

SPORT I TURYSTYKA
ŚRODKOWOEUROPEJSKIE CZASOPISMO NAUKOWE

T. 5

NR 2

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W CZĘSTOCHOWIE

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Wstęp

W 2022 r. czasopismo „Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” ukazuje się piąty rok. Jest kontynuacją czasopisma „Prace Naukowe Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie. Kultura Fizyczna”. W drugim numerze zostały zaprezentowane prace Autorów z różnych ośrodków naukowych w Polsce i na świecie.

W części I – *Dzieje kultury fizycznej w Polsce i na świecie* – znajdują się artykuły odnoszące się do następującej tematyki:

- osiągnięcia reprezentacji Polski w Mistrzostwach Europy w koszykówce kobiet w latach 1938–2021;
- czynniki rozwoju lekkoatletyki i osiągnięcia sportów olimpijskich w obwodzie dnipropropietrowskim Związku Radzieckiego.

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

- analizy aktywności fizycznej uczniów szkół średnich i jej porównania w ujęciu wybranych regionów Słowacji;
- kompetencji nauczyciela wychowania fizycznego (na podstawie wybranych aspektów z doświadczenia edukacji szkolnej Ukrainy – aspekt pedagogiczny);
- dyfuzji treści symbolicznych i dialogu kulturowego na przykładzie Europejskiej Komisji Sztuk Walki (European Martial Arts Committee);
- podwyższenia poziomu kondycji fizycznej studentek w oparciu o wykorzystanie środków turystyki sportowo-rekreacyjnej.

Część III – *Turystyka i rekreacja* – zawiera teksty omawiające następującą problematykę:

- sektor turystyczny w Polsce w przededniu i obliczu pandemii COVID-19;
- turystyka, hotelarstwo w czasie pandemii COVID-19.

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

Eligiusz Małolepszy

CZĘŚĆ I
DZIEJE KULTURY FIZYCZNEJ
W POLSCE I NA ŚWIECIE

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Achievements of Poland's national team in the European Women's Basketball Championships in the years 1938–2021

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Osiągnięcia reprezentacji Polski w Mistrzostwach Europy w Koszykówce Kobiet w latach 1938–2021

Streszczenie

Początki koszykówki na świecie datuje się na 1891 r., kiedy Kanadyjczyk James Naismith wymyślił grę dla studentów ze Springfield. Po niedługim czasie rozegrano mecze na kontynencie europejskim – w Paryżu (1893 r.) i w Londynie (1894 r.). W Polsce pierwszy mecz pokazowy rozegrały kobiety – w 1909 r. we Lwowie. Upowszechnienie dyscypliny w Europie nastąpiło po I wojnie światowej. W latach 20. XX w. powstały organizacje państwowe i międzynarodowe, które ujednoliciły przepisy gry. Umożliwiło to rozegranie pierwszych mistrzostw krajowych, a następnie organizację meczów międzypaństwowych. W 1935 r. odbyły się I Mistrzostwa Europy w koszykówce mężczyzn, a trzy lata później w zawodach tej rangi zadebiutowały kobiety. W latach 1938–2021 odbyło się trzydzieści osiem edycji mistrzostw, w których reprezentacja Polski uczestniczyła dwudziestodwukrotnie. Najczęściej medale zdobywały zawodniczki ze Związku Socjalistycznych Republik Radzieckich (ZSRR), Czechosłowacji, Francji, Bułgarii i Hiszpanii. Największym osiągnięciem Polski

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był złoty medal wywalczony w Katowicach w 1999 r. Ponadto Polki zdobyły dwa medale srebrne (1980 r., 1981 r.) oraz dwa medale brązowe (1938 r., 1968 r.).

Słowa kluczowe: Mistrzostwa Europy, koszykówka, sport kobiet.

Abstract

The beginning of basketball in the world dates back to 1891 when a Canadian, James Naismith, invented the game for students in Springfield. After a short time, matches were played in Europe, in Paris (1893) and London (1894). The first demonstrational game in Poland was played by women in 1909, in Lviv. The discipline spread throughout Europe after World War I. In the 1920s, some state and international organizations were established to standardize the rules of the game. They allowed to play the first national championships and afterwards to organize interstate matches. In 1935, the First European Men's Basketball Championship was organized, and three years later, women made their debut in the competition of this rank. Between 1938 and 2021, there were thirty-eight editions of the championships, in which the Polish national team participated twenty-nine times. Most medals were won by athletes from the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), Czechoslovakia, France, Bulgaria, and Spain. Poland's most outstanding achievement was the gold medal won in Katowice in 1999. What is more, Polish women won two silver medals (1980, 1981) and two bronze medals (1938, 1968).

Keywords: European Championship, basketball, women's sport.

Introduction

Numerous historians of physical culture have studied the subject of team games in Poland. Among the researchers who have been involved in exploring this area with regard to basketball are Kajetan Hądzelek, Edward Janik, Paweł Lenik, Krzysztof Łaszkiwicz, Czesław Michalski, Janusz Płaczek, Artur and Roman Pyjos, Maria Rotkiewicz, Michał Skalik, and Ryszard Wryk.¹ Their work resulted in national and regional publications. The literature listed does not limit the possibilities for further academic research on basketball. This publication attempts to present the European Championship's history from the standpoint of medal-winning matches of the Polish women's national team, shown against the

¹ Among others: E. Janik, *Rozwój koszykówki w Polsce w latach 1945–1973* (doctoral dissertation), AWF Poznań 1971; P. Lenik, *Koszykówka w Polsce w latach 1973–2004* (doctoral dissertation), ZWKF Gorzów Wlkp. 2008; K. Łaszkiwicz, *Polska koszykówka męska 1928–2004*, Wydawnictwo Pozkał, Inowrocław 2004; C. Michalski, *Akademicki Związek Sportowy w Krakowie 1945–2009*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Uniwersytetu Pedagogicznego, Kraków 2012; J. Płaczek, *Rozwój koszykówki w Polsce w okresie międzywojennym* (doctoral dissertation), AWF Poznań 1989; A. Pyjos, R. Pyjos, *Pod wiślackim koszem kobiet i mężczyzn 1928–2006*, Wydawnictwo GiT, Kraków 2006; M. Rotkiewicz, *AZS-AWF Warszawa 1949–2009*, Wydawnictwo Estrella, Warszawa 2014; M. Skalik, *Zespołowe gry sportowe kobiet w Polsce w latach 1945–1989*, UJD, Częstochowa 2020; R. Wryk, *90 lat Akademickiego Związku Sportowego w Poznaniu*, Dom Wydawniczy Rebis, Poznań 2009.

background of other teams' achievements participating in tournaments of this rank. The study includes all previous editions of the championship (38). This work presented this way, apart from its central aspect, i.e. the analysis of the Polish national team's contribution, is a compendium of the results of the European Championships between 1938 and 2021.

Research methods and problems

The following research methods were adopted in developing the publication: synthesis, analysis of historical sources, induction, deduction, and a comparative approach. The following research problems have arisen:

- What was the course of the European Championships tournaments in which Poland won medal positions?
- Which players and coaches have contributed the most to the national team's success?
- What results did the Polish national team achieve in the European championships between 1938 and 2021?
- How did the results of the Polish national team relate to the level and achievements of the other participants in the European Women's Championship between 1938 and 2021?

Results and discussion

Women's participation in sports before World War I was relatively moderate. Women did not participate in the first Olympic Games of the modern era organised in Athens, in 1896. Women's participation in the 1900–1912 Games was also prudent (about 2% of the total number of competitors).² Women made some successful efforts to gain the right to play sports in the 1920s. Emphasizing women's quest for equality in sports was the First International Women's Sports Congress held in Paris in 1921. The International Women's Sports Federation was established to organize the Women's World Games, held from 1922 to 1934.³ During this time, national organizations were also formed to cover team sports games. The establishment of the Polish Sports Games Association in 1928 enabled the first Polish women's basketball championship to be held in 1929. A year later, in the first historical interstate match, the Polish women defeated

² M. Skalik, *Zespołowe gry sportowe...*, p. 11.

³ T. Drozdek-Mafolepszka, *Women's World Games*, "Prace Naukowe Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie. Kultura Fizyczna" 2014, vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 59–60.

the Swedish team in Kraków.⁴ In the 1930s, academic sports were an important factor in activating women to play basketball. Polish women's basketball players made a strong mark in this aspect, triumphing twice in the Academic World Championships, in Budapest (1935) and Paris (1937).⁵ Given the growing popularity of women's basketball, the International Basketball Federation (established in 1932) decided to organize the First European Women's Championship (EWC) in 1938, which took place three years after the men's inauguration in the competition of this rank.

Medal performances of the women's national team in EWC 1938–2021

1st EWC, Rome (Italy), 12–16 October 1938

Poland (bronze medal): Irena Brzustowska, Halina Bruszkiewicz, Zofia Filip, Jadwiga Głazewska, Helena Gruszczyńska, Edyta Holfeier-Kozłowska, Irena Jaśnikowska, Irena Jaźnicka-Kamecka, Zdzisława Wiszniewska, Helena Wojnarowska i Zofia Wojewódzka-Wardyńska. Coach: Mieczysław Piotrowski.

The Polish team arrived in Rome on 10 October 1938 by rail. Teams from France, Lithuania, Poland, Switzerland, and Italy participated in the tournament. The matches were played on an open court in the evening (in artificial lighting). The Polish basketball players faced the hosts in the first game, the Italians, yielding 19 : 27 after a fierce duel. As it turned out later, this match deprived Poland of a chance for the gold medal of the championships. In the games to come, Poland defeated Switzerland (34 : 6), France (24 : 19), and Lithuania (24 : 21). In the final classification, three teams had the same number of victories, but the ratio of small points was the most unfavorable for the Polish team. At the end of the day, Poland won the bronze medal. Players standing out in the team were: Irena Brzustowska, Halina Bruszkiewicz, Zdzisława Wiszniewska, and Helena Gruszczyńska, whose accurate throws at the end of the match led to the victory with Lithuania. The Italian won the championship.⁶

11th EWC, Messina (Italy), 5–15 July 1968

Poland (bronze medal): Mirosława Budyń, Aniela Kaczmarow, Jadwiga Korbaśńska, Krystyna Likso, Maria Łuczyńska, Halina Maliszewska, Renata Pier-

⁴ "Przegląd Sportowy" 1930, issue 58, p. 3; "Stadjon" 1930, issue 27, p. 10.

⁵ M. Skalik, *Zespołowe gry sportowe...*, p. 30.

⁶ "Przegląd Sportowy" 1938, issue 83, p. 1; "Przegląd Sportowy" 1938, issue 84, p. 4; *75 lat łódzkiej koszykówki 1925–2000*, Wydawnictwo Wograf, Łódź 2000, p. 13; <https://archive.fiba.com> [access: 9.11.2021].

nitzka, Elżbieta Ptasińska, Barbara Rogowska, Irena Sokuł, Ludwika Szymańska, Janina Wojtal. Coach: Andrzej Pstrokoński.

Polish women went to Sicily under the supervision of their coach, Andrzej Pstrokoński. Poland was placed in a group with European vice-champions, Czechoslovakia, and strong Romanian and Bulgarian teams. Two teams qualified for the final pool. The Poles started the competition from the match against Czechoslovakia, in which Krystyna Likso, Barbara Rogowska, and Janina Wojtal imposed their style of play from the very first minutes. The Polish players went off for a break with an 11-point lead. In the second part, they managed to keep the rivals at a safe distance, mainly thanks to the throwing fitness of Irena Sokuł. Poland defeated Czechoslovakia 72 : 58, which was entirely unexpected. A day later, the Polish women fought a vital battle with Romania. Until the thirtieth minute, the score oscillated around a draw, then came a series of successful actions by Irena Sokuł, and the Poles confidently won 55 : 44. Despite two crucial wins, the fate of advancing to the finals was not decided. Czechoslovakia won against Bulgaria, which meant that the ranking table was to be determined by the matches played on the third day of the championships. In the last group game, Polish women lost to Bulgaria (47 : 56), which caused three teams to have the same number of wins. Poland had the most favorable balance of points and qualified to the final round together with Bulgaria.

Six best teams from heat rounds and the tournament hosts – the Italians – played in the finals. Poland started with a defeat against Yugoslavia (47 : 59) and a clear win against Belgium (61 : 30). The following two games, against East Germany and Italy, were very close, but the ends belonged to the Poles (58 : 50 and 38 : 37). On the tenth day of the championships, Poland and Bulgaria played a decisive match for the bronze medal. This time the highest level was presented by Janina Wojtal, who played one of the best games in her career (24 points). The Poles quickly gained a high advantage. The Bulgarian players were making up for the loss but determined Poles (Renata Szeib gave valuable substitutions) kept the promising result (64 : 57) on their last legs. Poland had lost the previous game, which did not affect the arrangement in the table, to the unreachable basketball players of the USSR (55 : 92), who by clearly winning all the games gained the title of the best team in Europe for the ninth time.⁷

17th EWC, Banja Luka (Yugoslavia), 19–28 September 1980

Poland (silver medal): Barbara Gertchen, Ludmiła Janowska, Małgorzata Gliszczyńska, Halina Iwaniec, Aleksandra Komacka, Teresa Komorowska, Irena Linka, Mariola Marzec, Wiesława Piotrkiewicz, Grażyna Seweryn, Bożena Sędzicka, Małgorzata Turska. Coach: Ludwik Miętta.

⁷ "Dziennik Polski" 1968, issue 162, p. 2; "Dziennik Polski" 1968, issue 165, p. 2; "Dziennik Polski" 1968, issue 168, p. 2; <https://archive.fiba.com> [access: 9.11.2021]; Interview with Krystyna Likso.

In the first phase of the tournament, twelve teams competed in three groups. The two best teams qualified for the quarterfinals (participation was guaranteed to the hosts, Yugoslavia, and the then European champions, the USSR). Poland ended up in Group A, which, apart from weak England, featured two strong teams, i.e. Hungary and Italy. In the inaugural match, Poland distinctly won with England (80 : 56), and coaches Ludwik Miętta and Zbigniew Fel-ski could introduce all the basketball players to the game. In the second meeting, the Italians, who put all the eggs in one basket (they lost in the first match with the Hungarians), approached the duel with great determination. The Italians dominated the first half and won this part by seven points. In the second half, after the accurate throws by Irena Linki, the Polish players came out on top, and they kept that position until the end (69 : 63), thanks to the successful actions by Bożena Sędzicka. In the last group match, the Poles, with their promotion already guaranteed, gave way to the Hungarians (68 : 88).

They played the first match of the next phase against strong Bulgaria. A superb performance of the Bożena Sędzicka – Ludmiła Janowska duo allowed to defeat the Olympic vice-champions (69 : 59). Observers unanimously agreed that it was one of the best Polish matches ever. The Polish women faced the favored Yugoslavian women in the semifinals thanks to this win. The central tactical assumption was to make the game difficult for the most effective opponent – Djurkovic, and Ludwik Miętta entrusted this task to Ludmiła Janowska. Despite the hot atmosphere in the arena, the Poles went for the break with a one-point lead. At the beginning of the second half, Bożena Sędzicka left the floor for five offenses, but the loss was fully compensated by a fantastic game of Teresa Komorowska (27 points). With two minutes to go, the scoreboard showed a tie. The uproar of the Yugoslavian fans did not bemuse Teresa Komorowska, who scored 6 points consecutively and sealed the enormous success in the history of Polish basketball at that time (79 : 72). After the final whistle, all Polish players, including the substitutes, threw themselves at our captain, Halina Iwaniec, and the Yugoslavian were going to the locker room crying.

In the final match, the Poles once again lost to the USSR (49 : 95). A notable distinction was given to Ludmiła Janowska, whom the coaches nominated to the “Stars of Europe” team.⁸

18th EWC, Ancona (Italy), 13–20 September 1981

Poland (silver medal): Małgorzata Gliszczyńska, Halina Iwaniec, Ludmiła Janowska, Teresa Komorowska, Halina Kosińska, Irena Linka, Mariola Marzec, Wiesława Piotrkiewicz, Grażyna Seweryn, Bożena Sędzicka, Marta Starowicz, Małgorzata Turska. Coach: Ludwik Miętta.

⁸ “Przegląd Sportowy” 1980, issue 184–190; “Dziennik Polski” 1980, issue 210, p. 8; <https://archive.fiba.com> [access: 9.11.2021].

Polish opponents in the group stage of the 18th EWC were Germany, Yugoslavia, Finland, the Netherlands, and Italy. The draw was considered very favorable as Group B featured strong teams from the USSR, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, and Hungary. For Poland, the tournament began with a sensational defeat against Germany (67 : 71). In the second game, Polish women faced the strongest team of the group – Yugoslavia. The match was extremely even. The Poles showed team defense that resulted in their winning (59 : 56). The most significant part in the victory was held by Bożena Sędzicka (83 percent accuracy of shots from the game) and Halina Iwaniec, who led the game. In the following matches the Polish players showed some excellent performance, namely – they defeated Finland (82 : 65), the Netherlands (76 : 35), and Italy (77 : 55). Mariola Pawlak deserved special praise in these three meetings. These results gave the Poles the first place in group A, which meant a semifinal match with Czechoslovakia. This meeting had a double value because the winning team was guaranteed a trip to the World Championships in Brazil in 1983. Małgorzata Kozera and Irena Linka started the match well and easily beat their opponents. Halina Iwaniec, who conducted the game skillfully, did not fail, and the Polish players reached a five-point advantage by the break. The first minutes of the second part, when Bożena Sędzicka and Mariola Pawlak threw accurately, turned out to be crucial for the outcome of the match. The Poles reached a 12-point lead, which they did not give up until the end of the game (72 : 60). After the final whistle, the players tossed their coach Ludwik Miętta up in the air, rejoicing over the defense of the runner-up title. There was still a final match, but the USSR's basketball players were beyond the reach of other teams, beating them by an average margin of thirty-eight points.⁹

27th EWC, Katowice, Poznań, Pruszków, 28 May – 6 June 1999

Poland (gold medal): Beata Binkowska, Dorota Bukowska, Joanna Cupryś, Patrycja Czepiec, Katarzyna Dulnik, Katarzyna Dydek, Małgorzata Dydek, Agnieszka Jaroszewicz, Ilona Mądra, Krystyna Szymańska-Lara, Elżbieta Trześniewska, Sylwia Wlazlak. Coach: Tomasz Herkt.

