all of the in-town venues and along the main walkways of the city. There was no time during the games

when the sidewalks were blocked or covered with snow. Their efficiency and coordination was amazing.

Real soldiers were also involved. They drove trucks and plows which removed the mountains of snow formed by the snow soldiers. They also helped in grooming the slopes at Jahorina and Bjelasnica. Some special troops became security personnel protecting the Olympic Village and the venues. Though the automatic machine guns they carried were somewhat forbidding, their uniforms and demeanor were friendly and reassuring.

Public Opinion of the Games

Most of Yugoslavia's population appeared to be in favor of holding the XIV Winter Olympics in their country. Studies conducted in Slovenia, Croatia and Serbia found 69% of those polled in favor of holding the games in their country. However, 21% of those in favor of the games felt that the event should be held in Slovenia (Petrovic, Sila, Ambrozic and Ivan, 1980).

The placing of the event was one of two major negative factors in the minds of the Yugoslav population. Many of those polled in the study felt Bosnia and Herzegovina's "sport heritage" was insufficient to carry over after the games. Slovenia should have been chosen because of its long history of winter sport culture, its many excellent facilities and its closeness to the great ski markets in

Europe to the north. Similar sentiments were voiced in personal interviews.

Economics was another detraction in the minds of the Yugoslavs. Many wondered how a country in such dire financial straights could finance such a colossal undertaking. Of those polled, 19% felt the games should not be held due to these factors. Many were also concerned that the venues would become a financial millstone for them. They cited the example of Split, Croatia, home of the Mediterranean Games of September, 1979 (Spiljevic, 1983). Large sums of money were spent on expensive facilities there. The complex was to be a great resource for the Yugoslav sport culture and economy following the completion of the contest. By 1984, the facility was in disrepair, unused and still being paid for by the people of Yugoslavia.

Though cautious, the feeling before the games was one of optimism. People hoped the games would be a success and that they would draw new skiing interest to Sarajevo, thus making the new venues financially feasible in the future.

Public opinion in Yugoslavia gave the world a message. Of those polled, 83% felt the Moscow boycott was wrong. They felt sport and politics should not be mixed. This opinion goes along with Yugoslavia's non-alignment philosophy of international politics. Nationalism has no

place in the Olympic setting. The results of the poll "reflect our (Yugoslavia's) long term policy of non-alignment and peaceful co-existence between nations. In the relations between nations and states we have to find out what unites us as opposed to what are our differences." (Petrovic et. al., 1983).

Yugoslavia retained this conviction in practice during the Olympics. When Soviet leader Andropov died, there was an underlying feeling of pressure in Sarajevo to suspend the games for a day in memorium. Flags were flown at halfmast the day of Andropov's funeral, but Yugoslavia kept its anti-nationalistic theme for the Olympic Games intact.

Sarajevo Pulls It Off: Personal View of the Games

When I arrived in Sarajevo by train at 7:00 a.m. on February 6, 1984, there was no snow on the ground. I had no lodging arranged, no tickets, no idea where anything was, no clue really on what to do once I left the relative safety of the train station.

Once again first impressions and reality bore no resemblance to each other. Upon returning to the train station nearly two weeks later, I was filled with melancholy, a sadness, knowing I would probably never see this intriguing city again. An immense pride tugged at my heart for the people who had done such a marvelous job on the Olympic Games. These people, some to whom I was

related, had pulled off an event of worldwide significance with class and a styled lack of materialism.

The first order of business was lodging. Remembering my Uncle's advice to find a Zoi-tours office, I did just that. These people were well organized, though not all of their guides were. When a tourist asked for a room, a guide would lead the way, making sure the lodgings were satisfactory. The first place we looked at was located on what seemed to be a very steep hill. I found out quickly that this is the case for most of the homes in Sarajevo. The guide had obviously never been to the house either, as it took us quite a while to find it. Much to my chagrin, a large family lived there so I told the guide I'd like something with a little more room. A little disgruntled, the Zoi-tours people sent me to another office which sent me with a different guide to another house on another very steep hill above the old section of Sarajevo. The landlady, Dobrila Elez, had a huge house with many rooms which she rented out to students. She immediately gave me a Serbo-Croatian/English dictionary. Our sentences were rarely longer than three words, but we managed to communicate very well. When we parted two weeks later, it was a tearful farewell. She provided warmth in what could be at times a cold and lonely experience.

After "checking in", my mask of shocked amazement began to fall away from my eyes. Setting off down the hill, I

noticed I was in a town where the towers of mosques poked out of the houses like scattered old stand trees in a new forest. I could see the river Miljacka cutting Sarajevo in half.

Next I tried my skills at following directions in an attempt to find the Olympic Village at Mojmilo. As the tram moved through town heading southwest, I noticed the buildings becoming more modern and the narrow city opening up onto a wider plain of industrial buildings and group housing. After a day of exploration I found getting around Sarajevo easy. The city was draped in flags and bursting in anticipation of the games. The people were friendly, if a little confused at the influx of visitors.

Tickets for the different events were easy to get once I found out where to look. I found out too late to get a ticket for the opening ceremony. Two hours before the games officially opened, I was finishing a run through the old section. Marsala Tita (Marshal Tito Street) was packed with people from all over the world. The day before the crowds were much thinner. When I came back down an hour and a half later, the streets were deserted. The trams were running as usual, but no one was on them. It was eerie.

I went to a store/deli to build myself a sandwich. The place seemed deserted but the door was open. I went in and found silence. Movement caught my eye and I saw the

entire staff huddled around a television set. We exchanged greetings and I watched with them for awhile. When a boring (to them) speech came on, one of the clerks assisted me in building my sandwich.

I wandered slowly down the main street, enjoying the unjostled luxury of an empty sidewalk. Stopping into a bar for a beer, I again found everyone watching the event on television. My walk led me up towards the Zetra to watch the crowd of 50,000 exit the Olympic Stadium.

Watching this exodus gave me the first shock of realization at what was unfolding in Sarajevo. Contingencies of spectators from all of the participating countries filed by, filling the air with the throng of different tongues. Charter buses carrying spectators back to hotels rumbled by, some crammed to capacity, while others were luxurious, with tables and couches and dignitaries drinking cocktails. The ever present Military Olympic Police made sure that pedestrians remained alive among the herd of buses.

Yugoslav security was tight and slow for the indoor events. My first Olympic event was a hockey game between the United Stated and Czecheslovakia at the Zetra. Though I arrived at the Zetra 40 minutes early, I still missed the first half of the first period. All spectators entering the building were funneled into one set of double doors; there were eight sets of doors on each of three sides.

There were armed guards and x-ray scanners for those of us dumb enough to bring bags. Camera cases, film canisters, and satchels were checked on each person. Hand held metal detectors scanned each fan. This was the only negative aspect of the Olympiad that I witnessed. There was much pushing and shouting. Luckily, no one was hurt.

This system was used throughout the games for events in the Zetra and Skenderija. Later some extra doors were opened and more checkers utilized. For the most part, however, getting into the more crowded evening contests was slow going. I missed parts of all three of the evening hockey games which I attended.

Security for outdoor events at the Zetra and Trebevic ran more smoothly. Perhaps it was due to more entrances or a more even arrival of spectators. Security officials were friendly but stern. The only time I witnessed any surliness from security personnel was when they were verbally abused by spectators.

Sarajevo organizers wanted to make sure security was as tight as possible. They definitely wanted to avoid the violence of Munich or a political statement such as the one that marred their town in 1914. Before the games, radicals from Kosovo-Mitohija, an autonomous province connected to northeast Serbia, threatened cessesionist violence against the Olympiad in Sarajevo.

Riding a mass transit bus to one of the skiing or sled events was a humbling experience for an American used to the luxury of a personal vehicle. Hotel charter buses were larger versions of taxis with many comforts added. Busing for the masses was a different story. First, I had to find the bus stop, which was easy enough. There was a large crowd gathered, spilling well out into the road. Next, I made sure to check the destination sign on the front of the bus to assure myself of remaining in the general vacinity of Sarajevo. Once I found out I was in the right place, the real work began.

The driver, sensing the crush imminent at his doors, would cruise by the waiting crowd, not slowing to a stop until people started chasing the bus. This way the faster runners would get on the bus first while spreading the crowd to avoid trampling someone at the entrance to the bus. Buses were crammed beyond capacity which made for a tight but toasty ride.

Once to the site of the event (in this case Trebevic and the Bobsled), the driver stopped only long enough to eject passengers. Then he was down the hill to pick up some of the slower passengers. The same process was repeated when the time came to catch a bus back to Sarajevo. Language barriers and rescheduling of the skiing events due to heavy snow made it a real adventure trying to make it to an event on time, or even at all.

Sarajevo's version of the Winter Games had a unique system for conducting the awards ceremonies. All of the day's medal winners were gathered in the Skenderija plaza. At 7:30 each evening lights flooded the square and the Olympic official selected to award the medals did so. I came upon this ceremony by accident on the second day of the games. Over 10,000 people showed up for the awards. Entertainment followed the awards ceremonies on some evenings.

The people I encountered who were native to Sarajevo were friendly and helpful, always ready to engage in conversation. They were proud of their city and happy about the excitement around them. Other Yugoslav citizens from different Republics as well as those from Sarajevo held a humble pride in their country's accomplishments. Even as the accolades came in from visiting nations upon the successful organization and production of the games, the Sarajevoites remained unassuming.

For a while on the evening of February 14, the Yugoslavs entertained sport hysteria. After 60 years of Winter Olympic competition, the Yugoslav's finally won their first medal. Jure Franko gave his country a very important Valentine's Day present by capturing the silver medal in the Giant Slalom on Mount Bjelasnica. Twenty thousand gathered for the award ceremony. Afterwards carloads of screaming Yugoslavs honked and roared around

the streets of Sarajevo, waving flags and chanting "Yugo - Slavi- A" or "Franko."

Yugoslav athletes were cheered heartily when introduced. At one figure skating event it seemed that the judges were positively partial on their scoring of a Yugoslav skater. The crowd cheered loudly for the high scores. Even the Americans, who had a disappointing showing, showed gracious support for their hosts.

Facilities constructed for the XIV Winter Olympic Games were built with spectators in mind. There were very few bad seats in the Skenderija or the Zetra. Bleachers were well spaced to accommodate even the largest of bodies. Spectators at the Bobsled and Speedskating events could stand within six inches of the run or the rink. How exciting it was to experience these sporting events with all of my senses.

Information systems for the games were more than adequate. Zoi-tours provided ticket and scheduling information which was constantly updated to be accurate. The organizing committee of the Sarajevo games published the Olimpijski Informator. This daily newspaper of the Olympics provided all the results, venue schedules, entertainment and other information in three languages. Information was concise and to the point.

A large volume could be filled with my experiences and impressions in Sarajevo. The power of many of those

experiences came from a personal respect and pride for the people of the country of my heritage and their accomplishments. In closing this section I would like to give a brief account of several of my favorite people and happenings of the Winter Games in Sarajevo.

Amiru Sadikovic came up to me in front of a mosque and asked why I was alone . . . in perfect English. She was a 16 year old high school student who became my interpretor, ticket broker, souvenir procurer, and my only date while in Sarajevo. Through her father, she arranged my interviews at the University of Sarajevo. In arranging one of the interviews I had to call her to get the details. She gave me a three word sentence which would summon her if one of her family answered the phone. I dialed. When a boy answered I muttered the sentence into the phone, very proud of my communications skills in another language. He roared with laughter upon hearing me. Calling his sister, he mimicked my accent and misponunciation, laughing the whole time. Amiru helped me gain an insight into the people of Sarajevo. I helped her learn some American slang, for which she kept a notebook.

From my room around the Olympic Stadium and back was five miles. I ran that course perhaps seven times while in Sarajevo. There is nothing more stimulating than having the Olympic torch at the halfway point of a run. It never failed to spark my spirits.

