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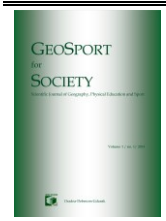

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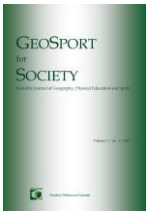

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The possibilities and results for the scientific research into the relationship between settlements and sport

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Abstract. The scope of tasks organised and performed by settlements and their leaders has continuously broadened since the beginnings of time. Initially, the leaders of settlements were primarily expected to provide for the safe operation of the settlement, the creation of the conditions of commerce, as well as the administration of justice. However, from the 18th and 19th centuries onward, settlements started to play an increasingly important role also in the areas of education, social and healthcare services. In the 20th century, parallel with the spread of the notion of the welfare state, activities related to the useful spending of free time have gained importance, among which, in addition to culture - primarily in the most recent times - sports has played an increasingly significant role as well. The aim of this paper is to explore the possible areas of researching the relationships between settlements and sports. Further developing the tetrahedron model of the settlement, the truncated triangular pyramid model has been created, the two bases of which are the natural environment and the municipal administration, while the sides are the infrastructural, economic and social spheres. The paper will present the results of and further possibilities in sports-related research aimed at each of these spheres, as well as the sports-related characteristics of the interactions taking place along the edges of the truncated triangular pyramid.

Keywords: settlement, sport, local authority, sporting event, society, sports facility

Introduction

There is a lively debate these days in Western Europe, North America, and also in Hungary, on the cost-effectiveness of sports facilities (mainly stadiums) and sporting events (especially Olympic Games), as well as the usefulness of the construction and organisation of such facilities and events (Ilies et al., 2014). In the background of these debates we can primarily find the fact that postmodern cities showing considerable development in recent times (Bramham & Wagg, 2009) devote an increasing amount of attention to satisfying the needs of their own citizens as well as tourists coming to the settlement. In the framework of the above, special emphasis is given to the extension of entertainment possibilities, among which events related to sports also play an important role in addition to culture.

At the same time, the above processes called the attention of researchers to the fact a multitude of links connect settlements (and specifically among them, cities) and sports, and that they mutually influence each other's development. As a result, research projects were started primarily from the perspective of urban studies, which analysed the various forms of expression of the connection between the two areas.

One possible starting point of the theoretical and practical examination of the connections could be the tetrahedron model of József Tóth (1981), according to which the settlement is the cooperating system based on the interaction between the natural/physical, social, economic and infrastructural realms. The four realms may be illustrated by way of four equilateral triangles which constitute a tetrahedron (fig. 1). All realms have connections with all other realms, and as a result there are interactions along the sides of the triangles: changes in each of the realms may cause significant changes in the way the other three realms operate.

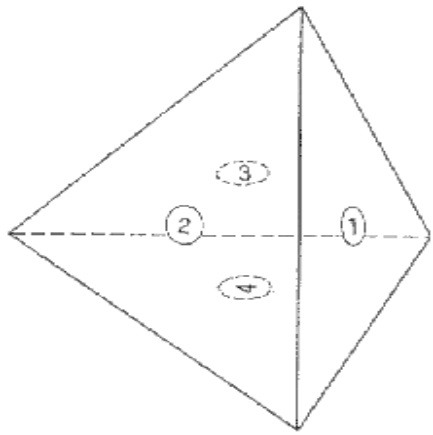

Figure 1. The tetrahedron model of settlement
(1 – social realm, 2 – economic realm, 3 – infrastructural realm, 4 – natural/physical environment)
(Source: Tóth, 1981)

However, this model does not cover the realm of public administration otherwise fulfilling a very important function these days in the lives of settlements,

which in the specific case means the administration provided by the local authorities, and which plays a role in the life of the settlement primarily by way of the local ordinances and decisions adopted by the local councils. As a consequence, in the framework of the further development of the tetrahedron model, it is expedient to cut off the top part of the social, economic and infrastructural sides and to create a truncated pyramid by way of putting a new base parallel with the natural/physical realm (fig. 2).

Considering the truncated pyramid model from the side of sports, however, in my opinion, yet another addition must be made: in the lives of settlements, sports appear in most cases in the form of various sports events, which – due to the fact that they are fundamentally in connection with each of the elements of the form – is expedient to be included in the model as a sphere inside the pyramid.

In the later parts of the study, relaying on the results of both Hungarian and international research projects, I will discuss the individual realm's various forms of manifestation related to sports; in addition, I will also analyse the sports-related elements of the interaction between the realms. In the studies, the settlements fundamentally appeared in two types of relationship systems: on the one hand, researchers have explored the differences between the settlements, and on the other hand, they identified the processes taking place within the settlements.

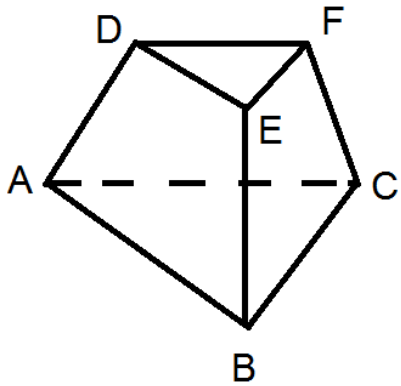

Figure 2. The truncated pyramid model of the settlement
(ABC – natural/physical environment, ABED – social realm, BCEF – economic realm, ACDF – infrastructural realm, DEF – local administrative realm)
(Source: Kozma, on the basis of Tóth, 1981)

We think to this analysis it is necessary to describe the meaning of sports and sporting activities. According to the European Sports Charter (1992): 'Sport' "means all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organised participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels." The Hungarian I. act about sport (2004) expands this definition with intellectual activities (for example chess is also a sport), besides the law states that sport and sporting activity is a desirable goal and a basic value for the nation. If we can accept these concepts, wide variety of activities can be specified as sports.

The individual realms' forms of manifestation related to sports

From the point of view of the manifestation of the individual realms related to sports, the *natural/physical realm* is in a special position, due to the fact that – by way of the edges of the truncated pyramid – it has an effect/influence on the other three realms; at the same time, it cannot be examined in itself, and therefore, it will be analysed only in the next chapter.

In the course of the examination of the *social realm* and sports, the sports-related activities of the local population and civil organisations are in the centre (Major et al., 2014). On the basis of the Eurobarometer public opinion survey regularly prepared for the European Commission on the willingness of the population to engage in sports, significant differences can be observed on the basis of countries, gender, age and education (Perényi, 2011). With respect to the differences between settlements, the results indicate the importance of the type of communities (table 1): in big cities, a larger proportion of frequent engagement in sporting activities can be observed than in villages and rural areas.

Table 1. The frequency of sporting activities on various types of communities in the European Union in 2013 (%)

	rural area or village	small/medium town	large town	EU 28
1 time a week or more	35.9	40.4	41.3	39.1
1 to 3 time a month	4.9	5.5	6.0	5.4
less often	13.1	13.0	12.5	12.9
never	46.1	41.1	40.2	42.6

Source: European Union, 2014

Civil organisations primarily play an important role in the organisation of society's sporting activities (Bács, 2011), and their significance is clearly indicated by the fact that in terms of absolute numbers, they constitute the largest group of the civil sector in Hungary (this meant nearly 12% of the entire sector in 2013). If we examine the characteristics of civil organisations working in the field of sports according to settlement types (table 2), on the one hand we can observe a lower share in the case of Budapest, and an overrepresentation as far as towns other than county seats and other settlements are concerned.

Table 2. The distribution of civil organisations working in the field of sports and all civil organisations according to settlement types in Hungary in 2013 (%)

	Budapest	**county seat**	**non county seat towns**	**villages**	**total**
civil organisations active in the field of sports	18.3	21.7	33.0	27.0	100.0
all civil organisations	24.3	21.0	29.8	24.9	100.0

In the analysis of the *infrastructural realm*, researchers mainly concentrated on the examination of the location of sports facilities. On the basis of the findings, three main types can be differentiating: location in or near the centre, within the

settlement limits, and in the suburbs (Thornley, 2002). The *first type* evolved mainly for historical reasons, since in this case the facility was formerly located on the edge of a settlement at one point, and due to its growth and spatial spreading, the location of the sports facility can be now considered as central. On the other hand, since the 1990s, due to the growing importance of renewing the deteriorated economies of inner cities, mainly in the United States of America, this location has once again come to the foreground (Turner & Rosentraub, 2002; Nelson, 2007).

The *suburban location* became very popular in the United States in the 1960-70s, due to several reasons (Bale, 2003; Barghchi et al., 2009). On the one hand, due to the difficulty of extending/modernising facilities in their existing locations – in line with the decentralisation of the cities in the 1960s – the option of using cheap suburban sites emerged as a matter of course, and economic efficiency was further increased by the fact that the real estates on which the earlier facilities were located could be sold at favourable prices (Chapin, 2000). On the other hand, these sporting facilities were located close to motorways, in well-accessible locations, and there was no danger that they would cause disturbance to those living nearby.

On the European continent, the suburbanisation of sports facilities (primarily football stadiums) gained momentum from the early 1980s, with two factors in the background. First, due to the growing popularity of football, the existing facilities increasingly turned out to be too small, and in order to increase their incomes, football clubs set as an objective the construction of larger facilities. Second, as a consequence of Hillsborough disaster of 1989, increasingly strict regulations were introduced regarding the standards of equipment at the stadiums, and in most cases the new demands could not be satisfied, and as a consequence, suburban sites as an option came to the foreground.

There may be several factors behind the increasingly popular location *within the settlement but at a certain distance from the centre* (Barghchi et al., 2009). On the one hand, this choice may be caused by the fact that at the existing location the necessary modernisation/extension of the facility is not possible; at the same time, however, the team – partly motivated by the desire to stay close to their supporters – does not wish to relocate at a large distance. On the other hand, also in case of newly constructed, larger sports facilities (e.g. investment projects related to Olympic Games), real properties within the city boundaries with good accessibility by way of public transportation also come to the foreground. In both cases, the facilities are often built on deteriorated, earlier industrial locations, with the hopes that the new facility will play the important role of being a catalyst in the renewal of the neighbourhood concerned.

From the point of view of the connection between the *economic realm* and sports it is of outstanding significance to examine the role played by sports in the economic life of the settlements and what characterises the situation of business enterprises working in the field of sports. If we consider the situation in Hungary, we can conclude that companies listing sports as their principal activity are in a more unfavourable situation both in terms of their revenues and the number of employees relative to the average of all businesses. The most important influence on the distribution of the organisations concerned according

to counties are GDP and total domestic revenue, and as a consequence, the most favourable results can be found in Budapest, as well as Pest, Győr-Moson-Sopron, Fejér and Vas counties (KSH, 2014).

The activities of *local authorities* related to sports can be traced back to different reasons. First, the successes of local athletes (here we should primarily think of team sports) may play a very important role in increasing the pride and the positive self-image of those living on the given settlement, and local authorities may use them in the course of their marketing activities. Second, supporting mass sports will improve the health status of the population, and third, sporting events may be a significant source of income for local authorities and local businesses.

The activities of Hungarian local authorities related to sports are fundamentally governed by two groups of legal provisions: those applicable to local authorities on the one hand, and those related to sports on the other hand. Act LXV of 1990 on local authorities listed supporting sports as one of the tasks of local authorities, which function was reinforced by the new law, Act CLXXXIX of 2011 on the local authorities of Hungary. The most important legal provisions on sports (Act LXIV of 1996, Act CXLV of 2000 and Act I of 2004) regulate this area in much more detail, and on the basis of the tasks to be performed, they differentiate between county and settlement-level local authorities, and within the latter group, deal with cities of county rank separately.

The performance/organisation of tasks related to sports within the local authority may take place in different ways: there may be a separate official in charge of this issue within the mayor's/county assembly's office; the local council (or in cities of county rank and county governments, the general council) may establish a separate committee (Kozma & Radics, 2011) that is in charge of this area; they may create local provisions of law in which the principles related to sports are laid down (such as a local sports concept, and in case of settlements with a population less than 10,000, the mandatory sports ordinance); or they may establish a municipally owned company for the performance of the specific tasks (Bukta, 2011).

As far as *sporting events* are concerned, on the basis of their effect on the life of the settlement, two basic types can be identified: closed and public events (Hall, 1992). In the former category we primarily find the training camps that the local population (and even groups who like sports) are usually not very much aware of, and they hardly even affect the everyday life of the settlement. By contrast, in case of public sporting events, the situation is the exact opposite: even those who are not close to sports are aware of their existence in most cases, and they often influence the life of the entire settlement (e.g. the closing of roads due to a running race in the streets).

The examination of the relationship between the individual realms

The effects related to the natural realm

The analysis of the effect of the natural conditions on sports in terms of the differences between settlements, we can conclude that some of the settlements offer more favourable conditions for certain types of sports than others (Bale, 2003; Bánhidi, 2011). In addition to mountainous regions being the primary locations for

winter sports and settlements along rivers for water-based sports, we should definitely mention that from the point of view of training camps, settlements at a higher altitude above sea level enjoy a significant competitive advantage, as do in case of open-air team sports (especially football), in the winter preparation period (Koc, 2005), settlements offering favourable conditions (e.g. the Mediterranean coast of Turkey).

Due to its size, the various parts of a given settlement very rarely offer differing natural conditions, and as a result the relationship between nature and the conditions for sports within a settlement can only be examined with certain limitations. As far as sporting facilities are concerned, it is primarily in case of football fields that such a relationship can be observed: in the designing of such facilities, in most cases special attention is devoted to ensuring that the afternoon sun should not disturb goalkeepers, and therefore, the north-south orientation is preferred over the east-west orientation.

Another important area of the relationship between the natural environment of a settlement and sports is the analysis of the *effect of sports on the natural environment*. In recent decades, several unfavourable phenomena have come to the surface (e.g. the harmful consequences of the use of artificial snow and the use of land for golf courses); at the same time, studies also point out that the idea of environmental sustainability has received insufficient attention among operators of sports facilities (Mallen et al., 2010) and organisers of sporting events (Leopkey & Parent, 2009), and significant progress would still be necessary in this respect.

Effects related to local authorities

The activities of local authorities related to sports may be realised in different forms, and the effects of such activities can be identified in case of several realms. First, the local authority defines the potential spatial configuration of the *sports-related infrastructure* in different urban planning documents (e.g. settlement structure plan), in the course of which special emphasis has been given, for a long time, to questions of accessibility, the location of available free land areas, and the presence of the market of consumers. In addition to the above, an increasing role is also played in recent times by the possibility of linking with existing facilities (Kozma et al., 2014), as a consequence of which we can now observe the emergence of complex sports centres/zones in an increasing number of settlements (e.g. Győr, Debrecen).

Secondly, by way of using different tools (e.g. organising events, operating a local sports school, the development of sports facilities), local authorities may significantly broaden the sporting opportunities available to the *local society*, thereby contributing to the propagation of the ideals of a healthy lifestyle. According to the data the level of satisfaction with actions of local authorities in this field has influence on sport and physical activities of inhabitants: among those dissatisfied with the contribution of local authorities a higher rate of inactivity, while among those formulating a less critical opinion a higher rate and higher frequency of participation was recorded (table 3).

Table 3. Consideration of local authorities' contribution to creating sporting opportunities (%) in the European Union in 2013

	contribution of local authorities (local authority does not do enough for its citizens in relation to sport and physical activities)			
frequency of sport activity	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
1 time a week or more	39.6	37.0	41.9	46.0
1 to 3 time a month	5.8	5.5	5.7	5.9
less often	12.0	14.1	14.0	11.4
never	42.6	43.5	38.4	36.7
total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: European Union, 2014

Thirdly, local governments also play an important role in the *financing of the local sports life*, with respect to which researchers have established several categories (Gyömöri, 2014):

-financial support given to companies engaged in various activities related to sports;

-support for the organising of sporting events (direct financial aid or the possibility of using sports facilities owned by the local authority free of charge);

-support for non-profit organisations engaged in sports-related activities;

-financing sports-related developments.

Examining the effects of the individual realms, we can conclude that *sporting events* also have an influence on the activities of local authorities, and sporting events may generate income directly (in the form of tourism tax) or indirectly (by way of the local business tax of the companies participating in the organisation of the sporting events) for the local authorities. The *sports facilities* constructed often fulfil an important role in the development of a given part of a settlement, and in relying on them the local authorities may successfully apply to host subsequent events as well. In addition to the above, both sporting events and sports facilities may constitute important elements of the *marketing activities* of the local authority (Rein & Shields, 2007; Kozma, 2010), the purpose of which is to contribute to the image of a dynamic city capable of satisfying a variety of demands.

Interactions between the social, economic and infrastructural realms

The three lateral sides of the truncated pyramid are connected to each other by way of multiple threads. Local society, non-profit organisations and businesses active in the field of sports are users of sports facilities, and accordingly, it can be observed in several cases that entities in the latter two categories are also the owners or operators of the sports facilities.