EWC in Poland was at the same time an Olympic qualifying round – the four best teams qualified for Sydney. The Polish national team included several outstanding players at the peak of their sporting form. The leader was Małgorzata Dydek, who gained experience playing for four seasons in European leagues (France, Spain) and on the floors of the WNBA. The first playmaker was Sylwia Wlazlak, who knew how to lead the team. Krystyna Lara and Elżbieta Trześniew-

⁹ "Przegląd Sportowy" 1981, issue 177–182; "Dziennik Polski" 1981, issue 187, p. 6; L. Miętta-Mikołajewicz, *Widziane z ławki trenerskiej*, Wydawnictwo MC Media, Warszawa 2021, p. 19; <https://archive.fiba.com> [access: 9.11.2021].

ska scored points. The starting lineup was completed by high winger Joanna Cupryś, who had played in the French league after her studies in the USA. Poland started the competition in Group B, including teams from Lithuania, the Czech Republic, Yugoslavia, Italy, and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Four teams qualified for the quarterfinals. In the first meeting, the Poles faced the European champions of that time, the Lithuanians, and after a fierce battle lost 72 : 79. The team led by Tomasz Herkt had to rebuild in the meeting with Yugoslavia. Until the break, the match was tight, but in the second half it was the Polish team who took the initiative and triumphed 81 : 74. In the third duel against the Czech Republic, Małgorzata Dydek left the court for misconduct in the twenty-fifth minute. The Polish team couldn't win without its leader (75 : 78), and the players found themselves in challenging circumstances, having one win in three games. The fourth game, against Bosnia and Herzegovina, was the easiest of the tournament (75 : 53). The last group match was crucial. A potential win against Italy gave Poland the second position in the group, which meant avoiding confrontation with solid teams of Russia and France in the quarterfinals. A defeat could have pushed us down to the fifth place, signifying the end of dreams for the Sydney Olympics. The Italian players, fighting for identical goals, led until the fifteenth minute, but Poland recovered before the break. In the second half, the advantage of our midfielders, Elżbieta Trzeźniewska and Małgorzata Dydek, came to light. Their play and counters by Krystyna Lara allowed the Poles to distance themselves safely and win nervelessly 80 : 71.

The decisive matches of the championships took place in "Spodek," Katowice. The quarterfinal battles were of great importance as the winning teams received Olympic qualifications. Poland faced a robust Croatian team, which managed to defeat Slovakia, the vice-champions of Europe, in a group match. From the beginning the match went in favour of Poland that led by eight points at halftime and then increased the advantage. The final score of 72 : 51 meant a historic promotion to the Olympic Games and further struggle for the championship medal.

The Polish basketball players approached the semifinal against Russia in good moods. No one expected them to beat the world vice-champions, and their lack of pressure allowed them to pull off a big surprise. The Russians, who have five Olympic champions from Barcelona on their roster, started with a 16:6 lead. Tomasz Herkt rotated the lineup and finally "hit" with Beata Binkowska. Her dynamic drivers to the basket caused the Polish players to stroke a tie just before the break at 29 : 29. In the second half, Krystyna Lara's time came. Wisła Kraków playmaker started to hit in the tantamount moment, leading Poland to a 57 : 47 score. The ambitious Russians made up for the loss, but a series of three hits by Joanna Cupryś and a good performance of tall Dydek-Trzeźniewska duo made the Poles win 66 : 61 and advance to the final of the tournament.

In the finals, the Polish team's opponents were the French, who had out-classed Slovakia the day before. Sylwia Właźlak and Krystyna Lara started the match very bravely, and the score was 12 : 2 after five minutes. The French players were making up for losses diligently, and to cap it all off, Małgorzata Dydek had four fouls before the break. Despite their poorer performance, the Poles went to the locker room with a minimal lead. In the thirtieth minute, Małgorzata Dydek fell on the floor, and medical intervention was needed. The score oscillated around a tie, with the Polish women's leader still sitting among the reserves with a head wrap. Finally, the priceless pivot player rose from her chair, and... at the same time, a few thousand spectators in Katowice "Spodek" stood up to motivate her to play. Małgorzata paid back for this beautiful gesture with three successful actions in attack, and two minutes before the end of the game, the Poles were leading by 58 : 50. The French players did not give up and stood pressing all over the court, which allowed them to reduce the loss to one basket (58 : 56). Krystyna Lara had the critical action at the end of the game, when she was fouled while driving to the basket. Although the desperate French players gave a missed shot from a distance, the Pole used one free throw and set the game score at 59 : 56. The European Championships gold medal – the most considerable success in the history of Polish basketball became a fact!¹⁰.

¹⁰ "Tempo" 1999, issue 103–108; "Przegląd Sportowy" 2000, issue 10, p. 1–2; M. Cegliński, *Złote Dziewczyny*, Wydawnictwo MC Media, Pruszków 2019; <https://archive.fiba.com> [access: 9.11.2021].

Table 1. Classification of the EWC 1938–1991 (cont.)

European Women's Championships 1938–1991	1938 (1 – Italy)	1950 (2 – Hungary)	1952 (3 – USSR)	1954 (4 – Yugoslavia)	1956 (5 – Czechoslov.)	1958 (6 – Poland)	1960 (7 – Bulgaria)	1962 (8 – France)	1964 (9 – Hungary)	1966 (10 – Romania)	1968 (11 – Italy)	1970 (12 – Netherl.)	1972 (13 – Bulgaria)	1974 (14 – Italy)	1976 (15 – France)	1978 (16 – Poland)	1980 (17 – Yugoslav.)	1981 (18 – Italy)	1983 (19 – Hungary)	1985 (20 – Italy)	1987 (21 – Spain)	1989 (22 – Bulgaria)	1991 (23 – Israel)	NUMBER OF MEDALS	
SWEDEN	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
FINLAND	–	–	11	–	11	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
DENMARK	–	–	–	10	13	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	13	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
SCOTLAND	–	–	–	–	16	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
ISRAEL	–	11	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	8	–
ENGLAND	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Based on the website: <https://archive.fiba.com> [access: 9.11.2021].

Table 2. Classification of the EWC 1993–2021

European Women's Championships 1993–2021	1993 (24 – Italy)	1995 (25 – Czech Rep.)	1997 (26 – Hungary)	1999 (27 – Poland)	2001 (28 – France)	2003 (29 – Greece)	2005 (30 – Turkey)	2007 (31 – Italy)	2009 (32 – Latvia)	2011 (33 – Poland)	2013 (34 – France)	2015 (35 – Hun./Rom.)	2017 (36 – Czech Rep.)	2019 (37 – Latv./Serb.)	2021 (38 – Fran./Spain)	NUMBER OF MEDALS
SPAIN	1	–	5	–	3	3	3	2	3	9	1	3	1	1	7	10
FRANCE	2	–	–	2	1	5	5	8	1	3	2	2	2	2	2	10
RUSSIA	7	3	6	3	2	1	2	1	2	1	13	6	9	8	6	8
SERBIA	–	–	–	–	–	–	9	11	13	–	4	1	11	3	1	3
CZECH REPUBLIC	–	7	9	5	9	2	1	5	9	4	6	11	13	15	15	2
SLOVAKIA	3	4	2	4	8	7	–	–	8	13	11	9	8	–	13	2
TURKEY	–	–	–	–	–	–	8	9	9	2	3	5	5	14	14	2
BELGIUM	–	–	–	–	–	6	–	7	–	–	–	–	3	5	3	2
POLAND	5	–	–	1	6	4	7	–	11	11	–	18	–	–	–	1
UKRAINE	–	1	10	–	11	11	–	–	13	–	13	16	10	16	–	1
LITHUANIA	–	5	1	6	4	–	4	6	11	7	13	8	–	–	–	1
ITALY	4	2	11	11	–	–	–	9	6	–	8	15	7	9	9	1
BELARUS	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	4	9	5	4	15	13	4	1
GERMANY	–	–	3	12	–	–	11	11	–	13	–	–	–	–	–	1
LATVIA	–	–	–	9	–	–	6	4	7	8	13	13	6	11	–	–
GREECE	–	–	–	–	10	9	10	13	5	13	–	10	4	–	16	–

Table 2. Classification of the EWC 1993–2021 (cont.)

European Women's Championships 1993–2021	1993 (24 – Italy)	1995 (25 – Czech Rep.)	1997 (26 – Hungary)	1999 (27 – Poland)	2001 (28 – France)	2003 (29 – Greece)	2005 (30 – Turkey)	2007 (31 – Italy)	2009 (32 – Latvia)	2011 (33 – Poland)	2013 (34 – France)	2015 (35 – Hun./Rom.)	2017 (36 – Czech Rep.)	2019 (37 – Latv./Serb.)	2021 (38 – Fran./Spain)	NUMBER OF MEDALS
HUNGARY	8	–	4	–	7	10	–	–	13	–	–	17	12	7	–	–
MONTENEGRO	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	6	9	7	16	12	12	–
GREAT BRITAIN	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	11	9	20	–	4	–	–
SWEDEN	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	7	14	–	6	8	–
SLOVENIA	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	14	10	10	–
CROATIA	–	8	–	8	–	–	–	13	–	5	11	12	–	–	11	–
YUGOSLAVIA	–	–	8	7	5	8	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
BOSNIA AND H.	–	–	12	10	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	5	–
ROMANIA	–	–	–	–	12	–	12	13	–	–	–	19	–	–	–	–
ISRAEL	–	–	–	–	–	12	–	11	13	13	–	–	–	–	–	–
MOLDOVA	–	6	7	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
BULGARIA	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Based on the website: <https://archive.fiba.com> [access: 9.11.2021].

Table 3. Medal classification of the EWC 1938–2021

Medal Classification European Women's Championships 1938–2021	PARTICIPATION	NUMBER OF MEDALS	GOLD MEDALS	SILVER MEDALS	BROWN MEDALS
USSR	22	22	21	1	—
CZECHOSLOVAKIA	22	15	—	7	8
FRANCE	31	11	2	8	1
SPAIN	20	10	4	1	5
BULGARIA	21	10	1	5	4
RUSSIA	15	8	3	3	2
HUNGARY	22	7	—	2	5
YUGOSLAVIA	20	6	—	4	2
POLAND	29	5	1	2	2
SERBIA	8	3	2	—	1
ITALY	32	3	1	1	1
CZECH REPUBLIC	14	2	1	1	—
SLOVAKIA	12	2	—	1	1
TURKEY	9	2	—	1	1
BELGIUM	13	2	—	—	2
LITHUANIA	11	2	1	1	—
UKRAINE	9	1	1	—	—
GERMANY (E.)	6	1	—	—	1
BELARUS	8	1	—	—	1
GERMANY	5	1	—	—	1

Based on the website: <https://archive.fiba.com> [access: 9.11.2021].

Conclusion

Summarizing the Polish national team achievements and the results of other teams in EWC, we should distinguish a period whose border was marked by the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991. The number of twenty-one gold medals in twenty-two European championship appearances between 1950 and 1991 proves the phenomenon of Soviet basketball. Supreme performances at that time were associated with basketball players of Czechoslovakia (15 medals) and Bulgaria (10 medals including gold in 1958). Until 1991 also Yugoslavia, Poland, Hungary, Romania, and East Germany presented a high level (18 medals altogether). In comparison to the abovementioned teams Western countries performed poorly and only the results of Italy and France deserved attention (a total of 3 medals). The other participants in the championships until 1991, i.e. the Netherlands, Belgium, Austria, West Germany, Spain, Sweden, Finland, Switzerland, Israel, Scotland, and England, finished the tournaments at distant places.

Analyzing the Polish team's performances, it should be noted that starting in 1950, the national team took places 4–6, in eight consecutive tournaments (until 1964). The Polish team's performance should be considered exemplary in this period, but not enough to win a championship medal. The women's basketball team lost the battle for the podium, finishing after the USSR, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, and Hungary. The breakthrough was the performance of the Poles during the championships in Yugoslavia in 1968. In this tournament, Poland won the bronze medal, beating the teams of Bulgaria and Czechoslovakia in direct matches. Credit should be given to the great experience of the team's primary players led by coach Andrzej Pstrokoński. For Krystyna Likszo, the team leader, the 1968 tournament was the sixth event of this rank. Nevertheless, other players who defined the team's strength were Aniela Kaczmarow, Irena Sokuł, and Janina Wojtal. In the first half of the 1970s, Poland's position in European women's basketball weakened. Meanwhile, significant progress was made by the representations of Western European countries, mainly France and Italy. Polish women began achieving better results in the second half of the 1970s when coach Zygmunt Olesiewicz led the team. In 1976, Poland came close to gaining Olympic qualification after a good performance at the tournament in Canada. Poland lacked a better (by one point) balance of "small" points to be promoted. Poland's greatest successes until 1991 fell at the beginning of the 1980s when the team won silver medals at championships in Yugoslavia (1980) and Italy (1981). The success of the team led by Ludwik Miętta was supported by the play of experienced playmakers, Halina Iwaniec and Ludmila Janowska, and basketball players of the younger generation (born 1958–1961), who in 1975–1977 won the silver medals of the European Junior Championships: Barbara Gertchen, Małgorzata Gliszczyńska, Teresa Komorowska, Irena Linki, Ma-

riola Pawlak, Grażyna Seweryn and Bożena Sędzicka. A good performance during the European Championships in 1981 allowed Poland to participate in the World Championships in Brazil in 1983 where the Polish women reached the seventh place. Beginning in 1983, there was a decline in the sporting level of the national team. In 1987, Poland finished tenth in the European Championships in Bulgaria. It was the weakest performance of the Polish women in the history of participation in the tournaments of this rank. Two years later, Poland failed to qualify for the main tournament, losing to the Netherlands, Israel, and Sweden in the preliminaries (Table 1).

In the 1990s, Europe saw significant geopolitical changes. The USSR broke up into fifteen states, the most notable of which, in the context of women's basketball, were: Belarus, Lithuania, Latvia, Russia, and Ukraine. Starting in 1993, the European champions in three consecutive editions were: Spain, Ukraine, and Lithuania, and in addition, the championship podium was occupied by: France, Germany, Russia, Slovakia, and Italy. Such results meant the alignment of Eastern and Western European forces. Yugoslavia and Hungary had weaker performances, and Bulgaria did not appear in the EWC after 1993.

The historic tournament for Poland was the 27th European Championship, which took place in 1999 in Poland (Katowice, Poznań, Pruszków). After unsuccessful qualification rounds and absence from the championships in 1995 and 1997, the Polish women performed superbly in front of their home crowd, winning gold medals and gaining promotion to the Olympic Games for the first time. Very strong starting five of the team led by Tomasz Herkt (Małgorzata Dydek, Joanna Cupryś, Krystyna Lara, Elżbieta Trzeźniewska, Sylwia Wlazlak) were complemented by valuable substitutes. Compared to the 1999 championships, Poland demonstrated average performances (places 4–7) in three consecutive editions of the European Championships (2001, 2003, 2005), followed by a marked decline in the sports level of the national team. Between 2007 and 2021, there were eight editions of the championships, in which the Polish women appeared only three times, settling on places outside the top ten.

In the first decade of the 21st century, only five teams won the European Championship medals (five editions): Belarus, the Czech Republic, France, Spain, and Russia. Starting from 2011, the top European teams were joined by Belgium, Serbia, and Turkey (medal performances), while Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro, Greece, Latvia, Sweden, and Great Britain also performed well (places 4–6). What was puzzling was a weaker performance of Italy, which, unlike France and Spain, failed to keep its high level (it ranked 6–15 between 1997 and 2021). Noteworthy is the excellent disposition of Serbia, which continued its basketball tradition after the disintegration of Yugoslavia. Serbia won gold medals at the 2015 and 2021 European Championships (Table 2).

In the thirty-eight European Championship tournaments held between 1938 and 2021, twenty countries won medals, eleven of which stood on the podium's top step. Considering the number of participations in the tournaments, it should be concluded that the national teams for which the geopolitical events of the early 1990s did not significantly change the level of their sports performance were: the USSR (later Russia) with 37 editions, Czechoslovakia (the Czech Republic) with 36, Italy with 32, France with 31 and Yugoslavia (Serbia) with 28 editions. Poland, with twenty-nine participations ranks high in this classification. Still, the results obtained after 2005 clearly show a decrease in the potential of the Polish representation versus the leading European teams (Table 3).

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Factors in the development of athletics and the achievements of Olympic sports in the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast of the USSR

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Czynniki rozwoju lekkoatletyki i osiągnięcia sportów olimpijskich w obwodzie dnipropietrowskim ZSRR

Streszczenie

Sport olimpijski jest ważną częścią kultury fizycznej i ruchu sportowego na poziomie międzynarodowym, krajowym i regionalnym. Osiągnięcia sportowców na igrzyskach olimpijskich są znakiem

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rozpoznawczym kraju i mają ogromne znaczenie dla kształtowania jego wizerunku na arenie międzynarodowej. Głównym celem pracy jest identyfikacja głównych czynników wpływających na rozwój lekkoatletyki w obwodzie dniepropietrowskim.

W obwodzie dniepropietrowskim lekkoatletyka jako sport olimpijski jest liderem zarówno pod względem liczby sportowców uczestniczących w igrzyskach olimpijskich, jak i pod względem liczby medali olimpijskich zdobytych podczas igrzysk olimpijskich w latach 1952–1988. Artykuł analizuje historyczne aspekty rozwoju tego sportu, wskazując główne czynniki decydujące o efektywności treningu wysoko wykwalifikowanych sportowców. Zakres chronologiczny niniejszego opracowania obejmuje jednak szerszy niż wskazany wyżej okres i omawia lata 1922–1991, kiedy Ukraina była częścią ZSRR, a sporty olimpijskie rozwijały się w warunkach ostrej rywalizacji sportowców z 15 republik związkowych.

W tym okresie na arenie międzynarodowej Związek Radziecki miał przewagę w rozwoju sportów olimpijskich. W osiągnięciu tej pozycji szczególne znaczenie miało doświadczenie w szkoleniu sportowców z Ukrainy i innych republik związkowych. Chodziło głównie o jakość kadr trenerskich, racjonalne szkolenie młodzieży oraz odpowiednią infrastrukturę sportową (dostępność obiektów do całorocznego treningu).

Słowa kluczowe: lekkoatletyka, igrzyska olimpijskie, czynniki rozwoju.

Abstract

Olympic Sport is an important part of physical culture and sports movement at the international, national and regional levels. The achievements of athletes at the Olympic Games are the hallmark of the country and are of great importance for the formation of its image in the international arena.

Track-and-field athletics is a leader in the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast in the number of athletes participating in the Olympic Games and in the number of Olympic medals won during the Olympic games from 1952 to 1988. The article studies the historical aspects of the development of this sport, which is of significant interest not only for the historiography of the physical culture and sports movement in Ukraine and the region, but also allows us to highlight the main factors that determine the effectiveness of training highly qualified athletes. The chronological scope of this study covers the period from 1922 to 1991, when Ukraine was the part of the USSR and the Olympic sports developed in the conditions of the tough competition among athletes from 15 union republics.