Dr. Milenko Vranesic was as patient as a busy man like himself could be. The head of the Department of Physical Culture at the University of Sarajevo spent over five hours with me over two days. He also arranged other interviews for me. When we sat in his office at the beginning of the interview he said, "My English is so poor. We move slowly. We both listen. We both learn." We did.

Dr. Jamila Hadzi Mustafic was the Director of the Public Health Institute of Bosnia-Herzegovina. She granted me a two hour interview with 15 minutes notice. She was candid and friendly. She was not too busy to help. It would have been easy to put me off. She didn't, which I hope gives an idea of the generosity of these people.

I have already mentioned Sarajevo's meshing of old and new. One morning I was walking down from my lodgings towards the Zetra. The steep, narrow street drops perhaps three quarters of a mile before emptying out onto the main streets of Sarajevo. By then there was much snow on the ground. The snow, plus careening children on skis and sleds, made it a dangerous descent. Halfway down, I came around a corner to see two women leading two small ponies up the hill. They were dressed in traditional peasant clothes. The ponies carried their purchases from the market below. I was touched by this scene. Yugoslavia's past is still living in suspended existence within the steady drive for the future.

I sat next to a Russian contingent at a hockey game between the U.S.S.R. and Sweden. The Swedes didn't have a chance (5-0 after one period). I had, however, a chance to see Russians close up. Their hammer and sickle flags carried no ominous forebodings here. Living in a land where propoganda is mixed with news, we don't often see the Russians depicted as a fun loving group who would travel hundreds if not thousands of miles to watch their team. Sarajevo was like a time out from nationalistic paranoia that mars so many of the interactions between the countries of the world.

Possibly my favorite insight of these games was the relative lack of a materialistic theme at the commercial end of the Olympics. Sarajevo seemed to refuse to gouge visitors. Prices for everything, except perhaps hotel rooms, were cheap by American and European standards. Even more interesting was what Sarajevo sold as souvenirs. There were the usual trinkets; but in addition, Yugoslavia was on display here. They sold their beautiful wool clothing, Elan skis, Olympics commemorative artwork by local artisans, local spirits, caps and scarves. Merchants sold Yugoslav goods rather than import merchandise to satisfy visitors' home tastes.

The store fronts were spruced up quite a bit for the Olympics. Food was perhaps more abundant in Sarajevo during the games than in normal times. The people put on a

good show for their visitors. They did what many claimed they could not do. They organized, constructed and presented the XIV Winter Olympic Games, and what a job they did.

The last event of the 1984 Olympic Winter Games was a hockey game between the Soviet Union and Czecheslovakia. I witnessed it on television, in the same room my father was born in 60 years ago. The house was in the little farming village of Ribnica na Dolenjsken in Slovenia, a village of about 500 people. Outside, my cousin and several other village children had constructed a ski jump of their own. Small wooden stakes marked off the distance of the jumps. They wore the same brand of skis that Ingamar Stenmark used, Yugoslavia's own Elan.

Effect of the Olympics on Yugoslav Sport Culture

It is too early to tell if the games at Sarajevo will draw a new winter sport heritage to the mountains surrounding the city. The future will pass judgement on the durability and useability of the Zetra and Skenderija as continued sights for the local, nationwide and international competitions. And perhaps the biggest concern is, how long will the people of Sarajevo and Yugoslavia have to continue to pay for the games they so graciously hosted.

Marshall Tito spearheaded the drive for the privilege to host the games. He felt it would continue to motivate

the spirit and pride of his people as well as show the people of the world the new, stronger Yugoslavia. And finally, he hoped to raise the level of exchange between his nation and others in order to bring some people back to Yugoslavia and increase self-sufficiency.

The professionals involved in Yugoslavia's physical culture hoped for certain after-effects of the games. M. Vranesic indicated plans for the importation to Yugoslavia of advisors from different countries. The Hungarians were to send a hockey expert. Czecheslovakia is contributing a master of figure skating. Poland is sending a cross country ski coach. Ski jump experts are to come to the University of Sarajevo from West Germany and Slovenia (personal communication, February, 1983).

These skilled sportsmen will fulfill a teaching capacity. The aim is to train Yugoslavs in these various sports to increase the level of competition and participation. By bringing them in to train graduates of Sarajevo's university, physical education teachers can start a grass roots program to introduce the school aged children to new sports or bolster weak sports.

By importing Slovenian ski experts, educators hope to increase exchange between the universities of Eastern and Western Yugoslavia. Another desired after effect of the games is to decrease the disparity between the levels of winter sport participation and facilities in Slovenia and

the rest of Yugoslavia. All but one of the Yugoslav Olympic team at Sarajevo were from Slovenia.

Women's participation in winter sports is hoped to increase after the games. Imported experts should help the women in figure skating and cross country skiing exposure.

Notes on Sport in Yugoslav Society

Sport seems to be pervasive in Yugoslav society. In the winter months skiers flock to Slovenia's (and now hopefully Bosnia-Herzegovina's) mountains. In areas where there are no ski areas or finances to reach the mountain, children carry on in sandlot fashion. Even in small villages there are public outdoor basketball courts, soccer fields, and team handball courts or fields. Yugoslav sport heroes are revered.

Yugoslav television sports is surprisingly comprehensive. The Olympics coverage was complete and objective. Viewers saw all of the athletes, not just those from Yugoslavia. Television coverage of soccer matches, men's and women's team handball, and men's and women's basketball was good on the weekends before and after the Olympics. Even a local road race (10K) in Ljubljana was covered.

Products were advertised and endorsed by athletes on some of the few television commercials that were aired.

Spots by companies who sponsored sports clubs showed clips of games or matches at all levels of play.

Printed media also covered sports to a large degree. When Jure Franko won Yugoslavia's first Winter Olympic medal, he made the cover of every Yugoslav magazine I saw. He was on crossword puzzle magazines, magazines similar to our own "People" magazine, soft porn magazines and news magazines. Magazines and newspapers covered all aspects of the Olympics long before and for at least a week afterwards. Local heroes and sports children were covered as well as the big guys.

Sport in Yugoslavia is not a big commercial spectacle like it can be in the United States. Many of Yugoslavia's sports are still in the infancy stage. The people strive to improve and catch up. Their political system doesn't condone huge wealth for its few sport heroes. They are paid well, in some cases. For many, it is still sport for the sport's sake--and for the country's.

CHAPTER III

Physical Education in Yugoslavia

> "One of the most fundamental postulates of our education system is that every individual should be allowed to develop according to his wishes, needs and interests to his maximum potential; the physical education process plays a very important roll in the formation of a balanced individuality. (Strel, Sturn and Ambrozic, 1982, p. 1).

History and Structure

Before World War II and Tito's assumption of power, Yugoslavia's educational system was as backward and disjointed as the rest of the country's. Though four years of elementary education was required, this was not enforced. According to Dubey (1975), illiteracy rates in the population over ten years of age was 40 percent in some Republics and as high as 75 percent in others. Of those of school age, the enrollment ratio was 11 percent and university enrollment was about 0.11 percent.

Yugoslavia was then and still is a predominantly rural country with a large percentage of its population being peasants. This fact has always had an effect on education, physical education included. Formal education was not required to be a farmer, so it was avoided by the largest class of people in Yugoslavia.

After World War II, Yugoslavia put major emphasis on the improvement of education. Changes in education coincided with changes in the social and economic systems. Currently, education is free at all levels. Education is

compulsory for all children ages seven through fifteen. Even this elementary education, however, is not ensured in all areas.

In many smaller villages there may be only an elementary school. If a teenager wishes to go on to a secondary school, he or she will have to commute or move to a large town or city. According to D. Grilj and M. Modic, this is the norm rather than the exception with the design of the Yugoslav geography (personal communication, February, 1984). Teenagers will often live with relatives or friends during the week and return home on the weekends. Traveling on a Friday afternoon or a Sunday evening, one finds the trains and buses crowded with commuting students.

Dubey (1975) notes that after the eight compulsory years students have several opportunities to further their education. The general secondary schools are similar to the American high school system. They offer a four year course of study in languages, social sciences, natural sciences and mathematics. After one year of coursework the student must decide which area of study he or she chooses to pursue.

The classical schools are oriented towards the social sciences and language. Teacher training schools educate teachers for the elementary schools. In the art schools theatre, ballet, music and other expressions of art are studied. The technical and vocational programs provide an

academic or theoretical training for various occupations. The trade schools emphasize practical training to follow theoretical curriculums. Here students are trained to be skilled workers. They take their classes in the workshop of the school or in the factories of plants of the enterprises for which they later hope to work. Most students in these schools train for a specific job such as metal working or electrical repairs.

Work experience can be exchanged for school experience in getting into these various schools. For example, a student gifted in art may enter art school even though that student has not completed eight years of elementary education. Acceptance requirements into the two year post secondary schools are either completion of secondary education or at least four years experience in the student's field of study.

These two year schools are similar to American junior colleges, vo-tech, or business school systems. The main purpose of these schools is to train professional people to work in industry and government and to prepare teachers for elementary and vocational training schools (Dubey, 1975). These schools provide workers for the following areas: technology (industry and mining), transport and communications, economic affairs, agriculture, medicine, social work, administration, teaching and social insurance.

Completion of these two year programs allows the student to move on to the universities, which will be detailed more thoroughly below.

Funding, organization and leadership come from the Federal Board of Education and Physical Culture. As in most areas of Yugoslav government, directives come from the Federal level. This Federal Board of Education is comprised, however, of representatives of the Boards of Education which represent the various Republics and autonomous provinces. The community level Board of Education is in closest contact with the schools, making it the base for the educational bureaucracy.

Physical Education in Schools

> The aim of physical education is to enable children to develop their physical abilities; but at the same time, it must also exert a favorable influence on their intellectual, moral, aesthetic and technical education. The tasks of physical education emphasize the necessity to improve children's health, to assist their normal bodily development, and to train them in various movements. Physical education also acts particularly on the general development of pupils.
>
> Physical education includes all those planned influences which adults exert on children in order to develop them into healthy, strong, robust, good and agile persons, capable of developing and defending their socialist homeland; physical education, in fact, includes all work undertaken in an organized manner to promote the physical development of the socialist community and all of its members individually. (From The Elementary School in Yugoslavia, Federal Institute of Education Research: Belgrade, 1960, p. 2.)

The following description of physical education in Yugoslav schools is focused on the eight year elementary schools and the four year general secondary schools (high schools). All Yugoslav education is directed by a Federal commission which has jurisdiction down through the Republic, commune and town levels. Physical education for the student and industrial recreation for workers is coordinated by the Federal Fitness Committee. The main committee represents various organizations such as schools, sports societies and youth groups (Howell and Van Uliet, 1968, and F. Ambrosic, personal communication, February, 1984).

Yugoslav schools are funded by taxes. Every Yugoslav pays 10.45% of gross personal income tax for education. Funding for physical education comes from this general education budget as well as from the budget of the Sport Council.

Elementary Schools

Grades 1-4 are often taught by regular classroom teachers for about three hours a week. These early physical education classes are rarely taught by trained elementary physical education teachers. Group activities, games and minimally competitive events are stressed. In grade four, students get some exposure to physical education professionals as well as their own sport culture in a ten day School of Nature (D. Grilj, personal communication, February 1, 1984).

This ten day excursion usually means a trip to the Adriatic Coast. Swimming instruction is the main focus of this outing. Students also engage in outdoor recreation: hiking, camping, and map reading are taught. These out of school activities are universal to Yugoslav sport culture. Students in all Republics are involved in this type of education (D. Grilj and F. Ambrozic, personal communication, February, 1984).

Physical education becomes more defined in the fifth grade and becomes more detailed through the eighth grade (see Table 1 on page 63). Students receive three hours of instruction in grades five and six. Hours taught go up to six per week in seventh and eighth grades. Qualified physical educators combine efforts with club sport professionals in covering all of the activities taught in these four days.