In terms of the interaction between the *infrastructure and the economy*, the most important question was how sports facilities influence the economic lives of cities. For a long time, the opinion has dominated among researchers (e.g. Baade, 1996; Zimbalist, 1998) that sports facilities have no significant positive economic

influence, and that no measurable effect on job creation or the increase of personal income or local tax revenue can be attributed to them.

In the new millennium, however, changes occurred from two points of view. On the one hand, some of the researchers have pointed out that the earlier analyses were based on surveys examining sports facilities with peripheral or suburban location. By contrast, from the 1990s, primarily in the United States, an increasing role is played by facilities located in the inner parts of cities, often within the CBD, which are architecturally novel, also function as tourist sights and play an organic part of the renewal of the inner cities. In the case of these sports facilities, a significant economic effect can, in fact, be observed (Nelson, 2007).

On the other hand, an increasing number of studies have addressed the non-economic, and therefore less measurable effects of the new facilities. These include the changes in the self-confidence and pride of the local population, the role of the facilities in the modification of the image of individual settlements, and in the opinion of the researchers, some favourable processes can be observed in this respect (Davies, 2006).

One of the possible areas of inquiry into the relationship between the *infrastructure and the social realm* is the analysis of the sites where the population can engage in sports and other physical activities, in which field in significant differences between the settlements types within the European Union can only be observed in a few cases (table 4). Such activities being performed at home is mainly typical in villages, while in case of large cities, the importance of activities tied to fitness centres is above the average.

Table 4. The sites where the population engages in sports and other physical activities in case of various settlement types in the European Union (%)

	at home	at a health or fitness centre	at a sports centre	on the way between home and school or work
rural area or village	42	11	6	22
small/medium town	34	15	9	26
large town	31	21	9	28
EU 28	36	15	8	25

Source: European Union, 2014

The other side of the relationship between infrastructure and the social realm is how the events concerned (and the sports facilities serving as their location) influence society. Relying on the increasingly widespread notion of NIMBY (Not In My BackYard), for a long time the perception that dominated was that due to the various unfavourable effects (e.g. the appearance of crowdedness, garbage and noise, disturbances accompanying the events), the sports facilities cause the value of real properties to decrease.

However, in the decade after 2000, a significant part of the empirical research projects carried out in various countries and cities (e.g. Tu, 2005; Ahlfeldt & Maenning, 2008) came to the exact opposite conclusion. The appearance of sports facilities had a positive effect on the value of real properties, in the background of which we can identify the leisure and entertainment opportunities offered by the

infrastructural development following the construction of such facilities, as well as those offered by the new facility itself.

The relationship between sporting events and the individual realms

The relationship between the natural environment and local authorities in terms of sporting events was discussed above, and therefore, we will not deal with these two areas in the following.

The relationship between *sporting events and the infrastructure* is very clear: facilities serve as the venues for the local sporting events, and it can observed in several cases that the behind the construction of a given facility is the purpose to serve as a venue for some larger event (this is primarily true for Olympic Games, as well as for European and world championships in football, but the primary purpose for which the Főnix Hall in Debrecen was erected was also to provide a location for the gymnastics world championship in 2002). Recently, however, it has been a problem on several occasions that the rate of utilisation of the facilities constructed for a larger event (e.g. the Athens and the Beijing Olympic Games, or the European Football Championship in Portugal) decreased to a very low level after the event, and their maintenance consumed considerable amounts. In the interest of avoiding such a situation, various methods are used these days.

At the professionalized era of sport the national sport associations determine the requirements for the sports-related facilities. These buildings have shorter amortization period due to their intensive usage and have to be rebuilt or renovate in every 30-40 years. More emphasis is placed on the construction of multifunctional facilities; moreover the possibility for reducing the capacity of the facilities concerned after the event is also created; and finally, an attempt is made to curb excessively large-volume constructions. As the National Olympic Committee's acknowledged "Agenda 2020" program expresses, sport events in the future will be held in an economic and reasonable environment. This program gives the opportunity for smaller countries and capitals to organize the Olympic Games with lower budgets. As Hungary is 9th at the race between the all-time medallists, the country has the sports-professional background and reason for organizing such a worldwide event.

The analysis of *the effect of sporting events on the economic life of the settlement* hosting them is one of the most important areas of sports-related research projects, which is also perhaps the one that the public is most interested in. In this topic the analyses that have attracted most attention are those related to Olympic Games, which address the economic benefit of the games as well as the exaggeration of the assumed multiplier effect (Preuss, 2004). At the same time, attention is also called to the importance of examining the long-term effects (e.g. new infrastructural facilities also serving the interests of the city) of the events (Gratton & Preuss, 2008), the inaccuracies of preliminary estimates of costs (Matheson & Baade, 2006), as well as to the fact that major differences can be observed between larger and smaller-scale events (O'Brien, 2007).

From the point of view of *the relationship between sporting events and the social realm*, one of the most important topics is the willingness of the population to

participate at the events as spectators. According to the research projects (e.g. Turco et al., 2003), from among the various socio-economic characteristics of the population, it is the effect of the age distribution and educational attainment that can emphasised most: participation at sporting events can be observed with much bigger frequency among younger people, and this is also true for those with higher levels of educational attainment, and in case of sporting events held in Hungary on settlements other than one's own, also for those living in Budapest (Kozma et al., 2014).

Conclusions

I think that we have managed to prove convincingly that there are lots of interactions between different realms of settlements and sports and in this way my article will inspire further researches in this area.

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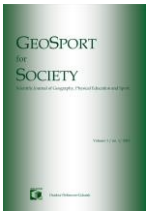

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Sports and Physical Education – Forms of Socialization

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Abstract. Sport and physical activity can provide an appropriate environment for socialization, but it cannot guarantee, however, in a categorical sense (either positively, or negatively) this fact. This is extremely difficult to follow, since it develops on a long period of time. Perhaps there is no causal explanation of the link between the socialization process and physical activity and the fact that practicing physical exercise automatically leads to socialization. In this context, a number of authors have shown some effects of socialization as a result of sports activity, although the topic of socialization through sports is extremely complex. Sports (sports results, specifically) captures people's attention, exerting a tremendous force of social attraction (ex. large reunions in public markets in cases of won football matches). Sports activities influence in a way or another almost all individuals. Sport is present everywhere in contemporary society. With such amplitude it must have a social role, reflecting a number of norms and values present in society and developing, at the same time, specific skills, knowledge, norms and values. The purpose of this essay is to review the specific literature and to highlight the influence of sports on socialization. I will discuss general and methodological concepts basic in the approach of socialization through sports. This environment can include a number of categories (athletes, coaches, managers, fans, etc.), which will determine answers regarding *how* and *with what effect* individuals get to be involved in sports.

Keywords: sport, physical activity, socialization, forms of socialization

Introduction

"When we refer to work efficiency it is impossible not to have in mind all of the aspects which can make people be better, have the pleasure of being at the work

place, be motivated enough in order to achieve all the specific objectives of the Sport organizations" (Dragoş, 2015).

"For a significant segment of population of all ages ... sport seems to be an integral part of everyday life by involving people as participants, spectators, through specific readings and conversations with friends or acquaintances" (Coakley, 1990). It is highlighted a specific dynamism and a daily presence of sport activity. This activity is carried out by individuals who are part of social life. They relate, creating the premises of the fact that "...socialization is a scientific construct that describes a segment of reality which cannot be observed directly for descriptive and analytical purposes. Socialization is an object of investigation which exists in reality, but it cannot be materially perceived" (Hurrelman, 1988).

The term of socialization has been accepted among scientific community only in the second half of the 19th century, being introduced by the French sociologist, Durkheim. A number of other authors have addressed this issue by establishing various theories. A definition of socialization that tries to encompass this complexity is formulated by Hurrelman: "Socialization ... is the process of occurrence, formation and development of human personality in dependence and interaction with the human body, on one hand, and with the conditions of social and ecological existence at a certain point of historical development of society, on the other hand" (Hurrelman, 1988). The concept of socialization provides a wide area of action with a multidisciplinary character. The process of socialization should be approached outside theoretical perspective, that is not the most suitable in order to analyze this mechanism. McPherson (1986) states that "... during infancy and early childhood, the functional perspective that uses social and cognitive development theories may be the most suitable to explain the process, while for ages with social content, teens to adulthood, more suitable are conflict and interaction perspectives". By addressing theoretical perspectives, we can highlight a number of common elements. A defining element is that socialization is not possible without being consistent with a certain type of behavior, attitudes and values. Another important element is that learning takes place in a social frame, being influenced by the presence of other social actors; also, socialization is a complex process of interaction that plays an important role in social integration, establishing social links between individuals and groups.

Sport, as a concept represents a very broad concept, even though most who use the term, think that they manage it. The word *sport* encompasses so many meanings, thus it is extremely difficult to find a precise and singular definition. It cannot be defined by a single concept. "The spatial analysis studies of sports have in many cases a multidisciplinary character by completing and consolidating the scientific endeavor with issues and methods specific to other domains" (Ilieş et al., 2014). In the context of socialization it is important to identify common elements of sports activities, affecting the socialization process. At the same time, the notion of *physical activity* is much broader than sport, being the basis of all activities of individuals. Therefore, when we refer to this concept, we will approach it under the circumstances of physical activity that are related to sports movement. Sport will be regarded as an institutionalized physical activity, with elements of competition, where the physical and psychical performance is ultimately important, and the

participation is governed by rules that have their roots in official sports organization (Coakley, 1990). In this sense, we identify as basic components of sport, the physical and psychical performance, rules, institutionalization and competition. It is more and more obvious the interaction between sport and society. Sport, as social phenomenon, must always be understood and explained in its historical, political, economic, social and cultural context. Moreover, "... the history of sport is a relatively independent history, which even marked by major social and historical events, has its own pace, its laws of evolution, its crises, in short, its specific chronology" (Bourdieu, 1978). Within the social framework (including in sport) we will always encounter conflicts of ideas between individuals and groups of individuals. This conflict will generate the context for the emergence of a sport culture. This culture oriented sports towards competition, discovering its great potential in the process of socialization and development of social behavior (Engstrom, 1989). Sport is a well-defined social framework, governed by strict regulations and precise rules; sport offers a way of learning and applying the rules in practice. In children (Martens, 1986), we observe their involvement in sport from a very young age, when they see rules as absolute and permanent, perceiving physical activity as being very rigid. As children grow, they change their perceptions, having a more evolved approach regarding sports activity, which leads to emphasizing the social component of sports experience.

Socialization is an extremely broad term, a concept within which occur countless interactions and social connections developed over a long period of time. Having this temporal expansion, it is difficult to track events that occur. Therefore, in order to quantify them, it is necessary sampling the subjects or phenomena. Cokley (1990) emphasizes that the use of preferential samples (e.g. formed only by professional athletes, or only by individual sports) leads to the exclusion of other forms of sports manifestation. We note that the study of socialization is quite difficult, often appearing uncertainties. We note that the study of socialization is quite difficult, often appearing uncertainties. In fact, a while ago, researchers stated that "... there is very little data available that participation in sport could be an important or essential element in the process of socialization, or that involvement in sport directly determines learning or leads to learning of skills that could not be acquired in another social environment" (Loy et al., 1978). Regardless of research results, sport has become a state policy, governments using it to strengthen the nation. Being widely practiced, sport continues to promote numerous values.

Socialization through sports and physical activity

Involvement in sport

As shown in the literature, it is evident the influence that sport and physical activity exerts on social framework. People are starting to practice sports due to some *needs*, *motivations* of certain objective, but also due to the *desire to socialize*. This last component emphasizes the needs and motivation, making individuals independent and possessors of skills that may become more and more complex (Patriksson, 1988). The content of socialization is important because it influences

the direction in which sport practitioners try to obtain satisfaction (e.g. whether or not sport becomes important for them).

The importance of integrating sociological factors in the context of socialization was evidenced also by Brustard (1992), who states that "the research of socialization and motivation in sport must go hand in hand."

Currently, sociological studies approach summary the relationship between *socialization* influences and *motivation* in sport. Psychological analysis regarding sport addresses the linkages between practitioners` psychological processes and motivation for physical activity. Greendorfer (1992) considers that sports` psychologists are retained in what regards incorporating existing research into a unitary vision on the socialization process.

In recent years, an important concern in sport psychology was *motivation for participation*. More specifically, finding motivation elements that determine individuals to practice a sport or a physical activity. The results of researchers like Ryckman and Hamel (1992) present a series of motivations that lead people to practice sport activity. We can mention the taste for competition, the company of friends, getting fit, entertainment, taste of victory, etc.

There are few studies that have addressed the reasons for practicing sport by age. Biddle (1992) believes that "teamwork" and "the taste for competition" are not so important for elderly people, while "social status" is extremely important for teenagers. "Participation in order to please the loved ones" exists mainly among children, while "fun" is considered important for young people and adults. Motivation regarding "health" or "physical condition" is present for all ages. These results show that motives for sports` practicing are different depending on age. Furthermore, it is proposed to be amended "the way in which advertising and marketing is being done for physical activity according to age groups and genders, fact that applies also to the distinction between competitive sport and recreational exercise. Often, an equality sign is placed between exercise and sport. Doing so, is possible that many of the potential exercise amateurs give up physical activity because of lack of motivation for sport`s image" (Biddle, 1992).

Among youth, a crucial motivation for practicing sport is given by the prospect of professional development (Nicholls, 1984). "...The sport movement, diversified as type and form, generates local, regional or worldwide activities through the manifestation which through the manifestation manner and location produces benefits and development for the Humane Society (Ilieş et al., 2014). Another motivation given by the competition is formulated by Harter (1981), which states that individuals have an inner attraction for competition. He highlights three crucial areas: *cognitive* (school), *physical* (sport) and *social* (relationships with other individuals). Hartner suggests that people who consider themselves competent in some respects, will perform in those areas and people that do not believe themselves to have control upon certain things, will not practice that activity.

Socialization through sport

Research regarding socialization through sport revealed a fundamental premise that indicates that individual`s motor baggage is inoperative unless

individuals come into contact with a social environment where they can practice a particular sport. Research took two directions: conducted on elite adult athletes, and regarding children and youth (Greedorfe & Ewing, 1981). Investigations regarding elite adult athletes show that they have started practicing sport from an early age (6-7 years). Also, many adults have started practicing sport in areas different from those in which they performed and they were encouraged by influential people from the social environmental: family, friends etc. These facts reveal a very rich social activity, individuals gaining a vast experience. Studies conducted on children show similar trends. However, there is clear evidence that the immediate social environment (daily used) is an important factor on the degree of involvement in sport. Not in all environments there is a positive influence in supporting physical activity (Patriksson, 1988).

Observing the principles of social learning, researchers found a positive relationship between the amount and type of social support that comes from influential people from the social environment, on one hand, and the degree of involvement in sport, on the other hand.

Another determinant component is related to the education level of those who practice sports in their relationships with other members of society. Individuals with a more pronounced cultural openness are more sociable (Allison, 1982).

Unfortunately, in recent years we observed a decline in physical activity among children. Even if they are legitimated at sports clubs and take part in training and competition, sports activity decreased significantly (Engstrom, 1989). Also in schools is an accentuated decrease in the number of hours of physical education. All these are also connected to an obvious lack of physical culture. In this context, is important to mobilize all resources in order to increase the interest for practicing sport for all categories of individuals. Habits related to physical activity are learned in childhood, which results in further involvement of the adult in practicing sport (Greendorfer, 1992).

Socialization by means of sport

This component of socialization includes a wide range of reactions: from learning motor skills, to the acquisition of social values and norms.

Individuals socialized through sport can improve or not their personality development through the social environment in which they are active. Sport has the ability to generate positive or negative consequences. "Socialization by means of sport was treated as a subject completely detached from the socialization through sport. Most research on the positive or negative consequences of involvement in sport did not take into account to what extent those consequences can be linked to the manner, nature and type of supported influences, which explains what happens during socialization in physical activity" (Greendorfer 1992).

A premise underlying the socialization by means of sport is that *playing* and *games* are important ingredients of the socialization process, helping individuals acquire complex social skills (Sage, 1986). It may be helpful, states (Chalip et al., 1984) to ask what kind of feelings, conditions and motivations do sports generate:

"it can be argues that the sum of discrete, immediate experiences is as important, or even more important, than long term effects".

Another hypothesis which supports socialization by means of sport indicates that *fun* and *pleasure* are important motivations for the involvement of youth in sports. Adults (parents and coaches) have an important impact on the *pleasure* felt by young athletes. Scanlan and Lewthwaite (1986) observed that youth sports activity induces satisfaction among parents and a positive interaction with adults. As a result of his research, Wankel (1990) concluded that: "analyzing the accumulated research about fun and pleasure in sports, although many of the methods of analysis and evaluation can be criticized and considered questionable under the aspect of reliability and validity, the consistency of results is impressive … The ability and the perceived competence, the real incentive effect of the assignment and an encouraging environment are very important for the pleasure of sport".