During this period, the Russian Federation had an advantage in the development of Olympic sports, training experience of athletes from Ukraine and other Union Republics was of particular importance. According to this, preparation of Ukrainian and other Union Republic athletes is of great interest.

Keywords: athletics, Olympic Games, development factors.

Introduction

The Dnipropetrovsk Oblast is one of the largest regions of Ukraine, which in the period from 1922 to 1992 developed as part of the USSR. The region has a high level of scientific, technical, economic and cultural potential and is one of the leaders in the development of Olympic sports in Ukraine. The athletes of the region took part in all the Olympic Games since 1952. During this time, they won 26 Olympic medals, including 8 gold, 8 silver and 10 bronze medals in 9 sports.

The most successful sport is track-and-field athletics, in which 11 athletes won 3 Olympic medals during their participation in the Olympic Games.¹

During the period of participation in the Olympic Games, a great historical experience was accumulated in the preparation of highly qualified athletes in track-and-field athletics. In a tough, competitive struggle in the world sports arena such experience can be used both at the regional, national and international levels.

Research methods and problems

One of the problems in Olympic Sports development in the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast is the problem of training highly qualified athletes – candidates for the Soviet athletic team. To solve the problems of this study, we used literary sources, which can be divided into three groups.

The first group consists of encyclopedic materials and reference books devoted to the historical aspects of the development of physical culture and sports in Ukraine.

The second group includes archival materials of a legal nature – decisions and resolutions of the Regional Committee for Physical Culture and Sports, regulating the activities of sports and public organizations for the development of athletics in the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast. There were also used statistical materials, revealing the dynamics of the development of athletics.

The third group consists of scientific and methodological literature, which characterizes the peculiarities of organizing the training of highly qualified athletes, as well as periodical and local history literature on the history of physical culture and sports, including athletics in the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast.

Results and discussion

After the October Revolution of 1917, a new state was formed, i.e. the USSR, where Ukraine (Ukrainian SSR) and the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast became its integral part in 1922. During this period, the formation of the Soviet system of physical education and sports begins. For the development of track and field athletics during this period, the fact that this sport was one of the main sports included in the military physical training program and in the physical education programs of all educational institutions was of great importance. At this stage, athletics is developing as one of the most popular sports in the region.

One of the important factors that influenced the development of athletics was that this sport was one of the first in which a training system began to be created. To do this, at the beginning of the 1930s, the athletics specialists of the

¹ *Legkaya atletika: spravochnik*, ed. R.V. Orlov, Fizkultura i sport, Moskva 1983.

Dnepropetrovsk College of Physical Education developed a curriculum for sports instructors. The program included 150 hours of theoretical and practical training for instructors (coaches) in athletics. In addition, athletics instructors B.M. Khlebnikov and A.A. Bereznitsky were sent to the Kharkov Institute of Physical Culture.

An important condition for the development of athletics as a sport was the creation of a regional section for the sport, which was headed by one of the experienced instructors, Serdyukov. The section included the most experienced instructors in track and field athletics, who carried out work on the organizational and methodological support of the educational and training process, conducted seminars on the training of judges, and took part in the organization and conduct of competitions.

During this period, a lot of work was carried out in the Dnepropetrovsk region to create a material and technical base for the development of athletics. In the pre-war years, in addition to sports grounds with athletics tracks, the stadiums Stal, Dynamo, Lokomotiv were built.

All these factors contributed to the fact that athletics in the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast was one of the most successful sports in which athletes showed high sports results in all-Ukrainian competitions. Table 1 shows us the best achievements of Dnipropetrovsk athletes, champions of Ukraine from 1924 to 1939.

Table 1. Track and field athletes of Yekaterinoslav Oblast (Dnipropetrovsk Oblast) – champions of Ukraine in the pre-war years

Year of performance	Last name	Discipline	Result
1924	Kalashnikov L.	shot put	9.39 m
1924	Miloslavsky N.	5000 m run	no data
1924	Shumskaya S.	long jump	4.47 m (record of Ukraine)
1927	Busygina N.	long jump	4.87 m
1937	Bozhko G.	800 m run	no data
1937	Murenko I.	1500 m run; 3000 m hurdles	4.00,2 9.47,6
1937	Romantsov A.	3000 m hurdles	10.27,4
1937	Osok G.	high jump	1.75 m
1938	Murenko I.	3000 m hurdles	9.41,8 (record of Ukraine)
1939	Gudzeva V.	long jump	5.01 m

Source: I.V. Baldzhy, *Istorychni ta orhanizatsiino-metodychni osnovy rozvytku olimpiiskoho rukhu na Dnipropetrovshchyni vprodovzh XIX–XXI st.*, thesis for a candidate of science degree in physical education and sports, Dnipro 2019; L.L. Hinchuk, G.I. Mihaylova, *Legkaya atletika v SSSR (sorevnovaniya, dostizheniya, rekordy 1888–1950 gg.)*, Fizkultura i sport, Moskva 1951.

Track-and-field athletes from the Yekaterinoslav-Dnipropetrovsk Oblast took part in all All-Ukrainian Spartakiades, held since 1923, in which track-and-field athletics was a compulsory sport. In the II All-Ukrainian Spartakiade, held in August 1924 in Kharkov, the first places were won by N. Miloslavsky (5000 m run), L. Kalashnikov (shot put) and S. Shumskaya, who became the first athlete in the history of Yekaterinoslav, who set the Ukrainian record in long jump with a result of 4 m 47 cm. According to the results of the competition, S. Shumskaya was included to participate in the Ukrainian national team in the largest competition of the pre-war period - the All-Union Spartakiade in 1928.²

The champions and record holders in the Soviet Union in the pre-war years were: Blinnikov S. – shot put (14.36 m) – 1936; Murenko I.A – 3000 m hurdles (9.41.8 Ukrainian record) – 1938; middle distance run 1500 m (4.00,2) – 1939.³ During this period of time, two Masters of Sports in track-and-field athletics were trained in the region: Murenko Ivan Antonovich (the year of assignment is 1939); Volgina Ekaterina Andreevna (the year of assignment is 1941).

After the Second World War, a new stage in the development of physical culture and sports began and it is associated with the participation of athletes in the Olympic Games. Track-and-field athletics, as an Olympic Sport in the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast began its development in 1952 when 4 athletes of the region first took part in the XV Olympic Games in Helsinki as the part of the USSR national track-and-field athletics team. During this period of time, track-and-field athletics was among the 5 priority sports approved by the Sports Committee for the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast.

Since the early 1950s, the main attention in the development of track-and-field athletics was devoted to its diffusion to various groups of people. In total, during the period of time 1950-1960, the number of track-and-field athletes increased 4 times and amounted to more than 80,000 people.⁴

One of the most important factors that contributed to the development of track-and-field athletics since the early 1950s was the question of training and retraining of the coaches. An important role in personnel training was played by the Dnipropetrovsk Technical School of Physical Culture, whose subject commission with the participation of the leading coaches and teachers (N. Babets and I. Murenko) developed guidelines for the training process. Seminars on training of the coaches and instructors were held. The regional section in track-and-field

² N.A. Oleynik, Yu.I. Grot, *Istoriya fizicheskoy kultury i sporta na Harkovschine (Lyudi. Godyi. Faktyi. 1874–1950 gg., vol. 1, HDAFK, Harkov 2002. 376 s.*

³ L.L. Hinchuk, G.I. Mihaylova, *Legkaya atletika v SSSR (sorevnovaniya, dostizheniya, rekordyi 1888–1950 gg.), Fizkultura i sport, Moskva 1951.*

⁴ Komitet po fizicheskoy kulture i sportu pri ispolkome oblastnogo soveta deputatov trudyaschihsya. Planyi raboty oblastnogo i rayonnogo komitetov po fizicheskoy kulture i sportu za 1969 g. F. 4789. Op. 1. D. 71. L. 45-60.; Komitet po fizicheskoy kulture i sportu pri ispolkome oblastnogo soveta deputatov trudyaschihsya. Dokladyi i spravki o hode vyipolneniya plana razvitiya fizkulturyi i sporta po sostoyaniyu na 1952 g. F. 4789. Op. 1. D. 19. L. 12, 26, 48.

athletics and the sports and technical commission of the scientific and methodological council of the regional sports committee have played an active role in the improving the skills of coaches since 1952. The topics of the seminars for advanced training of the coaches included the questions related to modern methods of organizing and planning the training process, as well as the introduction of an annual system of training track-and-field athletes.

As a result of work done on training in the first half of the 1950s, a group of qualified coaches was formed in the region, who trained athletes, among whom were such specialists as N. Baturin, P. Galetsky, I. Murenko, A. Shibaev (Dnipropetrovsk); P. Korshun (Dniprodzerzhinsk); I. Sych (Krivoy Rog).⁵

An important factor in the effective training of highly qualified athletes was the logistics of the training process. In the 1950s and 1960s more than 40 stadiums equipped with track-and-field athletics sectors were built in the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast, in addition, there were 162 football fields with running tracks and 507 specially equipped running tracks in the region. The most modern sports facility for track-and-field athletics during this period of time was the stadium "Meteor", which had been operating since September 1966, and whose equipment corresponded to the Olympic standards.⁶

One of the important factors that contributed to the training of highly qualified athletes was the systematic work on the preparation of a reserve for the national teams of the region in track-and-field athletics in the system of Children's Sports Schools (CSS) and youth sports schools (YSS). 53 track-and-field athletics groups were opened at CSS in Dnipropetrovsk, Dniprodzerzhinsk, Kryvyi Rig, and Novomoskovsk in the first half of the 1950s. A total of 1241 athletes were involved in CSS of the region. One of the best schools in track-and-field athletics not only in the region, but also in Ukraine was CSS founded in 1948 at the Dniprodzerzhinsk metallurgical plant. One of the organizers of the work of this CSS was a well-known specialist P.P. Korshun, who was one of the first coaches in Ukraine, and who introduced an annual system of training athletes at CSS in track-and-field athletics.⁷

The number of children's sports schools (CSS) was constantly increasing in the 1950-60s. In total, 21 branches and 225 groups with a total of 2,970 athletes worked in the CSS system during this period. Track-and-field athletics was the first sport in which specialized children's and youth sports schools began to op-

⁵ Otchet podvedomstvennykh otdeleniy o fizkulturno-sportivnoy rabote (1955 g.). F. 4781. Op. 1. D. 4. L. 71.

⁶ N.H. Dolbysheva, I.V. Baldzhy, H.A. Salenko, *Istorychni peredumovy rozvytku materialno-tekhnichnoho zabezpechennia fizkulturno-sportyvnoho rukhu Dnipropetrovshchyny (1950-ti-1960-ti rr.)*, "Sportyvnyi visnyk Prydniprovia" 2018, №1, pp. 31–37.

⁷ Komitet po fizicheskoy kulture i sportu pri ispolkome oblastnogo soveta deputatov trudyaschihsya. F. 4789. Op. 1. D. 22. L. 18.

erate in the region. The national team of the region in track-and-field athletics successfully performed at the Spartakiade of schoolchildren. Thus, in 1967, CSS athletes took the 3rd team place in the Spartakiade of schoolchildren. The winner of the USSR championship among schoolchildren in 1968 was L. Soroka.⁸

The analysis of the development of track-and-field athletics as an Olympic sport in the 1950s – 1960s showed that the formation of an effective system for organizing the training of athletes has contributed to the growth of sports results in many types of athletics. During the study period, the results of the participation of track-and-field athletes improved in competitions of different levels. In 1950, Dnipropetrovsk was among the twenty best cities of the country (the 18th place) in the number of the best sports results of the season in the championships of the USSR and took the 3rd place in Ukraine after Kyiv and Kharkiv.⁹

In the 1950s and 1960s, athletes from the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast became USSR champions 10 times, setting 13 records (Table 2).

Table 2. Athletes of the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast – record holders of the USSR (1950–1960s)

No	Last name	Organization	Discharge	Result	Discipline	Date of installation
1.	Basalaev G.	“Dynamo”	USSR Master of Sports	1.02.23,0	20 km run	1955
				19 km 252 m	1-hour run	1955
2.	Belyaev I.	“Avantgarde”	USSR International Master of Sports	8.29,6	3000 m hurdles	10.08.1965
3.	Denisenko P.	“Locomotiv”	Honored Master of Sports of the USSR	4,37	pole jump	5.09.1951
				4,42		11.07.1952
				4,44		21.07.1953
				4,46		13.09.1954
4.	Lysenko L.	“Avantgarde”	Honored Master of Sports of the USSR	2.04,3	800 m run	3.07.1960
				2.04,3		7.09.1960
				6.32,6	3 × 800 m run	17.07.1955
				6.27,6		11.09.1955
				6.27,4		9.10.1958
				6.25,8		2.10.1963

Source: I.V. Baldzhy, op. cit.

⁸ Dnepropetrovskiy oblastnoy sovyet soyuza sportivnykh obschestv i organizatsiy USSR. Spravki o hode vyipolneniya byuro oblastnogo komiteta KP Ukrainyi ot 11 aprelya 1968 g. *O sostoyanii i merah po dalneyshemu razvitiyu sportivnoy bazyi v oblasti za 1968 g.* F. 4451. Op. 1. D. 451. L. 1–8.

⁹ R.V. Orlov, op. cit.

Such famous athletes as Basalaev G., Belyaev I., Denisenko P., Lysenko L. performed brilliantly at competitions, set records and won medals. They repeatedly climbed the pedestal and brought our country the coveted gold medals.

The famous sportsman of the region P. Denisenko set 3 records in Europe in pole vault. M. Belokurov (relay race 4 × 800 m) and L. Lysenko-Gurevich (800 m race, relay race 3 × 800 m, 5 records) became world record holders (Table 3).

Table 3. World records set by athletes of Dnipropetrovsk Oblast (in 1950–60s)

Last name	Discipline	Result	Place	Date of installation
M. Bilokurov	4 × 800 m	7.27,4	Moscow	12.07.1951.
L. Lysenko-Gurevich	3 × 800 m	6.32,6	Moscow	17.07.1955.
		6.27,6	Moscow	11.09.1955.
		6.27,4	Kiev	9.11.1958.
	800 m	2.04,3	Moscow	3.07.1960.
		2.04,3	Rome	7.09.1960.

Source: L.L. Hinchuk, G.I. Mihaylova, op. cit.

The experience gained by athletes from the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast in major international competitions influenced the preparation of athletes for participation in the Olympic Games. Track and field athletics became the first and the only sport in 1950–60 in which Dnipropetrovsk athletes participated in the Olympic Games (Table 4).

Table 4. Athletes of the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast – participants in the Olympic Games (1950–1960s)

№	Olympic Games (year and place)	Last name	Discipline	Result	Taken place
11.	XV Olympic Games, Helsinki, 1952.	Denisenko P.	pole jump	4,40 m	IV
		Marulin F.	3000m hurdles	9.08,4	V
		Redkin P.	hammer throwing	56.55 m	V
		Belokurov N.	1500 m	3.54,2	XI
22.	XVI Olympic Games, Melbourne, 1956.	Grachev K.	400 m	49,4	IV
33.	XVI Olympic Games, Melbourne, 1956.	Lysenko L.	800 m	2.04,3	I (Olympic Games record)
		Matsulevich A.	400 m hurdles	52,9	III
		Grachev K.	400 m	47,6	VI in the ¼ final

Table 4. Athletes of the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast... (cont.)

№	Olympic Games (year and place)	Last name	Discipline	Result	Taken place
44.	XVIII Olympic Games, Tokyo, 1964.	Belyaev I.	3000 m hurdles	8.33,8	III
55.	XIX Olympic Games, Mexico City, 1968.	Skomorokhov V.	400 m hurdles	49,1	V
		Volkov Y.	marathon	—	—

Source: I.V. Baldzhy, op. cit.; L.L. Hinchuk, G.I. Mihaylova, op. cit.

The first Olympic Games, in which the USSR national team took part, were held in Helsinki in 1952. An analysis of the participation of track and field athletes from Dnipropetrovsk Oblast in these Olympic Games showed that the USSR national team included 7 strongest athletes from Ukraine, 4 of them were athletes from the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast. Dnipropetrovsk athletes Nikolay Belokurov (1500 m run), Fedor Marulin (3000 m hurdles run), Petr Denisenko (pole vault), Nikolay Redkin (hammer throw) took part in the XV Olympic Games for the first time. The best result was obtained by P. Denisenko, who took the fourth place (pole vault – 4.40 m).

At the next Olympic Games in 1960, in Rome, for the first time in the history of Dnipropetrovsk Oblast, L. Lysenko won the Olympic gold medal (800 m run – 2.04.3 m – Olympic Games record) (figure 1).¹⁰

During the period from 1952 to 1968, 11 track and field athletes of the region took part in all the Olympic Games. During this time, they won 1 gold, 2 bronze medals, took two 4th and three 5th places, which influenced the overall team results of the Soviet national team.

In the 1970s and 1980s, a new stage in the development of Olympic sports began, associated with the formation of a centralized system for training highly qualified athletes. In 1970, to organize the training of the strongest athletes of the region, as well as young promising athletes, a school of higher sportsmanship (SHVSM) was opened. In 1972, the school opened 3 groups for athletes in which 67 athletes were engaged, including 1 master of sports of international class, 6 masters of sport, 11 candidates for master of sports and 49 athletes of the 1st category.¹¹

In preparation for the 1972 Olympic Games in Munich, in the region at the Metallurg and Meteor stadiums, specialized training centers for highly qualified

¹⁰ M.O. Bielykh, P.F. Bahachyk, Z.P. Synytskyi, *Lehkoatlety Ukrainy, Zdorovia*, Kyiv 1971; V.H. Savchenko, N.M. Kuzhukin, V.P. Horbenko, V.P. Novykov, V.P. Ruzanov, *Ukrainski lehkoatlety na orbity Olimpiiskoho sportu*, Dnipropetrovsk 2003.