Professional sport trainers and coaches may teach at elementary schools to supplement employment with a sport club. In small towns where qualified physical education teachers may be lacking, club coaches will work in their specific areas of expertise with elementary school children. Club coaches will also offer units on soccer, basketball or other sport in cooperation with physical education teachers lacking skills in a certain sport activity. These coaches are very popular with the children since many were local sports heroes before becoming coaches. The coaching trade-

Table 1

Sample Outline of Physical Education Activities Grades 5-8

Grade Five - 3 hours per week

1) Theme activites lasting two to six weeks

Warm-up/gymnastic exercises, station calisthetics (preceeds activities)

a) Athletic (track and field)

1) walking

2) running

3) jumps (long jump, some hurdling)

4) throwing (200 gram ball)

b) Acrobatics (floor gymnastics)

c) Acrobatics (apparatus gymnastics)

d) Ball games (volleyball, basketball, team handball, soccer)

e) Dancing (folk)

2) Special Activities

a) School of Nature (skiing)

b) Four Sport Days (intramural)

Grade Six

1) Theme activities - two to six weeks duration, preceeded by warmup including gymantic exercises and station calisthetics

a) Athletics (track and field)

1) walking

2) running

3) high jump

4) throwing for results (increase distance and emphasis on technique)

b) Acrobatics - increase in difficulty

1) floor gymantics

2) apparatus gymnastics

c) Poligon (obstacle course)

d) Rope clumb

e) Ball games - increased emphasis on technique strategy and intensity

1) volleyball

2) basketball

3) team handball

4) soccer

f) Rhythmic dancing

2) Special Activities

Four sport days outside of school competition

Grade Seven

1) Theme Activites - no additions to theme activities; only change is in intensity, technique and difficulty

2) Special Activities

a) Four sport days

b) Scouting - hiking, outdoor recreation in own area

c) First aid and safety

d) Shooting for hunting and sport

Grade Eight

There are no additions in either the theme activities or special activities. Physical education students in the eighth grade continue work on perfection of already learned skills and activities.

Note: From Stuga, S., Grilj, D., and Kabaj, M., 1975. Physical Education in Primary Schools. Yugoslavia, Ljubljana, pages 66-67. Used by permission.

off system with the schools is reciprocal. The clubs get their talent and the children are exposed to sports activities otherwise unavailable to them (D. Grilj, personal communication, February, 1984).

According to Stuga et. al.(1975), there are five to eight units which will be taught during a school year. Each unit lasts two to six weeks, depending upon the teacher's preference and expertise (see Table 1, page 63). The theme of these units does not change noticeably as students progress from fifth through eighth grade. Increases in intensity, level of competition and emphasis on proper technique and strategy indicate progress in the students as they get older (D. Grilj, personal communication, February, 1984).

The second type of activities in the elementary physical education curriculum are the special events which may take place outside of the school setting. These events include the Schools of Nature (skiing, swimming, outdoor recreation, scouting), Sport Days (which occur four times during the school year), Safety and First Aid, and Shooting for Hunting and Sport. Extracurricular activities offer special incentives to the students who are not involved in the club sport system as well as a break in routine.

The Schools of Nature are entwined in Yugoslav culture. Skiing, swimming and outdoor recreation (hiking, mountaineering, orienteering) are the main source of

lifetime sports and recreation in Yugoslavia. Individual sport activities after the school years are not yet a significant part of Yugoslav sport culture.

The skiing School of Nature takes place sometime during the winter months of the fifth grade. There are many areas, especially in Slovenia, for the students to gather. For ten days, fifth graders head to the slopes. School work is done for three hours a day. The rest of the day is taken up with skiing instruction and practice. In the past, the equipment for excursions was completely funded by the schools. Now most students' parents can afford to buy at least skis for their children (M. Modic, personal communication, February, 1984).

Coaches and instructors for the skiing school are often former competitive skiers, some from the national teams. The Yugoslav's are very proud of their athletes who achieve success. Famous instructors help maintain the cultural mystique of skiing in Yugoslavia (D. Grilj, personal communication, February, 1984).

The Schools of Nature are not conducted in the sixth grade but return in the seventh with a scouting edition. Students need not travel as far, in most cases, for this chapter. Students learn about hiking, map reading, camping, and other outdoor recreational activities. This is an area for recreationists which will be discussed more fully in a later section.

Safety and First Aid are also taught in a separate unit. This unit is followed by one on Shooting for Hunting and Sport. Physical educators are proud of their accomplishments in these areas. Many children have experienced these Schools of Nature. These out of school excursions are more than just a part of Yugoslav physical culture. By providing funding for these exercises, the Federal Fitness Committee has paid for their part in the general culture and these excursions are looked upon as a right, not just a sacrifice, by those involved (D. Grilj and B. Elsner, personal communication, February, 1984).

The four sport days offer the students a chance for some competition outside of their school system. These sport days are unique in that they offer more than one type of activity in the same day at the same site (see Table 2, page 69).

Sport days may be scheduled to celebrate a season, end of school term, or a political holiday or celebration. May 25 is Tito's birthday as well as Youth Day in Yugoslavia. While Tito was still alive, the children of the country relayed a torch from Tito's hometown to the capital in Belgrade, presenting it to him on his birthday each year. This tradition continues four years after his death. The celebration of the day of liberation of a town from the Nazis in the 1940's may create an occasion for a

Table 2

Table of Events for Sport Day

1)	Athletic triatholom
	a) 60 meter run
	b) high jump
	c) long jump
2)	Apparatus gymnastics
	a) horizontal bar
	b) parallel bar
	c) horse
3)	Floor gymnastics
4)	Ball game (one selected for each sport day)
	a) volleyball
	b) basketball
	c) football
	d) team handball
5)	Skiing or swimming component if area has proper facilities

Note: From D. Grilj, personal communication, February 1, 1984).

sport day (F. Strel, M. Bergant, and F. Ambrozic, personal communication, February, 1984).

Students in the fifth grade compete against themselves. But from the sixth grade on, students compete against other schools in their town. If there is only one school in a village, students are within easy access of other towns and schools by train. Connecting villages and towns through the use of recreation and sport is another example of sharing or exchange which allows for events which could not happen except for this sharing.

Plans for each sport day are coordinated by physical education teachers of the two or more competing schools. Towns or schools with the most varied facilities will be the favorite choices for such days. Most schools have enough space in the actual school or supporting village to hold an adequate sport day.

Sport days can also give physical education teachers a chance to see if their conditioning programs have increased the students' physical strength and conditioning. In Slovenia this battery of testing is called Telesnovzgojni Karton. Records are kept on each student through each of his eight years in school. This system provides a continual longitudinal survey of each child's progress (J. Strel, personal communication, February, 1984).

The health or hygiene units for grade schoolers are taught as part of Biology class in a unit called "A Healthy

Way of Life." Teachers of physical education don't get that much education in the subject of health (D. Grilj, personal communication, February, 1984). In reviewing the outlines of the physical education curriculum in the universities, this seems to be true. Apparently special units are taught to the grade school students by doctors and/or nurses from the community (M. Modic, personal communication, February, 1984). Here again we see the utilization of professionals outside of the teaching ranks to fill in areas not covered by the actual physical education instructor.

Secondary Schools

Emphasis on physical education in high schools hinges on four things: instructors, facilities, preferences of the students, and the sport club system (F. Ambrosic and D. Tomaduz, personal communication, February, 1984).

By the time students reach the ninth year of organized education in Yugoslavia, most of those who are destined to be athletes have been recruited by one club or another. There are no high school athletes as we know them in the United States. In Yugoslavia clubs may use a high school facility but the team is sponsored by a factory or sports group.

Students of high school age have more than one choice when it comes to schooling. Trade schools, art schools or vocational or teacher training schools may take a student

away from the general secondary schools which offer continued physical education classes (Dubey, 1975).

In the general secondary schools physical education is offered in much the same way as it is in the elementary schools. By this time, however, the emphasis is already shifting away from the active lifestyles of the younger children. Interest by educators in the implementation of developmental physical education programs involving the primary age children downplay physical education at the secondary level.

Physical education facilities in Yugoslav schools seem to be as diverse as the cultures in the country itself. Some schools have adequate facilities, others barely meet the basic needs of gym space. The gym facilities at the University of Ljubljana are used by clubs and other groups as well as university students. Even newer facilities have suffered such setbacks as the loss of funding midway through construction because of poor economic conditions.

If a school (high school or elementary) does have adequate facilities, the chances for a good physical education program are increased. Postojna, a small town in Slovenia, is an example. There is an indoor pool there. Due to this, there is an extensive physical education program with swimming as its cornerstone. This facility is

shared by school and town (D. Tomaduz, personal communication, February, 1984).

For high school students the successful continuation of physical education instruction and improvement in high school lies mainly with the physical education teacher. In speaking to students and college professors, the topic of the quality of physical education instructors was often brought up. Since this is the period in Yugoslav life when the first declines in activity begin, it is an important time for the university programs to focus on. One way the educators feel they can improve the status of physical education is to produce teachers who educate and encourage the young adults about an active lifestyle (Petrovic et. al., 1980).

Physical education appears to lose its momentum and importance in high school. Club athletes are not involved in physical education at school. Activities done in the school setting are not popular. Social, professional or vocational considerations now replace physical concerns for the student.

Physical Education at the University Level

Once out of high school, young men and women in Yugoslavia face fifteen months of mandatory military service, usually before entering college. This tenure includes a six week boot camp conditioning period. After the service, students moving on to college have no real

requirements in physical education except for those studying in that field. Only 15-20 percent of the universities have some kind of sports program. Physical education, at universities where it is offered, is available to students outside of the department only on a bi-weekly basis. Since university faculties may be scattered around the city in which the university is located, the usage of the exercise facilities at the Physical Culture Department by other students of other disciplines is low (B. Elsner and M. Vranesic, personal communication, February, 1984).

College students enrolled in a physical education curriculum must have a thorough knowledge of many sports and activities. So, unlike most of the rest of the population, these collegians maintain physical education as part of their lives, at least through college.

The Physical Education Teacher: Outline and Discussion Of University Training for Physical Educators

In Yugoslavia there are ten major sites of higher education. There is at least one in each of the Republics and in the autonomous provinces attached to Serbia. There are eight universities which possess faculties in Physical Culture and can graduate a student with a two or four year degree (M. Vranesic, personal communication, February, 1984).

There are two universities in Serbia, one in Belgrade, and one in Nis. The University of Novi Sad is in the autonomous province of Vojvodine. Pristina in Kosova also has its own university. In Slovenia there is the University of Ljubljana. Bosnia-Herzegovina has the University of Sarajevo. Croatia has the University of Zagreb. Macedonia has its faculty at the University of Skopja. The facilities at Sarajevo and Zagreb have extended study campuses in Split and Osijek.

There are also two "Academies" which are the equivalent of American junior colleges. Bosnia-Herzegovina has one in Tuzla, while Montenegro has one in Wiksic. A student may gain a two year degree for elementary teaching at one of these schools. If the student wishes to attain a four year degree he must attend one of the faculties of the major universities. More than 70 percent of physical education teachers have university educations.

The following sections will outline and discuss programs available to students of Physical Culture in Ljubljana, Sarajevo and Zagreb. Generally speaking, the programs are very similar at the different universities. Each will be discussed in turn, however, to emphasize the subtle differences between the programs.

Ljubljana

The Department of Physical Culture at the University of Ljubljana offers three options to the undergraduate in

Physical Education, plus two options for graduate work (B. Elsner, B. Desman, F. Ambrozic, and F. Strel, personal communication, February, 1984).

The Factory Recreation Program is geared towards fitness and recreation for factory workers. This option is a two year program. The goal for students in this discipline of the Physical Culture Department is to help educate the workers and thus the public in general on the effects of exercise (B. Elsner, personal communication, February, 1984).