The concept of *fair play* and moral behavior are also supporting the idea of socialization by means of sport. There are several theoretical approaches regarding moral behavior in sport. In a series of studies, Smith (1983) showed that violence in different sports is often the result of imitating prior experience (hockey, handball, etc). When children, athletes have other values, but as they grow up, they observe seniors` behavior which they imitate. Violence present in some sports made it to become normal for that sport (getting into those sports` culture). The danger arises when this culture becomes a model behavior (Smith, 1983).

A study conducted by Pilz (1992) on fair play events manifested by German football players, shows that, with age, players tend to violate the rules in order to subordinate their victory. Based on these data, Pilz concludes that a sports club can be a very effective agent of socialization, in order to develop fair play. Wandzilak et al. (1988) also provide evidence that athletes trained in this spirit have improved their moral and sporting behavior.

Conclusions

The present analysis is the result of literature review. In recent years, there is a deeper concern regarding the study of the process of socialization through sport. If in the past the effects of practicing sport were considered to be negative, nowadays, due to the dynamics of social development, but also to the increase in the level of education, sports` practicing is seen to have positive components. Values acquired in sport are now transferred also on daily activities.

Practicing sports does not automatically lead to positive results, but specific motor skills are acquired exclusively through sports` practice. In fact, studies show that training is a factor for performance improvement, as in all other activities.

Research has shown that socialization can occur also in sports activity context. Its effects are not always the best. Differences occur due to the value of each personal judgment. Some appreciate value by achieving a personal goal, others appreciate cooperation and mutual support at the expense of performance. Both approaches can be positive, being directly influenced by the social environment. What we learn will certainly be modified by the direct influence of individual experience. Types of experiences change depending on the situation (club

organization, organizational tradition, sports` culture etc) and are influenced by determinant individuals from the immediate environment (parents, coaches etc).

For children, forms of social interaction are more important than the type of sports activity. They put more emphasis on fulfilling their task, and not the result, and on realizing the purpose of training.

The relationship between sport and morality should be strengthened and developed. It is observed that with age, the violation of norms is more pronounced, as an immediate aim in achieving results. Sports environment imposes different opinions concerning morality, according to the culture of each sport (boxing, hockey, etc). It is noted that the leader of an organization is the one who marks the development direction for moral values. Through his or her pedagogy, one can inoculate the idea of fair play, a highly promoted concept in society. In this context, greater attention should be paid to the training of teachers and coaches.

Following the research conducted on socialization, it appears that the majority of sports and physical activity can contribute to a better physical, mental, psychological and social state among children, youth and adults. In a sedentary society, sports become more and more important as a socializing environment, in promoting primary motor skills that are necessary for a healthy life.

The effects of socialization through sports will be stronger for those who engage themselves in sports for longer periods of time and with more intensity.

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Romanian university sports-cultural landscape defined by the sportive space determined by national competitions (in 2015) in team sports

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Abstract. The spatial analysis of sports competitions can be accomplished according to sports branch, specific infrastructure elements and the teams trained in competitions. By limits, geographic position, structure and dynamics, such an area is defining in outlining a type of university cultural-sportive landscape. In the case of this study, through specific analysis methods, tried in the specialty literature, our purpose is to analyze the spatial impact of team sports through the static component – infrastructure and the dynamic one – sports clubs (teams). The analysis may target especially the age group, gender group, the environment, amateur or professional level, etc. At the level of the Romanian political space, the present study will reflect from territorial point of view the relationship between the dynamic and static components at the level of the year 2015, on 7 branches with team sports, amateurs, professionals, which represent the university environment. The purpose is to outline the role of university sports in the unit of the Romanian sports through quantifiable elements, useful in the spatial planning and organization strategies.

Keywords: Spatial analysis, sport space, infrastructure, dynamic component-teams

Introduction

In the spatial planning and organization, the structural component has a major role and it is usually reflected in the final result. In the case of this study, we shall analyze the university sportive movement in Romania through two basic structural components: a static one – infrastructure and a dynamic one – sports clubs and

teams. The relationship between the two components, measurable under quantitative aspect-number and qualitative aspect-performance level, is analyzed structurally through the support component – the university environment, and dynamically through the competitional level of representation. Defining and implementing new concepts such as cultural-sportive landscape and sportive space (Ilieş et al., 2014) may lead to many meanings certificated in the specialty literature (Bale, 1994; Augustin, 2007; Maguire, 1995; Cazelais et al., 2000; Ilieş & Josan, 2009; Ielenicz & Comănescu, 2013; Conner, 2014) and based on results of different study case (Bale & Vertinsky, 2004; Gaffney, 2008; Ahlfeldt & Maenning, 2010; Cho at al., 2012; Ostojic et al., 2013; Zarrilli & Brito, 2013). Together with the spatial component and its functions, we shall try to outline and define the sportive space as perceived space, extracting in the end the generalizing example, abnormalities, analogies, etc (Hagget, 1990; Cocean, 2002). Defining a cultural landscape with sportive valences also derives from its structure: "anthropic elements, natural elements (physical support) and derived elements" (Cocean & David, 2014, 35). Defining a type of cultural sportive landscape marked by continuous changes and adjustments to the demands of the anthropic component at the level of infrastructural diversity, fits the category of animated evolutional cultural landscapes (Giulianotti, 1999; Voiculescu & Creţan, 2005; Bandarin, 2007; Hallinan & Jackson, 2008; Kozma et al., 2014; Gaceu et al., 2015). In the case of a cultural sportive landscape, the products of anthropic intervention are the result of a certain type of culture and in the case of the current study, culturalization refers to the sports activity at university environment level. Thus, culturalization is achieved through sportive activity and the specific and related infrastructure elements, "through them, the landscape role and functions being dictated by their ampleness, diversity, physiognomy, evolution (dynamics), their significance and durability" (Cocean & David, 2014, 35).

Methodology and tools

Starting from the purpose and objectives of this study, first a data base will be created, manageable through GIS (Rooney & Pillsbury, 1992; Favretto, 2005; Augustin, 2008; Wendt, 2011; Zale & Bandana, 2012; Gaffney, 2014; Ilieş et al., 2014). Statistical information is gathered related to all university clubs and associations in Romania which participate with teams to national competitions in the competitional year 2014/2015. Using analysis methods and tools tested in the specialty literature (Coteţ & Nedelcu, 1976; Ianoş, 2000; DeChano & Shelley, 2006; Ilieş M., 2007; Dehoorne et al., 2010; Ilieş et al., 2012; Conner, 2014; Gaffney, 2014, Ilieş & al., 2014; Kozma, 2014; Wendt, 2014), the final purpose is to answer the questions *where, why* and *what is the perspective?* The statistics and cartographic methods are the basic ones and the final product which can be used in the spatial planning and organization will be a thematic map (Muehrcke, 1986; Mathieu & Praicheux, 1987; Bale, 1993; Bale & Dejonghe, 2008; Hall, 2008; Bailey, 2009; Slocum et al., 2009; Wendt, 2012; Ilieş D.C. et al., 2013; Ilieş A. et. al., 2015). "The perceived space" (Cocean, 2002, 53) will play an important role in this study as it is the reflection of community image about the sportive space limits and structure,

reflected at sensorial and mental level. It can be combined with"the lived space" (Cocean, 2002, 54) due to the consistency of the anthropic material. Such a space turned anthropic contributes fully to the determination of a cultural-sportive landscape by the fact that "the products of anthropic intervention become first, constituting its essence" (Cocean & David, 2014, 34). According to the classifications in the specialty literature (Committee of World Heritage), the cultural sportive landscape finds its place into the category of landscape intentionally conceived and created by people (Bandarin, 2007; Cocean & David, 2014). Equally, together with the specific infrastructure, sports, through its manifestation forms and its effects upon community (Bale & Vertinsky, 2004; Ilieș D. et al., 2011, Maguire, 2014), is the direct or indirect beneficiary of elements and infrastructure belonging to other activity domains (Bale, 2003; Castaldini, 2008; Gaffney, 2013; Kozma et al., 2014; Pop, 2014). Another important element in analyzing and defining a type of cultural-sportive landscape is the aesthetic and functional integration of sports complexes into the integrating anthropic or natural environment (Bale, 1982; Bale, 1998; Thornley, 2002; Castaldini et al., 2005).

Data base

The data gathered from the information sources refer to all sports branches with team sports existing in 2015, reflecting an economic and social system specific to a market economy of West-European type. The analyzed sports branches are: basketball, football, handball, ice-hockey, rugby, volleyball and water-polo. The infrastructure elements are the stadiums and own sports halls or those belonging to the public domain from the localities where the universities or their subsidiaries are. Logically, the localities where there are such sportive activities should identify themselves with university centers or their subsidiaries. In spatial analysis and representation of data (Beguin & Pumain, 2010), the difference will be provided by the number of teams, respectively by their performances, fact which may or may not be directly related to the size of the university center.

Typology

Different typologies used in specialty literature (Voiculescu & Creţan, 2005; Brabyn, 2009; Calcatinge, 2013; Cocean & David, 2014) are important in our research to create a special type of cultural landscape connected with university sports. The defining criterion of such a cultural-sportive space is typologically determined by the university environment and institutionally by the name of the university club and of the residence locality and at an inferior level, within the above, there will be additionally applied criteria of functional, structural and mental type. Once the spaces are outlined, we shall be able to notice the importance of such a delimitation in the systemic functionality of a locality and of the delimitation of such a cultural-sportive landscape. Usually, the infrastructure elements are grouped, generating sports complexes (fig.1) or can be isolated as it is the case of football stadiums (fig. 2a-c).

Figure 1. The Sports Complex including the Swimming Pool *Gheorghe Demeca* and outdoor swimming pool, the Sports Hall *Lascăr Pană* and the Rugby Arena *Lascăr Ghineț* from Baia Mare (where plays *Știința* rugby team) *(image sources: https://www.google.ro/maps, 2015)*

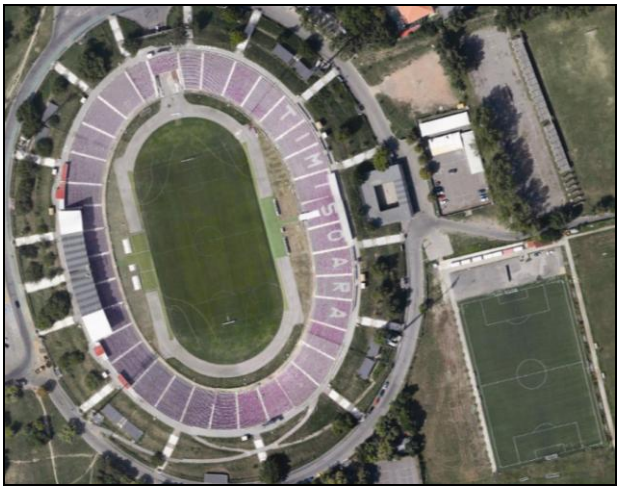

Figure 2a. The Football Complex Stadium *Dan Păltinișan* from Timișoara, where plays ACS Poli Timișoara football team (First Romanian League) *(data sources: https://www.google.ro/maps, 2015)*

Figure 2b. University of Oradea. The Sports Complex Stadium where plays the football university team FC Universitatea (IVth Romanian League)
(data sources: https://www.google.ro/maps, 2015)

Figure 2c. The Sport Complex Stadium *Politehnica* located in the campus of Politehnica University from Timișoara, where plays the football university team ASU Poli Timișoara (Third Romanian League)
(data sources: https://www.google.ro/maps, 2015)

In 2015, there are registered 52 university centers – localities with public and private universities which can be structured as follows (table1; fig.3):

A.) University centers with headquarters of state and private universities 22: Alba-Iulia, Arad, Bacău, Brașov, București, Cluj-Napoca, Constanța, Craiova, Galați, Iași, Lugoj, Oradea, Petroșani, Pitești, Ploiești, Reșița, Sibiu, Suceava, Târgoviște, Târgu Jiu, Târgu Mureș, Timișoara. Seven of them are identified with one university.

B.) University centers, branches of those in the first category: Bucureşti (Călimăneşti, Buzău, Drobeta Turnu-Severin, Focşani, Piatra Neamţ, Sibiu), Cluj-Napoca (Alba Iulia, Baia Mare, Bistriţa, Blaj, Gheorgheni, Năsăud, Odorheiu-Secuiesc, Oradea, Piatra Neamţ, Satu Mare, Sfântu Gheorghe, Sibiu, Sighetu-Marmaţiei, Târgu Mureş, Târgu Secuiesc, Vatra Dornei, Zalău), Craiova (Drobeta Turnu-Severin), Galaţi (Brăila), Iaşi (Botoşani, Piatra Neamţ), Oradea (Beiuş), Piteşti (Alexandria, Câmpulung Muscel, Râmnicu-Vâlcea, Slatina), Reşiţa (Caransebeş), Timişoara (Hunedoara, Lugoj).

Table 1. The functional structure of the Romanian university system and its components
(data sources: www.edu.ro, 2015; www.insse.ro, 2015)

no	University Center	No. of universities	Name of universities (official name in Romanian)	University Sport Club
1	Alba Iulia	1	Universitatea "1 Decembrie 1918"	CSU
2	Arad	1	Universitatea "Aurel Vlaicu"	CSU
		2	*Universitatea de Vest "Vasile Goldiş" (Baia Mare, Marghita, Satu Mare, Sebiş, Zalău)*	*1*
3	Bucureşti	1	Universitatea Politehnica	2 CSU
		2	Universitatea Tehnică de Construcţii	
		3	Universitatea de Arhitectură şi Urbanism "Ion Mincu"	
		4	Universitatea de Ştiinţe Agronomice şi Medicină Veterinară	
		5	Universitatea	
		6	Universitatea de Medicină şi Farmacie "Carol Davila"	
		7	Academia de Studii Economice	
		8	Universitatea Naţională de Muzică	
		9	Universitatea Naţională de Arte	
		10	Universitatea Naţională de Artă Teatrală şi Cinematografie "I.L. Caragiale"	
		11	Universitatea Naţională de Educaţie Fizică şi Sport	
		12	Şcoala Naţională de Studii Politice şi Administrative	
		13	Academia Tehnică Militară	
		14	Universitatea Naţională de Apărare "Carol I"	
		15	Academia Naţională de Informaţii "Mihai Viteazu"	
		16	Academia de Poliţie "Alexandru Ioan Cuza"	
		17	*Universitatea Creştină "Dimitrie Cantemir" (Braşov, Cluj, Sibiu, Timişoara, Constanţa,*	
		18	*Universitatea "Titu Maiorescu" (Tg Jiu)*	
		19	*Universitatea "Nicolae Titulescu"*	
		20	*Universitatea Româno-Americană*	
		21	*Universitatea "Hyperion"*	
		22	*Universitatea "Spiru Haret" (Braşov, Constanţa, Câmpulung Muscel, Craiova, Râmnicu-Vâlcea)*	
		23	*Universitatea "Bioterra" (Alexandria, Buzău, Focşani, Slobozia)*	
		24	*Universitatea Ecologică*	
		25	*Universitatea Română de Ştiinţe şi Arte "Gheorghe Asachi"*	
		26	*Universitatea "Athenaeum"*	
		27	*Universitatea "Artifex"*	
		28	*Institutul Teologic Romano-Catolic*	
		29	*Institutul Teologic Penticostal*	
4	Bacău	1	Universitatea "Vasile Alecsandri"	CSU
		2	*Universitatea "George Bacovia"*	
5	Braşov	1	Universitatea "Transilvania"	CSU
		2	Academia Forţelor Aeriene "Henri Coandă"	
		3	*Universitatea "George Barițiu"*	
6	Cluj-Napoca	1	Universitatea tehnică	CSU

	Napoca	2	Univ de Ştiinţe Agronomice şi Medicină Veterinară	
		3	Universitatea "Babeş-Bolyai"	
		4	Universitatea de Medicină şi Farmacie "Iuliu Haţeganu"	
		5	Academia de Muzică "Gheorghe Dima"	
		6	Universitatea de Artă şi Design	
		7	*Universitatea "Avram Iancu"*	
		8	*Universitatea "Bogdan Vodă" (Timişoara)*	
		9	*Institutul Teologic Protestant*	
		10	*Universitatea "Sapienţia" (Mirecurea Ciuc, Târgu Mureş)*	
7	Constanţa	1	Universitatea "Ovidius"	CSU
		2	Universitatea Maritimă	
		3	Academia Navală "Mircea cel Bătrân"	
		4	*Universitatea "Andrei Şaguna"*	
8	Craiova	1	Universitatea	CSU
		2	Universitatea de Medicină şi Farmacie	
9	Galaţi	1	Universitatea "Dunărea de Jos"	CSU
		2	*Universitatea "Danubius"*	
10	Iaşi	1	Universitatea Tehnică "Gheorghe Asachi"	CSU
		2	Universitatea de Ştiinţe Agricole şi Medicină Veterinară "Ion Ionescu de la Brad"	
		3	Universitatea "Al. I. Cuza"	
		4	Universitatea de Medicină şi Farmacie "Gr. T. Popa"	
		5	Universitatea de Arte "George Enescu"	
		6	*Universitatea "Petre Andrei"*	
11	*Lugoj*	*1*	*Universitatea Europeană "Drăgan"*	
12	Oradea	1	Universitatea	CSU
		2	*Universitatea "Agora"*	
		3	*Universitatea "Emanuel"*	
		4	*Universitatea Creştină "Parţium"*	1
13	Petroşani	1	Universitatea	CSU
14	Piteşti	1	Universitatea	CSU
		2	*Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" (Brăila, Râmnicu-Vâlcea)*	
15	Ploieşti	1	Universitatea Petrol-Gaze	CSU
16	Reşiţa	1	Universitatea "Eftimie Murgu"	CSU
17	Sibiu	1	Universitatea "Lucian Blaga"	CSU
		2	Academia Forţelor Terestre "Nicolae Bălcescu"	
		3	*Universitatea "Româno-Germană"*	
18	Suceava	1	Universitatea "Ştefan cel Mare"	CSU
19	Târgovişte	1	Universitatea "Valahia"	CSU
20	Târgu Jiu	1	Universitatea "Constantin Brâncuşi"	
21	Târgu Mureş	1	Universitatea "Petru Maior"	CSU
		2	Universitatea de Medicină şi Farmacie	
		3	Universitatea de Arte	
		4	*Universitatea "Dimitrie Cantemir"*	
22	Timişoara	1	Universitatea Politehnica	2 CSU
		2	Universitatea de Ştiinţe Agricole şi Medicină Veterinară a Banatului "Regele Mihai I al României"	
		3	Universitatea de Vest	
		4	Universitatea de Medicină şi Farmacie "Victor Babeş"	
		5	*Universitatea "Tibiscus"*	

Notes: Universitatea de Arte – state university
Universitatea "Tibiscus" –private university

Quantitatively, an important role as selection area and, implicitly, representation potential, is also played by the number of students per university center (fig. 3).