¹¹ Komitet po fizicheskoy kulture i sportu pri ispolkome oblastnogo soveta deputatov trudyaschihsya. F. 4789. Op. 1. D. 267. L. 94.

athletes in athletics were created, as well as good conditions for training sessions. Subsequently, in preparation for the 1976 Olympic Games in Montreal, Olympic training support points (OPOP) were formed at these bases, where members of the regional national athletics team trained.¹²



Figure 1. L. Lysenko is the first champion of the XVII Olympic Games in Rome, in 1960, in the history of the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast (in the center)

Source: M.O. Bielykh, P.F. Bahachyk, Z.P. Synytskyi, *Lehkoatlety Ukrainy, Zdorovia*, Kyiv 1971; V.H. Savchenko, N.M. Kuzhukin, V.P. Horbenko, V.P. Novykov, V.P. Ruzanov, *Ukrainski lehkoatlety na orbity Olimpiiskoho sportu*, Dnipropetrovsk 2003.

Despite a lot of work on the creation of new centers for training athletes, since the beginning of the 1970s, the results of the participation of track-and-field athletes in the championships of Ukraine and the USSR began to decline. The main factor affecting the effectiveness of track-and-field athletes training was a lack of athletic arenas for the winter training process.

A change in the generation of coaches who had experience in training highly qualified athletes had a negative impact on the development of athletics as an Olympic sport. In the early 1970s, the leading coach in the Youth Sports School, P.I. Korshun, and Honored Coach of Ukraine, I.A. Murenko, who prepared the

¹² Komitet po fizicheskoy kulture i sportu pri ispolkome oblastnogo soveta deputatov trudyaschihsya. F. 4789.Op. 1. D. 188. L. 12.; Komitet po fizicheskoy kulture i sportu pri ispolkome oblastnogo soveta deputatov trudyaschihsya. F. 4789.Op. 1. D. 294. L. 46.

champion of the 1960 Olympic Games, L. Lysenko, and the bronze medalist of the 1964 Olympic Games, I. Belyaev, finished their coaching activity. The influence of the above factors led to the fact that until 1988, athletes from the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast did not take part in the Olympic Games.

In the first half of the 1970s, the sports leadership of the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast began to pay great attention to the development of athletics and the training of highly qualified athletes. During this period, the material and technical base was significantly strengthened. In 1973, an athletics arena was built in Dnipropetrovsk (figure 3), in 1975, a specialized athletics hall was commissioned in the city of Kamenskoye. In Nikopol, a stadium was built with rubber-bitumen tracks and modern athletics sectors, an indoor running track in the Children's and Youth Sports School No. 3 (Dnipropetrovsk). In the early 1980s, the Metallurg stadium was re-equipped in Dnipropetrovsk in accordance with the modern requirements for training highly qualified athletes.¹³

In the 1980s, the education of coaches improved significantly. From 1980 to 1990, the number of coaches increased from 78 to 223, respectively. During this period, the training of qualified athletes was carried out by honored coaches of Ukraine G.V. Zhiltsov, M.V. Belokurov, A.I. Ornandzhi, V.F. Svarichevskaya, V. A. Sorochan, L. I. Lysenko.¹⁴

An important role in the development of athletics as an Olympic sport in the 1980s was played by the improvement of the system of children and youth sports in the preparation of the reserve of the combined teams of the region. Within 10 years, from 1980 to 1990, the number of athletics departments increased from 115 to 225 and the number of athletes engaged from 2000 to 7199 athletes. During this period, 2 specialized children's and youth sports schools of the Olympic reserve were opened in the region, employing the leading coaches of the region, honored coaches of Ukraine A.I. Ornandzhi, V.F. Svarichevskaya, V.A. Sorochan. Pupils of the school, N. Musienko, R. Makhova, S. Laevsky in different years were candidates for the USSR national athletics teams.¹⁵ The work carried out to create centers for Olympic training, strengthen the material and technical base, improve the training of coaches, and improve the system of children and youth sports in the 1980s contributed to a significant improvement in sports results. During this period, excellent sports results in the all-Union and international arena were obtained by: R. Makhova – five-time USSR champion

¹³ O. Liapin, *Slavoiu uvinchanyi. Dniprodzerzhynskomu koledzhu fizychnoho vykhovannia – 80!* Dokumentalne vydannia, IMA – pres, Dnipropetrovsk 2010; Komitet po fizicheskoy kulture i sportu pri ispolkome oblastnogo soveta deputatov trudyaschihsya. F. 4789. Op. 1. D. 188. L. 54–56.

¹⁴ Komitet po fizicheskoy kulture i sportu pri ispolkome oblastnogo soveta deputatov trudyaschihsya. F. 4789. Op. 1. D. 657. L. 2–4.

¹⁵ I.V. Baldzhy, op. cit.

in 100 m and 200 m, World record holder in 4 × 200 m relay race, a candidate for the Olympic track and field team to participate in the 1980 Olympic Games, N. Musienko – three-time European champion, European and Ukrainian record holder in the long jump, USSR champion 1982, S. Laevsky – three-time European champion, five-time USSR champion in long jump, O. Tverhokhleb – champion of Europe and the USSR, participant of the 1992 Olympic Games in 400 m hurdles.¹⁶

Conclusions

Track and field athletics as an Olympic sport in the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast of the Ukrainian SSR was an important part of the cultural and sports movement. This sport most successfully developed in 1950-1960, when 11 track and field athletes in the region took part in all the Olympic Games of this period and won 1 gold and 2 bronze medals. The main factors contributing to the preparation of highly qualified athletes and of candidates for the USSR national athletics teams were: development of track and field athletics as a sport for all. In 1970–80, there was a decrease in the sports results of athletes in the Dnipropetrovsk Oblast, during this period the athletes of the region were not included in the national teams of the USSR and did not take part in the Olympic Games. In our opinion, the main reasons that had a negative impact on the effectiveness of training athletes for the national teams of the USSR were, first of all, the lack of necessary conditions for organizing the training process in the winter period, as well as the change in generations of coaches experienced in training highly qualified athletes.

Creation of material and technical conditions corresponding to the requirements for the training of highly qualified athletes should be combined with the presence of coaches with experience in training high-class athletes. In the context of ever-growing competition in the world sports arena, a comprehensive consideration of all factors affecting the effectiveness of training highly qualified athletes is of particular importance.

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CZĘŚĆ II

TEORIA I METODYKA WYCHOWANIA FIZYCZNEGO I SPORTU

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Physical Activity Analysis and Comparison of Secondary School Students in Terms of Selected Regions of Slovakia: A Cross-Sectional Study

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Analiza aktywności fizycznej uczniów szkół średnich i jej porównanie na podstawie wybranych regionów Słowacji: badanie przekrojowe

Streszczenie

Wyniki zgromadzonych badań pokazują, że regularna aktywność fizyczna odgrywa ważną rolę we wzmacnianiu zdrowia, a jej brak skutkuje obniżeniem sprawności i wydolności fizycznej. Badania koncentrowały się na analizie i porównaniu aktywności fizycznej uczniów szkół średnich w wy-

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branych regionach Słowacji. Badanie przekrojowe aktywności fizycznej przeprowadzono w okresie od stycznia do grudnia 2021 r. metodą celowego doboru na próbie badawczej 1830 uczniów szkół średnich (w wieku $17,35 \pm 0,82$ lat), którzy uczęszczali do ostatnich (czwartych) klas liceów i średnich szkół zawodowych. Przeanalizowano odpowiedzi grupy badawczej uczniów testem chi-kwadrat (χ^2) na poziomie istotności (α) 0,01, 0,05 z perspektywy poszczególnych regionów Słowacji. Analizując odpowiedzi z ankiety próby uczniów, stwierdzono, że charakter aktywności ruchowej uczniów szkół średnich ma głównie charakter rekreacyjny – średnio w 54,24% ($n = 902$) ($p < 0,01$). Z punktu widzenia głównego miejsca realizacji zajęć ruchowych zauważono, że średnio 43,95% ($n = 804$) uczniów z grupy badawczej realizowało je głównie w pomieszczeniach zamkniętych (siłownia, hala sportowa...) ($p < 0,01$). Wyniki pokazują, że charakter oraz motywacje realizacji aktywności ruchowej z punktu widzenia poszczególnych regionów są różne, natomiast dla zwiększenia wolumenu aktywności ruchowej uczniów szkół średnich konieczne jest stosowanie skutecznych programów pozalekcyjnej aktywności ruchowej.

Słowa kluczowe: uczniowie, młodość, aktywność fizyczna, szkoła średnia.

Abstract

Accumulating evidence indicates that regular physical activity plays an important role in strengthening health, however, its absence causes a loss of physical fitness and organism endurance. Our study was aimed at analysing and comparing physical activity of secondary school students in terms of selected regions of Slovakia. A cross-sectional survey measuring (January – December, 2021) physical activity was conducted through intentional sampling with the survey size of 1829 secondary school students (aged $17.35 \pm .82$) who attended the last year (4th) of grammar and vocational secondary schools. Each answer of the survey group was analysed, compared and evaluated by using the chi-square test (χ^2) with the significance level (α) of .01 and .05. After analysing the survey answers, on average, 54.24 % ($n = 902$) of the survey group indicated the recreational form of physical activity ($p < .01$). In terms of the main place of performing physical activity, the survey answer of “Indoor (Gym, hall...)” covered 43.95 % ($n = 804$) of the survey group ($p < .01$). Physical activity of secondary school students varies depending on the region, while it is necessary to apply effective out-of-school physical activity programmes to increase the volume of physical activity of secondary school students.

Keywords: male students, period of adolescence, physical activity, secondary school.

1. Introduction

In today's hectic world, it is increasingly problematic for society to maintain a healthy lifestyle due to a lack of awareness of importance of physical activity [5, 26]. Badly learned habits from an early age are stated as an issue in connection with physical activity, which intersects into adulthood [30]. The first impulse to physical activity is from parents, they are the ones who have to entice their children to spend their leisure time meaningfully [35]. Regular physical activity can be significantly influenced by parents and peers, because they are the most important social groups in an adolescent's life. Physically active parents and peers naturally lead them towards regular physical activity [2].

Regular physical activity affects 50% of health and is perceived as a basic biological requirement. Because of not being able to meet this requirement due to a volume of physical activity, the current tendency has the character of a slight stagnation rather than an increase [8, 13]. Failure to meet this requirement is causing an increase in chronic diseases in a school population [14]. Regular physical activity contains a preventive tool that protects its beneficiaries against development of chronic diseases, yet 70% of the school population is spending their leisure time in a sedentary manner, which is directly related to a physical inactivity [10, 20]. Physical inactivity can be a trigger of health risks, not only in the school population, but especially in the adult one, because in terms of energy expenditure (body condition), it is movement that has any value [24]. The health risk of physical inactivity can also result not only in chronic diseases, but also in increased fear of physical activity and a consequent fall or injury resulting from it. Physical inactivity can negatively affect and limit various aspects of an adolescent's life. With regular physical activity, the minimum length of which is 60 minutes/day, there is a significant reduction in the risk of chronic diseases [32]. Properly identifying and applying factors that not only lead adolescents to physical activity, but also force them to stay in this activity is challenging.

Adolescence is a critical period of life and due to hormonal changes other interests arise, resulting in reduced physical activity. In particular, spontaneous physical activity declines, which should be replaced by organised physical activity, whether at a school or during leisure time. Within the framework of teaching physical education, it is very important to respect the interests of school population, especially when it comes to creating and developing positive attitudes towards physical activity. The number of school students for whom compulsory school physical education is the only physical activity carried out [20, 21] is growing significantly. Despite the above, the school population, by its passive non-participation in the physical education, renounces offered opportunities for several objective and subjective reasons [37]. And for that reason, we can consider adolescence as a crucial period when the relationships and attitudes of young people towards physical activity can be significantly shaped [25]. Organized and unorganized physical activity may positively affect their attitude to it and its implementation in adulthood. The importance of entertainment and relaxation increases in the period of adolescence. This fact can certainly be considered favourable in general, but it is important what form of entertainment and relaxation adolescents choose [23].

And for that reason, our study was aimed at analysing and comparing physical activity of secondary school students in terms of selected regions of Slovakia.

2. Methods

2.1. Participants

In accordance with the study aim, the target population was adolescents (male) who were attending the last year (4th) of grammar and vocational secondary schools of selected regions of Slovakia. The target population consisted of a convenience sample, which was recruited through social media, school principal and physical education teachers. Aiming at intentional sampling of the target population, the recruitment process was adjusted regularly, regarding the age, gender and year of study. The inclusion criteria of the survey group were as follows: a) the survey group should not have any health issues; b) the survey group should be from the same year of secondary school students. After meeting the inclusion criteria of the survey group, 1829 grammar and vocational secondary school students (male) (aged $17.35 \pm .82$) were included in the study data interpretation process. The distribution of the survey group ($n = 1829$) was as follows: a) Banská Bystrica Region ($n = 553, 30.24\%$); b) Bratislava Region ($n = 263, 14.38\%$); c) Košice Region ($n = 180, 9.84\%$); d) Prešov Region ($n = 501, 27.39\%$); e) Žilina Region ($n = 332, 18.15\%$). Lack of access to an online survey (the Internet and a mobile phone/computer) was the exclusion criterion of the survey group ($n = 1829$), yet its original number did not change, remained the same.

2.2. Measures

When collecting the survey data, the research instrument of cross-sectional design and survey was used. It was created for that purpose (non-standardised survey) and consisted of two sections: a) Demographic information (age, gender, year of study and region); b) Survey questions, which consisted of four closed questions concerning the main nature, place, motive and obstacle for performing out-of-school physical activity. The survey questions were inspired by several authors [3, 31]. During a single 15-minute session, the survey group ($n = 1829$) answered the online survey questions, which were available at all times, and reviewed the survey in order to validate the clarity of the non-standardised survey (allowed only to persons over 18 years of age). Online feedback obtained during a single 15-minute session did not indicate any issues with the cross-sectional design and non-standardised survey. In case of underage students, the non-standardized survey was distributed (face-to-face) by authors (meeting parental consent requirements) in their native language. Both versions of the non-standardised survey did not require any information about the respondents' identity, while the survey group's ($n = 1829$) participation was voluntary. Incentives were not given for participation, but the survey group ($n = 1829$) received

the report with their personal results afterwards. The online version of the non-standardised survey was selected because of its cost effectiveness, time saving, easy accessibility and a rapidly changing epidemic situation of COVID-19. The online non-standardised survey was created and administered using the online survey portal – Microsoft Forms, Office 365 (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA, USA). The survey data were collected through the survey administered from January to December, 2021.

2.3. Procedures

Having obtained permission to carry out the cross-sectional study from the school principal, parental consent and secondary school students' assent form, the survey group (n = 1829) consisted of adolescents who were attending the last year (4th) of grammar/vocational secondary schools of selected regions of Slovakia: a) Western Slovakia – Bratislava Region (Ba); b) Northern Slovakia – Žilina Region (Za); c) Central Slovakia – Banská Bystrica (Bb); d) Eastern Slovakia – Košice Region (Ke), Prešov Region (Po).

There are often large differences in the economic performance depending on the region. It is measured by gross domestic product per inhabitant. The selected regions of Slovakia are no exception. The decision to choose these regions for the survey group (n = 1829) was also influenced by factors as follows: a) The region of the capital city – Bratislava is the richest region in Slovakia, while the gross domestic product in purchasing power parity is 2.5 times higher than the average in Slovakia, while the Prešov Region has been the poorest region for many years; b) The unemployment rate within the Eastern Slovakia region differs significantly, even though it has declined, compared to the previous period (2017) (9.9% – Prešov Region, 9.7%), while the average unemployment rate in the other regions has been around 3.7%.

2.4. Data analysis

In accordance with the selected regions, each survey answer of the survey group (n = 1829) was analysed, compared and evaluated by using the programme of Tap3 – Gamo (Banská Bystrica, Slovakia). The obtained survey data of the survey group (n = 1829) were polled after cleaning. The methods of percentage frequency analysis (%), arithmetic mean (\bar{x}) and multiplicity (n) were used. The percentage values were used in the survey questions with single-choice answers, while the difference between each region (variable of location) was evaluated by the method of inductive statistics - chi-square test (χ^2), whose significance level (α) was .01 and .05 [18].

3. Results

3.1. The main nature of performed physical activity

In accordance with the study aim, Figure 1 illustrates the main nature of performed physical activity in the survey group ($n = 1829$) and confirms that recreational physical activity predominated (54.24%, $n = 902$). After processing the survey data, the highest incidence of the main nature of performed physical activity was recorded in the survey group from the Bratislava Region ($n = 164$, 62.36%). A relatively higher incidence of the same response was registered in the survey group from the Žilina Region ($n = 198$, 59.64%) and Prešov Region ($n = 286$, 57.09%). A higher preference of the survey answer “*Competitive physical activity*” was recorded in the survey group from the Central (Banská Bystrica Region – $n = 212$, 38.34%), Eastern (Košice Region – $n = 59$, 32.78%) and Western (Bratislava Region – $n = 83$, 31.56%) Slovakia. A higher preference of preferring both forms of physical activity was discovered in the survey group from the Eastern (Prešov Region – $n = 63$, 12.57% and Košice Region – $n = 19$, 10.56%) and Northern (Žilina Region $n = 36$, 10.84%) Slovakia. A very positive finding was that only 3.24% ($n = 9$) of the survey group from the Western (Bratislava Region) Slovakia stated that they did not perform any physical activity, which was a much lower result, compared to the other results of the selected regions of Slovakia. For instance, 10.24% ($n = 34$) of the survey group from the Žilina Region do not perform any physical activity at all. As a matter of fact, very similar results emerged in the remaining regions of Slovakia (Figure 1). Taking into account the incidence of the main nature of performed physical activity, the intergroup difference of each region revealed statistical significance ($p < .01$) within the majority of selected regions, with the exception of the mutual statistical comparison between the Banská Bystrica Region and the Košice Region, the Prešov Region and the Košice Region, the Prešov Region and the Žilina Region ($p > .05$) (Table 1).