Factory Recreationists work predominantly in assembly line factories. A majority of workers in these factories are women. During a shift there are three break times with which the Recreationists have to work: two 10-minute breaks, and between 30 and 60 minutes for lunch or dinner break. The exercise leader may set up lectures on the benefits of exercise. Research points to higher participation by those who understand and appreciate these benefits (F.Ambrozic, personal communication, February, 1984).

A related function of the Recreationist is setting up recreational vacation trips to resort towns throughout the Republic and the country. If a group of workers wishes to go on vacation together, the Recreationist organizes the trip. Such a trip might include chartering a bus for group travel to a coastal resort town in Dalmatia or the

mountains of Slovenia. Outdoor activities are planned by the Recreationist who issues an itinerary to the group leader or accompanies the group to supervise and give moral support.

A third area for this group of physical educators is referred to as Resort Recreation. Recreationists in this area work for resorts or a resort area Chamber of Commerce (author's translation) in setting up group excursions such as hiking, skiing, or camping. Group vacations or recreation excursions are very popular with a large part of the Yugoslav population (B. Elsner, personal communication, February, 1984).

The second area encompassed by the Physical Culture faculty is physical education in the Yugoslav school system. Students who take a degree in the Education of Physical Culture may choose between a two year (elementary) and a four year (secondary) program. The purpose of these disciplines is to develop the physical attributes of the children to balance with their mental development. The attitude of the new generation of physical educators is to stress activity and lifetime sports after the school years (B. Elsner, personal communication, February, 1984).

The job field in this area is generally restricted to the school system. Another option is to continue up the education ladder to become a professor at a faculty in a

university. This often takes patience, as there are only so many teaching positions available at the college level.

The third area of discipline in Physical Culture at the University of Ljubljana is the Sport Club option. This two year degree prepares one to work as coach, trainer or sport psychologist in one of the sport clubs. This may be the most important field coming from the faculty of Physical Culture due to the national emphasis on sport club athletes. But educators frown on this area of discipline since many sport heroes get hired over the educated professionals. Professors argue there is more to a sport activity than just being able to play it. Educators also voice concern over the length of the two year programs. They feel by making all programs four years in duration, the faculty could improve the effectiveness of the programs in the Physical Culture field.

An interesting component of the two year sport option is that these programs are offered only as needed. Students who wish to become a coach of team handball sign up for the course. If enough students sign up, an instructor is found for the course and it is held. If not, the students must wait a semester, or however long it takes, to get a cost effective number of students to sign up in order to hold the class.

A student in the Sports Club field may take the prerequisites for his degree (which are the same for all

four degrees) while waiting for the practical and sport theory portion of his studies.

Core requirements are the basis for the development of individual programs (see Table 3, page 80). Once the student has completed the prerequisites he may choose a specific area of study. The methodology and theory classes are tailored to different programs once the student decides which direction to pursue.

Activity classes are part of the requirements as well as the electives. All degree options require at least some of the activity classes. Sport Club majors would study the major sports involved in the club organization. The Recreationists would focus on mountaineering and swimming. The physical educators tailor their activities to those needed in their individual areas of study.

Ljubljana also offers a masters degree program in two areas. One area is a Physical Culture Specialist. Again, a student has options to pursue special education topics or prepare himself to become a faculty professor. There is a six year limit on acquiring a master's degree once the program is started.

A second area of post graduate work is in General Research in the Institute of Kinesiology. According to Franko Strel, head of the Institute, 90-95 percent of all research done on sport and physical education in Slovenia comes from the Institute of Kinesiology. Projects in this

Table 3

Requirements for a Degree at University of Eduarda Kardelja in Ljubljana.

Prerequisites required for all 2 and 4 year degrees

- Philosophy of Sport
- Psychology of Sport
- Sociology of Sport
- Marxism
  - Free student thought
  - Self management
- Foreign Language
  - English
  - German
- Anatomy
- Physiology
- Sport Medicine (Trainers)
- Sports Facilities

Special classwork for 4 year degrees

- Statistics
- Computer Science
- Methodology - math and statistics involved in research methods
- Theory of Sport - rules, national organization of sport, history
- Training Theory in Sport - Exercise Physiology

Methodology of Physical Education in Schools

Sports Recreation

Activity Class

Major Sports	Minor Sports
Basketball	Swimming
Volleyball	Athletics (track and field)
Handball	Gymnastics
Football (soccer)	Mountaineering (canoes, kayaking, skiing, hiking)

Note: Outlined by F. Strel, F. Ambrozic, B. Deszman and B. Elsner (personal communication, February, 1984).

department range from development of a viable physical testing procedure for grade schoolers to a survey on public opinion on the XIV Olympic Winter Games (F. Strel, personal communication, February, 1984).

Physical testers in Ljubljana's Institute of Kinesiology are very interested in the grade assessment of elementary school children.

> "The stimuleses (sic) that assure motor activities in the formation and transformation of individuality are most effective in the rapid growth and development phase. Especially important is the development phase that coincides with primary schooling. In this phase . . . the entire value system, which incorporates also a person's stand and interests towards physical culture is decisively formed.
>
> "The massiveness of this organizational form of physical culture must be taken into account. It encompasses the whole youth population and is, due to this, by far the most important of all physical culture spheres. It is well known that only those processes that are monitored, and can be on the basis of this objectively judged, can be meaningfully controlled and therefore of some value. Any system which should give optimal results needs information exchange, which enables us to direct the processess in accord with previously set goals. Without such an information exchange no system can be successfully directed; without relevant information on the direction and magnitude of change the system's entropy mounts." (Strel et. al., 1982).

This program os testing was designed at the Institute of Kinesiology in Ljubljana. It is called Telesnovzgojni Karton (see Figure 1, page 83). This testing regime is widely used in Slovenia. It is simple to use. Even eight years of records on an individual child are easy to store. Eleven parameters are taken on each child, including body

Figure 1

Example of Assessment Model.

TELESNOVZGOJNI KARTON

(Information System for Assessment and Monitoring of Motor Abilities and Morhologic Characteristics of School Youth)

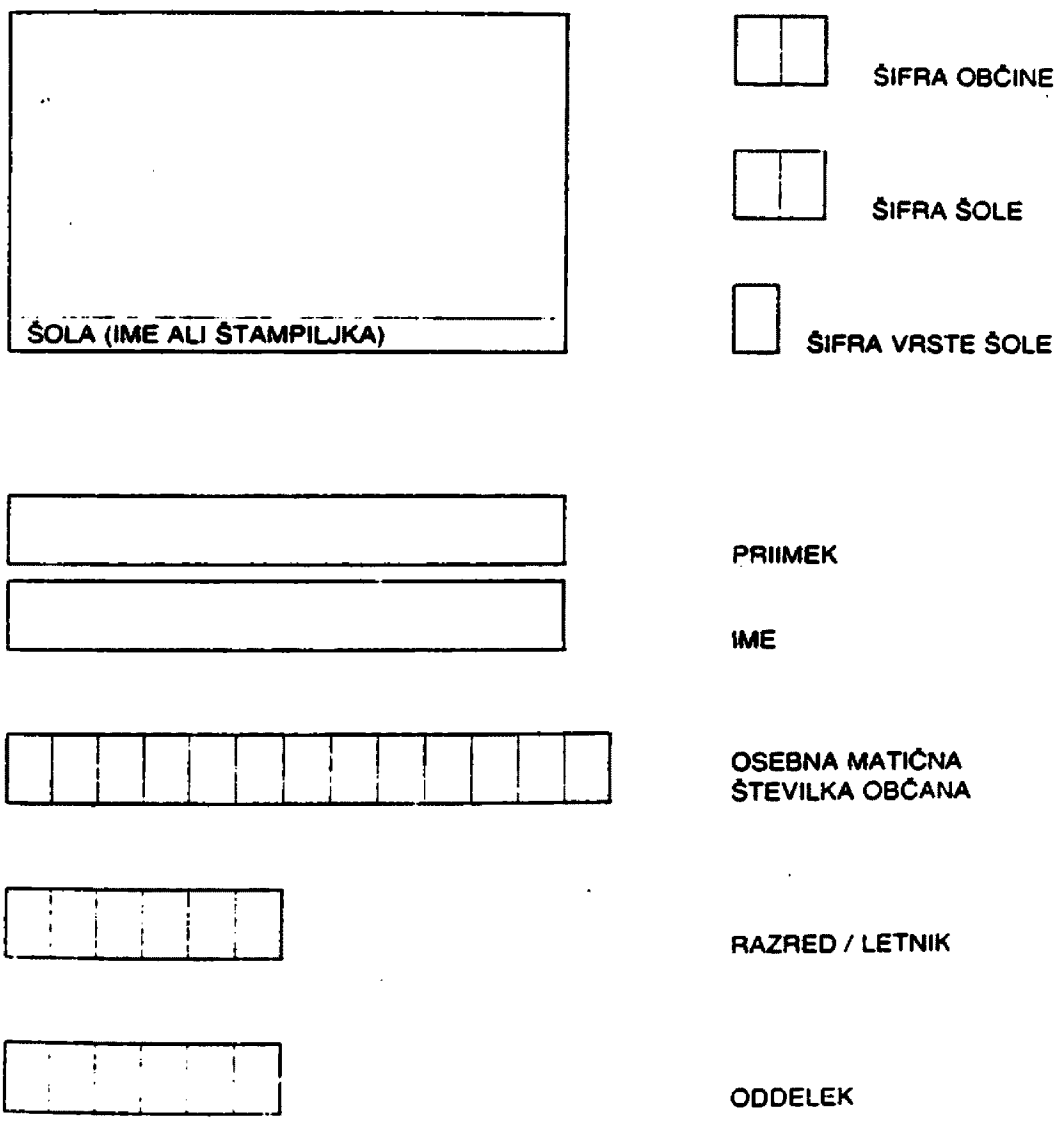
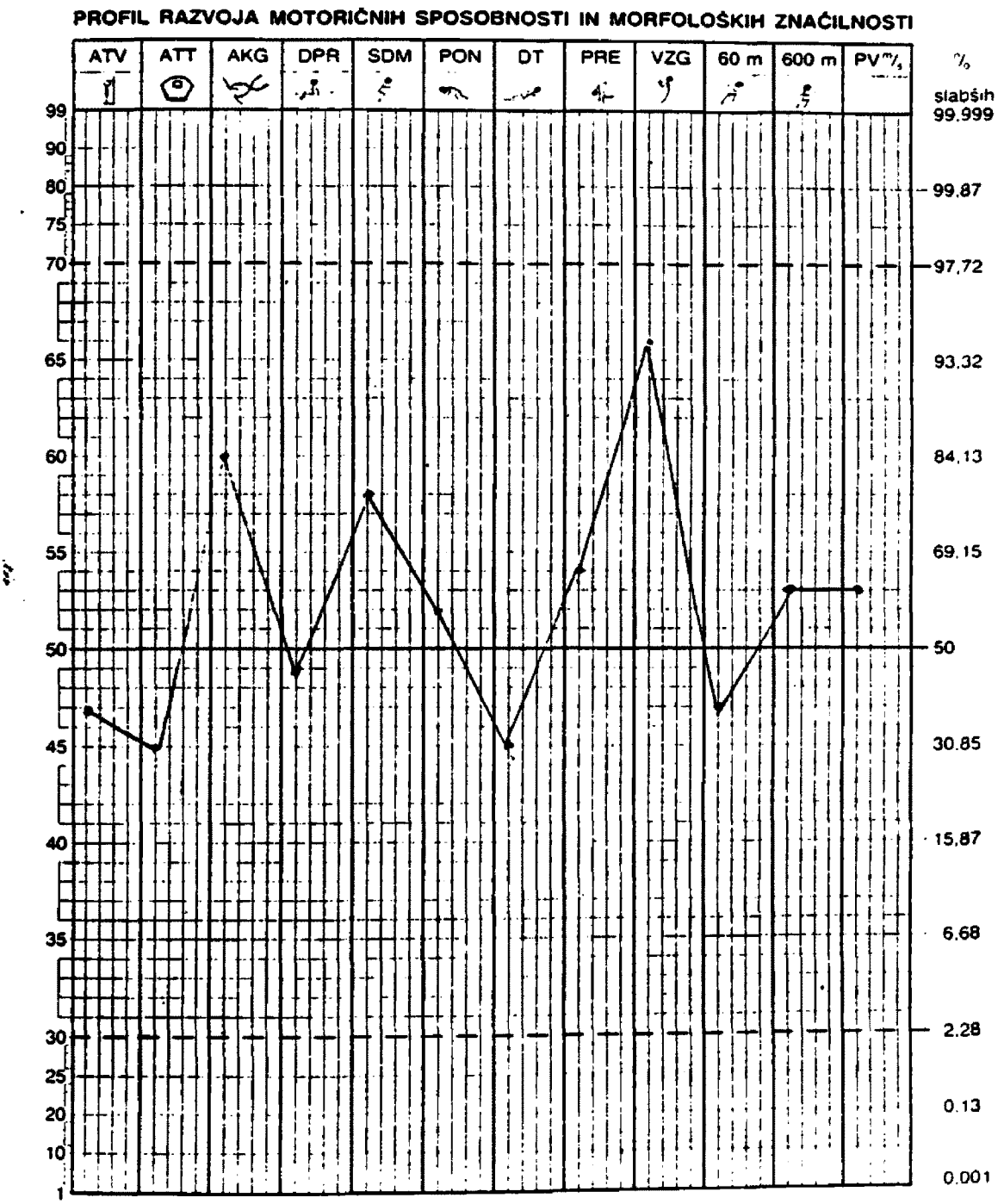