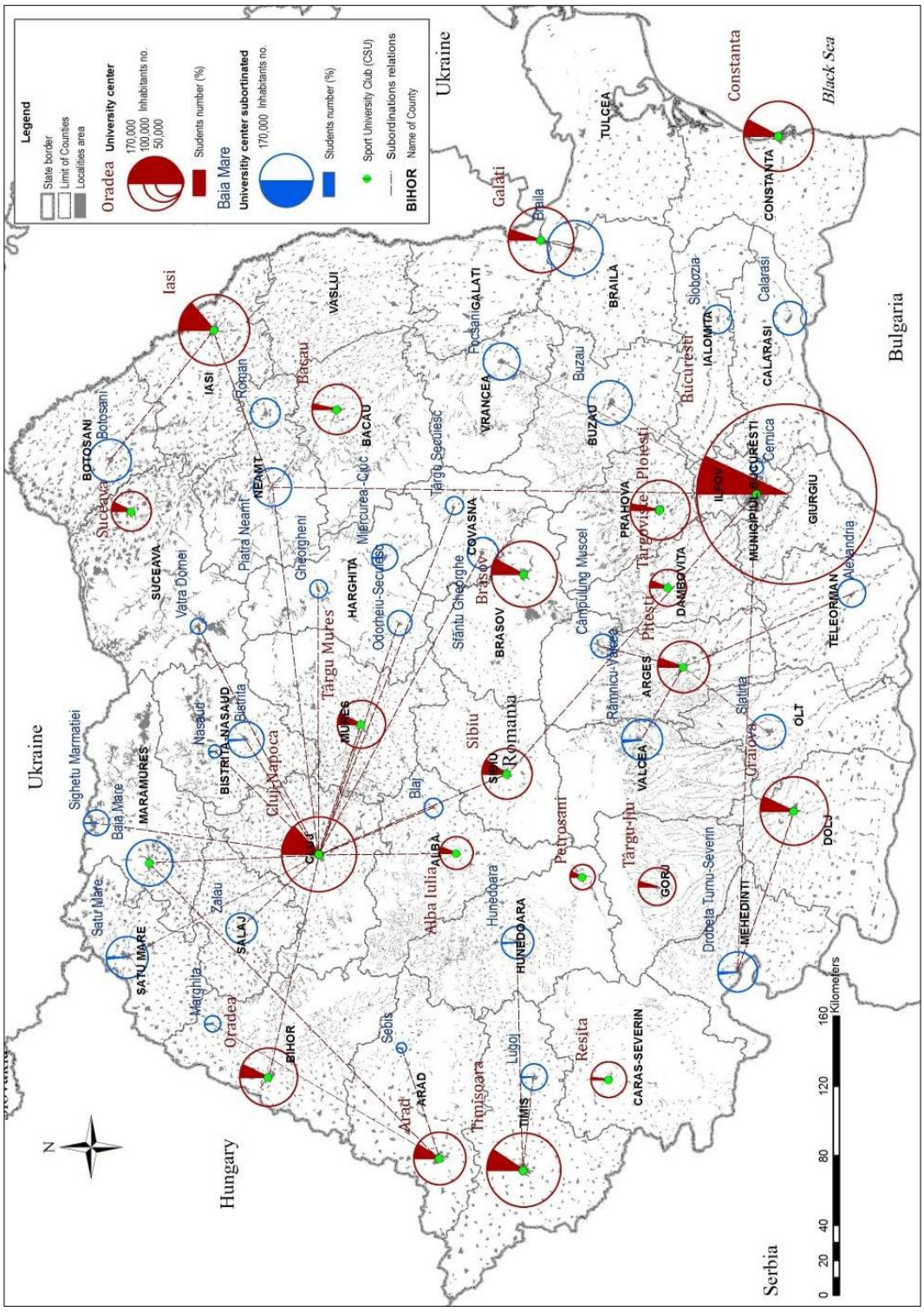

Figure 4. The functional structure of the Romanian university system and its components including University Sports Clubs (CSU/USC) in 2015 *(data sources: www.edu.ro, 2015; www.insse.ro, 2015)*

The definition of such a university center in this case is provided by the existence of a headquarters of a university and, in case **B**, by the existence of branches of **A** category universities. In terms of spatial planning, we can say that into the 2nd category there are the polarized centers, dependent of the 1st category. Their assertion on competitive level can be accomplished through partnerships with the local authorities having a double purpose: to represent the university and locality equally.

For example, the 5 state universities from Cluj-Napoca have branches in a significant number of localities, especially in Transylvania and even in localities where there are other universities as well (fig. 3). Practically, under functional, structural and mental aspects, the polarization area of Cluj-Napoca university center encompasses the localities with branches too. In the case of Cluj-Napoca university center, there are:

-Specific representation club (University Sports Club) which identifies itself with the university center and functions independently from universities;

-Clubs or associations belonging to certain universities;

-Clubs or student sports associations in branch university centers and which can be: dependent on the USC/CSU; on university or autonomous.

Based on such definitions of the key element-the university, so that a locality should be a university center (52 localities), we can define three categories of university spaces (tab.1; fig.3):

a.) independent of base: determined by universities placed in a single locality: in the case of this category there are 8 university centers with a single public university (fig.3): Alba Iulia, Oradea, Petroşani, Ploieşti, Reşiţa, Suceava, Târgovişte and Târgu Jiu.

b.) polarizing-independent: determined by universities with the headquarters in a single locality and branches in one or several localities (9 centers): Bucureşti, Cluj-Napoca, Craiova, Galaţi, Iaşi, Oradea, Piteşti, Reşiţa and Timişoara (fig.3).

c.) polarized-subordinate: localities with university branches having the headquarters in a different locality (26 centers): Alexandria, Baia Mare, Beiuş, Bistriţa, Blaj, Botoşani, Brăila, Buzău, Călimăneşti, Câmpulung Muscel, Caransebeş, Drobeta Turnu-Severin,Focşani, Gheorgheni, Hunedoara, Năsăud, Odorheiu-Secuiesc, Piatra Neamţ, Râmnicu-Vâlcea, Satu Mare, Sfântu Gheorghe, Sighetu-Marmaţiei, Slatina, Târgu Secuiesc, Vatra Dornei, Zalău.

d.) autonomous: all university sports clubs (CSU/USC) which function nearby universities and are located in a single university center, respectively locality.

e.) To these 4 types, a fifth type is added, defined by the property regime, usually private, and which, under a university title, is not dependent on a university, functioning financially independently, similarly to a private club.

To the four types defined by the university function of the locality, in the case of this study, it is added the functional component determined by the existence of a sports branch with participation to national competitions.

The analytical component

The sports branches considered in this study are those specific to team sports: basketball, football, handball, ice hockey, water polo, rugby and volleyball, both

men's (M) and women's (W). There are considerable differences between the sports branches mentioned in the report with the number of participating teams and implicitly the representation level of the university center.

Basketball

Basketball is one of the team sports with the highest adherence in the university environment on representation level in the national championships with women and men teams. Structurally, it stands out on gender and age groups level (table 2; fig. 5), being organized from the competition point of view on 12 levels (table 3). Practically, the infrastructure elements and the dynamic component (the team) can be encountered in 11 university centers (50% of the total). Besides the qualitative component generated on competition level, an important role is also played by quantitative component by the number of registered sportives and the number of teams involved in national competitions. On the seniors' level, the national basketball championship includes The National League (NL), First League (L1) and Second League (L2), men and women, and the juniors' competitions are ranked on 9 age categories (fig. 4, table 3).

Table 2. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's (M) and women's (W) basketball competitions (Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Basketball, 2015: *www.frb.ro*, 2015)

no	University Center	Name of Team	University	National League		League 1		League 2	
				M	W	M	W	M	W
1	Arad	Univ Vasile Goldiş ICIM	*Vasile Goldiş*		**W**		**W**		
2	Bucureşti	CSU Ştiinţa	CSU			**M**			
		ACS 4 Sports Agronomia	Univ. Agronomia			**M**			
3	Alba Iulia	CS Universitatea	*1Decembrie 1918*		**W**		**W**		
4	Braşov	CSU Cuadripol	*Transilvania*					**M**	
		Olimpia CSU	*Transilvania*		**W**		**W**		
5	Cluj-Napoca	U-Banca Transilvania	*private*	**M**					
		U Mobitelco	*private*			**M**		**M**	
		Universitatea	*Babeş-Bolyai*		**W**	**M**	**W**		**W**
6	Craiova	SCMU	Universitatea	**M**		**M**			
7	Iaşi	CS Politehnica Naţional	Univ Tehnică				**W**		
		Politehnica	Univ Tehnică			**M**			
8	Oradea	CSM CSU/CSM CSU LPS	Universitatea	**M**		**M**			
		Universitatea CSM	Universitatea				**W**		
9	Piteşti	BCMU	Universitatea	**M**		**M**		**M**	
10	Ploieşti	CSU	Petrol şi Gaze					**M**	
11	Sibiu	CSU Atlassibiu	*Lucian Blaga*	**M**		**M**		**M**	

On seniors' level (including Under 20), men and women, the sports space determined by basketball national competitions has a dynamic component grouped on the level of 94 teams distributed on the entire territory of our country. Out of these, the sports landscape of university basketball is formed of 33 teams (35% of the total), 21 men's teams and 12 women' teams.

Practically, out of the 11 university clubs (table 2), three are represented in all 3 leagues (Cluj-Napoca, Sibiu and Piteşti); two only in L3 (Braşov and Ploieşti); 4 only in L2 (Bucureşti -2 clubs, Cluj-Napoca and Iaşi) and 2 in NL and L1 (Oradea and Craiova). Structurally, in the 11 university centers there are 13 clubs supported

through University Sports Clubs (CSU) by 11 universities (out of which only *Vasile Goldiş* University of Arad belongs to the private system) and, by association, by private partners and local councils (table 2).

Table 3. Hierarchic representation level of competition basketball on university centers
(Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Basket-ball, 2015: *www.frb.ro*, 2015)

Men's	**Level of competition**	**Women's**
University center		**University center**
Cluj-Napoca, *Craiova* *Oradea* *Piteşti* *Sibiu*	**National League** (12 men's şi 11 women's teams) with 5 men's şi 3 women's universitie's teams	***Cluj Napoca*** *Arad* *Alba Iulia* *Braşov*
Bucureşti (2) *Cluj-Napoca (2)* *Craiova* Iaşi *Oradea* *Piteşti* *Sibiu*	**1st League** (24 men's şi 14 women's teams) with 9 men's şi 6 women's universitie's teams	***Cluj Napoca*** *Arad* *Alba Iulia* *Braşov*
Cluj-Napoca Braşov *Piteşti* Ploieşti Sibiu	**2nd League** (23 men's şi 4 women's teams) with 5 men's şi 1 women's universitie's teams	***Cluj-Napoca***
Cluj-Napoca *Bucureşti*	**Under 20** (7 men's şi 4 women's teams) with 2 men's şi 1 women's universitie's teams	***Cluj-Napoca***
Braşov *Cluj-Napoca* *Bucureşti* *Piteşti*	**Under 18** (33 men's şi 15 women's teams) with 4 men's şi 1 women's universitie's teams U18	***Braşov***
Cluj-Napoca (2) *Bucureşti* Braşov *Piteşti (2)*	**Under 17** (20 men's şi 6 women's teams) with 6 men's şi 1 women's universitie's teams	***Braşov***
Cluj Napoca (2) *Bucureşti* Braşov Sibiu *Piteşti*	**Under 16** (44 men's şi 24 women's teams) with 6 men's şi 1 women's universitie's teams	***Bucureşti*** ***Braşov***
Cluj Napoca Ploieşti *Piteşti*	**Under 15** (16 men's şi 17 women's teams) with 3 men's şi 1 women's universitie's teams	***Braşov*** ***Bucureşti***
Cluj Napoca *Bucureşti* Braşov Sibiu *Piteşti (2)* Ploieşti	**Under 14** (31 men's şi 20 women's teams) with 7 men's şi 2 women's universitie's teams	***Braşov*** Oradea
Cluj Napoca (2) *Bucureşti* *Piteşti* Ploieşti	**Under13** (30 men's şi 18 women's teams) with 5 men's şi 1 women's universitie's teams	***Bucureşti***
Cluj Napoca *Braşov*	**MiniBasket-ball** (12 men's şi 12 women's teams) with 2 men's şi 2 women's universitie's teams	*Ploieşti* *Braşov*
Cluj Napoca (3) *Braşov* *Ploieşti*	**Baby Baschet** 32 men's and 12 women's from which 5 men's şi 2 women's universitie's teams	*Braşov* *Ploieşti*

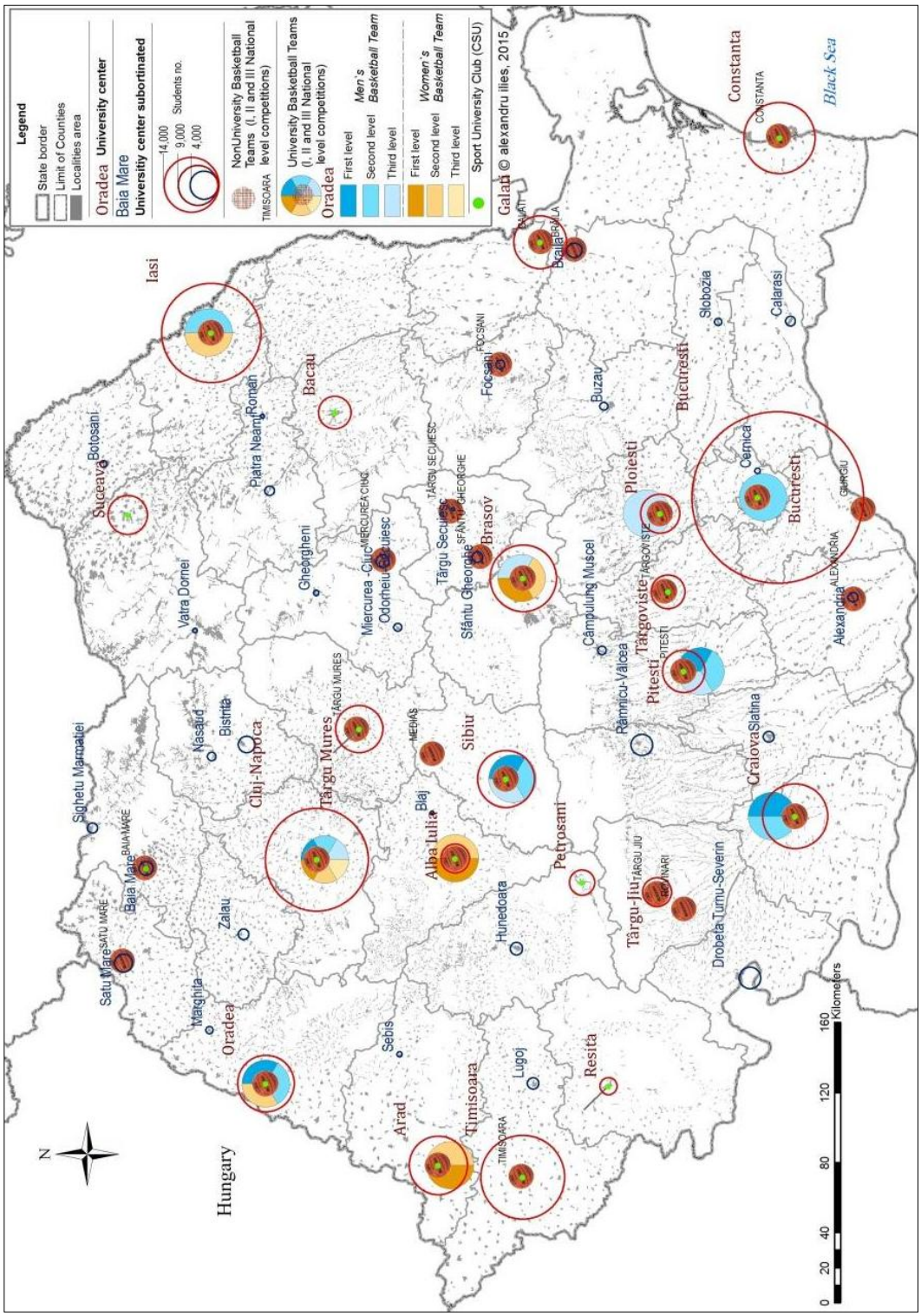

Figure 5. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's and women's basketball competitions (Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Basketball, 2015: *www.frb.ro*, 2015)

The popularity of the basketball game in the university environment is emphasized by the large number of teams in the seniors' national leagues, but especially by the interest in the juniors' teams. In figure 5 we notice that on the 9 competition levels, 353 teams function, out of which 51 (15%) belong to university clubs (table 3; fig. 5), even though the players do not have the age of students. We notice on this level 7 university centers, true poles of men and women junior basketball and these are (fig. 5): 13 competitions (6M and 7W), Cluj-Napoca 10 competitions (9M and 1W), Bucharest 9 (6M and 3W), Piteşti 6M, Sibiu 2M, Ploieşti 6 (4M and 2W) and Oradea 1W. From the gender point of view, men's basketball dominates with 39 teams (75%) compared to women's basketball with 14 teams.