Table 1. Statistical interpretation of the main nature of performed physical activity

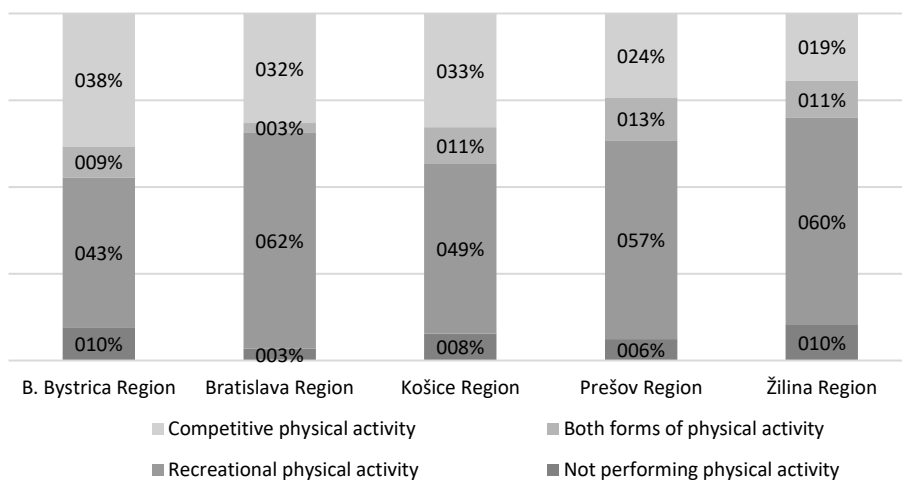
Survey group					
Region	B. Bystrica (n = 553)	Bratislava (n = 263)	Košice (n = 180)	Žilina (n = 332)	Prešov (n = 501)
B. Bystrica (n = 553)	x	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 20.5$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 3.01$, $p > .05$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 36.43$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 34.10$, $p < .01$
Bratislava (n = 263)	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 20.5$, $p < .01$	x	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 18.70$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 32.17$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 25.37$, $p < .01$
Košice (n = 180)	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 3.01$, $p > .05$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 18.70$, $p < .01$	x	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 12.03$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 6.30$, $p > .05$

Table 1. Statistical interpretation... (cont.)

Region	B. Bystrica (n = 553)	Bratislava (n = 263)	Košice (n = 180)	Žilina (n = 332)	Prešov (n = 501)
Žilina (n = 332)	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 36.43$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 32.17$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 12.03$, $p < .01$	x	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 7.06$, $p > .05$
Prešov (n = 501)	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 34.10$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 25.37$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 6.30$, $p > .05$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 7.06$, $p > .05$	x

B. Bystrica: Banská Bystrica

Source: own research.

**Figure 1.** The main nature of performed physical activity

Source: own research.

3.2. The main place of performing physical activity

After evaluating the previous survey question (3.1), Figure 2 illustrates the main place of performing the physical activity of the survey group (n = 1829) and confirms that the survey answer of "Indoor (Gym, hall...)" covered, on average, 43.95% (n = 804) of the survey group (n = 1829). Being more accurate, the survey answer of "Indoor (Gym, hall...)" had the highest incidence of responses, ranging from 35.74% (n = 94, Bratislava Region) to 52.62% (n = 291, Banská Bystrica Region). Not performing any physical activity had again the lowest incidence of responses (n = 112, 6.17%), which is considered as a positive finding. The majority of selected regions, with the exception of the survey group from the Banská Bystrica Region (n = 88, 15.91%), obtained the threshold of 30% and more for the survey answer of "Outdoor (Yard, street...)". Preferring both places of performing physical activity was more dominant within the survey group from the

Bratislava Region (n = 78, 29.66%), rather than the remaining selected regions of Slovakia (n = 228, 17.89%). Taking into account the incidence of the main place of performing physical activity, the intergroup difference of each region revealed statistical significance ($p < .01, .05$) within the majority of selected regions, with the exception of the mutual statistical comparison between the Košice Region and Žilina Region, the Košice Region and the Prešov Region, the Prešov Region and the Žilina Region ($p > .05$) (Table 2).

Table 2. Statistical interpretation of the main place of performing physical activity

Survey group					
Region	B. Bystrica (n = 553)	Bratislava (n = 263)	Košice (n = 180)	Žilina (n = 332)	Prešov (n = 501)
B. Bystrica (n = 553)	x	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 40.60,$ $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 43,42,$ $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 33.80,$ $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 36.83,$ $p < .01$
Bratislava (n = 263)	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 40.60,$ $p < .01$	x	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 14.13,$ $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 10.18,$ $p < .05$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 21.10,$ $p < .01$
Košice (n = 180)	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 43,42,$ $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 14.13,$ $p < .01$	x	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 4.99,$ $p > .05$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 3.76,$ $p > .05$
Žilina (n = 332)	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 33.80,$ $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 10.18,$ $p < .05$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 4.99,$ $p > .05$	x	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 3.60,$ $p > .05$
Prešov (n = 501)	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 36.83,$ $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 21.10,$ $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 3.76,$ $p > .05$	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 3.60,$ $p > .05$	x

B. Bystrica: Banská Bystrica

Source: own research.

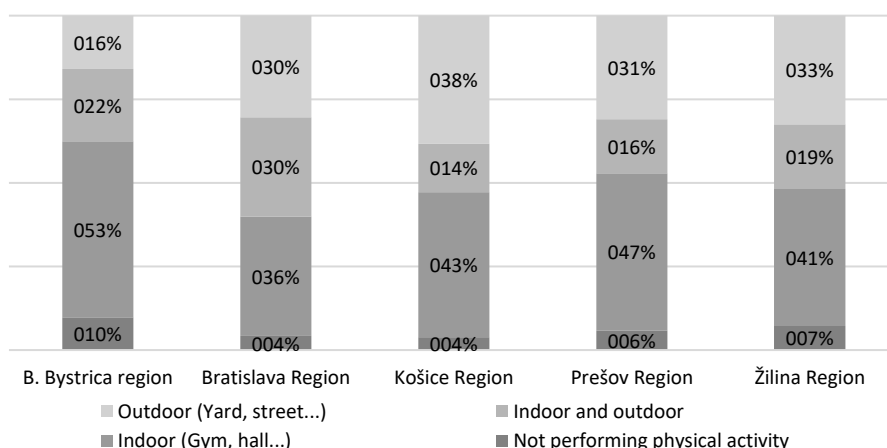


Figure 2. The main place of performing physical activity

Source: own research.

3.3. The main motive for performing physical activity

After processing the survey data of the previous survey question (3.2), Figure 3 illustrates the main motive for performing physical activity of the survey group (n = 1829) and confirms a greater variety in responses. For example, the survey answer of *“Make me happy”* had the highest incidence of responses within the survey group from the Bratislava Region (n = 118, 44.87%), however, the incidence of responses from the remaining selected regions decreased by half (n = 353, 22.58%). Considering the survey answer of *“Weight loss and appearance”* as the main motive for performing physical activity, it ranged from 14.44% (n = 26, the Košice Region) to 22.97% (n = 127, the Banská Bystrica Region). Not performing any physical activity had again a very low incidence of responses (n = 82, 4.5%). On the other hand, very few respondents felt motivated to perform some physical activity due to social pressure. Hence, that answer had the lowest incidence of responses (n = 55, 3%). The survey answer of *“Improving health”* covered, on average, 23.89 % (n = 438) of the survey group (n = 1829). In addition, the motive of *“Social contact”* had a higher incidence of responses within the survey group from the Košice Region (n = 26, 14.44%) and the Banská Bystrica Region (n = 62, 11.21%), while the incidence of responses from the remaining selected regions was lower (n = 63, 5.75%). As for mental relaxation, the incidence of responses was ranging from 7.98% (n = 20, the Bratislava Region) to 15.66% (n = 52, the Žilina Region). Taking into account the incidence of the main motive for performing physical activity, the intergroup difference of each region revealed statistical significance (p < .01) within the majority of selected regions, with the exception of mutual statistical comparison between the Banská Bystrica Region and the Žilina Region, the Žilina Region and the Prešov Region (p > .05) (Table 3).

Table 3. Statistical interpretation of the main motive for performing physical activity

Region	Survey group				
	B. Bystrica (n = 553)	Bratislava (n = 263)	Košice (n = 180)	Žilina (n = 332)	Prešov (n = 501)
B. Bystrica (n = 553)	x	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 70.04$, p < .01	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 60.82$, p < .01	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 11.98$, p > .05	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 22.10$, p < .01
Bratislava (n = 263)	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 70.04$, p < .01	x	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 85.30$, p < .01	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 42.39$, p < .01	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 35.42$, p < .01
Košice (n = 180)	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 60.82$, p < .01	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 85.30$, p < .01	x	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 44.07$, p < .01	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 53.65$, p < .01
Žilina (n = 332)	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 11.98$, p > .05	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 42.39$, p < .01	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 44.07$, p < .01	x	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 7.45$, p > .05
Prešov (n = 501)	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 22.10$, p < .01	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 35.42$, p < .01	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 53.65$, p < .01	$\chi^2_{(6)} = 7.45$, p > .05	x

B. Bystrica: Banská Bystrica

Source: own research.

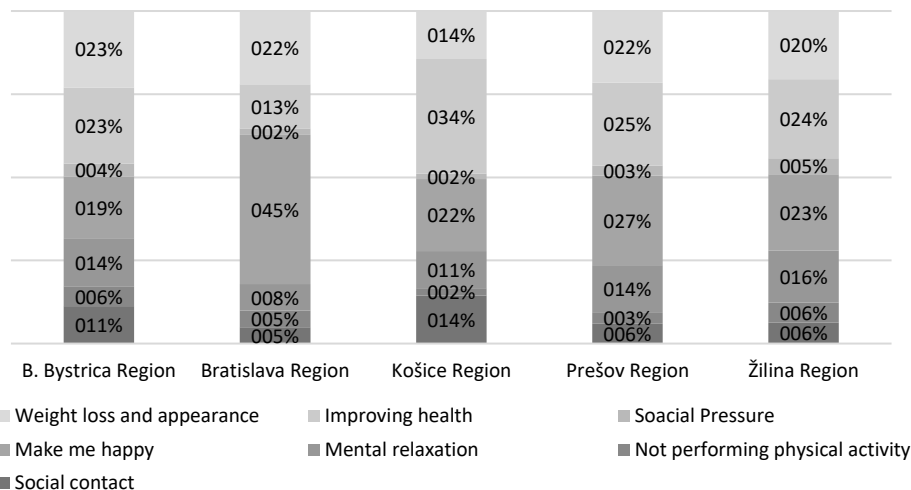


Figure 3. The main motive for performing physical activity

Source: own research.

3.4. The main obstacle for performing physical activity

When evaluating the last survey question (3.4), Figure 4 illustrates the main obstacle for performing physical activity for the survey group ($n = 1829$) and confirms a greater difference of responses. For example, the survey answer of “None of listed” had the highest incidence of responses, within the survey group from the Bratislava Region ($n = 166$, 63.12%) and Prešov Region ($n = 142$, 28.54%). However, the same survey answer had the lowest incidence of responses within the survey group from the Žilina Region ($n = 22$, 6.63%) and the Banská Bystrica Region ($n = 51$, 9.22%). Different alternatives of spending one’s leisure time was the most common response within the majority of the selected regions ($n = 470$, 30.04%), with the exception of the survey group from Bratislava ($n = 27$, 10.27%). No interest in physical activity was more dominant within the survey group from the Banská Bystrica Region ($n = 59$, 10.67%) and the Žilina Region ($n = 28$, 8.73%) rather than the remaining selected regions of Slovakia ($n = 107$, 11.35%). A very surprising finding was that, on average, 19.73% ($n = 310$) of the survey group selected the survey answer of “Limited access to sports facility”. However, the same survey answer was less frequently chosen ($n = 20$, 7.98%) within the survey group from the Bratislava Region. The choice of the health issue as the survey answer was ranging from 10% ($n = 18$, the Košice Region) to 15.97% ($n = 80$, the Prešov Region). The answer “Too expensive to perform physical activity” was chosen by 20.25% ($n = 370$) of the survey group ($n = 1829$). Taking into account the incidence of the main obstacle for perform-

ing physical activity, the intergroup difference of each region revealed statistical significance ($p < .01$) within the selected regions of Slovakia (Table 4).

Table 4. Statistical interpretation of the main obstacle for performing physical activity

Study group					
Region	B. Bystrica (n = 553)	Bratislava (n = 263)	Košice (n = 180)	Žilina (n = 332)	Prešov (n = 501)
B. Bystrica (n = 553)	x	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 271.91$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 30.05$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 26.54$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 87.55$, $p < .01$
Bratislava (n = 263)	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 271.91$, $p < .01$	x	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 99.55$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 226.08$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 89.70$, $p < .01$
Košice (n = 180)	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 30.05$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 99.55$, $p < .01$	x	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 22.32$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 15,99$, $p < .01$
Žilina (n = 332)	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 26.54$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 226.08$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 22.32$, $p < .01$	x	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 66,51$, $p < .01$
Prešov (n = 501)	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 87.55$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 89.70$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 15,99$, $p < .01$	$\chi^2_{(5)} = 66,51$, $p < .01$	x

B. Bystrica: Banská Bystrica

Source: own research.

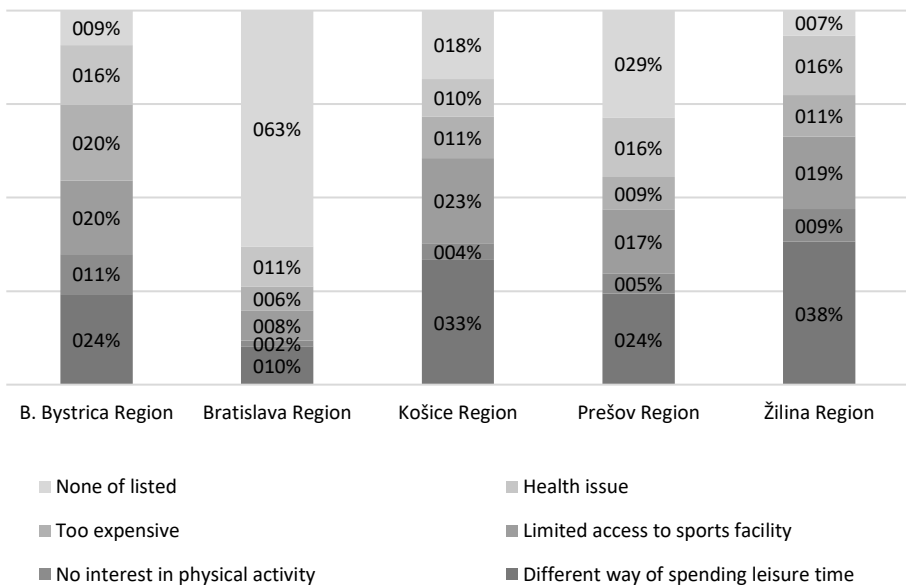


Figure 4. The main obstacle for performing physical activity

Source: own research.

4. Discussion

4.1. The main nature of performed physical activity

Regular physical activity of recreational nature is very important for health and quality of life. Recreational physical activity available to adolescents varies across regions of the world due to difference in school enrolment, hours spent at school and involvement in productive work [22]. An intervention to increase participation in recreational physical activities will be more effective if it suits the preferences of a target population. A significant part of a given recreational physical activity is conditioned by one's socioeconomic status [17]. This statement particularly correlates with our results, because 62.36% (n = 164, the Bratislava Region – developed region) of the survey group selected recreational physical activity. Besides that, the financial aspect of performing recreational physical activity did not play an important role for them (n = 16, 6.46%). Recreational physical activity supports personal development, self-improvement and creates space for self-activation [4]. Competitive and recreational physical activity evolves with human development and serves different purposes, demonstrably affecting human health [19]. Performing competitive physical activity tends to peak during the early years of adolescence and drops afterwards [11, 34]. An urban target population of males appears to have a higher participation in performing competitive physical activity. A given difference is apparent up to the age of 15 and thereafter it is relatively small.

4.2. The main place of performing physical activity

Performing indoor and outdoor physical activities has a potential for bolstering resilience to environmental stressors, including those associated with the COVID-19 pandemic [15]. Exposure to nature is an important aspect of performing outdoor physical activities, which provides a range of health benefits. Performing outdoor physical activities plays an important role in maintaining physical and mental well-being [16]. The majority of selected regions match the threshold of 30% and more for the survey answer of “*Outdoor (Yard, street...)*”. A lower incidence of responses may be caused by how and where the survey group (n = 1829) performed their outdoor physical activities. There is certain evidence of a positive relationship between time spent outdoors and physical activity, while a negative relationship is shown when matching time spent outdoors with sedentary activity of a target population spending < 1 hour/day outdoors. The incidence of sedentary activity is reduced regarding those who spend > 1 hour/day outdoors performing physical activity. Spending more time outdoors is associated with being more physically active and less sedentary, which cannot be said about those who spend more time indoors. A decline in perform-

ing outdoor physical activity is caused mainly by an attitude of parents who constantly organise their children's physical activity and move them indoors, due to a fear of injury and unknown environment [27]. And the given statement was confirmed as the survey answer of "Indoor (Gym, hall...)" scored 43.95% (n = 804) in the selected regions. In particular, staying indoors for an almost entire day results from various campaigns which recommend staying indoors during peak hours (10:00–4:00) to avoid sun exposure and traffic air pollution [28]. Structured, indoor, achievement-oriented physical activity (competitive activity, excessive workout) seems to replace outdoor physical activity [33].

4.3. The main motive for performing physical activity

Performing physical activity becomes less frequent as the target population gets older, with a number of reasons as to why. A hobby, such as gaming can have an effect on performing physical activity, in particular for adolescents (male) who spend the majority of their leisure time playing on computer and video game consoles. An improvement in the quality of video game consoles is becoming increasingly appealing to adolescents and, of course, the aforesaid passion is replacing that of performing physical activity [12]. Despite that, adolescent boys understand the importance of regular physical activity and declare their participation in it. The main motive for performing physical activity was having fun and interaction with peers [6]. As a matter of fact, very similar responses emerged in our survey results, for example, the survey answer of "Make me happy" had the highest incidence of responses within the Bratislava Region (n = 118, 44.87%), while the incidence of responses from the remaining regions decreased by half (n = 353, 22.58%). In addition, the motive of "Social contact" (interaction with peers) had a higher incidence of responses within the survey group from the Košice Region (n = 26, 14.44%), Banská Bystrica Region (n = 62, 11.21%), whereas the incidence of responses from the remaining selected regions was lower (n = 63, 5.75%). A less common motive was an impact of performing physical activity on the participants' health. As many as 60% performed some physical activity (running, cycling) every day, however, only 55% felt fit [9]. Comparing our results, the survey answer of "Improving health" was chosen on average by 23.89% (n = 438) in the selected regions, which is 36.11% less.

4.4. The main obstacle for performing physical activity

Many motives and obstacles for performing the physical activity have been discussed in the literature. Obstacles such as lack of time, being lazy, having other interests, study commitments are all marked as crucial obstacles given by adolescent boys for not performing any physical activity [9]. The obstacles mentioned correlate with our results, because 30.04% (n = 470) of the regions con-

cerned selected the survey answer of “*Different way of spending leisure time*”. Some other obstacles for performing the physical activity are as follows: a) lack of sporting facilities (75%); b) lack of peer support (58%); c) lack of public sporting clubs (55%) [1]. On average, 19.73% (n = 310) of the majority of selected regions selected the survey answer of “*Limited access to sports facility*”. Obstacles, which make it impossible to perform any physical activity are not significant to a large extent because the target population will always find an excuse not to perform any physical activity from their subjective point of view. Subjectively perceived obstacles are not adequate indicators of why adolescent boys do not want to perform any physical activity because the only true obstacle to perform some physical activity is being lazy (lack of time). Watching television and playing on video game consoles is negatively associated with performing physical activity, which means that adolescent boys who watch more television and play on video game consoles, perform less physical activity and vice versa [29]. Apart from that, other obstacles associated with not performing any physical activity are as follows: a) lack of time (21.3%); b) lack of money (15.9%); c) school obligations (15.8%) [36]. Not performing any physical activity due to financial demands was selected by 20.25 % (n = 370) of the survey group (n = 1829).