Figure 1 (continued)

	vrsta merjenja / datum merjenja	20.4.83				
ATV	telesna višina HEIGHT	1 4 0 0				
ATT	telesna teža WEIGHT	3 3 0				
AKG	kožna guba nadlahti SKIN FOLD	0 5				
DPR	dotikanje plošče z roko REACTION TIME	3 2				
SDM	skok v daljavo z mesta STANDING LONG JUMP	1 8 4				
PON	premagovanje ovir nazaj OBSTACLE COURSE	1 5 5				
DT	dviganje trupa na klopi - do 3. razreda pa 20" na tleh SITUPS	0 5				
PRE	predklon na klopci BEND & TOUCH	4 3				
VZG	vesa v zgibi ARM HANG	0 2 0				
60 m	tek na 60 m 60 METER DASH	1 1 1				
600 m	tek na 600 m 600 METER RUN	1 4 0				

Figure 1 (continued)



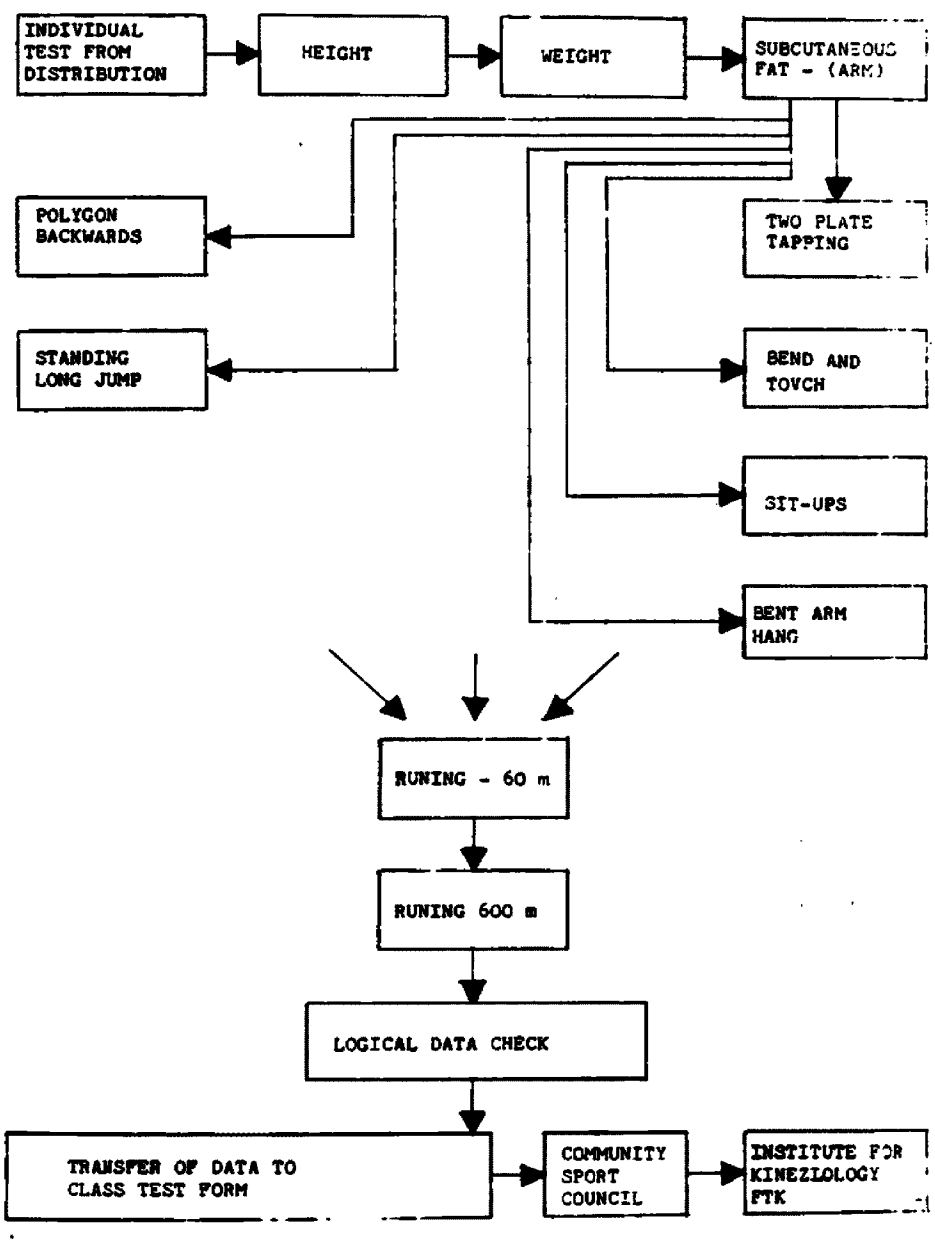
fat calculations, reflex testing, and flexibility tests. With a simple programming, these results can be run through the computer. Educators can see how these students compare with others in their own school, town and Republic.

This comparative testing is a big part of the Institute of Kinesiology's continuing drive to improve Yugoslavia's physical culture. Results from the Karton shed more light on what to stress in physical education classes as well as give valuable information to sports clubs, the Army, and others (see Figures 2 and 3, pages 87 and 88). A recent study by Strel, Leskovsek and Sturm (1985) shows interesting results of some of the records kept in the Telesnovzgojni Karton system. The results of 14,000 students in grades 1-4 was analyzed. What was shown is that those students taught physical education by accredited physical education teachers had better results than those taught by their regular classroom teachers. This is obvious to physical education teachers and specialists. Now, however, they have fuel to fire their argument for more inservice teacher training and further employment of physical education teachers in the lower grades of elementary school.

The Institute of Kinesiology is very important due to its ability to draw funds. Schools and sport clubs don't provide much revenue for the department. But government contracts for research information and testing give a

Figure 2

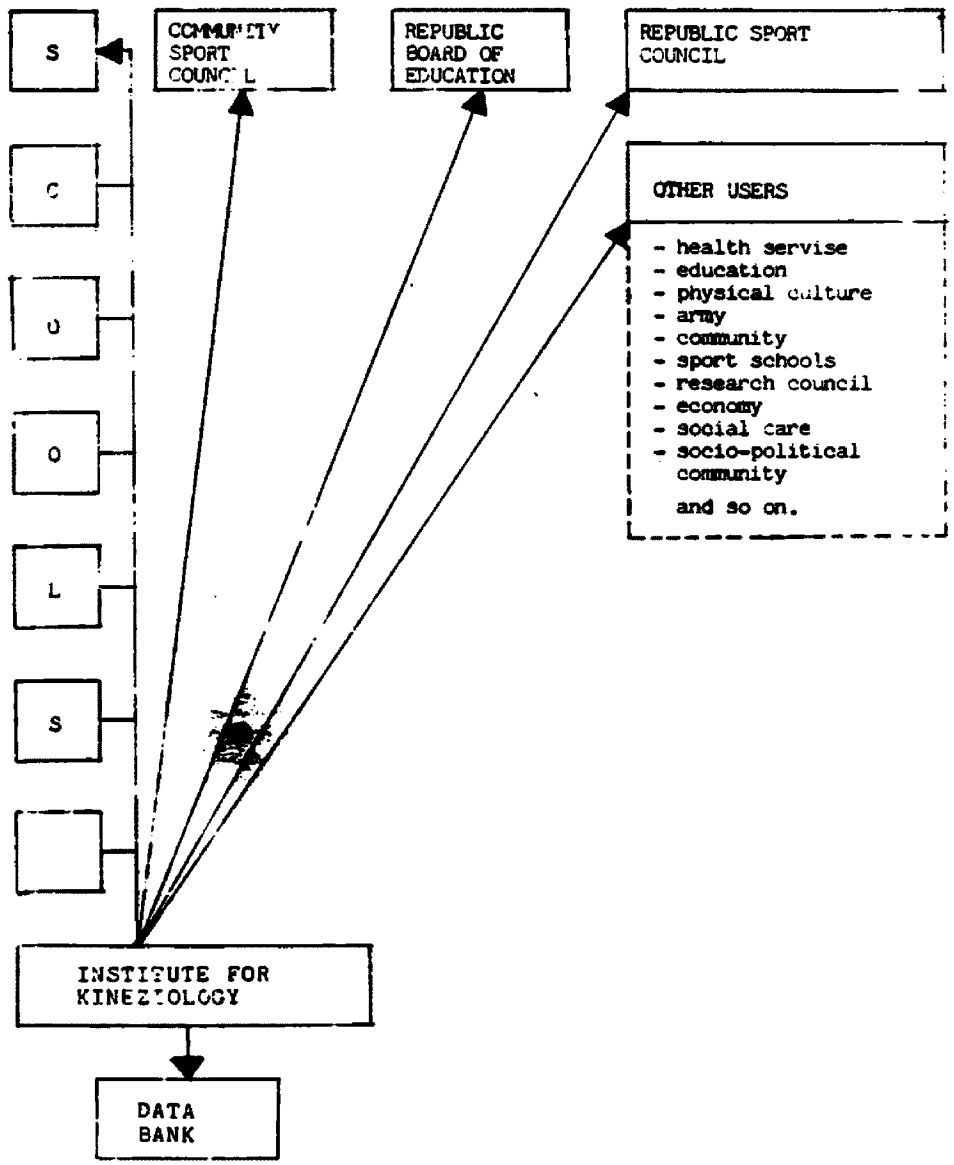
Measurement Organization Model.



Note: From Strel et.al. (1982), page 9. Ljubljana, Yugoslavia. Reprinted by permission.

Figure 3

Computer Output Distribution.



Note: From Strel et. al. (1982), page 10. Ljubljana, Yugoslavia. Reprinted by permission.

direction and funding to the department. In this case, the system really depends on itself (B. Elsner, personal communication, February, 1984).

The Institute has three main departments of operations. One deals with the athletic monitoring and testing. A second provides the expertise and computers for compiling data and putting together theses and dissertations. The most lucrative and important branch of the Institute of Kinesiology is research for government agencies.

There were 470 students in the faculty for Physical Culture in February, 1984. One hundred of those students were in a work and study program. There are 64 people who staff the department. This number includes 37 professors and graduate assistants.