Out of the more than 100 public and private universities, only 12 are involved in supporting basketball clubs (tables 2 and 3). Two of them are private and 10, through the university sports clubs (USC/CSU), are assigned to the 11 university centers. Regionally (fig. 5), in national competitions there are involved only 4 centers from Transylvania, 2 from Banat and Crişana, 1 from Moldova, 3 from Muntenia and 1 from Oltenia. Except Bucharest, present in only 3 categories of juniors, university women's basketball is present only in Transylvania region (Cluj-Napoca, Alba Iulia and Braşov) and in western Crişana (Arad and Oradea).

Volleyball

Volleyball is a team sport with adherence in university environment. The quantitative component is clearly inferior compared to basketball, the sports space defined by volley-ball is outlined in 2015 by 38 men's teams, out of which 7 are university teams and about 40 women's teams, out of which 14 are university teams (table 4).

The spatial distribution shows 11 university centers (50% of the total) (fig. 6): Baia Mare, Cluj Napoca, Craiova, Timişoara, Braşov, Bucureşti, Bacău, Iaşi, Tg Mureş, Oradea and Galaţi.

Table 4. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's (M) and women's (W) volleyball competitions (Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Volleyball, 2015: *www.frv.ro*, 2015

no	**University center**	**Team**	**University or/and CSU/USC**	**A1 Division** (12 men's teams and 12 women's teams) with **3 men's** and **5 women's** universitie's teams		**A2 Division** (13 men's and 13 women's teams) with **4 men's** and **5 women's** universitie's teams		**Junior** with **3 women's** universitie's teams	
1	Baia Mare	Ştiinţa Explorări	Univ Tehnică Cluj	**M**					
2	Bucureşti	CSU Ştiinţa	CSU			**M**			
3	Bacău	CS Ştiinţa	*Vasile Alecsandri*		**W**	**M**			
4	Braşov	CSU Braşov	*Transilvania*			**M**	**W**		
5	Cluj-Napoca	CS "U"	*Babeş-Bolyai*	**M**	**W**				
		LPS "U"	*Babeş-Bolyai*						**W**
6	Craiova	CSM U	Universitatea	**M**	**W**				
7	Galaţi	CSU	*Dunărea de Jos*				**W**		
8	Iaşi	ACS Penicilina	Univ de Medicină		**W**				
9	Oradea	CSU	Universitatea				**W**		
10	Timişoara	CSU Vest	Univ *de Vest*			**M**			
		CSU Politehnica	Politehnica				**W**		
11	Tg Mureş	CSU Medicina	Univ de Medicină		**W**		**W**		**W**
		CSU Medicina CNUE	Univ de Medicină						**W**

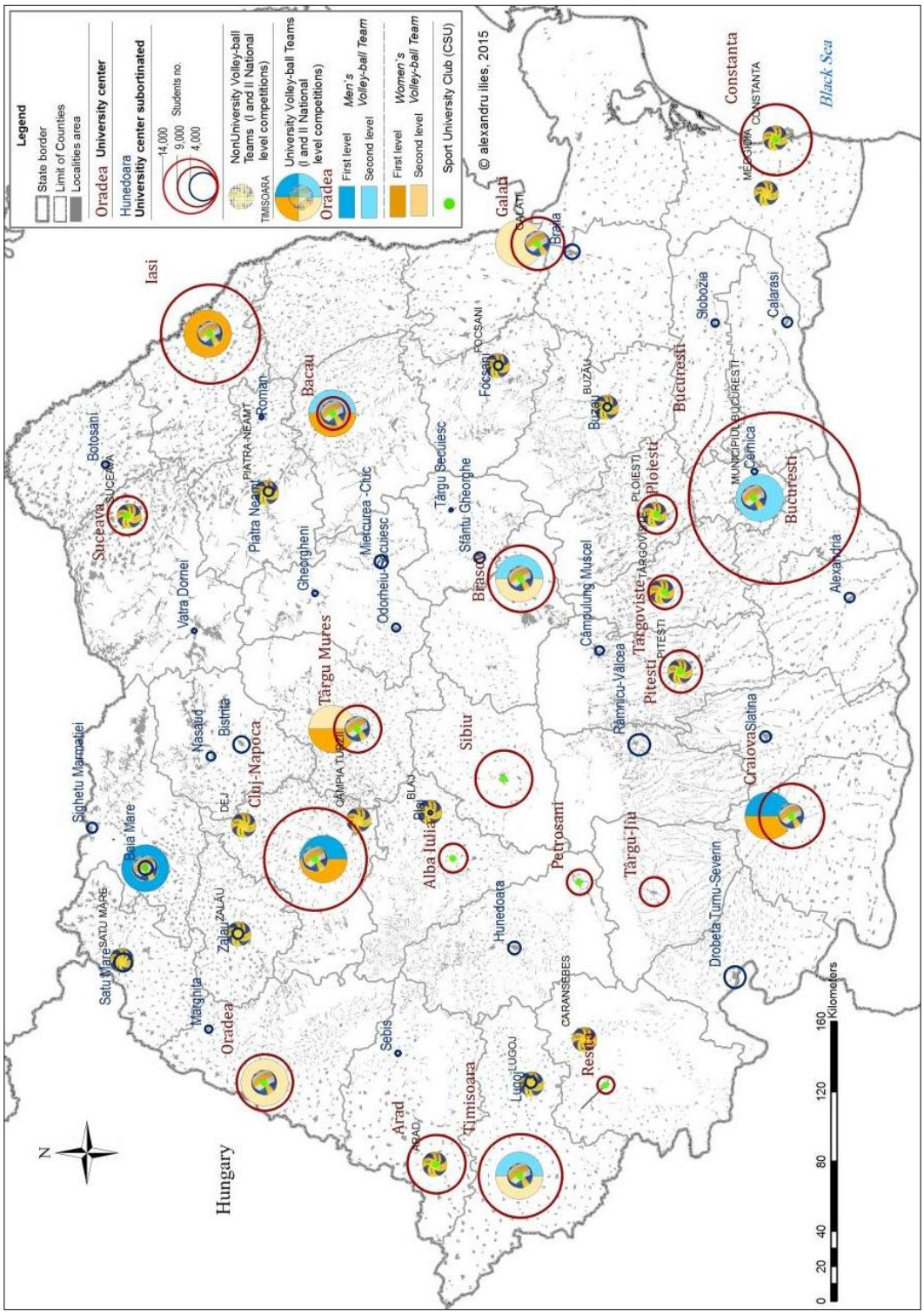

Figure 6. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's and women's volleyball competitions (Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Volleyball, 2015: *www.frv.ro*, 2015)

The qualitative component is defined by hierarchic levels; in the case of this sport, both in men's and women's, two levels function: A1 Division (24 teams) with 8 teams and 6 university centers; A2 Division with 9 teams from 7 university centers. On the juniors' level, the university clubs are represented only in women's category by 3 teams from 2 university centers: Tg Mureş (2) and Cluj-Napoca (1). Tg Mureş university center can be considered the pole of women's university volleyball by the representation of 3 women's teams on all levels. *Medicina CSU* is related to the Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy from the locality.

On the level of the two genders, the men's teams represent 7 university centers and the women's teams represent 9 university centers. The only centers with representation from both categories are: Cluj Napoca, Craiova, Timişoara, Braşov and Bacău.

The sports cultural landscape, defined by the spatial positioning of the infrastructure elements and of the university teams (21) participating in national volleyball competitions, is identified on the level of 11 localities with university function, representing 50% of the 22 teams exiting on national level.

Handball

It is a popular team sport in the Romanian space and Romania's national team won several world and Olympic tittles. The national competitions are organized on 2 seniors' levels (National League-NL and A Division-AD), men and women, to which many junior competitions are added, ranked on age groups.

Table 5. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's (M) and women's (W) handball competitions (Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Handball, 2015: *www.frh.ro*, 2015

no	**University center**	**Team**	**University or/and CSU/USC**	**National League** (14 men's teams and 14 women's teams) with **2 men's** and **1 women's** universitie's teams		**A Division** (27 men's teams and 22 women's teams) with **8 men's** and **8 women's** universitie's teams	
				M	**W**	**M**	**W**
1	Bacău	Ştiinţa Municipal	*Vasile Alecsandri*			**M**	
		CS Ştiinţa					**W**
2	Bucureşti	CSU Ştiinţa	CSU				**W**
3	Braşov	CSU CNOT	*Transilvania*			**M**	
4	Constanţa	Universitatea Neptun	*Ovidius*				**W**
5	Cluj-Napoca	CS Universitatea	*CSU*			**M**	
		U Alexandrion	*CSU*		**W**		
6	Craiova	Universitatea	University			**M**	
7	Galaţi	CSU Danubius	*Dunărea de Jos*	**M**			**W**
8	Iaşi	Poli Unistil	Technical University			**M**	
9	Oradea	CSU	University				**W**
10	Reşiţa	CSU	*Eftimie Murgu*				**W**
11	Suceava	CSU	*Ştefan cel Mare*			**M**	
12	Târgovişte	CSU	*Valahia*			**M**	**W**
13	Timişoara	CSU de Vest	University *de Vest*				**W**
		CH CSU Politehnica	Politehnica University	**M**		**M**	

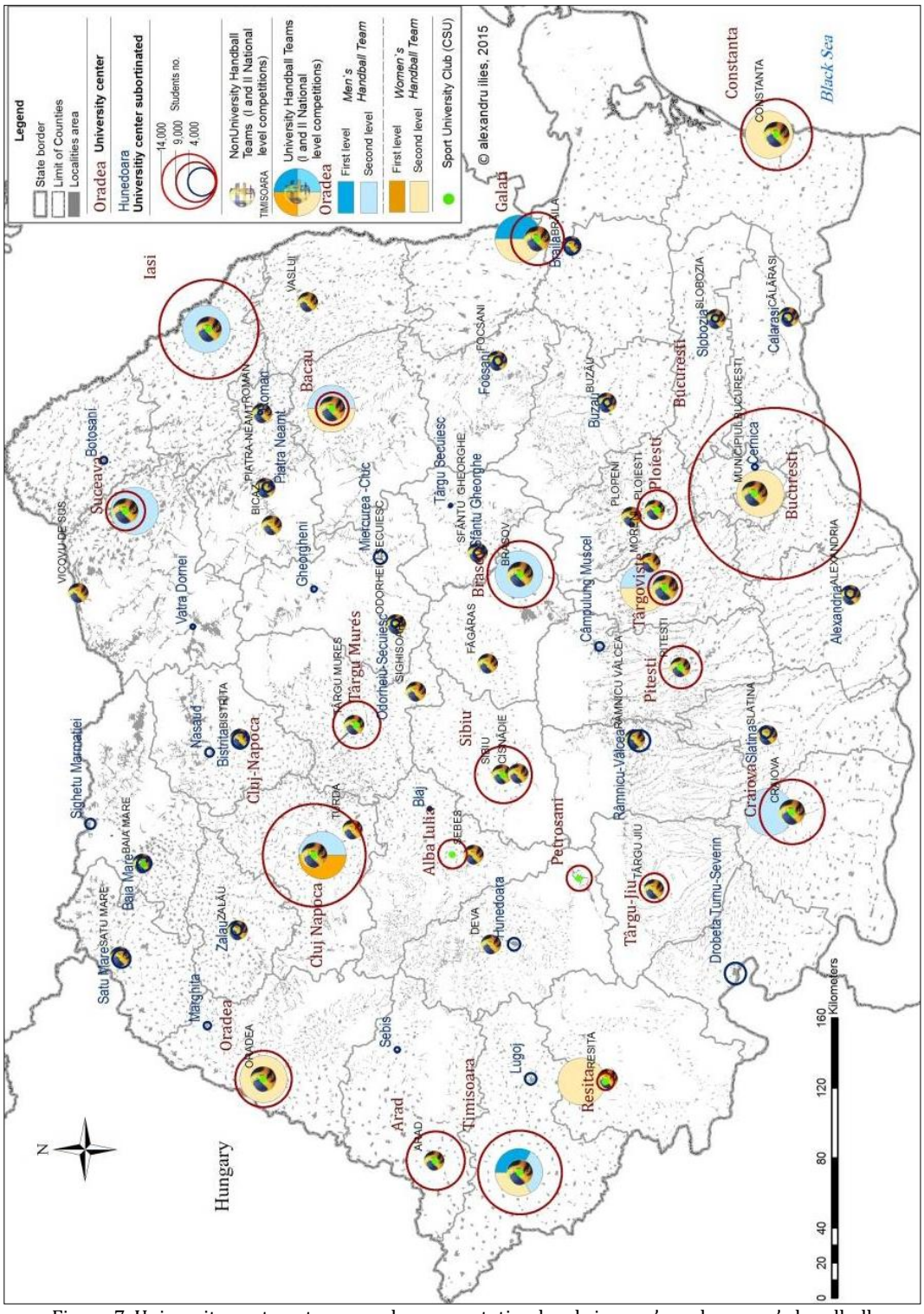

Figure 7. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's and women's handball competitions (Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Handball, 2015: *www.frh.ro*, 2015)

The handball landscape on the two divisions level is made up of 77 teams out of which 19 (25%) are from the university environment. On gender level, there are 41 men's teams (52%), 10 of them from universities and 36 women's teams (47%), 9 of them from universities.

Out of the 22 Romanian basic university centers, the space outlined by the handball game in the university sportive-cultural landscape is identified in 13 centers (60%). On gender representation level, 5 centers stand out with men's and women's teams: Bacău, Cluj-Napoca, Timişoara, Galaţi, Târgovişte; 4 men's teams: Braşov, Craiova, Iaşi şi Suceava and 4 women's teams: Bucureşti, Constanţa, Oradea and Reşiţa.

Both qualitatively (representation level) and quantitatively (number of teams), Timişoara university center features the most significant representation by two men's teams (NL and AD), belonging to the Polytechnic University and a women's team belonging to the Western University (AD). Through their support for handball, both men and women, the following universities stand out: Bacău, Galaţi and USC (Babeş-Bolyai) Cluj-Napoca.

Football

Football is, on world level, the most popular sport from the perspective of number of those who practice it, but especially from the perspective of attracting an impressive number of spectators. The specific infrastructure (stadiums and related elements) is ready to attract an average of over 10,000 spectators/match, especially on the first leagues level. Just as in the case of the other sports, the clubs and championships are organized on the two genders: male and female and from the competitions point of view, hierarchically, this sport, on seniors' level, has the most levels (1-7 leagues).