5. Conclusions

Doing any physical activity is better than doing none. Physical activity is an important factor influencing human health. Regular physical activity has a positive effect on disease prevention and provides several benefits, such as increased performance, better sleep, social interaction and fun. It is very important to consider the strengths and limitations of the submitted study. We consider it very important that the collected data consisted of a representative target population of adolescent boys who belong to the age group relevant for establishing the health-related behaviour. The cross-sectional design and non-standardised survey were limitations of our study because to define the conclusive statement about the causality in our results, we have to carry out more studies with the longitudinal design. However, the significance of our study is that it provides crucial information about the nature, place, motive and obstacle for physical activity performed by adolescent boys.

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Competences of a physical education teacher (on the basis of selected aspects from the experience of school education in Ukraine – pedagogical aspects)

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Kompetencje nauczyciela wychowania fizycznego (na podstawie wybranych aspektów z doświadczenia edukacji szkolnej Ukrainy – aspekt pedagogiczny)

Streszczenie

Artykuł został poświęcony problematyce kompetencji nauczycieli wychowania fizycznego w Ukrainie. Przeprowadzono analizę wybranych zagadnień ukraińskich naukowców z zakresu teorii i praktyki kompetencji nauczyciela wychowania fizycznego prowadzącego swoją działalność zawodową w szkołach podstawowych i ponadpodstawowych Ukrainy. W większości tych prac pro-

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fesjonalna kompetencja nauczyciela definiowana jest jako system składający się z następujących komponentów: teoretycznej wiedzy zawodowej, umiejętności praktycznych, postaw etyczno-moralnych, zdolności i predyspozycji zawodowych oraz doświadczenia zawodowego. W pracy zaprezentowano także, na podstawie wieloletnich badań, wyniki własnej analizy poziomu i zakresu kompetencji nauczyciela wychowania fizycznego, co pozwoliło na wyłonienie podstawowych grup kompetencji niezbędnych do wykonywania tego zawodu: kompetencje prakseologiczne, komunikacyjne, kreatywne, informatyczne oraz etyczno-moralne. Operując tymi kompetencjami, nauczyciel wychowania fizycznego jest gotów do efektywnej działalności dydaktyczno-wychowawczej w szkole. Poziom kompetencji nauczyciela wychowania fizycznego jest istotnie uwarunkowany zakresem doświadczenia zawodowego (ważne miejsce w tym kontekście zajmuje okres adaptacji zawodowej, istotnie przesądzający o efektywności pracy nauczyciela oraz identyfikacji zawodowej), polityką reformowania systemu edukacji szkolnej (stanowisko nauczyciela wobec działań reformujących bezpośrednio wpływa na jego indywidualną sytuację zawodową) oraz miejscem lokalizacji szkoły. Kompetencje poddawane są ciągłej weryfikacji, ich poziom zaś jest sprawdzany w konkretnych sytuacjach nauczania i wychowania.

Słowa kluczowe: kompetencje, umiejętności, nauczyciel, szkoła, wychowanie fizyczne.

Abstract

The article is devoted to the issues of competences of physical education teachers in Ukraine. An analysis of selected issues of Ukrainian scientists in the field of theory and practice of the competence of a physical education teacher conducting their professional activity in primary and secondary schools of Ukraine was carried out. In most of these works, the professional competence of a teacher is defined as a system of the following components: theoretical professional knowledge, practical skills, ethical and moral attitudes, professional abilities and predispositions as well as professional experience. The work also presents, on the basis of many years of research, the results of the author's own analysis of the level and scope of competences of a physical education teacher, which allowed for the selection of basic groups of competences necessary to practise this profession: praxeological, communication, creative, IT and ethical/moral competences. By using these competences, a physical education teacher is ready for effective didactic and educational activities at school. The level of competence of a physical education teacher is significantly conditioned by: the scope of professional experience (an important place in this context is occupied by the period of professional adaptation, which significantly determines the effectiveness of the teacher's work and professional identification), the policy of reforming the school education system (the teacher's attitude towards reform measures directly affects their individual professional situation) and the location of the school. Competences are constantly verified, and their level is checked in specific teaching and upbringing situations.

Key words: competences, skills, teacher, school, physical education.

Introduction

Reforming school education in many countries causes the necessity of problem solution which concerns moderation of teacher's training systems. School programs in specific pedagogical studies should absolutely concern key teacher's competences. Without them, effective sculpting of comprehensively

developed personality is not possible. In this article, work of Ukrainian scientists who specialize in the theory and practice of physical education of children and youth is discussed along with our long experience in this matter. Despite a significant need for addressing this issue regarding professional training of future physical education teachers, the aspect of teachers' competences is still not fully discussed in the scientific literature concerning the theory and method of physical education.

The concept of competence is one of the key elements of the effectiveness of activities not only of the teacher, but also of the entire physical education system. Competence means the teacher's readiness to act effectively and efficiently in any professional situation, both in teaching and upbringing. Acquired competences are not a fixed value, but require constant work on oneself, a critical attitude and improvement. Research on the competences of physical education teachers in Ukraine has been carried out for many years. This issue is dealt with in the works of V.I. Volkov (2011), E.S. Vilchkovski (2012), L.I. Ivanova (2007), O.Y. Yemets (2002), L.O. Demińska (2010), T.Y. Krutsevych (2017), B.M. Shyian (2006), L.P. Sushchenko (2003), O.V. Timoschenko (2008). The presented research of Ukrainian scientists shows various aspects of competences: developing the competences of future physical education teachers during their studies; teacher's workshop and social activity; professional development and training; cooperation with the school environment, parents and external stakeholders; ethical attitudes. There is an ongoing discussion about teachers' competences, their modification and compliance with the current state of school education.

Research methods and problems

The aim of the article is to present and analyse the position of Ukrainian researchers on the competences of a modern physical education teacher in primary and secondary education in this country. In the research work, the methods of induction, deduction and synthesis were used. The following research problems were raised: What is the position of Ukrainian researchers on the competences of a physical education teacher in school education in Ukraine? Which components in this respect play a key role in the professional activity of a physical education teacher?

Results and discussion

The activity of a physical education teacher, as noted by Y. Zaitseva, has its specificity compared to other teaching specialties. First of all, the teacher's work

does not take place in the classroom, but in a gym or in the open air (playground, stadium) and with the use of specialized sports equipment and accessories. An important element of the activity of a physical education teacher is the need to demonstrate exercises, perform movement sequences together with students, and to secure students during the exercise (ensuring their safety). An important component of the work is also the culture of verbal communication. Skilful verbal communication (soft, ductile, convincing) allows the teacher to properly regulate the level of students' physical effort [16]. This particular specificity of performing didactic and educational tasks creates the area of shaping and developing professional competences of a physical education teacher.

The concept of competence in pedagogical Ukrainian literature is defined in various ways. According to L.I. Lutsenko, competence is not only a reflection of the potential that a person has and the ability to use this potential, but it also means a new quality of life and professional activity, which allows the employee to be effective and efficient [6]. The concept of professional competences is also understood as professional readiness and a teacher's ability to perform didactic and educational tasks. The structure of this concept consists of: the scope of professional theoretical knowledge, practical skills, ethical/moral attitudes, professional abilities and predispositions as well as professional experience. Ukrainian researchers S. Sysoieva and L.P. Sushchenko divide the teacher's professional competences into: operational and technological (knowledge, skills) and motivational ones. Professional competence is distinguished by the awareness of the role and importance of motivation in the context of performing professional activities and the ability to correctly assess one's own professional potential [12, 14].

As G.V. Beleńka points out, professionalism in pedagogical literature is defined as a high level of culture and self-awareness, which allows a teacher to carry out professional tasks creatively. According to the author, the components of professional culture are: a high level of praxeological and information preparation, expertise, communicativeness, competence, innovative thinking, where professional competence consists of: a system of psychological, didactic and specialist knowledge, specialist skills system, abilities and personality traits [1]. So, according to G.V. Bieleńka, the foundation of professional competences is professional knowledge, on the basis of which skills develop, while the interpretation and individualization of knowledge creates the foundations for the development of professional skills [1].

According to V.I. Volkov, the quality of professional activities of a physical education teacher is determined by: effective and efficient teaching and educational activities, research activity, ability to observe students, and high level of communication culture [15]. However, as pointed out by N.T. Danylko, the readiness for the professional activity of a physical education teacher consists of the

following components: motivation, professional versatility (universalism) and the ability to carry out didactic and educational tasks while working with students. An important role is played by the level of theoretical and methodological knowledge (in the context of students' anatomical, physiological and psychophysical criteria, their health condition and the level of motor fitness) [3].

According to V.P. Tsaruk, the pedagogical competence of a physical education teacher creates the unity of their theoretical and practical readiness to conduct teaching and educational activities at school, while the readiness to perform professional activities is expressed by the knowledge of the basics of anatomy and physiology of the development of school children and youth, the basics of development methodology and psychology as well as teaching and upbringing technologies [14].

The basic criteria for the evaluation of didactic and educational activities of Ukrainian physical education teachers are: 1) high organizational and methodological level of conducting compulsory and optional physical education classes at school; 2) achieving a high level of physical fitness by students. The assumption is that a physical education teacher is obliged to carry out the following activities: submitting an annual didactic and educational work plan including the field of school sports, conducting evaluation of students' achievements by assessing the level of their physical fitness, participating in campaigns popularizing health education among students, diagnosing their own actions and actively improving their qualifications and professional competences [4]. L.P. Sushchenko notes that in their professional activity, a physical education teacher performs the following functions: worldview, instrumental, cultural, communicative, motivational, and the function of setting and implementing didactic and educational goals. They all play an important role in the context of shaping and developing teachers' professional competences [12].

According to B.M. Shyian, the task set by a modern physical education teacher should ensure that physical education at school has the character of an uninterrupted (permanent) process, which means that the teacher of this subject cannot limit their activities only to episodic activities or occasional cooperation with other partners in the didactic and educational process (schoolteachers, parents, external stakeholders). The organization of physical education at school becomes a key element, which would be compulsory, systemic and comprehensive teaching and shaping health and hygienic attitudes in students. Planning the teacher's activity understood in this way must in detail take into account the following didactic and educational components: organization of work with students who are less physically fit and have health defects; motivating students to self-improvement, deepening cooperation with parents, designing optional classes in physical education in such a way that they become the continuation of compulsory classes and at the same time prepare them for the next

lessons, creating an appropriate infrastructure for conducting physical education classes and organizing school sports (gym with equipment, school playground with a running track, sports equipment and accessories) [9].

On the basis of many years of research on the work of physical education teachers, B.M. Shyian stated that the effectiveness of their work depends on the flexible combination of verbal methods with the strict imitative and strict task-oriented method. According to the researcher, important elements of the effectiveness of teachers' actions are: while teaching elementary movements, combining a brief description by the teacher of the correct execution of movements, with simultaneous execution by students, analysing the techniques of performing exercises on the basis of watching dedicated short training videos devoted to a given lesson, being aware that demonstrating an exercise without discussion is only effective for a more complex movement sequence, before the demonstration of the coordination exercises, discussing all aspects of the exercise that the student should pay special attention to. As the scientist observed, a teacher during the demonstration should take into account the following rules: from the very beginning, students should know not only the sequence of individual movements, but also their intensity, rhythm and amplitude, the presentation of the exercise should be slow, which enables students to better understand the structure of the exercise, during the show, it is worth focusing students' attention on specific parts of the exercise, speed of performance and movement parameters, it is recommended to shorten the intervals between the show and the performance as much as possible (no more than 1 minute), all or part of a movement sequence may be demonstrated, when presenting the exercise (especially when working with students from younger classes), it is worth relying on the species of birds and animals known to students, because such reference is conducive to shaping positive emotions [8].

According to V.F. Novoselski, it is the duty of a physical education teacher to act for the comprehensive development of students, strengthening their health and shaping a positive mood. Empathy towards students and the teacher's ethical and moral attitudes should occupy an important place in the competence of a physical education teacher, according to V.F. Novoselski. The researcher is of an opinion that a physical education teacher should know not only about the students' physical fitness, their health condition, but also about students' attitudes to classes and what emotional states accompany them during lessons, training in selected sports sections in a given school (if students during their time free from other activities train a selected sport discipline). The author claims that one of the main reasons for students' negative attitude towards physical education and physical recreation is their low level of mobility. A teacher who wants to be a role model for students should systematically enrich their knowledge about their charges' character traits (including temperament, interests, abilities) [7].

According to I. R. Bondar, a teacher must create an appropriate positive atmosphere during physical education classes, which will allow students to strengthen their psycho-emotional resilience, because participation in the classes should be pleasant. The organizational order, cleanliness and properly selected colours of the gymnasium (playing fields), including the quality of sports equipment and accessories, the external appearance of the students, optimal lighting and the positive mood of the students and the teacher themselves play an important role in creating a positive atmosphere. It is recommended to use elements of music and dance, which will allow students to relax emotionally [2].

One of the key components in the work of a physical education teacher is the ability to assess students' achievements. According to M.V. Stefanyshyn, the modern system of student evaluation in Ukrainian schools has many shortcomings. There are contradictions between the learning objectives and the system of achievement assessment, between part of the curriculum and the level of students' physical fitness, between the predominance of traditional assessment methods and the clear need to introduce innovative solutions in this field [11]. Errors in grading can destroy all efforts of the teacher, so a very honest approach to it also proves the competence of the teacher, their ability to react flexibly, giving students the opportunity to improve their grades, which motivates them to higher achievement.

Based on the results of the authors' own research in the field of didactic and educational activities of a physical education teacher in Ukraine, it can be concluded that the basic competences necessary to practice this profession are: *praxeological, communication, creative, IT and ethical/moral*. *Praxeological competences* comprise the following skills: rational planning of one's own work, using didactic and educational methods, demonstrating proper exercise performance, evaluating students' achievements by taking into account the predispositions of students and their health (in order to determine changes in the level of physical fitness of students, a teacher should not only conduct periodic testing of students, but also continuous monitoring), evaluating one's own didactic and educational activities and making necessary adjustments to the work, efficient use of time in the course of conducting classes. In terms of *communication competences* these skills are: adjusting the style of work to the age criteria of students, developing students' abilities and interests in the field of physical education, sport and physical recreation, adequately motivating students during the classes, using professional terminology, and solving conflict situations in the classroom, empathy and understanding. As for *creative competences* these skills include: a creative attitude to carry out one's professional tasks, stimulating the independence of students; openness to innovative activities. On the other hand, *IT skills* mean: efficient use of computer technology and other audio-visual equipment (films, slides, CD library). When it comes to *ethical and moral com-*

petences, the teacher should know and follow the ethical/moral foundations of the teaching profession, be morally responsible for the health and physical fitness of students, teachers' professional and non-professional behaviour should be an example for students to follow, they should be honest and objective in relations with students, and prefer democratic principles of cooperation (Fig. 1).

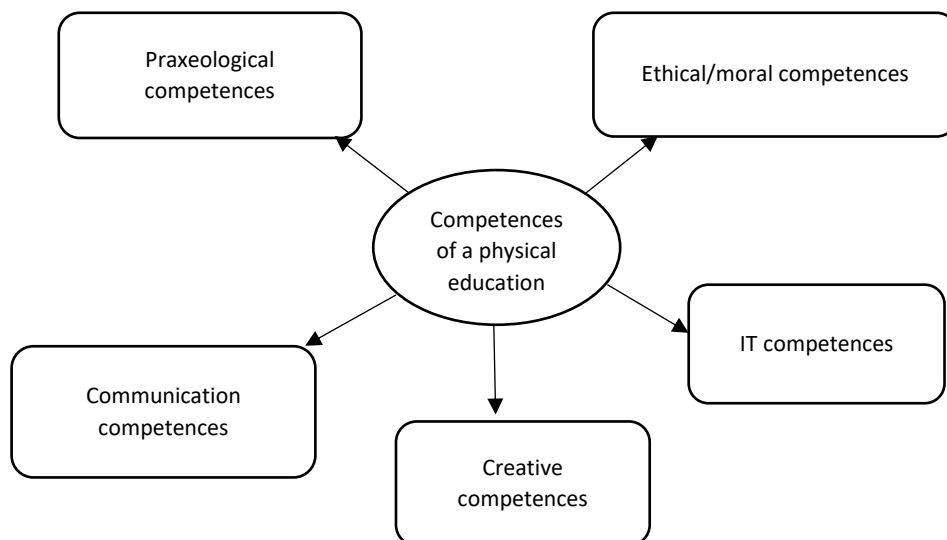


Figure 1. Physical education teacher competences

Source: own study.

Having the above competences, a physical education teacher is ready for effective didactic and educational activities at school. They are prepared to conduct compulsory and optional classes in the field of physical education and physical recreation at school effectively in terms of content and teaching, they know the core curriculum in a given area of study and are able to develop an original teaching programme, effectively cooperate with students' parents and with external (environmental) stakeholders. In their work, they certainly take into account the needs, interests and predispositions of students, promote the development of positive motivational attitudes of students and their activity in the field of physical education and school sports, objectively evaluate students' achievements, conduct an effective analysis of their own work and self-critically assess the scope of their own knowledge and skills for further professional development.

The professional competence of a teacher is not a permanent concept. The process of acquiring competences and their improvement continues until a teacher completes their didactic and educational activities. Competences are

constantly verified and their level is checked in specific teaching and upbringing situations.

The level of competence of a physical education teacher is also significantly conditioned by the scope of work experience. The most complex stage of professional development is the time when a teacher begins their professional career, i.e. the stage of social and professional adaptation. At that time, a young teacher still lacks the ability to flexibly react to the existing didactic and educational situations. The effectiveness of the adaptation process depends on a number of factors: the level of preparation to perform professional tasks, character traits, life experience, organization of work at school and the management style preferred by the school management. The duration of the adaptation period varies individually: in one case, adaptation may last 6 months to a year, in another, due to objective or subjective reasons, adaptation may even last 1.5 to 2 years. The end of the adaptation period means a period of professional stabilization, the time when a teacher is much more confident in their own didactic and educational skills, copes more effectively with various situations that may take place in the course of professional activities. It should be noted that stabilization is in turn conditioned by the effectiveness of the adaptation period.