The library is small but generally adequate. American journals join German and Eastern Bloc publications in the periodical section. Economic sanctions make it difficult to acquire books from outside Yugoslavia, especially from the West. The faculty is in a constant search for more resources. According to Librarian Marija Bergant, professors--by law--are not allowed to use materials not printed in Slovenia (personal communication, February, 1984).

Sarajevo

The faculty of Physical Culture at the University of Sarajevo focuses on education and the Sports Club. Though

not discussed in detail, programs for Recreationists are part of the departmental offerings.

At Sarajevo the two year Sport Club option was more detailed than the one at Ljubljana. The student studies only one sport for certification as trainer in that sport. In February of 1984, courses were offered is six sports: soccer, basketball, volleyball, team handball, Alpine skiing, table tennis, and shooting. After the Winter Olympics there were plans to import instructors for ice hockey from Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and Slovenia, Yugoslavia. West Germany is to supply some help in the ski jumping. Poland will be sending an instructor for the improvement of cross country skiing. The Czechs will also help out with figure skating. These countries sent advisors to Sarajevo to aid in the preparations for the Olympics. Dr. Milenko Vranesic, Head of the Department, hopes that regular classes in these sports can be added to the options already open in Sarajevo (personal communication, February, 1984).

Entrance into the program is dependent upon a student's ability to play the sport. One does not enter this program to learn the sport, but to learn to teach the sport (see Table 4, page 91).

Once into the program the student takes a battery of very basic courses. Upon completion of the prerequisite classwork, the sport specific year of study begins. The

Table 4

Requirements for Two Year Sport Trainer Degree

General Background for all Degree Entrants

--Anatomy
--Biochemistry
--Physiology
--Philosophy
--Psychology
--Sports Medicine
--Sociology

Sport Specific Instruction

--Methodology (technic and tactics)
--Sport Medicine (athletic training)
--Sport Physiology
--Kinesiotherapy
--Sport Psychology
--Training Theory
--Selection for Sport
--Six month original project
--Exit exam by a Board of Professors

Practical Work

--Six month original project
--Exit exam by a Board of three professors

Note: Outlined by Dr. Milenko Vranesic (personal communication, February, 1984).

classes are tailored to the specific sport. The last stage of the degree process is a six month original project (diplomic work) by the student. The original project plus a thorough exit examination generally turns this program into a three year option. This seems to be the middle ground between the club-minded two year programs and the four year educational design hoped for by the faculty at Ljubljana.

Graduates of this program can be employed in the sport club system. Another employment option is as one of the professionals brought into the public schools for the purpose of teaching a specific sport that a physical education teacher may be unqualified to teach.

Sports clubs will sponsor talented athletes to go through this three year program to enable them to hand pick their coaches or trainers. A student must graduate high school, as well as be proficient in the sports, in order to enter the university. However, an early high school exit exam may be administered. Passing this exam, a student may start his program early.

The four year program is more extensive. Entrance exams are taken in several different areas to insure the competence of entering students.

The first two years are spent building a base for the second two years (see Table 5, page 93). Sports and activities are interspersed with the academia. Each of the

Table 5

Requirements for Physical Education Degree (Four Year), University of Sarajevo.

1st Year - Semester Taken

Sociology (1 and 2)
Volleyball
Handball
Kinesiology
Fundamentals for Army (1 and 2)
Anatomy
Biochemistry with Physiology
History of Physical Culture
Athletics (track and field, P.E.)
Basic Physical Practice

2nd Year

Physiology of Sport (3)
Army Preparation (Physical and Theory)
Swimming (3 and 4)
Kinesiology
Sociology and Marxism
Athletics (3)
Football (soccer) (3 and 4)
Folklore

Activity in Nature (outdoor recreation) (Winter sports (skiing) - 10 day mountain camp; Spring/Summer sports lake swimming kayaking (10 day seaside camp - hiking, climbing))

3rd Year

Swimming (5)
Psychology of Sport
Sports Gymnastics (5 and 6)
Methodology in Physical Education (5 and 6)
Handball

Outdoor Recreation

10 days skiing at Jahorina (winter sport)

Spring/Summer - 10 day backpack tour

Basketball

Aesthetic Gymnastics - Women

4th Year

Language Study (Serbo-Croatian)

Psychology of Sport (1 semester)

Sports Medicine (7 and 8)

Sport Hygiene (nutrition)

Kinesiotherapy (7 and 8)

Statistics (1 semester)

Fighting/Self Defense sports

Sport Gymnastics

Aesthetic Gymnastics - Women

Outdoor Recreation

Winter (skiing, 10 days)

Spring (seaside camp-10 days)

Diplomic Work

Final project (original work) is decided on at the end of the 3rd year.

3-6 months of practicum work.

Final exams.

Note: Outlined by Dr. Milenko Vranesic (personal communication, February, 1984).

last three years have two 10-day outdoor or nature excursions. These are the same types of activities students did in their younger school days. These outings enable the students to learn how to organize their own "Schools of Nature."

Students in the four year program at Sarajevo attend school about 25 hours a week. Exams are given at the end of each year. Passing these exams is mandatory to begin the next year of study. Reduction of classwork in the fourth year allows students to concentrate on their diplomic work. Individual projects are monitored by supervising professors. Three to six months of practical work is the equivalent of student teaching in the United States.

Sarajevo's faculty for Physical Culture has an academic exchange relationship with other faculties which comprise the University at Sarajevo. In all there are 28 faculties at Sarajevo. Unlike most American campuses, Yugoslav universities are spread out over an entire city. Physiology, anatomy and sports medicine classes are taken in the Institute for Medical Sciences. Other faculties such as the Institute of Orthopedics are also involved in the physical education program. Most of the physiological testing is done by the staff and faculty at the Institute for Clinical Biochemistry (S. Jadric, personal communication, February, 1984).

There are 300 full time students in the faculty of Physical Culture at Sarajevo. There are also 200 part time students who work as well as go to school. These students' programs are condensed and are offered around their work schedules. The department has 14 full professors. Six 'honorary" professors from exchange faculties are also considered part of the faculty. There are 9 full time graduate assistants from the department as well as six "honorary" assistants helping from other departments.

Zagreb

The faculty for Physical Culture, University of Zagreb, earns much respect from the educators at Ljubljana and Sarajevo for being a highly organized and productive learning center. The facilities are more modern than the other schools. Zagreb and Ljubljana conduct many exchanges between themselves, combining the best of both faculties. Zagreb is blessed with a little easier access to funds, thanks to some fine grant writers, increasing its status immensely.

Zagrev has three areas of study. There is the degree for physical education teachers in the schools. A second area is the Sport Club option. A very well defined recreation program also exists. Students study recreation in three areas: vacation, work, and home.

The vacation portion of study focuses on tourism and hotel recreation centers, plus weekend and lengthier outdoor recreation activities. Industrial recreation programs are trying to break into the sedentary habits of factory workers to increase health education, productivity and fitness.

An area of focus in Zagreb not seen in Ljubljana and Sarajevo is Home Recreation. This interesting off-shoot is aimed at the socio-political structure in towns and villages. Educators are attempting to increase awareness and organization in the development of local activity groups and facilities. This may help expand sport and fitness to those not normally reached due to economic stratification or isolation from larger population areas (F. Prot, personal communication, February, 1984).

A fourth area of study, Physical Therapy, has been dropped due to lack of funding. Though perhaps better funded than Sarajevo and Ljubljana, the poor state of Yugoslav economics is also felt in Zagreb.

All degrees awarded to Professors of Physical Culture are four year programs. A two year base curriculum prepares the student to specialize and individualize his or her program in the final two years. Unlike other programs, students at Zagreb choose two subjects to focus on in the second two years of their program. This is to give a broader understanding of the entire scope of the Physical Culture field.

The Zagreb curriculum is very well defined and systematically directed with much attention given to detail, especially in the area of Kinesiological Methodology. Computers, data bases and testing is heavily emphasized in Zagreb and Ljubljana, with a future goal being outlining and defining of the current status and the direction of transition of the Yugoslav Physical Culture.

The program at Zagreb is defined as one of Systematic Kinesiology. This means that the curriculum accomplishes systematic combination of basic concepts, theories and methodologies into a working, practical tool (F. Prot, personal communication, February, 1984).

The first two years of study are spent in defining the basics in two distinct areas (see Table 6, page 99). Kinesiological Anthropology is the physical sciences section. This area of study helps the student understand the human body as a structural, metabolizing machine, controlled by the mind (psychology) and those around him (sociology). The study of Biomechanics follows. Kinesiological Methodology is comprised mostly of the study of tests and measurements. The study of this methodology is prestigious at Zagreb.

With these building blocks, the program begins to take shape in the third year. By understanding the human system, the student can apply this knowledge to the movements, sport and games involved in Physical Culture.

Table 6

Requirements for Degree of Physical Culture, University of Zagreb.

Years 1 and 2

Biological Anthropology (study of genetics, somatotypes, growth and development)

Functional Anatomy

Kinesiological Physiology

Sport Sociology

Sport Psychology

Sport Medicine

Formal Statistics

Mathematical Kinesiology

Kinesiological Statistics

Measurement and Evaluation

Informatics (data base, computers)

Kinesiological Methodology

Year 3

Systematic Kinesiology

- Complex Movements - team sports
- Incorporation of Groups of Movements
- Biomechanics
- Theory of Learning
- Thoery of Games

Study of Monostructural Movements (closed movements - running, swimming, simple movement sports)

Study of Polistructural Movements (open movements - gymnastics, wrestling, figure skating, tennis)

Year 4

Theory of Teaching

Methods of Sport Training

Theory of Recreation

Physical Therapy

Basic education block (student teaching)

Sport activity classes (according to program

Kinesiological Anthropology (physical characteristics)

1 2 3 Basic Kniesiological Discipline (continuing 1 and 2)

Applied Disciplines 4

Kinesiological Methodology (learning of defined parameters and research)

Note: Outlined by Franjo Prot, personal communication, February, 1984.

During this year the student must decide what areas he (or she) will settle his focus on.

The fourth year consists entirely of applied and practical work. A student teaching block is required of those planning to teach. Practice teaching coincides with coursework in the theory of learning. The initial three years of the program may also be applied to the sport activites or recreation disciplines. The hope in the department is that a better economy will bring the return of Physical Therapy to the curriculum.

The uniqueness of the Zagreb program is the uniform training for all areas of the field. Sport is not removed from Recreation or Physical Education. Graduates can be practiced in more than one area. This is intended to reduce rivalry between the different factions and enable a more marketable Professor of Physical Culture. Most important, perhaps, is the attempt by the faculty of this program to improve the image of physical educators, trainers, coaches and Recreationists by making their training process demanding, systematic and respected.

Facilities

Facilities varied widely between the three universities. Zagreb has by far the highest quality. Many Yugoslav educators use a lend-lease policy among their neighbor university faculties in an attempt to minimize deficiencies and shortcomings in their own facilities.

Ljubljana has several nice gymnasia and some small weightrooms with small amounts of weight training equipment. There was a suitable gymnastics area. There was some basic physiological testing and monitoring equipment which was somewhat antiquated. But again, similar equipment was available in other departments at the University for use by physical education students.

Sarajevo also had many small gyms, weight areas and gymnastic facilities. Testing equipment was mostly housed in the Medical School facilities. These also are shared by the faculty of Physical Culture. Sarajevo's major asset was a 25 meter indoor swimming pool.

Zagreb has beautiful gymnasium areas that combined as weightrooms, calisthenic areas and basketball or team handball courts. They had an extraordinary gymnastics room filled with all of the latest quality equipment. New physiological and biomechanical testing equipment was housed in a new lab. The area most lacking was weight training equipment. Though nicely housed, the weight equipment was not very extensive at all.

Classroom size and number was very adequate at all three faculties. Library space was good. Most of the works were Yugoslav or Eastern European. Western periodicals were present. However, Western literature later than 1980 was virtually non-existent due to economic sanctions.