The infrastructure static component, regarding mainly stadiums and playing fields, features a large typological variety under architectural aspect, under the aspect of receiving capacity and of number of fields grouped in complexes.

The dynamic component (clubs and teams), by representation and number of teams registered in various events, reflects other elements of economic nature (financial power) or of social nature by the number of fans and spectators.

The features of the two components differ from one country to another, being determined by the demographic potential from where there can be established those who practice the sport on professional and amateur levels, as well as the most numerous component, the spectators. On European level, Romania fits the category of medium value countries from the point of view of the two components' quantitative values.

Within the Romanian space, the football game includes three categories: professionals, semi-professionals on the 1st, 2nd and 3rd leagues level (with national and regional extension) and non-amateurs and amateurs in the 4th-7th leagues (with county and local extension).

In the university environment there is no regular championship, although numerous attempts have been made in this respect, even during the communist era. We mention that during the communist period, there were top students' teams of 1st

league level: *Sportul Studențesc* Bucharest, *Universitatea* Cluj, *Politehnica* Timişoara, *Universitatea* Craiova, *Politehnica* Iași, or teams which emerged on the same level after 1990, such as: *CSU Voința* Sibiu. After 1990, when gradually they passed to professionalism, also materialized in the significant increase of budgets and expenses, most university teams from the top leagues were demoted, dissolved or became private or entered in public-private associations.

In 2015, football represented by university clubs (at least as name and brand) has remained significant compared to other European countries. We should mention that, although they have university team names, at least within the first two leagues, they are dominantly private or in public-private association. Out of the 18 clubs which activated in the 1st League during the 2014/2015 championship, the representative ones for the university environment were as follows: *CS Universitatea* Craiova, *Universitatea* Cluj Napoca and CSM Studențesc Iași. Bucharest, the capital, the biggest university center (29 public and private universities), does not have a representative on these levels. In the current championship edition (2015/2016, with a number of 16 teams), the number remained constant by the regression of the team from Cluj and the promotion of *ACS Poli* Timişoara.

On lower level, the 2nd League in the 2015/2016 championship has only one representative of a university center, "U" Cluj, regressed from the 1st league (fig. 8; table 6).

Table 6. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's (M) and women's (W) football competitions (Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Football, 2015: *www.frf.ro*, 2015

no	**University center**	**Teams**	**University or/and CSU/USC**	**Ist League** (14 men's teams) with 3 men's universitie's teams		**IInd League** (27 men's and 22 women's teams) with 1 men's and 2 women's universitie's teams		**IIIrd League** (27 men's teams) with 3 men's universitie's teams		**IVth League** with 4 men's univer-sitie's teams	**V-VII Leagues** with 5 men's univer-sitie's teams
				M	**W**	**M**	**W**	**M**	**W**	**M**	**M**
1	Alexandria	Universitatea	private				**W**				
2	București	SC FC Sportul Studențesc	CSU							**M**	
3	Cluj-Napoca	CS "U"	mixte			**M**					
		AMEFA									**M**
4	Craiova	CS Universitatea	Universitatea	**M**				**M**			
5	Iași	CSM Studențesc	mixte	**M**							
		AS Poly 2014									**M**
		AS Academica									**M**
6	Galați	CSU	*Dunărea de Jos*				**W**				
7	Oradea	FC Universitatea	Universitatea							**M**	
8	Petroșani	Universitatea	Universitatea							**M**	
9	Sebiș	Național	Univ. de Vest *Vasile Goldiș*					**M**			
10	Timişoara	ACS Poli	mixte	**M**						**M**	
		ACS ASU Poli	Univ. Politehnica					**M**			**M**
		ASU Agronomia	Univ. Agronomia								**M**

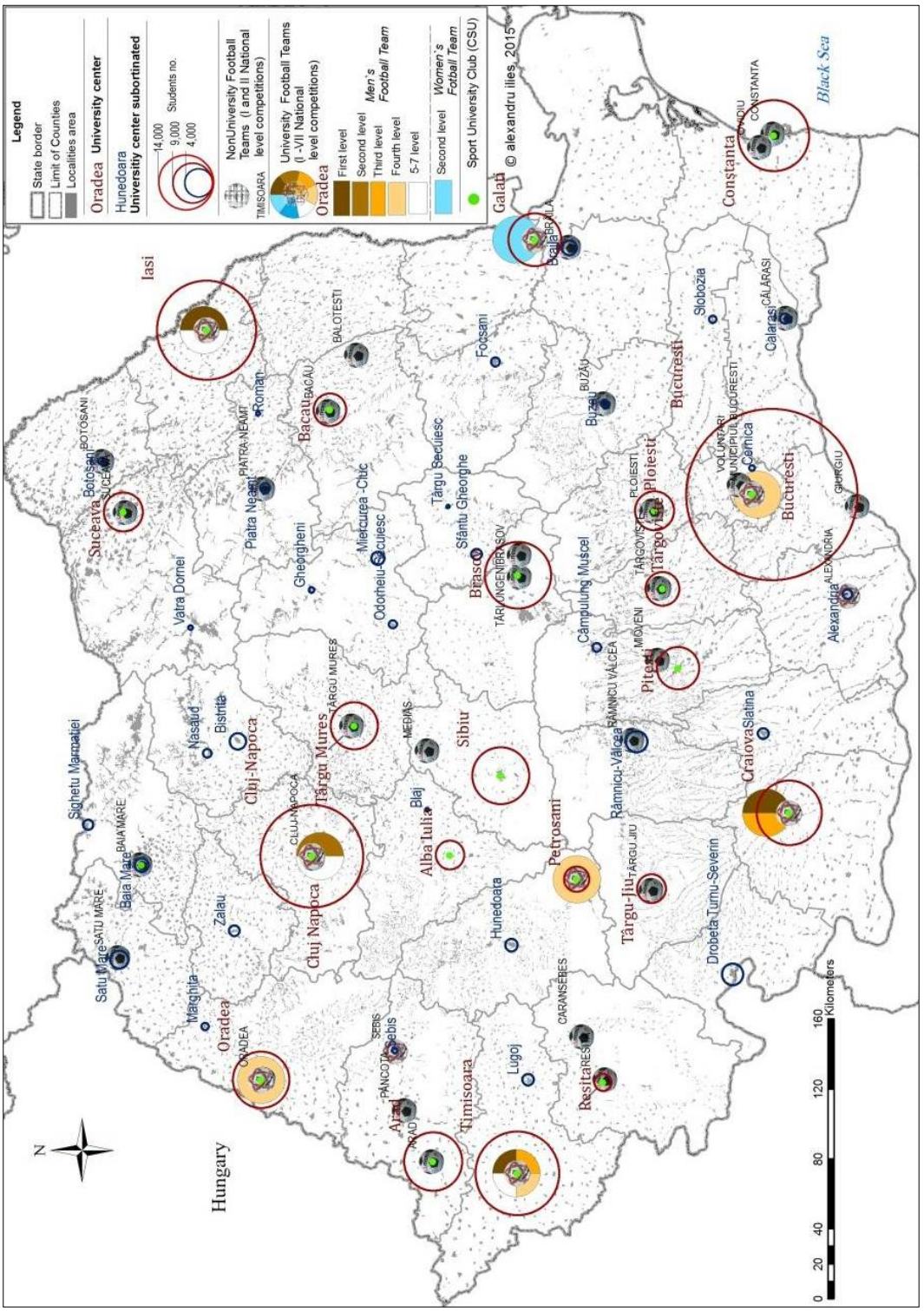

Figure 8. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's and women's football competitions (Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Football, 2015: *www.frf.ro*, 2015)

In the 3rd League, with a semi-professional status, with 5 regional groups, the university clubs are represented by two centers (table 6; fig. 8): Timişoara, with a 2nd club, *CSU Politehnica* Timişoara which belongs to the Polytechnic University from Timişoara and the private-public association *SC Naţional* Sebiş, having as partner *Vasile Goldiş West* University from Arad. The 2nd team of CSU Craiova 2 is added to this league.

The lower county leagues, with number of levels which differ from a county to another (4-7), with amateur or non-amateur status and implicitly lower budgets and expenses, include university teams which belong to certain universities in order to represent them. Out of the 22 university centers which include the headquarters of universities divided to 22 counties (fig.8, table 6), the football activity is represented by 9 clubs in the following centers: Bucharest (1), Cluj (1), Petroşani (1), Iaşi (2), Oradea (1) and Timişoara (3). Hierarchically, the situation is as follows (tab6; fig. 8):

-The 4th league with 4 teams from 4 centers: FC Universitatea Oradea, SC FC Sportul Studenţesc Bucharest, Universitatea Petroşani and ACS Poli II Timişoara I.

-The 5th league with 3 teams from 2 centers: AS AMEFA Cluj Napoca, AS Poly 2014 Iaşi and AS Academica Iaşi;

-The 7the league with 2 teams: ACS ASU Politehnica Timişoara II and ASU Agronomia Timişoara II.

In the futsal national championship, out of 23 teams participating in the 1st and 2nd leagues, two are university teams in the 1st league: *CS Informatica* Timişoara and *CSMS* Iaşi.

In 2015, the Romanian Federation of Football and the Polytechnic University of Timisoara organized the university football national championship, with the participation of 19 universities from 14 university centers (8 centers were not represented), the title being won by University *Constantin Brâncuşi* from Tg Jiu. The actual university space focused on football was outlined especially in the Central and Western parts of Romania.

Women's football, considerably less practiced than men's football, is organized on three levels with a total of 22 teams, out of which only 2 are university teams (fig. 8): *Universitatea* Alexandria (private) and *Universitatea* Galaţi, activating in the 2nd level (1st League).

The sportive-cultural landscape defined by the spatial positioning of the infrastructure elements and of university teams (21) participating in male and female football national competitions is identified in 11 localities with university function, representing 50% of the 22 existing on national level. From the universities with involvement by association in the university clubs, we mention the following: Craiova, Cluj-Napoca, Iaşi, Oradea, Petroşani, Univ. Politehnica Timişoara, Agronomia Timişoara and ANEF Bucharest.

Rugby

Rugby is a sport centered in the Romanian space on only two men's teams and hierarchically structured on 5 levels, out of which two of juniors (Under 20 and Under 18). The university tradition in practicing this sport is present ever since the beginning of practicing it within the Romanian political space.

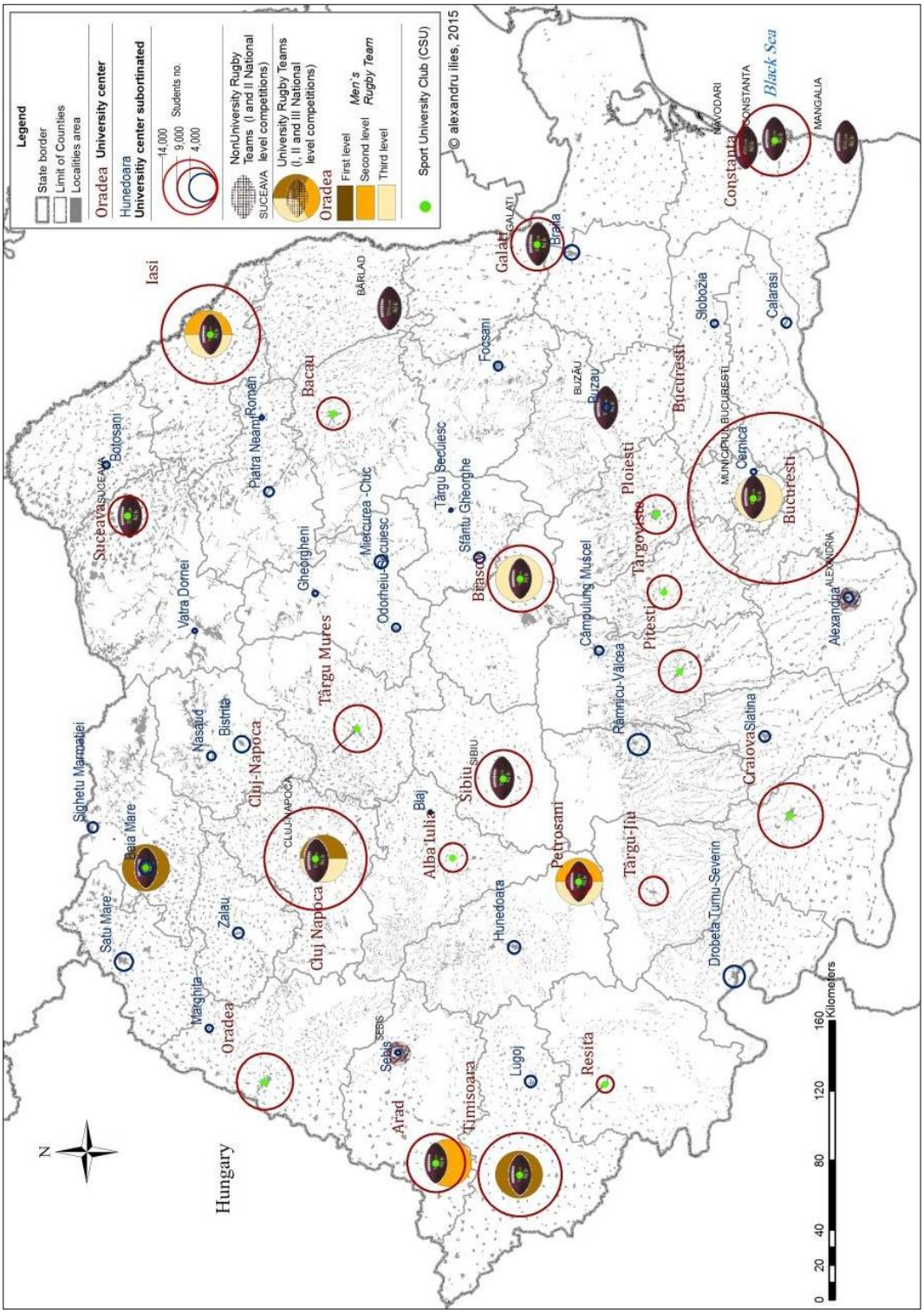

Figure 9. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's rugby competitions
(Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Rugby, 2015: *www.frr.ro*, 2015)

The three senior levels encompass 22 teams, out of which 8 are university teams (36%) positioned in 8 university centers (36% of the total number of centers) and belonging totally or by association to 8 universities (fig. 9; table 7).

Table 7. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's (M) rugby competitions
(Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Rugby, 2015: *www.frr.ro*, 2015)

no	University center	Teams	University or/and CSU/USC	**Super-League** (6 men's teams) with 3 men's universitie's teams	**National Division** (10 men's teams) with 4 men's universitie's teams	**A Division** (6 men's teams) with 3 men's universitie's teams	**Under 20** 5 teams) with 1 men's universitie's teams	**Under 18** (11 men's teams at national level) with 3 universitie's teams
1	Arad	CSUAV	*Aurel Vlaicu*		**M**			
2	Baia Mare	CSM Ştiinţa	mixte	**M**				
3	Braşov	CSU CFR	CSU			**M**		
4	Bucureşti	SC Sportul Studenţesc	CSU			**M**		
5	Cluj-Napoca	"U"	CSU	**M**				**M**
		AS Mănăştur	mixte			**M**		
6	Iaşi	CS Politehnica Unirea	CSU		**M**			**M**
7	Petroşani	CS Ştiinţa	Universitatea		**M**			**M**
8	Timişoara	RCM-UVT *Saracens*	Universitatea de Vest	**M**			**M**	

The university sportive-cultural landscape, determined by the sports space defined by practicing the rugby game on three hierarchic levels, is identified through (fig.9, table 7):

-3 centers (50%) in the National Super League (6 teams): Baia Mare, Cluj-Napoca and Timişoara;

-3 centers (30%) in the National Division (10 teams): Arad, Iaşi and Petroşani;

-2 centers (33%) in A Division (6 teams): Bucharest and Braşov;

On junior level, 4 university centers registered teams in national competitions: Cluj Napoca, Iaşi, Petroşani şi Timişoara.

On university clubs level, certain universities should become involved, such as (fig.9): the West University of Timişoara, University of Petroşani, *Transylvania* University of Braşov, *Aurel Vlaicu* University of Arad, Baia Mare University Center, Technical University of Iaşi, SC Sportul Studenţesc (CSU) from Bucharest and CS University from Cluj Napoca.

Water Polo. A sport with reduced practicing area in Romania, organized on the level of senior's national league with 10 teams, also includes the university environment by the involvement of two teams: *CS Sportul Studenţesc* Bucharest and *Politehnica* Cluj Napoca (fig.10).

Ice Hockey. It is a sport with narrow area representation, situation which is also determined by the positioning of skating rinks, and it is organized in only one national competition with 6 teams, the university environment being represented by CS Sportul Studenţesc, club from Bucharest which will celebrate 100 years of existence in 2016 (fig.10).