The location of the school has a significant impact on the activity of a physical education teacher, and more precisely whether a teacher works in a metropolitan or rural school. As pointed out by T.Y. Krutsevych and O.Y. Marchenko, the positive factors in organizing physical education in rural schools are: the natural environment, which reduces the occurrence of stressful situations, a more relaxed and moderate rhythm of rural life, wider, compared to schools in large cities, teachers' possibilities to use nature assets in conducting physical education and physical recreation in the field as well as in the open air, increased physical activity of rural students compared to their peers living in large agglomerations. At the same time, physical education in schools in rural regions of Ukraine is struggling with serious problems: poorly equipped schools with sports equipment and accessories (and this makes it difficult or even impossible to organize school sports sections), outdated gyms or even lack of them; no access to indoor swimming pools [5].

Competence of a physical education teacher is also significantly dependent on the reforms introduced in the school education system. In physical education at school, a number of changes have been introduced in the organization of the teaching process, such as: replacing the grading of pupils with verbal assessment, introducing inclusive education (integrative physical education classes involving the participation of healthy students together with children with serious health problems, including convalescents), preference for the method of games in conducting physical education classes. Research by N.S. Sorokolit, O.V. Rymar and O.S. Bodnarchuk among almost 400 physical education teachers in seven

Ukrainian districts shows a differentiated attitude of teachers to these changes: the introduction of the verbal (oral) grading is assessed positively by only 19.7% of the respondents (concerns were expressed that students would be much less motivated to actively participate in classes). On the other hand, the extended use of the gaming method was supported by 78.6%. The introduction of a 12-year primary school did not receive an enthusiastic reception among the respondents, this solution was positively assessed by only 28.1% of them. There were considerable concerns about introducing compulsory, integrated classes with students with special educational needs into the curriculum (42% of the teachers assessed this change positively), because, according to the respondents, in order to work with groups of these students, teachers themselves need to be additionally trained and a position of a physical education teacher assistant who would help to conduct these specialized classes should be introduced [10]. It is worth emphasizing that the evaluation of activities reforming the education system is directly influenced by a given teacher's individual professional situation. On the whole, teachers often have some concerns that the introduced changes may significantly contribute to a certain destabilization in the work performance, especially in the case of teachers with considerable work experience and those in the pre-retirement period.

Conclusion

The analysis of the literature on the subject of the professional competences of a physical education teacher in Ukraine shows how important this issue is in the theory and practice of physical education in Ukrainian education. Comprehensive research in this area carried out by Ukrainian researchers is of a continuous and developmental nature. Also, the subject matter of the competences of a physical education teacher in Ukraine is presented on the basis of the authors' own research and observations, which made it possible to select the basic groups of competences necessary to perform this profession: praxeological, communication, creative, IT and ethical/moral competences. At the same time, it should be noted that the concept of competence is dynamic and conditioned by various factors: the level of theoretical knowledge and practical skills, the course of the professional adaptation period, the scope of work experience, the situation in education, opportunities for professional promotion. Thus, it is a dynamic concept that can undergo various changes and modifications.

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Autorzy deklarują brak potencjalnych konfliktów interesów w odniesieniu do badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Competences of a physical education teacher (on the basis of selected aspects from the experience of school education in Ukraine – pedagogical aspects)*.

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DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS

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Symbolic content diffusion and cultural dialogue on the example of the European Martial Arts Committee – international expert board, 2010–2020

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Dyfuzyja treści symbolicznych i dialog kulturowy na przykładzie European Martial Arts Committee – Europejskiej Komisji Sztuk Walki – międzynarodowej rady eksperckiej, 2010–2020

Streszczenie

Tłó. Sztuki walki, lub szerzej *fighting arts*, są interesujące z punktu widzenia ich instytucjonalizacji, rozwoju organizacyjnego, globalizacji i glocalizacji, a także jako wehikuły dialogu kulturowego.

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Problem. Autorzy podjęli próbę opisania i wyjaśnienia funkcjonowania organizacji sztuk walki w aspekcie jej udziału w dialogu kulturowym. Przykładem jest EMAC – Europejska Komisja Sztuk Walki.

Metoda. Wykorzystano jakościową metodę badania pojedynczego studium przypadku, zarówno opisową, interpretacyjną, jak i ewaluacyjną. Drugą stosowaną metodą jakościową jest antropologia wizualna.

Wyniki. Dialog kulturowy i dyfuzję treści symbolicznych ilustruje fakt przyznawania najwyższych odznaczeń honorowych osobom z różnych krajów, ale głównie krajów zachodnich – za usługi dla azjatyckich sztuk walki. W przypadku EMAC i SIP (Stowarzyszenie Idokan Polska) symboliczne treści na dekoracjach są albo uniwersalne (feniks, idea szlachecka), albo chrześcijańsko-polskie (św. Jerzy, husarz na koniu). Dlatego nagradzani ludzie nie tylko są ambasadorami sztuk walki, lecz – wraz z instytucjami przyznającymi odznaczenia (takie jak EMAC) – pełnią też istotną rolę w dialogu kulturowym.

Wnioski. Dzięki obecności odpowiedniej ikonografii i symboliki na przyznawanych medalach honorowych następuje przenikanie symbolicznych treści – ich rozpowszechnianie, internalizacja i inkulturacja. Niezależnie od religii czy wyznania osób uczestniczących w działalności organizacji, z jednej strony akceptowany jest rycerski etos Europy, z drugiej – tradycje azjatyckich sztuk walki.

Słowa kluczowe: sztuki walki, dialog kulturowy, treści symboliczne, tytuł Wielkiego Mistrza, medal honorowy.

Abstract

Background. Fighting Arts are interesting from the perspective of their institutionalisation, organisational development, globalisation and glocalization, and also as vehicles of cultural dialogue.

Problem. The authors tackled the problem of describing and explaining how martial arts organisation functions in the aspect of its participation in cultural dialogue. An example is EMAC, the European Martial Arts Committee.

Method. The qualitative method of single case study research, both descriptive, as well as interpretive and evaluative was used. The second qualitative method used is visual anthropology.

Results. Cultural dialogue and diffusion of symbolic content are illustrated by the fact of awarding the highest honour decorations to people from various countries, but mainly Western countries – for merits for Asian martial arts. In the case of EMAC and IPA (Idokan Poland Association) symbolic content on the decorations is either universal (phoenix, idea of nobility) or Christian/Polish (Saint George, a hussar). Therefore, rewarded people are ambassadors not only for martial arts themselves, but institutions awarding decorations appear as vehicles of cultural dialogue.

Conclusions. Through the presence of appropriate iconography and symbolism on the awarded honorary medals, symbolic content diffuses, which concerns its dissemination, internalisation and inculturation. Regardless of the belief of the people participating in the activities of the organisation, on the one hand, the knightly ethos of Europe is accepted, and the traditions of Asian martial arts on the other.

Keywords: martial arts, cultural dialogue, symbolic content, Grand Master title, honorary medal.

Introduction

From the perspective of cultural anthropology, the researched martial arts institutions can be analyzed in synchronic and diachronic dimensions. The synchronous dimension includes:

- 1) Movement repertoire (art, game, theater, dance, combat);
- 2) Psychosocial context (compensation, outlet for aggression, conflict resolution and finding solutions);
- 3) Religious context (depending on the cultural circle).

On the other hand, in the diachronic dimension, we take into account wars and the early development of a given military culture, as well as stages of modernization or sporting, including institutionalization in the field of training, granting authorization to teach, adopting regulations, etc. Martial arts retain the components of art and culture, self-defense (technical-tactical skills), mental training, sport and game [3].

The road to the highest degrees and titles in martial arts is a long-term educational process, with the need to repeatedly confirm your skills and knowledge. Especially in commercialised Western countries there are attempts to modify traditional institutions in this area. As a result, young people with age and training experience receive high and highest grades, sometimes “buying” them or awarding them to themselves through organizations established by themselves. The fact of this type of pathology, which is the “pursuit of” the highest degrees in martial arts, meant that the masters of the highest rank decided to appoint an expert, international body, modelled on the Japanese Academy of Budo (JAB) in Japan or DDBV (*Deutscher Dan-Traeger und Budo-Lehrer Verbände.V.* – the German Union of Black Belts and Budo Teachers) in Germany. This is the 10th anniversary of the *European Martial Arts Committee* (EMAC), formerly known as the *European Jūjutsu and Kobudō Committee* (EJKC). EMAC distinguishes and announces experts – martial arts professors, i.e. authentic masters of knowledge and skills [21].

The institutionalisation process of martial arts consists in the establishment of institutions regulating teaching (teaching rights, programs, methods), awarding degrees and titles, activities of the organisation, as well as scientific research in this area and scientific interpretation of issues in this area [4]. A positive example of imitation of the functioning of foreign organisations and institutions is adopting certain patterns of behaviour and names for specific institutions, which results from the experience of the leaders of individual schools and organizations [10]. One of such institutions is the title of master-teacher, another – awarding the best specialists.

In the scientific search for theoretical framework one can mention the achievements of the Rzeszów School of Martial Arts Sociology [5], the General Theory of Fighting Arts [1,6], and on the other hand, the theory of cultural dialogues and selected local theories [cf. 26, 14]. This is part of the study of the history, organisation and institutionalisation of the martial arts environment in Europe [cf. 25, 4].

The diffusion of symbolic content is at the same time a manifestation and effect of intercultural dialogue in the field of martial arts. The first stage is to introduce patterns of foreign origin. *Jujutsu* self-defence techniques were taught in Western countries as early as at the turn of the century. Inculturation of certain cultural codes, including concepts and symbols, followed the teaching of fighting techniques. The stage of internalization of the value of martial arts by practitioners can be considered as the second one. The international dissemination of martial arts (after *jujutsu* there were other Japanese and non-Japanese martial arts) was accompanied and is still accompanied by glocalization with exchange of values. That is to say, masters of a given martial art and its country of origin transfer their traditions to universal cultural heritage, adopting globally dominant content instead. This is the third stage of diffusion in cultural globalization. An example is the humanization of martial arts as a result of their confrontation with humanism derived from Christianity and respect for human life [cf. 26, 7].

The authors tackled the problem of describing and explaining the functioning of martial arts organisations in the aspect of their participation in cultural dialogue. An example is EMAC. The subject concerns international commissions, cooperation, exchange in the field of knowledge, activities of international experts, and the symbols on the awards granted. Thus, we implement the qualitative method of single case study research, both the descriptive, interpretive and evaluative [23]. The second qualitative method used is visual anthropology, based on photographic material and iconographic analysis of small graphic forms (medals, organization emblems) [2].

1. The idea of the opinion giving committee and the calendar

Among the representatives of sport sciences or physical culture sciences few are specialists in martial arts that are not combat sports, i.e. in martial arts rejecting sports competition. Such was Prof. Dr. Stanisław Sterkowicz (*hapkido*), such are Dr. Roland Maroteaux (*sobujutsu Takeda-ryu*) and Dr. Keith Kernspecht (*Wing Tsun*). Dr. Jan Słopecki emphasizes the dimension of self-defence in *jujutsu*, as earlier Dr. Krzysztof Kondratowicz in *jujutsu / goshinjutsu* or Roland Habersetzer in *karate* did. On the other hand, the traditionalists in the art of fencing are Sergio Mor-Stabilini (Japanese *kenjutsu*), Lothar Sieber (*iaido*) and Zbigniew Sawicki (Old Polish sabre fencing). Combat sports people rarely have the knowledge and skills of ancient martial arts traditions outside their own discipline.

The task of identifying martial arts experts was undertaken by the *European Jūjutsu and Kobudō Committee* (EJKC). This commission was established in early 2010 as an expert council, whose activities were initially sponsored by the *Mię-*

dzynarodowa Federacja Modern Ju-Jitsu (MFMJJ) / International Modern Ju-jitsu Federation in Głogów, then by Dr. Słopecki, and then by IPA. The idea was born in the discussions between Wojciech Cynarski and Jan Słopecki. Słopecki became the first EJKC leader. In the years 2010-2013, EJKC was an autonomous organisation at the MFMJJ, the headquarters was in Warsaw, and the president was Dr. J. Słopecki 10 dan. Roman Grzegorz 10 dan, president of MFMJJ, supported the activities of EJKC at that time. At that time, the EJKC awarded a special Medal for Extraordinary Achievements to those who had been distinguished for martial arts and a diploma with the title of Professor, Expert in martial arts.

2013–2015 – EJKC already operates outside MFMJJ, in parallel referred to as the European Martial Arts Committee (EMAC), based in Warsaw. In 2015, as part of the MFMJJ – *Jujutsu & Kobudo European Committee*, it changes its name to: *International Martial Arts Committee* (on the MFMJJ website). At the same time, a separate EJKC website is created by J. Słopecki, for the original Warsaw organisation EJKC. Formally, from 01.01.2016 the “Warsaw” EJKC changed its name to EMAC. On November 30 of that year, Jan Słopecki, EMAC leader, handed over the chairmanship to W. J. Cynarski, withdrawing from active participation.

Prof. Dr. Wojciech Cynarski has been the president of EMAC since December 2016, when the city of Rzeszów (Poland) became its headquarters. Thus, EMAC has become an autonomous international commission at the IPA in Rzeszów. There has been a change in the regulations, which has since allowed the granting of degrees and master titles. The composition of the Management Board was adopted as follows:

Executive Committee of EMAC

Chairman – Prof. Dr. Wojciech J. CYNARSKI, 10 dan (for years 2018–2024)

Deputy – Prof. Lothar SIEBER, 10 dan (for years 2018–2024)

Secretaries (for years 2018–2022)

GM Dr. Zbigniew SAWICKI, 9 dan, Polish Traditional Sabre Fencing (*Signum Polonicum*)

Dr. Wiesław BŁACH, 7 dan *judo* / Poland

Mr. Evgeniy Valentinovich TKACHENKO, 8 dan *karate (Shotokan)* / Russia [33].

2. Important people and their achievements for martial arts

Masters of the highest rank are those who achieve the highest degrees and master titles. This applies to the main masters-teachers, school and organisation leaders. Most often they reach 9 or 10 *dan*, or their equivalent (Chinese *duan* or *toan*, Philippine *antas*). The tradition of Japanese *budo* also allows grades 11 and 12 *dan*. The highest, honorary degrees and honourable titles are awarded for

exceptional achievements for a given martial art, in a given country or internationally.

Among the holders of over 10 dan / master degree we can mention:

- 1) GGM¹ Yip Man (Ip Man), from Hongkong – postmortem 12 toan in *VingTsun kung-fu*
- 2) Dr. Jigoro Kano, Japan – postmortem 12 dan in *judo Kodokan*
- 3) Dr. Krzysztof Kondratowicz, Poland – 12 dan in *jujutsu, soke Goshin-ryu*, father of Polish *jujutsu*
- 4) *Soke* Joseph M. Victory Jr., USA – 12 dan in *jujutsu*
- 5) GM Cacoy Canete – 12 dan in modern *escrima*
- 6) *Grand Guru* Jose G. Mena – 12 dan in Philippine *arnis*
- 7) GM Lothar Sieber, Germany – 12 dan w *jujutsu, soke* of E. Rahn's school, style "*jujitsu-karate*" *Yoshin-ryu*.
- 8) GGM Leung Ting, China – 11toan in *Wing Tsun kung-fu* [32]
- 9) Mr. Makoto Nakamura, Japan – 11 dan in *karate, style Kyokushin*
- 10) Mr. Gilberto Pauciullo – 11 duan in his own system *Mon Seer Kung Pai kung-fu* (He is also the holder of 10 dan *jujutsu*, 9 dan *karate, hanshi*, 8 dan *judo* etc.).

We omit *Bujinkan* instructors and the like, where the dan scale has been extended to 15 or higher. The following masters-teachers are holders of the title *meijin* or GGM (e.g.): Yip Man, Kazuo Ito, Kyuzo Mifune, Hakudo Nakayama, Hironori Otsuka, Minoru Michizuki, Gozo Shioda, Hirokazu Kanazawa, Leung Ting and Lothar Sieber.

Yet, who deserves the title of professor of martial arts so as to appreciate the vast knowledge and practical skills of individual experts? This issue has been an important task and goal since the beginning of EJKC / EMAC's operation. So far, few outstanding experts, i.e. masters of martial arts, have been awarded the EMAC medal and the title of Professor - Expert of Martial Arts.

3. Profiles of people awarded with the Medal

In 2010, the first three Medals "For Extraordinary Achievements in Martial Arts" were awarded. They were received by:

NO. 1 – MR. ROLAND HABERSETZER (9 dan *karate, hanshi & soke*), France [photo 1].

¹ Great Grand Master.



Photo 1. Shihan Roland HABERSETZER, 9 dan *karate, hanshi (Tengu-ryu)* [21].

Habersetzer, Roland (French, born in 1942), 9 dan *karate, hanshi*. Student of Henry D. Plée. In 1974, he founded CRB (Centre of Budo Research), in 2007 – *Tengu-ryu* style [13]. He is a historian and writer, author of over 50 books on martial arts [more: 17, 8].

He was awarded the EJKC / EMAC Medal for his contribution to popularising martial arts. This medal and the relevant diploma were sent to him by post.

NO 2 – MR. LOTHAR SIEBER (10 dan *judo-do/ido*; 10 dan *jujutsu*, and 10 dan *karate, meijin & soke*), Germany [photo 2].

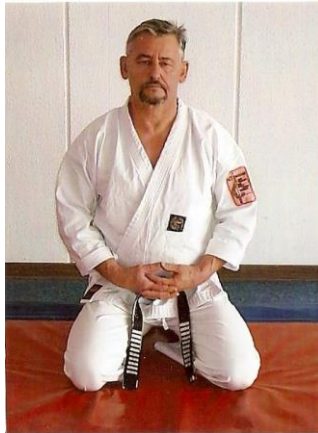


Photo 2. Shihan Lothar SIEBER, 10 dan [21].

Sieber, Lothar (German, born in 1946). He is a nature therapist and master-teacher of *Yōshin-ryū* (10 dan), *jujutsumeijin*², *karatemeijin*; *jūdō-dō / idō*, *bujutsu-idō* and *goshinjutsu* 10 dan; 8 dan *iaido, hanshi*, 8 dan kick-boxing, 5 dan

² This title is sometimes referred to as the creators of the *kata* and recognized martial arts styles.

taekwondo, etc., honourable 1 dan *kendō*; 2nd *sōke* *Zendō karate Tai-te-tao*, 3rd *soke* of the Erich Rahn's School, 4th *soke* of *Idokan* (teaching of Hans Schöllauf and Hubert Klinger von Klingerstorff). EMAC recognizes this triple succession.