Pay Scales

Students entering the field of Physical Culture after the university can expect pay levels under that of the blue collar or industrial factory workers. Physical education teachers are paid the same as regular classroom teachers (D. Grilj, F. Prot and F. Ambrozic, personal communication, February, 1984). Of course, there is more money once one moves up the administrative ladder. Education may not be very lucrative but educators are held in high esteem in Yugoslavia since self-management requires education and a knowledge of the system.

Role of Physical Educators in Yugoslavia

By making students aware of the benefits of exercise, the physical educator induces better exercise and health habits in their students. Spread this information to the workers in the factories and the educators will be doing their part for productivity. The Marxist self-management ideologies want to do away with the dichotomy of mind and body in today's man (F. Prot, personal communication, February, 1984). Through recreation, lifetime sport and fitness, those developing Yugoslavia's physical culture have a role in combining mind and body.

Dr. Tamila Mustafic, Director of Public Health for Bosnia-Herzegovina, feels physical education is floundering in the schools where its only audience are the youngsters, most of whom are active (T. Mustafic, personal

communication, February, 1984). The message is geared towards youth in a society which takes for granted an active youth and a sedentray life after 25. Change the focus of the message, she says. Write about it in magazines, advertise on T.V. and radio, make movie heroes strong and active into the later years. Make the message short, to the point, and with variations that offer a choice to more groups of people.

Franjo Prot calls for educators at all levels of the field to change the image of the profession (personal communication, February, 1984). The "dumb jock in physical education" stereotype hurts the industry, he feels. Tough admissions standards would weed out lackluster applicants. More demanding and scientific academic programs would raise the status of Physical Culture in the eyes of other faculties.

The role of the Physical Educator is to change and upgrade the image of his profession so people will believe what they say and follow a good example. Faculty members in Zagreb and Ljubljana refrained from smoking and appeared to lead healthy lifestyles (F. Prot, personal communication, February, 1984).

A very big part of the curriculum offerings at Zagreb, Ljubljana, and Sarajevo is research. Knowing and understanding the physiological, biomechanical and methodological aspects of physical education and sport is a

very important part of any curriculum. But for each program these are only basics, the springboard needed to propel the student and the professor onto the real problems: how can these principles be applied to our situation, our people our country? The role of Physical Educators as investigators is a uniform concern of those who were interviewed (F. Prot and F. Ambrozic, personal communication, February, 1984).

F. Prot, in Zagreb, mentioned several times the importance of finding new ways to test the effects of a more active lifestyle. Does this benefit our state? Is our work worthwhile? Will factory workers exercise? Will it really help them? How do you activate a sedentary, increasingly technological and industrial culture who fifty years ago lived mostly on farms in rural areas? Does a testing program in grade schools allow Physical Educators to pick up on a child's physical weaknesses and correct them? How can we have true self-management without managing our own bodies? (F. Prot, personal communication, February, 1984).

Physical Educators in Yugoslavia have a unique position. Their society is new on the industrial scene. Rural areas are still very rural. The basics of education trickle down. Many times, however, the health and physical education dries up before it reaches them. A large percentage of the Yugoslav population are still peasants (Dubey, 1975). On

the other hand, the cities are a modern Western/Eastern mix. They receive information from the Russians and Czechs as well as the United States and West Germany. Yugoslavia's several languages and nationalities increase diversity. How can all the gaps be bridged to provide a healthier physical culture?

Professors and students in Ljubljana, Zagreb and Sarajevo feel it is possible. They feel they must continue to do research and find answers to the problems of their society. By increasing the integrity of university curriculum in physical education, they can improve the image of the profession. Each facet of the population must be educated according to their individual needs.

CHAPTER IV

Fitness in Yugoslavia

This chapter will deal with physical fitness in Yugoslavia (Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina and Croatia). Previous discussions on sport and physical education have focused mainly on the younger population (below 18) and those for whom sport and physical fitness is a profession or a way of life. This section will concentrate on fitness in the general population above the age of 18.

Agriculture to Industry

As recently as twenty years ago, nearly fifty percent of the Yugoslav population were peasants, still tied to the land. At the end of World War I, seventy-five percent of the population was of the farming class. Physical education or fitness were not a priority or even a consideration with this group of the population. Eking out an existance occupied most of their time and energy (Dubey, 1975).

After World War II, with the inception of the new Yugoslav state, came a new industrialization. With this industrialization came the removal of people from the land and a move to an urban setting. For many, a physically demanding way of life was traded in for a lifestyle of monotonous physical inactivity. With the growth of the new system came more free time and a demand for recreation and entertainment.

Education became mandatory as well as available. Physical education grew from a preparation for war and survival to a preparation for sports and leisure activity. For some enlightened educators, this physical training was a means to a more healthy lifestyle for the youth of an innovative new society.

Social Consciousness on Fitness

Yugoslav sport consciousness is high. Fitness does not fare so well. The concept of individual lifetime sports after the age of twenty-five is not predominate in Yugoslavia (D. Grilj, personal communication, February, 1984). The Director of the Bosnia-Herzegovina Department of Public Health states that physical education for health is mainly encouraged in grammar school students and hospital patients.

Director Mustafic feels this low level of consciousness comes from lack of coverage by the media and government health agencies on the subject of fitness. Physical education is primarily geared toward the schools. By addressing the problem through the media, she feels more people could be reached. Mustafic also suggested gearing advertisements or education towards more types of people. She feels more people would comply with exercise programs if a choice in the types of activities and facilities to exercise was offered (personal communication, February, 1984).

It is not hard to see why there are problems with fitness consciousness in Yugoslavia. Both Dr. Mustafic and her interpretor smoked heavily. Dr. Milenko Vransic, Director of the Faculty of Physical Culture and University of Sarajevo, also smoked. Two professor doctors interviewed at the Medical School Faculty at Sarajevo also smoked heavily. These two were doing research on cardiovacsular physiology: blood lipid levels after myocardial infarct, to be exact.

All of these professionals know the risks of smoking and the benefits of exercise. Smoking is a very cultural thing, though, and a tough trend to reverse. Dr. Mustafic's interpretor, Marija Papic, compared smoking cigarettes to the "pipe of peace." (personal communication, February, 1984). Cigarette advertising, says Mustafic, is not allowed on television. But there are no warnings on the cigarette packages. And the stigma on smoking is carried only in the more progressive medical and physical education circles.

Dr. Mustafic claims exercise is "popular in Bosnia-Herzegovina even through the older ages." This may be true in relative terms. As will be seen below, one of the main problems in Yugoslav fitness is lack of a regular regime. Exercising on one's holiday, four or five times in a two week period once year, may constitute an active lifestyle to some. But to educators in Slovenia and

Croatia, the lack of health benefits in this "unorganized and irregular" is obvious. Even Dr. Vransic in Sarajevo is aware of the consciousness problem. He feels the physical education/sport field is not a lucrative sphere of employment. "Sports and physical education are for schools, sport clubs, and those with money. People outside of these areas are just not interested." (M. Vransic, personal communication, February, 1984).

Social Stratification in Fitness and Sport

Money affects the consciousness level greatly. There simply isn't enough funding to build adequate facilities for the general use of the population. A five year plan for a National Slovenian Fitness, Activity and Sport Center was scrapped in the early 1980's due to economic slowdown (F. Ambrozic, personal communication, February, 1984). Even if there were more facilities available, many citizens would still be unable to use them due to financial or social limitations.

Industrial recreation seems to be the leader in adult physical education (Petrovic et.al., 1980). Fitness opportunities are available for employees of many factories. Industrial recreation, under the auspices of the Federal Fitness Commission, is highly developed with many sports societies created for this purpose. The Commission's special emphasis in this field is aimed at the

working man who is not able to join one of these societies or cannot participate fully. In these cases, the Commission works toward providing other outlets for his participation (Howell and Van Uliet, 1968).

Television spots showing cardiac rehabilitation and fitness testing clinics are sponsored by certain companies. There is an increasing awareness of the benefits of an active lifestyle. But physical educators claim their main priority, after the children, is to educate the inactive public on how to take their health more into their own hands.

In Yugoslavia, as in the United States, socio-economic standards have a definite effect on who is active and how those who are active participate. Ten year's worth of studies on the subject of social stratification in Yugoslav physical or sport culture was compiled in 1983 by Dr. Kresimer Petrovic, Professor of Sport Sociology at the Faculty of Physical Culture at the University of Ljubljana.

> "The common characteristic of all research (in our field) is an indisputable, if varying influence of the social and residentional (sic) characteristics of subjects and groups on the individual segments of the Physical Culture field.
>
> "The above conclusions show that the political action in the field of sport has not paid enough attention to the effects of social stratification. Although the effects of social stratification in sport cannot be treated separately from the social stratification in the society as a whole, it is obvious that the interventions of society in the

> field of sport have too often brought advantages to those with already a high social position rather than to those they were meant for." (Petrovic, 1983, page 93).

Social status and financial success affect the extent of participation in sports and other recreational activity. Those of higher status form an elite participation group. This group engages in activities that require more funding and expensive equipment such as basketball, handball and downhill skiing. Lower status groups participate in soccer and less expensive activities. The higher classes also form elite places of participation such as exclusive ski and mountaineering resorts.

Sports of emphasis show reversals in participation in certain areas. If in a certain commune soccer is the elite or emphasis sport, those of higher socio-economic status will engage in soccer, a predominantly lower class sport in other areas. Those in the lower groups will participate in a less popular activity.

Public opinion research further solidifies the influence of social class on sport and recreation participation. One study of adult males and females reveals that these respondents believe that sport is predominantly the privilege of those who have a more than average social status.

Mountaineering is by tradition and economic attainability the strongest mass organization in Slovenia.

However, researchers have established that people engaged in mountaineering have a high education and economic status and live in urban administrative and industrial centers. Other categories of the population do significantly less mountaineering. (Petrovic, 1983.)

> "Social stratification is in the highest degree responsible for whether somebody will or will not engage in sport at all. It is also responsible for the fact that sports activities are not equally distributed among social categories. Some social categories are wholly excluded from sports activity. Even sports of masses (soccer, skiing, handball, etc.) are not mass sports really. Even the most liberally defined sports activity does not include more than 30-40% (in different areas) of the people who are or were once engaged in sport. This is even more unacceptable because of the fact that the resources for sport and recreation are formed by contributions from personal income of all employed citizens. This also means that most of the resources for sport are being contributed by those who do not engage and have never engaged in any kind of sport and whose children will never (if the present conditions remain unchanged) engage in sport (the two obligatory physical education lessons weekly in school being excluded, of course.
>
> "The probability of somebody's activity in various sports increases with the level of his position in different stratification dimensions, particularly such as the subject of education, occupation of the subject, ownership of durable goods, the characteristics of the place of the subject's residence, the subject's activity in social organizations, etc." (Petrovic, 1983, page 98).

Some sports groups show a tendancy towards the concentration of individuals belonging to the same social strata. These sports become an important factor of socialization within groups. In this way, sport becomes an important dimension of social stratification and an attribute in which it increases class differentiation.

> "Sport and recreation available to everybody is the aim which will probably be realized only by the complete abolition of the remainders of the previous class society, or for example in Yugoslavia by abolition of consequences of existing class relation, the bureaucratic tendency to concentrate the professional, political and economic power, and by the creation of such a society in which the functional efficiency of its members will not be related to the occupation of superior positions on the dimensions of social power simply because the variances of such dimensions will be reduced to an insignificant degree." (Petrovic, 1983, page 93).

Activity Levels After Age Eighteen

Every four years, since 1972, Slovenian researchers at the Institute of Kinesiology have published a study entitled "Sport and Recreation Activity of the Slovene People." Similar studies are also conducted in Croatia (Zagreb) and Serbia (Belgrade). Results of the 1980 study were translated for the author. The 1984 study will also be published in English.