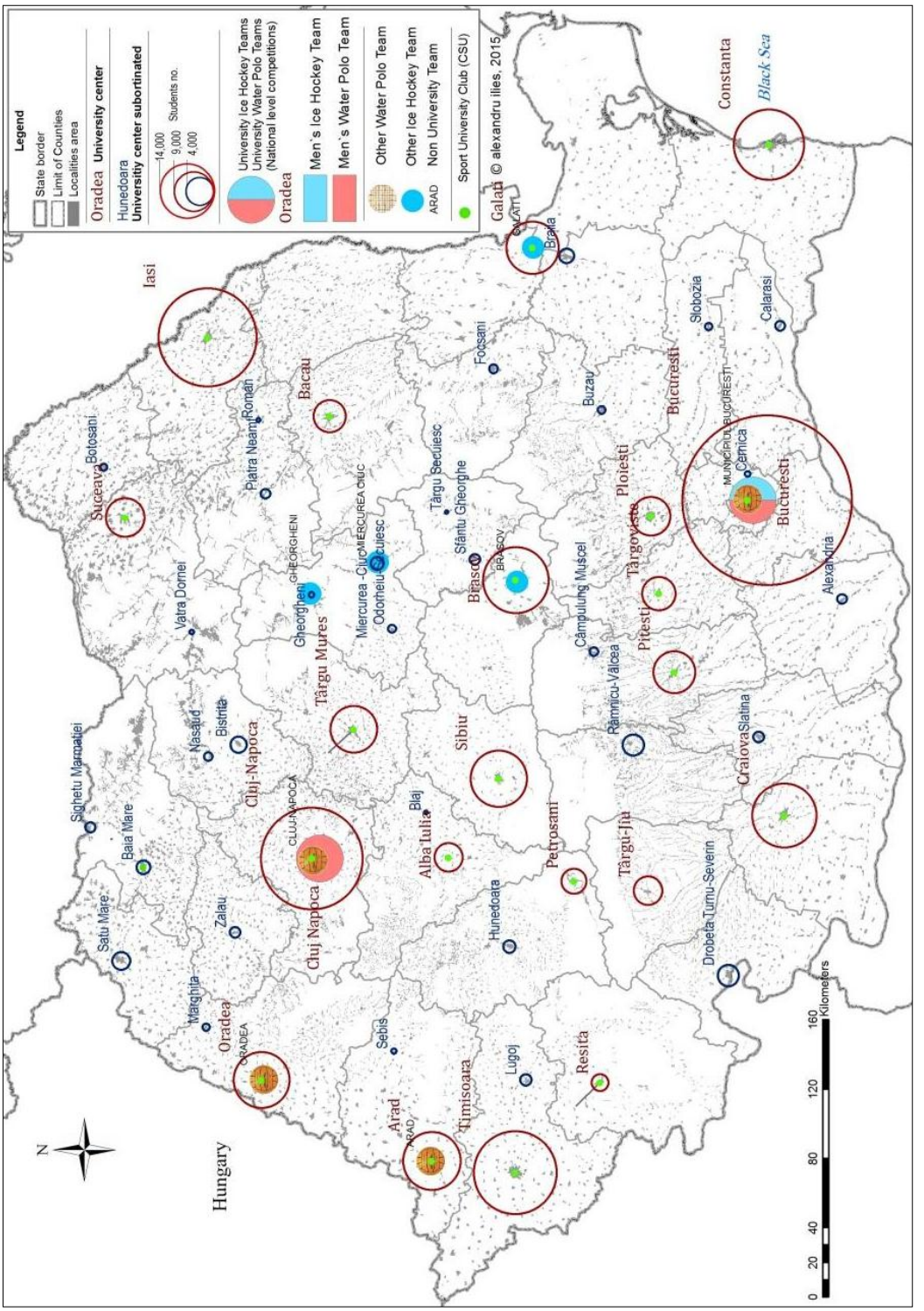

Figure 10. University centers, teams and representation levels in men's ice-hockey and water-polo competitions (Data's sources: Romanian Federation of Water Polo, 2015: *www.frp.ro*, 2015; Romanian Federation of Ice Hockey, 2015: *www.frh.ro*, 2015)

Conclusions

The university sportive-cultural landscape in Romania is defined by the sportive space specific to team sports through the static component – infrastructure and the dynamic one – university teams. In order to outline a very suggestive image related to the territorial realities of the year 2015, 7 sports branches from the team sports category have been analyzed. The analytical component has referred to the relationship between the university centers, the universities and the university clubs participating in national competitions. The basic ground has been made up of about 100 public and private universities, the 22 university centers where the headquarters of the universities are and the university centers which are branches of the first category.

The study focused on the 22 basic university centers as the data base has not registered any university competition sportive activity in branches, except Baia Mare University Center which belongs to the Technical University of Cluj-Napoca. In all these university centers, in autonomous regime, university sports clubs function (CSU/USC) which can be associated to one or several universities from the same center.

The share of university teams' participation in national competitions from the total number of teams reflects greatly the involvement of the university environment in defining the particularities and the boundaries of a sportive-cultural landscape. Thus, on seniors' competition level, the university sports space is outlined by (fig.11):

-33 basketball teams (21 men's and 12 women's; 35% of the total number of participating teams) from 11 centers (50% of the total number of university centers): Arad, Bucureşti, Alba Iulia, Braşov, Cluj-Napoca, Craiova, Iaşi, Oradea, Piteşti, Ploieşti and Sibiu;

-21 volleyball teams (7 men's and 14 women's; 27% of the total): Baia Mare, Bucureşti, Bacău, Braşov, Cluj-Napoca, Craiova, Galaţi, Iaşi, Oradea, Timişoara and Tg. Mureş;

-19 handball teams (10 men's and 9 women's; 25% of the total) from the one centers (60%): Bacău, Braşov, Bucureşti, Cluj-Napoca, Constanţa, Craiova, Galaţi, Iaşi, Oradea, Reşiţa, Suceava, Timişoara and Târgovişte;

-15 football university teams (from which 2 women's team) representing 7 university centers: Craiova, Cluj-Napoca, Iaşi and Timişoara on the level of the first two leagues; Bucharest, Iaşi, Oradea, Petroşani and Timişoara on lower leagues level and with total involvement of certain universities. The localities Alexandria and Sebiş from the private area are added to these.

-8 teams of men's rugby from 8 centers (36 % of the total): Arad, Baia Mare, Braşov, Bucureşti, Cluj-Napoca, Iaşi, Petroşani şi Timişoara;

-One ice-hockey men's team (16%) of 6 participants: CS Sportul Studenţesc Bucureşti;

-2 water-polo university men's teams (25% of the total, Bucureşti and Cluj-Napoca) in the national super-league formed of 8 teams;

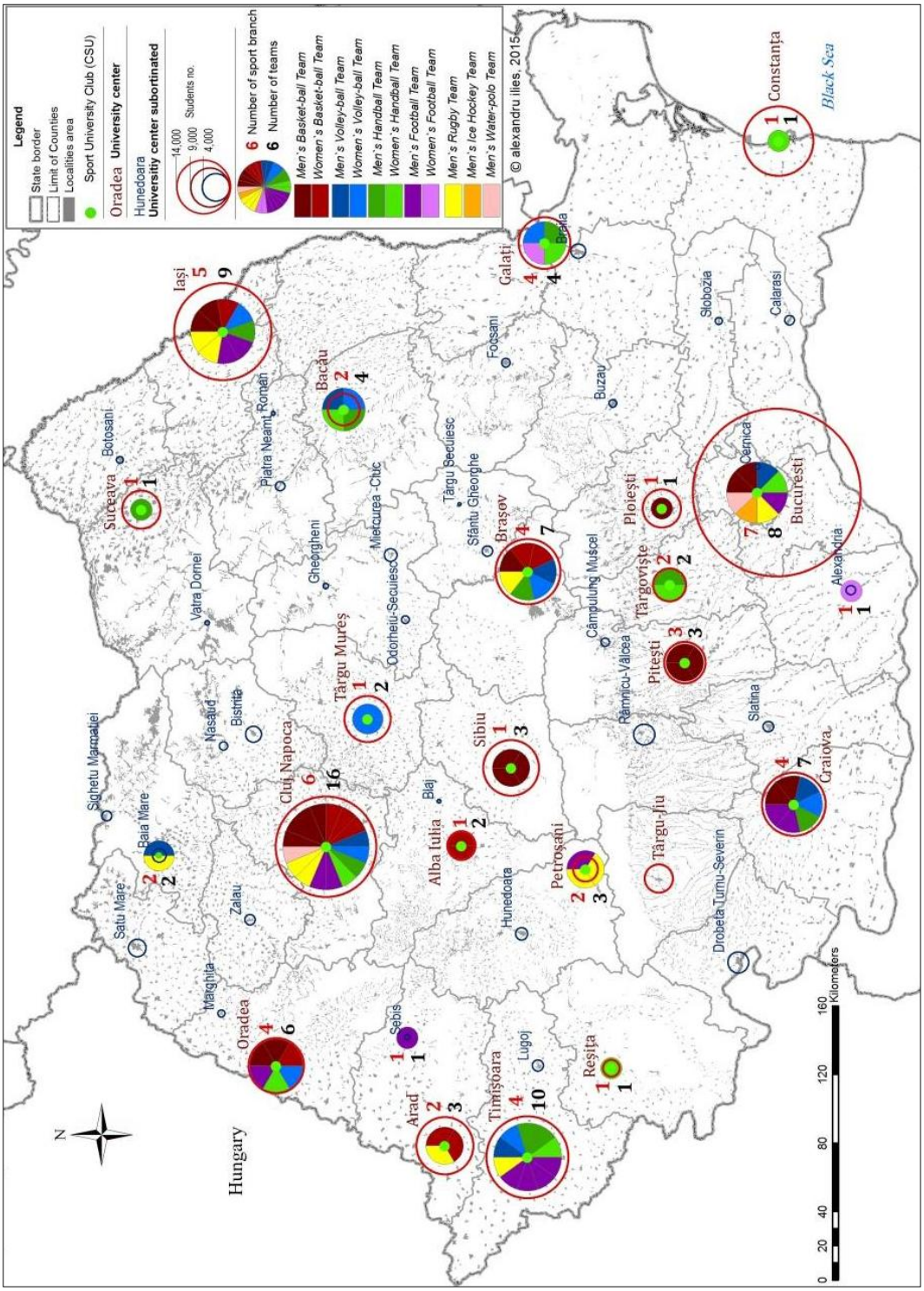

Figure 11. University centers, sport-teams and their representation levels in different branch of national competitions

Correlating the 7 sports branches with the represented university centers, the outlining of the sports- cultural landscape also derives from the polarization degree of university sports on the level of the 22 centers. Thus, all 21 centers (except the water-polo and ice-hockey games, more reduced in space) are represented on competition level and define a space formed from the centers (fig.11): Bucharest (7 sports), Cluj-Napoca (6), Iași (5), Brașov (4), Craiova (4), Oradea (4), Timişoara (4), Arad (2), Baia Mare (2), Bacău (2), Galați (2), Petroșani (2), Târgu Mureș (2), Alba Iulia (1), Constanța (1), Pitești (1), Ploiești (1), Reșița (1), Sibiu (1), Suceava (1), Târgoviște (1).

The cartographic representations from this study fully feature the outlining of a university sports-cultural landscape defined by the sportive space of the 21 university centers related to the national competitions through the 99 university teams specific to the 7 team sports.

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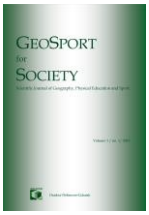

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Selected spatial aspects of cultural events

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Abstract. Cultural events, ranging from large-scale international festivals to small-scale local initiatives, are in the field of interest of many researchers. Economists, sociologists, geographers and tourism researchers have devoted work to understand different aspects of this phenomenon. Cultural events are complex, multidisciplinary occurrences, strongly linked with the environment. This article tries to show selected links between cultural events and space.

Keywords: cultural events, planned events, space in geography

Introduction

At regional or local level, cultural events have become a popular way to build tourism potential or to diversify the free-time activity offer for residents. Events are in the scope of interest of different scientific fields, including geography. Cudny (2014) notes that festivals are a frequent theme of geographical inquiry, researched mainly in respect of cultural and social aspects. The aim of the paper is to present a preliminary analysis of event-space relationship in regard to cultural events and chosen elements of space characteristics. The paper is based on literature review and the authors' own reflections on this subject.

Planned events

Planned events are temporary occurrences, they have a finite length that is fixed and publicized, each event is a transient, one-time composition of the setting, people, design elements and programme (Getz 1997, 2008). Getz (2008) shows a

typology of planned events (table 1) that divides them into several categories in relation to their form and purpose.

The purpose of each event is defined by the institution responsible for its organization or by the body (i.e. a local government) that commissions the event. Among the many organizers of planned events it is possible to name non-governmental organizations (i.e. cultural or religious), public bodies (of local and national level), international organizations (in the field of sport, politics and business), the management of purpose built venues (congress and expo centres, tourist attractions, sport stadiums, etc.), educational and research institutions (i.e. universities) and the entertainment business (i.e. concert or marketing agencies). Private events are organized by families or social groups with participation being restricted those specially invited. For that reason this type of events is not considered as open to the public and will not be taken into consideration in this paper.

Table 1. Typology of planned events (source: Getz, 2008)

CULTURAL CELEBRATIONS festivals carnivals commemorations religious events POLITICAL AND STATE summits royal occasions political events VIP visits ARTS AND ENTERTAINMENT concerts award ceremonies	BUSINESS AND TRADE meetings conventions consumer and trade shows fairs, markets EDUCATIONAL AND SCIENTIFIC conferences seminars clinics
SPORT COMPETITION amateur/professional spectator/participant RECREATIONAL sport or games for fun	PRIVATE EVENTS weddings parties socials

Planned events may also be defined as to their potential to attract tourists. The tourist demand for local and regional (periodic or one-time) events is low or medium, periodic hallmark events and occasional mega-events have a high value and high tourist demand (Getz, 2008). As noted by Koh & Jackson (2006) mega-events are large-scale events that have the possibility to affect whole economies and are covered by global media. What distinguishes hallmark events is the fact that they become synonymous with the place of their localization (i.e. the carnival in Rio de Janeiro). Regional events have the potential to attract tourists, while local events are intended mostly for residents.

The research on events concentrates mostly on mega-events and hallmark events, especially on the impact of these events on local economy and society as well as their potential for tourism development. Local and regional events are less in the

scope of research, although, if organized by local residents, they have the chance to attract tourists (Carlsen et al., 2000).

One of the events type widely covered in literature and research are festivals (see Cudny 2014). Festivals are cultural events based on religion, culture or local traditions (McCartney, 2010). According to Cudny et al. (2012, cited in Cudny 2014) the characteristic features of festivals are (among others): the celebration of elements that are important in a given community's life, the regularity, the possibility to combine with competitions, in addition festivals are often composed of different social and cultural events. Festivals are the dominant type of cultural events and they organization is possible "(…) all over the world and in all societies" (Cudny, 2014, 131).

The concept of space in geography

As stated by Kostrowicki (1997) it is impossible to formulate one, general definition of space. The understanding of this term is strictly dependent of the subject and object of reflection. In addition, the criteria used to divide geographical space might be as well subjective as objective. Geographical space is defined by Leszczycki (cited in: Tkocz, 2008) as the natural base on which people live, work and rest, it is a space that combines many functions necessary for human being existence. In geographic inquiry on space two strands are dominant – one that focuses on the sense of place ("defined by the lived experiences of people") and one that concentrates on space as socially produced and consumed (Hubbard, 2010). The concept of physical and non-physical space is presented by Lisowski (2003). The first is seen as a set of objects and the relations between them on the Euclidean geometry. The second is seen as a set of objects in relation to defined subjects that shape, act-in or study this space. Non-physical space consists of ecological, social and cultural spaces. Ecological space is analysed from a human and environmental perspective and will have different properties depending of the subject being taken into consideration. The social space consists of physical space elements that are organized by society in a purpose-led activity. Cultural space "carries meanings" for the subject and is a symbol of cultural values. These cultural values might take the shape of specific behaviour of people in space. In this concept people have not only the possibility to use space but also to shape it into different functions and meanings.

As noted by Kuciński (2013) because of the ever growing use of space and its natural elements for economic purposes, its character is shifting from geographical towards economic. The economic space includes all spheres and relations that have an economic property and in this context human existence is considered in terms of production, exchange and consumption (Tkocz, 2008). One of the essential aspects of space is its' differentiation, which has a critical role in planned events organization. The main elements used to differentiate space are natural, economic, social, political and institutional features (Kuciński, 2013) which reflect in the accessibility to specific resources needed to perform human organized activity.

Event – space relationship

The organization of planned events, as any other human organized activity, is based on resources accessibility. Getz notes that the resource base of events shifts from natural to economic and events tend to be shaped by politics (Getz, 2008). To be successful, event's organizers need to manage often scarce resources and coordinate the needs of various stakeholders (local community, politicians, artists/performers, visitors). In this part of the paper an attempt is made to present the relationship that occurs between chosen elements of each resources type and the organization of planned cultural events.