A sample of 2,027 men and women representing the adult population of Slovenia were involved. Subjects were taken from 250 places in the Republic. Interviews were conducted by the Faculties of Sociology, Political Science

and Journalism also at Ljubljana. This study focused on the Olympic preparations and the people's view of the event in their country as well as sport and recreation activity. Researchers asked four questions about the subjects' activities: intensity of the activity (how many times a week and for how long), form activity group (group, individual, etc.), type of activity, and a needs of subjects questionnaire (What is lacking? What could be improved?).

The following is a direct translation of the results of the Ljubljana study provided by Dora Tomaduza, a high school English teacher. Statistical interjections and activity percentage charts are provided by Franci Ambrozic, one of the co-authors of the study (Petrovic et. al., 1980).

> "The results of types and forms of activities in individual branches are surprising if we compare them with the dynamics of this progress in years past (1973, 1976). In 1976 there were 45% active and now (1980) there are 60% active. (Standards for regular activity in this study were one day a week for two hours.) Also the level of activity in women grew in this period between 1976-1980. In 1976 there was a 2:1 ratio active men to active women. In 1980 there was a 3:2 ratio active men to active women (see Table 7, page 119). We must speak of the changes in quality of activity at the family level because before, especially men, wanted to practice these activities with their male comrades as opposed to their families. There is also a change in activity due to age categories. In the 1976 study we saw a sharp decrease in activity after ages 25, 40 and 50. Data showed that there was a 30% decrease in activity at these ages. At that time we connected activity with competitive sports. At 25, since competitive opportunities decreased so

did activity levels. Secondly, this decrease in activity was connected with the family economic accumulation. They first had to have basic economic necessities before they could afford activities.

"Now the situation of family economic conditions is different in several ways:
-In spite of economic problems it is easier today, financially, to start a family.
-In spite of problems people still find the time and place for these activities. Perhaps it is because of these problems that people are active, as an escape.

"However, we still find a decrease in activity after 40. This may be because of the first years of aging. The children leave. The body isn't what it used to be. All of the activities are organized (planning and facilities) for younger age groups. But results of the 1980 study show more favorable relationship between activity on the one hand and education and income on the other hand. It was shown that people in lower income groups is growing. The same is shown for those who are less educated. This is only relative progress because the majority of active people are in the wealthier, educated portion of the population.

"But in the cumulative studies the same activities are still practiced (see Table 8, page 120). Only the numbers of people in the activities has increased. Swimming is the number one activity. In 1972, 9.7% of those active swam. In 1976 the number grew to 16%. And in 1980 it was 35%. This latest study shows some novelty. Some sports are accentuated in those areas where the sport is a lifetime activity. This holds true especially for activities that are practiced by older populations (see Table 9, page 121). These activities are walking, trips (group tours), swimming, bicycling, mountaineering, chess, trim (aerobic exercise activity), bowling, badminton, table tennis, Alpine and Nordic skiing. It is very useful to know all of these sports if one is to develop programs for this age group.

"There are still many weaknesses in the Slovenian sport activity setting. In the past weaknesses were unable to be improved. But now it is our goal to improve these situations in the near future. One of the main weaknesses is in the area of occasional and unorganized activity. The problem is that these occasional and unorganized activities go only so far as to introduce the activity to the participants. We have often tried to exclude these activities from analysis as they have in more developed countries. In these countries these activities are not included in the sport culture. These people are not considered active. The reason we still classify these activities in our country is because of the gradual nature of the progress of our sport culture. We need this information more for the planning of policies and less as a true indicator of the activity level of our country. Also this level of participants is continually growing.

"In 1976 there was 20% of the active people who were irregular and unorganized. In 1980 the percentage was 41%. This tells us a lot about the supply and demand of sport. This says that our ability to provide for these activities is far behind the need. This problem is getting social-political awareness. Because we know that such unorganized, irregular activity is most expensive. Combined with that is the fact that people who practice these activities are of the lower economic categories.

"On one hand we can speak of the progress in the activity level of the Slovene people. On the other hand we can see that this progress still has some traditional weaknesses. We have often identified these weak areas but have been economically, socially and politically unable to change them or make them stronger.

"There exists a serious danger that with a deprivation of the basic facility needs there will be a decrease in the activity at least where people have to provide their own finances to participate. We would be forced to make maintenance only programs because without improving programs we would depreciate even

> further an already weak program. Not only do these sport activities result in a greater productivity but also increase the totality of the effect of Physical Culture on the vitality of children and the population in general. If we don't act now we will miss a whole generation of progress. And that would mean regression to our level of ten years ago." (Petrovic et. al., 1980, pages 99-107).

Lifetime Sports

The results of work done by those in Yugoslavia's Sport Culture show some promise. Research shows acitivty levels are up. But the definition of an active person is still very liberal at best. Several of the top ten "sport" activities listed in the Ljubljana study have no aerobic components at all (see Table 7, page 119). Facilities are far behind the need. The largest group of the active population is active only on an irregular basis. Socio-economic factors still play a large part in who participates, and how, in sports and fitness activities. Continuing education in the area of lifetime sports and their benefits is the direction the majority of physical educators prefer to take.

Individual lifetime activities, such as running, are relatively foreign to most Yugoslavs (D. Grilj, personal communication, February, 1984). This is especially so in the small rural villages dotting the countryside. However, there is a growing group of recreational runners in Slovenia and Croatia. Organized races will draw 500-2,500 in cities such as Zagreb or Ljubljana (F. Strel,

Table 7

Five Most Popular Sports Activities of Slovene Population: Comparison Between Men and Women

	MEN			WOMEN	
1.	Hiking	46%	1.	Hiking	42%
2.	Swimming	40%	2.	Swimming	30%
3.	Chess	33%	3.	Cycling	21%
4.	Bowling	27%	4.	Trim (aerobics)	20%
5.	Cycling	27%	5.	Mountaineering	18%

Note: From Petrovic et. al., 1980, page 71 (used by permission).

Table 8

Ten Most Popular Sport Activities of the Active Slovene Population: Percent of Active Population Engaged in 1980

1.	Hiking	43.9%
2.	Swimming	35.2%
3.	Cycling	24.1%
4.	Mountaineering	21.5%
5.	Chess	20.9%
6.	Trim (aerobic exercise class)	20.5%
7.	Bowling	19.2%
8.	Alpine Skiing	15.7%
9.	Badminton	15.6%
10.	Soccer	14.3%

Note: From Petrovic et. al., 1980, page 65 (used by permission).

Table 9

Five Most Popular Sports Activities of Slovene Population Over Forty Years of Age

1.	Hiking
2.	Swimming
3.	Cycling
4.	Mountaineering
5.	Chess

Note: From Petrovic et. al., 1980, page 75 (used by permission).

personal communication, February, 1984). Organizers use patriotic holidays to increase participation in such events. A race on May 9 every year in Ljubljana draws 20,000 to 50,000 participants and observers. It cemmemorates the liberation of Ljubljana from the Nazis in 1945 (F. Ambrozic, personal communication, February, 1984).

Examples for the people are beginning to surface. Fifty year old Dr. Srecko Bergant is a chemist who has been running in and around the Slovenian town of Kranj for the past fifteen years. In one ten day period he ran 100 kilometers a day. A commission of followers in a mini-van timed and recorded his feat for research (Djordjevic, 1981).

In his book "The Full Blooded Man", Bergant stresses the importance of a lifetime exercise regime and a high electrolyte diet. Running and "The Full Blooded Man" are used by Ljubljana psychiatrist Dr. Janez Rugelj in treating his alcoholic patients. Dr. Rugelj advises his patients to run if they wish to live a normal life. This parallels similar programs in the United States.

Bergant began running because of certain ailments (not detailed) which failed to respond to other forms of treatment. He is no longer ailing. "The Full Blooded Man" is "a person who feels well not only when he is relaxing and resting but when he is fully extended physically . . . after which instead of feeling exhausted, he is even more ready for work." (Djordjevic, 1981, page 40).

Most of the educators at Ljubljana and Zagreb were good examples to students and others. Franci Ambrozic coached a swim team and still can swim a respectable 50 meter freestyle. He also "runs on skiis" (cross country skiis), frequently during the winter months.

The skiing culture of the mountain regions and the availability of the extensive Adriatic sea coast provide a strong core for lifetime sports in Yugoslavia. A continuation of the fine skiing, swimming and mountaineering Schools of Nature of the elementary schools into the adult sport culture is another aim of educators.

Reducing costs and social favoritism and increasing adult participaton in all possible activities is important if progress is going to continue in the field. Exposure and new facilities from the Olympics may help. An exchange of ideas with other countries also interested in the fitness of their people may broaden spectrums in the field.

What threatens physical fitness in Yugoslavia the most is its own economy and its own customs. When more facilities can be built, more can participate. When more teachers can be paid to expand the education base, more will become aware of the possibilities of fitness. With the contined education of the younger generations, the sedentary lifestyles of future generations may evolve into a more robust and active culture. The Marxist ideologies of post-Tito's Yugoslavia

seem to hold a place for the improved fitness of its people.

CHAPTER V

Conclusion

As Yugoslavia heads into its fifth decade of existence, the future of sport and Physical Culture seem tentatively bright. Yugoslavia has progressed steadily through some trying times since 1945. Tito managed to keep Yugoslavia from becoming a puppet of the Soviet Union. The government continues to try to more clearly define and implement a true self-management system, thus avoiding a state owned dictatorship. Illiteracy rates have dropped and industry continues to develop. And in may ways Yugoslavia's Sport Culture has started to pull even with other countries in the world.

The sport and Physical Culture of Yugoslavia seems to be the crossroads of past and future. Petrovic et. al. (1980) stated the progress made in the field in the last ten to fifteen years. But they also warned that continued education and improved facilities were needed if the progress was to continue and a backslide was to be avoided. Perhaps the Olympic Games in Sarajevo will provide the impetus for a progression of growth in the field of Physical Culture in Yugoslavia.

Dr. Vranesic of the University of Sarajevo mentioned plans for cooperation and exchange with other countries after the games. This he felt would speed improvements and new programs for Yugoslavia's physical educators. Educators

in Ljubljana and Zagreb also expressed hopes for this cooperation after the Olympics. This international cooperation offers Yugoslavia its best chance to continue to educate the young and to raise the consciousness level of those beyond the school age in areas of physical education and fitness (M. Vranesic, personal communication, February, 1984).

Yugoslavia's educational system practices interdisciplinary cooperation at all levels. When one department or teacher cannot cover a subject, they go outside to find someone who can fill in the gaps. This gives the Yugoslav system a fullness which transcends interdepartmental jealousy and one-upmanship.

In the United States rivalries exist between Medical Doctors and Exercise Physiologists, Physical Therapists and Athletic Trainers, Physical Education departments and Athletic departments. This bickering takes them away from pursuing an increased awareness by the general public of their own health and physical fitness.

International cooperation will increase Yugoslavia's information pool and assist the forward progression of their Physical Culture. In the case of the United States, this cooperation may increase our own ability to cooperate within the system. We can learn something from Yugoslavia.

Whether the Yugoslav economy can continue to support the growth of the Physical Culture must wait to be seen.

Pre-Olympic promises of international exchange must also wait for fruitation. On an individual basis, at least, this cooperation has already begun. Invitations to myself and members of the Physical Education Department at the University of Montana have been offered by the Department of Physical Culture at the University of Edward Kardelja. in Ljubljana to attend a yearly Sports Medicine Conference in their country. This invitation is open-ended and can be accepted at any time in the future. I continue to send articles, periodicals and texts to my colleagues in Ljubljana. My wish is to maintain this communication.

Yugoslavia has had to make do with what they have. The result was a non-political, successful XIV Olympic Winter Games. These games caught the attention of the world, if only for a moment. The moment has remained with me. I have seen Yugoslav reasons for holding the Games on their soil. I have seen their plans for the future of their Physical Culture. Perhaps when I return again to Yugoslavia I will notice progress and improvements in Physical Culture. If my cooperation and exchange continue, perhaps the Yugoslav growth will also be a little bit mine.

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