As stated by Kuciński (1994) resources used in production and consumption can be grouped into the following categories: natural, cultural and human.

Natural resources include minerals, sources of energy, climate conditions, soils, natural flora and fauna, waters, landscape, landforms and the space itself. When analysing cultural events in the context of natural resources, landscape stands-out as the most important of them. The New Penguin Dictionary of Geography defines landscape as an area of the earth's surface characterized by a certain type of scenery, comprising a distinct association of physical and cultural forms. As stated by Bobek &Schmithüsen (cited by Kowalczyk, 2007) the cultural landscape is formed by the abiotic sphere (inanimate nature), the vital sphere (animate nature, including the activity of humans at the lowest level of civilisation development) and the intellectual sphere (the effects of culture-led human activity). In the semiotic approach to cultural landscapes the attention is focused on intangible cultural assets, on the *genius loci* or "spirit of landscape" (Plit, 2011, 11). The cultural landscape of a given area may be reflected in the theme (subject) of an event, it may form the background (understood as a view or a setting) for the event, it might also be reflected in the activities presented during the event programme (i.e. as the everyday life of a community). The relationship between the cultural landscape and the event is especially strong in the case of hallmark events and local/regional events i.e. festivals, fairs and historical reconstructions, which reflect the unique character of a landscape.

Kuciński (1994) explains that cultural resources may also be described as capital resources which are elements of geographical environment created by humans. They build the fixed assets of a given area and contribute to the effectiveness of production and consumption processes. Infrastructure is one of the elementary forms of capital resources and it might be defined as an arrangement of objects and institutions operating and linking spatial systems, as well as fulfilling an ancillary role to population and to the different sectors of national economy (Pakulska, 2013). The primary types of infrastructure noted in literature are: basic, information, innovation and social infrastructure. Basic infrastructure includes transport, energy, water and sewage management. Information infrastructure consists of equipment used to send, accumulate and process information as well as of institutions providing services in this area. Innovation infrastructure is formed by scientific and research organizations and other specialized institutions involved in development and dissemination of innovations. Social infrastructure covers institutions and equipment in the field of science, culture, social care, health care,

physical culture, administration, public order as well as socio-political organizations (Pakulska, 2013). From the event perspective, infrastructure provides the tangible and intangible assets needed to successfully perform all the elements of organization. Starting from the point of event planning there is a need for data and information, followed by administrative and financial support, not to mention the basic infrastructure needed for the functioning of each event venue. The quality of infrastructure will be reflected in the event performance, also in terms of possible competitors and the readiness of people to participate in events.

From the perspective of geography, human resources are seen as the population of a given area, with its spiritual, intellectual and physical capabilities to perform in work and consumption (Kuciński, 1994). The notion of human resources is linked with social capital which F. Fukuyama (2001:7) describes as "an instantiated informal norm that promotes co-operation between individuals (…). In the opinion of the same author "(…) it also is a byproduct of religion, tradition, shared historical experience and other types of cultural norms" (ibidem). Social links and initiatives are also in the core of social capital because they testify of the ability to cooperate and reach common goals (Kuciński, 2013). In the field of event studies several authors (i.e. Getz 1997; McCartney 2010; Arcodia & Whitford 2006) underline the importance of common work within an event, for the creation of social capital. Voluntary work during local or regional events is especially valuable as it helps to form strong bonds between the members of one community. In the case of cultural events, social capital might be reinforced throughout the reproduction and dissemination of local traditions and history. This phenomenon can be observed during small-scale festivals or fairs when members of local communities gather to show and sell their products or to participate in cultural performances (i.e. traditional dances, songs and storytelling). The empowerment of local community and the development of cultural tourism can be reinforced by the cultural exchange between tourists and residents (Razaq, 2003, cited by McCarthy, 2010). On one hand taking active part in cultural events organization builds the social capital of a given society. On the other hand, if the level of social capital is low, the possibility to organize a successful local event is less probable. The importance of the engagement of local inhabitants in the event can go far beyond its' organizational success. As stated by Moscardo (2007, cited in Pasanen et al., 2009) if an event does not create community involvement, it is unlikely to have much of an effort on regional development.

The tangible and intangible heritage of a (local) society forms a specific type of resources not mentioned in the regular typologies, but very important from the point of view of event research. Czerny (2005) underlines that heritage can be exploited in the same way as other resources and used in different spheres of people lives, including economy, social interactions and culture. The commodification of heritage that is reflected in the consumption of historical venues, ideas, experiences and skills takes place during free-time activities (recreational or tourism-driven) (ibidem). When valuable and attractive, cultural heritage can be used for business or non-profit activities, including event organization.

Cudny (2014) explains that festivals cause changes in physical and non-physical space: new infrastructure (temporary or permanent) is built for the performance of festivals and festivals are elements of social flows and interactions.

It is important to state that each event will not only depend of the resources available in a given area, but it will also have an impact on the space and the resources. This impact might act as well on those resources that are used for the achievement of the event, as well as on those not used directly, but present within the event localization.

Table 2 shows the possible inputs and outputs of planned cultural events in relation to specific spatial resources used in the organization process of events.

Table 2. The links between events and resources

Type of resources	**Chosen element**	**Possible input on the event**	**Possible output of the event**
Natural resources	Cultural landscape	the tangible and intangible "quality" of the event setting	transformation of the landscape (positive or negative)
Cultural resources	Infrastructure	the venue of the event technical support organizational support products and services accessibility	construction of new venues development of new linkages between infrastructural elements
Human resources	Human and social capital	organization possibilities event participants and staff characteristics	strengthening of social bonds and local cooperation entertainment and education possibilities
Heritage resources	Tangible and intangible heritage	the event theme the event venues	new use for existing objects dissemination of intangible heritage

The influence of the elements of space mentioned in Table 2 on cultural events organization will reflect in the following areas: the opportunities and constraints of event feasibility and the positive or negative impact of events. Getz (2003, 414 - 415) underlines that "(...) only so many events can exist in a given area owing to competition for scarce resources (including money, venues, volunteers) and for customers." An interesting question to ask would be which of these resources and in what degree are crucial for event organization. Would it be possible to elaborate a scale of their importance? Getz (2003, 419) also asks the question about "(...) the extent to which certain types of events are resource-dependent or rooted in specific environments." Some events may be derived from local traditions and based on local resources and then strongly linked with a given space, whilst some may be more independent of the natural or cultural resources typical for a given localization. In the second situation it might be possible to "move" an event from one setting to another without causing loss for the event itself, but probably causing some loss for the area (and its' resources) where it was organized in the first place.

Conclusions

For every event organizer geographical space is source of resources needed for a successful event achievement. From a geographic perspective it is interesting to see the interaction between space and events and to assess the possible changes resulting from this process. The aim of this paper was to start a reflection on how chosen elements of space can affect the event organization. It was also a goal to show several possible outcomes of events on space. The author is conscious that without proper empirical data it is impossible to fully confirm the statements included in the paper, but this theoretical reflection might be starting point for further research.

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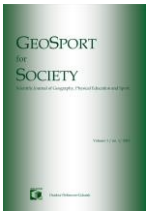

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Women's basketball at the Olympic Games

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Abstract. The article refers to the evolution of Women Basketball Olympic Tournaments, trying to present and analyze these tournaments by associating the information related with the study of basketball to mapping representation. In the first part, the authors refer to a number of papers able to approach the research of sports as a result of the common study of specialists in physical education and sports, and also geography. There are also presented the main events that determined the inclusion of women basketball in the Olympic Games program. The gradual evolution of Women Basketball Olympic Tournaments, the participation of national teams, the medals obtained are presented and analyzed by associating the map with different ways of graphical representation.

Keywords: Basketball, women, Olympic Games

Introduction

The Olympic Games represent one of the major events of our days; they have the highest audience as they are watched by millions of spectators and billions of televiewers. Given their role in the modern society and their major impact, the various aspects related to the Olympic Games are subjects of interests for specialists in multiple fields. Besides the researches that are specific to a certain scientific field, a new series of researches that approach the phenomena from a multidisciplinary perspective appeared. This kind of approach also includes collaborations between

specialists from the geography and sports fields. Thus, in Romania, the first paper of this type was published in 1938 (Mihăilă & Ulmeanu, 1938). Within the Babes-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca, Faculty of Geography, under the guidance of the professor doctor Surd Vasile, various doctorate thesis that approach sports from a geographical point of view were developed. (Sandor, 2005) and (Bogdan, 2009). Moreover, various journals from Romania published papers written by both specialists in geography and sports (Maroti & Ilieş, 1995; Staşac et al., 2005; Sandor, 2003).

The spatial analysis studies of sports have in many cases a multidisciplinary character by completing and consolidating the scientific endeavor with issues and methods specific to other domains (Iieş et al, 2014).

Despite the above mentioned achievements, the consultation of the biography reveals that the existent resources were not fully used and developed. Given this conclusion, we consider that a paper that approaches the women's tournaments at the Olympic Games, studied from the sports and geography perspective, is a topical subject that can contribute to a thorough investigation of the studied phenomena. "The principles which guide, the methods and tools which facilitate the geographic analysis or the spatial analysis of a phenomenon or process and which represented the basis of geographic scientific foundation, they can all be extremely useful in the spatial analysis of sports activities under all their structural and manifestation forms"(Iieş et al, 2014, 9).

The geographical concepts of space and place are central not only to a definition of sport but also to an enhanced understanding of sport`s significance (Bale, 2003). The spatial perspective adds much to our knowledge of the history of sport.

The era preceding the inclusion of the women's basketball in the Olympic Games programme

Sport, as social phenomenon, must always be understood and explained in its historical, political, economic, social and cultural context (Buhaş, 2015).

The inclusion of the women's basketball in the Olympic Games programme was initiated in the 20's by Alice Millat, president of the International Women's Sports Federation, and re-discussed at the International Olympic Committee session held in Oslo on February 28, 1935. The position adopted by the majority of the participants was that the proposal would not be favored (***,1998b).

Other proposals for including the women's basketball in the Olympic programme were also presented in the International Olympic Committee sessions held in Paris 1955, Baden-Baden 1963, Tokyo 1964, Madrid 1965, but the necessary votes for approval were not obtained (***, 1998a).

In 1967, Teheran, within the 66th session, fifty-seven out of the present members of the International Olympic Committee voted in the favor of declaring the women's basketball as an Olympic discipline. Therefore, according to the Rule 29, basketball, together with athletics, rowing, gymnastics, swimming, equestrian sports, shooting, archery, yachting and volleyball, would be one of the women's sports accepted at the Olympic Games. In September, 1972, in Munich,

during the 73rd session of International Olympic Committee has been approved to organize, starting with Montreal, 1976, Olympic tournaments for the women's basketball (***, 1998e).

The participation of the women's team in the basketball Olympic tournaments

The fact that the women's basketball was included in the Olympic Games programme had a significant influence on its direction and development. During the years that followed its inclusion in the Olympic programme the number of female participants in this sport increased and the support received from the national and international forums was consolidated. After it become an Olympic discipline, the official national and international competitions or other activities related to this sports discipline were given a lot of media coverage both by the newspapers and the TV channels. All of this led to and increased impact of the women's basketball and to an increased number of spectators and televiewers interested in this sport.

Starting with the 67th session of the International Olympic Committee, Mexico City, 1968, the evolution of the women's basketball was influenced, besides by the efforts of the International Amateur Basketball Federation or of the national Olympic committees and national federations, by the decisions taken by the Olympic Games Study Commission (***, 1998c).

The Olympic basketball tournaments for the national women representatives were organized with the participation of six teams in the 1976, 1980 and 1984 Olympics, of eight teams in the Seoul and Barcelona Olympic Games and of twelve teams in the 1996, 2000, 2004, 2008 and 2012 Olympics. Therefore, the women's basketball reached, from the point of view of the number of teams and players, the level of the men's basketball. The objective of the International Olympic Committee and of the International Amateur Basketball Federation was accomplished due to the support and the reactions of the international sports forums that took into consideration the tendencies surfaced in the modern society and in the Olympic sports during the past years, when the emancipation and encouragement of women became compulsory in a contemporary era (***, 1998d). The widening of the participation area in the Olympic women's basketball tournaments greatly contributed to the attainment of the universality Olympic movement.

During the ten Olympics that included the women's basketball in their programme, thirty-one teams participated. The teams that were the most present were the teams from the Unites States of America and Russia (Russia, the Soviet Union and the Commonwealth of Independent States) that had nine participations, those of Australia and China that had seven participations, followed by South Korea with six participations.

If we analyze the presence of these teams from the point of view of their geographical origins, we conclude that 41.48% are from Europe, followed by 19.14% from North America and 17.02% from Asia, 10.63% from Australia and Oceania, 6.38% from South America, 5.31% from Africa. The decisions of the International

Olympic Committee were taken based on the propositions made by the Olympic Programme Commission and the International Basketball Federation, in order to assist the access of the teams from every geographical area by including them in the qualification tournament system of continental championships, by increasing the number of teams accepted in the women's Olympic basketball tournament to eight and then to twelve. Thus, a higher number of participants were registered when it came to the national representatives from Africa, Asia, South America and Australia/Oceania. If in Moscow, 1980, the percentage of the European teams was of 83.33%, after the different measures taken in order to broaden the participation areas, between 1996 and 2012 the percentage varied from 25% in 1996 to 50% at the Olympic Games from London, 2012.

During the ten Olympic women's basketball tournaments, ten national teams obtained medals. The highest number of medals, nine, was won by the United States of America, followed by Russia with six medals. Only the teams from these two countries succeeded to win first place. The distribution of medals according to continents shows that the women's basketball tournaments were dominated by the representatives of Europe (11 medals) and North America (9 medals).

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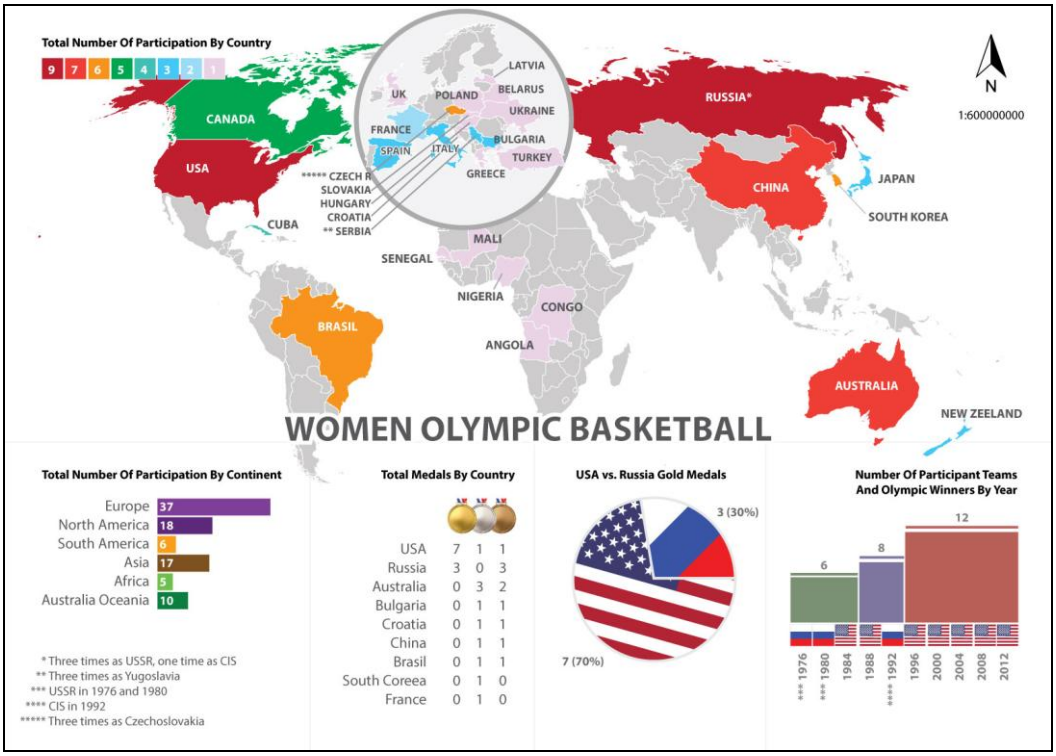

Figure 1. Women's basketball at the Olympic Games

Conclusions

Even though basketball is the first team sports game practiced by women and even though its inclusion in the Olympic Games programme was initiated in 1920, the favorable decision of the International Olympic Committee was adopted only during the 73rd session from Munich, 1972.

During the ten Olympic Games that included the women's basketball, thirty-one national teams participated. Their distribution on continents highlights the predominant role played by Europe (41.48 %). The other continents present percentages between 19.14% by North America and 5.31% by Africa.

From the participant countries only 10 succeeded to win medals. Most of the medals (66.66%) were won by the teams from Europe (36.66%) and from North America (30%).

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