In 2016, 25 years passed since L.S. achieved the 10th dan; it was the year of his 70th birthday; Currently, L. S. is the only *meijin* in martial art *jujutsu*, as well as in parallel *karate*; he is an exemplary master of the moral path, which is confirmed by the highest honorary degrees, master titles and decorations awarded to him. He contributed significantly to the development of martial arts. He is the creator of the concept: "jujitsu-karate", "Idokan karate" and "Tai-te-jutsu". In view of the above, on January 15, 2017, Prof. Sieber received an exceptional degree of 11 dan of EMAC in *jujutsu*, and two years later (15/01/2019) – 12 dan.

GM Sieber is probably the only European *meijin*, both in *jujutsu* and *karate*, and *hanshi* in *iaido*. His school *Jiu-Jitsu u. Karate Schule L. Sieber* constitutes *honbu*. He is Honorary President of DDBV e.V. and IPA, leader of DFKB (*Dan-Federation of Zen-Do-Karate Tai-Te-Tao and Budo*, Germany), member of EMAC Executive Committee; author of over 50 scientific works on martial arts. He has received the following medals and orders: HCN, EJKC / EMAC, Fujiyama, Erich Rahn's, IPA Golden Medal of Honour, Medal "Warrior of the Way of Truth" (No. 01), and of the University of Rzeszow. He was a student of Rudolf Albertz (5 dan), P. Jahnke, C. Wiedmeier, Kwon J.H., V. Kimmey; and teacher of H. Sieber, W. J. Cynarski, Gerhard Jung 7 dan, Ulf Martens 6 dan, Dieter Drexler 6 dan, Bodo Blumentritt 7 dan. He is still active on the mat and teaches at the *Honbu dojo* [21, 17, 12, 8].

He was awarded the EJKC Medal in Munich in February 2011.

NO 3 – PROF. DR. WOJCIECH J. CYNARSKI (currently: 10 dan *ido*; 9 dan *jujutsu*, and 9 dan *karate*, *hanshi*) from Poland [photo 3].



Photo 3. *Shihan* Wojciech J. CYNARSKI, currently 10 dan *ido*, 9 dan *jujutsu*, 9 dan *karate*, *hanshi* (*Idokan*) [21].

Cynarski, Wojciech Jan (Polish, born in 1965). Student of the following masters: S. Cynarski, A. Floquet, R. Maroteaux, T. Nobetsu, S. Sato, L. Sieber, Yoshio Sugino, K. Tōse. Currently, he is the holder of the highest licence *menkyokaiden*, 10 dan *ido* (*Idokan*); 9 dan *jūjutsu*, *hanshi*; 9 dan *karate*, *hanshi*; 8 dan *aikijutsu*, *kyoshi*; 7 dan *kobudō*; 6 dan *kenjutsu* and *iaidō*; 4 dan *judo* and kick-boxing; 2nd degree in *Wing Tsunkung-fu*; honourable 1 dan *taekwondo*. Author of 18 books and over 700 scientific articles. Full Professor of physical culture sciences, and sociologist. Founder and President of IPA, the Idokan Poland Association (since 1993) and IMACSSS (since 2010), chairman of EMAC Executive Committee. His students are e.g.: Robert Wyskiel (3 dan), Marek Mroszczyk (2 dan), Adrian Piórko (2 dan), Paweł Szlachta (4 dan), Adam Hajduk (1 dan), Sebastian Skóra (1 dan), Łukasz Cynarski (1 dan). He is a researcher of fighting arts, the author of the General Theory of Fighting Arts, organiser of subsequent World Scientific Congresses of Combat Sports and Martial Arts in Rzeszow (2006, 2010, 2014, 2018) [16, 29, 20, 21, 12].

During the Martial Arts Gala at the 2nd World Scientific Congress of Combat Sports and Martial Arts in Rzeszow (Oct. 2010), Prof. Cynarski was awarded a medal by EJKC President, Dr. Jan Słopecki.

NO 4. DR. ROLAND J. MAROTEAUX (9 dan *aiki-jujutsu*, *hanshi&soke*), France [photo 4].



Photo 4. *Shihan* Roland J. MAROTEAUX, 9 dan *aiki-jujutsu*, *hanshi* (*Takeda-ryu Maroto-ha*) practising *iaido Takeda-ryu* [courtesy of Dr. R.J. Maroteaux].

Maroteaux, Roland J. (French, born in 1944). Student of e.g. *sensei* H.D. Plée, Ryuho → Okuyama, Hisashi → Nakamura. He introduced *Hakko-ryū* to Europe, and next the *Takeda-ryū*; 9 dan *aiki-jūjutsu Takeda-ryū*, *hanshi*; teaches *sōbujutsu Takeda-ryū Maroto-ha* (6 disciplines) [21,18]. PhD, author of many books and editor-in-chief of the magazine “*Aiki Goshondo Kaishi*”, very active as the master-teacher [12, 8].

He received the HCN (2010) and EJKC / EMAC Medals. The EJKC Medal was awarded in 2011. It was only awarded during the Closing Ceremony of the 4th World Scientific Congress of Combat Sports and Martial Arts in Rzeszów (Oct. 2018).

NO 5. MR. FRANZ STRAUSS (10 dan *judo-do*, 10 dan *jujutsu*, *hanshi*), Austria [photo 5].



Photo 5. *Shihan* Franz STRAUSS, 10 dan *judo-do* & *jujutsu* [21].

Strauss, Franz (13.03.1933-06.10.2014), Austrian of Jewish descent, martial arts teacher, 10 dan *judo-do*, 10 dan *jujutsu* (own school or style: *Wado Te Jutsu*). He was a student of Josef Ebetshuber, and Adolf Bauer [8]. Later, he taught these martial arts for many years. He received the EJKC / EMAC Medal and title. He was awarded this medal in Vienna in 2011 [24].

NO 6. DR. JAN SŁOPECKI (10 dan *jujutsu*, 10 dan *goshinjutsu*, *hanshi* & *soke*) from Poland [photo 6].



Photo 6. *Shihan* Jan SŁOPECKI, 10 dan *jujutsu*, *hanshi* (*Mukashi-to Kindai*) [21].

Slopecki, Jan (Polish, born in 1950). PhD in physical culture sciences, 10 dan *goshinjutsu*, 10 dan *jujutsu hanshi*, 5 dan *ido*, 4 dan *judo*. He was the vice president of IPA; member of IMACSSS; creator of the style: *Mukashi-to Kindai jujutsu* (2012) [11, 21,12,8]. His master-teacher was Franz Strauss.

Shihan Slopecki received the HCN and EJKC / EMAC Medals with the title of Professor of Martial Arts. He was awarded this Medal in Głogów in 2013. In addition, he was awarded the Medal of “Warrior of the Noble Road – Road of Truth” no 02 (Rzeszów, March 2019).

NO 7. DR. KEITH R. KERNSPECHT (10 toan *WingTsun kung-fu*, 8 dan *karate*), Germany [photo 7].



Photo 7. GM Keith R. KERNSPECHT, 10 toan *kung-fu* (Wing Tsun), 8 dan *karate* [courtesy of Dr. K. R. Kernspecht].

Kernspecht, Keith (German, born in 1945), teacher of *Wing Tsun kung-fu* (10 toan), also 8 dan *karate* and 3 dan *ido*; Doctor of sports sciences and *Doctor honoris causa* [21]; founder (1971) and leader of EWTO, one of the largest European *kung-fu* organisations. Prof. Dr. *habil.* K. Kernspecht was a student of the GM Leung Ting. In the 1970s he introduced Chinese and Philippine martial arts to Germany. He was also the first to introduce Bruce Lee’s style of *Jeetkune do* to Germany. In 1996 Kernspecht became Visiting Professor at Paisii Hilendarski State University in Plovdiv, Bulgaria. In 1999, he was awarded an honorary Doctorate there. In 2006, he was awarded an honorary Professorship by the National Sports Academy in Sofia. After that, he obtained his full Doctorate (habilitation) in 2009. In 2011, he was awarded the title of “Professor Emeritus”. He promoted Dr. Siegfried Wolf (7 dan *karate*) from Germany and Dr. Oliver Koenig

(GM, 9 toan *Wing Tsun kung-fu*) from Austria. Kernspecht is a leader of the Logic of Combat Division in the IMACSSS, and a creator of the multidisciplinary discipline “combatology” [21]. Author of a series of books on martial arts. Creator of the concept of internal *WingTsun* [17, 15,12, 8].

He was awarded the HCN Knight’s Order and the EJKC / EMAC Medal. He was awarded the medal in Hockenheim in May 2016.

NO 8. MRS HANNELORE SIEBER (9 dan *jujutsu*, 8 dan *karate, hanshi*), Germany [photo 8].



Photo 8. *Shihan* Hannelore SIEBER, 9 dan *jujutsu*, 8 dan *karate (Jiu-Jitsu u. Karate Schule Sieber)* in *Honbu dojo*, Munich [courtesy of H. Sieber].

Sieber, Hannelore (German, born in 1951). She is an economist and martial arts teacher; 9 dan *jujutsu*, 8 dan *karate, hanshi*, 7 dan *ido, etc.*, DJJR exponent President “Erich Rahn” e.V., specialist in real self-defense of women and the style of *Zendō karate Tai-te-tao*. From the beginning she leads *Jiu-Jitsu u. Karate Schule L. Sieber*, along with Lothar Sieber. Decorated with the following medals: Fujiyama, E. Rahn, and EJKC / EMAC [9,12, 8].

The EJKC Medal was awarded in 2016; handed out – in Munich in February 2017.

NO 9. MR. RICARDO CAVALCANTI (7 dan in Brazilian *jujutsu*) from Brazil.

Sensei R. Cavalcanti (7 dan Bjj) was awarded by IMAC in Głogów in 2016, however it was against the Regulations of EMAC (points 1 and 16 g). He should be a holder of a higher degree, 8 dan minimum. Therefore, this medal was awarded by IMAC in Głogów, Poland, temporarily without the approval of EMAC [30].



Fig. 1. Medal EJKC (EMAC) from Głogów, Poland [courtesy of IMJJF].

NO 10. MR. SERGIO MOR-STABILINI (9 dan *karate*, 7 dan *kenjutsu*, 6 dan *iaido*, *renshi*) from Italy [photo 9].



Photo 9. *Shihan* Sergio MOR-STABILINI, 9 dan *karate*, *hanshi*; 7 dan *kobudo/kenjutsu* (*Tenshinshoden Katorishinto-ryu*), 6 dan *iaido*, *renshi* practising *iaijutsu Tenshinshoden Katorishinto-ryu* [courtesy of S. Mor-Stabilini].

Mor-Stabilini, Sergio (born in Bergamo, Italy, 1948), 9 dan *karate Sankido*, 7 dan *kobudo/ kenjutsu* (*Tenshinshoden Katorishinto-ryu*), 6 dan *iaido*. Prof. and Director of the *Jitakyoei Budo & Wushu*, and *European University of Martial Arts and Oriental Culture*, and EJKC/EMAC. Founder and GM of *Sankido karate*, i.e. a part of *Budo* without sport of rivalry. He is also a teacher of *Chen taijiquan*, and *Yiquan kung-fu*, 6 toan/duan in both of these Chinese styles. He is the author of a valuable book about *Tenshinshoden Katorishinto-ryu* and Japanese culture [19]. He is a strong advantage of *Shibu Kobudo* by IPA [8, 33].

He taught, among others, during the IMACSSS Congress and IPA workshops in Rzeszów in 2014 and during the Symposium in 2019. The medal was awarded in Rzeszow, June 13th, 2019. During the Special Symposium of IMACSSS "Today's

relevance of traditional Martial Arts” Prof. Cynarski presented a laudation and handed him the Medal and a diploma.

NO 11. DR. MOHAMAD NIZAM MOHAMED SHAPIE (9 dan *silat*) [photo 10].



Photo 10. GM Mohamad Nizam Mohamed SHAPIE, 9 dan in Malaysian *silat* [courtesy of Dr. Shapie].

Shapie, Mohamed Nizam Mohamed (Malaysia, born in 1979) holds PhD in sport sciences, GM, 9 dan; activist of *Sen iGayung Fatani Malaysia Association*. He was a student of GM Aminuddin Anuar, 10 dan in *Senisilat* [8]. GM Shapie has been an active member of IMACSSS since 2014. Dr. Shapie was given an award during the 9th IMACSSS Conference in Putrajaya (Malaysia). He was the main organiser of this conference. There he should have received the EMAC Medal, as the first expert outside Europe, from the hands of the President IMACSSS and EMAC W.J. Cynarski. Due to the pandemic, the conference was held online for foreign participants. The medal will therefore be presented at the next opportunity.

4. A certain stage has ended

From the perspective of the decade of functioning of EMAC, we can say that this institution is subject to certain changes due to the processes of institutionalization and adaptation to changing conditions. A new logo and a new medal have been adopted, which derived from both a certain necessity (exhaustion of

the circulation of the medal issued in Głogów in 2010) and a deliberate change of symbolism. The MFMJJ (training sweatshirt) logo has been replaced with the image of a phoenix that comes out of fire [Fig. 2 and 3]. It illustrates the immortality of the human soul and the noble ideas of knighthood. The phoenix is also a symbol of the highest level of mastery, associated with the Japanese tradition and with the title of *hanshi* (usually at the level of 9–10 dan, less often than 8 dan).

EMAC has awarded the highest grades to only one person – *meijin* L. Sieber. After 2016, two more people were awarded the old design medal [Fig. 1] and one – the new EMAC Medal. There is rather no risk of inflation of degrees and honorary titles. Significantly, the Medal and Professor of Martial Arts were first awarded to a person from another continent.



Fig. 2. Logo EMAC. According to the concept of W.J. Cynarski, it was designed by Wojciech Pączek, January 2017.

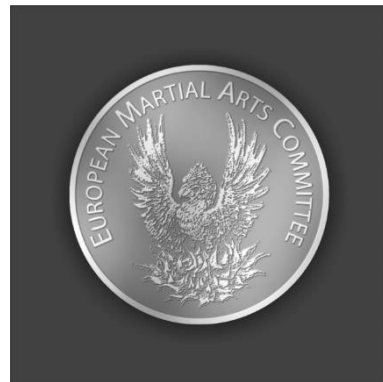


Fig. 3. Medal EMAC – For Extraordinary Achievements in Martial Arts (since 2020) [authors' own collection].



Fig. 4. The Noble Way Warrior Medal – the Way of Truth [authors own collection].

2023 will be the year of the 30th anniversary of *Shibu Kobudo* in Poland (founded in 1993). From the very beginning, *Sensei* Wojciech J. Cynarski teaches here the Old Japanese fencing, basically according to the transmission line of Yoshio Sugino (10 dan, *hanshi*) and Goro Hatakeyama (9 dan, *hanshi*) from 1987-1993, and according to school *Takeda-ryusobudo* (Hisashi Nakamura, *soke*, and Dr. Roland J. Maroteaux, *hanshi*) [31]. Because at the *Tenshinshoden Katorishinto-ryu* school, parallel teaching of *shihan* Risuke Otake and Yukihiro Sugino (son of master Yoshio Sugino) is honoured, *sensei* Stanisław Cynarski (Wojciech's cousin) here transmits teaching and interpretation of technical forms according to Yukihiro Sugino. This took place, for example, during the 27th Summer Camp IPA, Chłapowo 2019. In the same year, an *iaido* workshop was held in Munich, under the direction of L. Sieber and *naginata-jutsu* in Rzeszów under the direction of Sergio Mor-Stabilini. *Shibu Kobudo* cooperates with other *kobudo* experts, too.

In 1996, a Committee of Fencing was established, also as an autonomous commission at IPA. It brings together teachers of old Polish sabre fencing, like GM Wojciech Zabłocki, GM Zbigniew Sawicki and an American Richard Marsden. Since 2016, degrees and titles modelled on those used in *budo* have been awarded here for the Polish traditional sabre fencing discipline. Referring to Old Polish traditions and the ethos of European knights, they have influenced the symbolism adopted here and the emphasis on Christian values. St. Archangel Michael is the official patron of IPA, according to the decision of Fr. Kazimierz Górny, Bishop of Rzeszow, from 17 March 2009 [28]. Since the Middle Ages, Archangel Michael has also been the patron of European knights. St. George and the dragon he defeated (at the Knight's Order of *Homo Creator Nobilis*, awarded by the European Nobility Club and IPA) symbolizes the fight against spiritual evil. A hussar on a horse shown on another IPA medal [fig. 4] refers to the best Polish

military and nobility tradition. Hussars were Polish hard driving, winged knights who became famous in numerous victorious battles and wars [cf. 27, 22].

Meanwhile, the phoenix is a mythical, fiery bird. It is known both in Europe and in China. It burns but is never burnt and is always reborn. It is like Poland after World War I, after the partitions, and later Warsaw after 1944 (Warsaw Uprising). The capital of Poland was completely destroyed by the Germans, but rebuilt after the war. Therefore, it was not by chance that the phoenix became the new EMAC emblem.

Discussion and summary

In total, in 2010–2019, ten Experts were awarded by EJKC / EMAC in this way. In addition, four people received the Noble Way Warrior - Way of Truth Medal from IPA: no 1 – Lothar Sieber, no 2 – Jan Slopecki, no 3 – Wojciech J. Cynarski, no 4 – Stanisław Cynarski (he received it in Rzeszow, in March 2021 during the 28th IPA General Assembly). The latter is a master of social rehabilitation and martial arts teacher. Stanisław Cynarski (Polish, born 2.01.1948) holds 9 dan *aiki-jūjutsuhanshi*, 9 dan *goshinjutsu*, *yūdansa* (2 dan) in *judo* and *kenjutsu*, and 5 dan *ido*. He is the founder of *Yoseikan Yōshin-ryū* (2005-2008), *Idōkanaiki-jūjutsu* and *Tsunarusuki-ryū* (in 2016) [8, 12]. An important fact is that the *Idokan* style developed in IPA is a Japanese-European style. It also contains elements of Chinese and Korean origin, and one of its co-authors was the Australian expert Dr. Wally Strauss [7].

In EMAC we can distinguish between different categories of expert professors. Some are only top educators, such as Hannelore Sieber and Franz Strauss, and Stanisław Cynarski, too. Others are also active in science and have academic degrees. These are usually degrees in physical culture sciences or sports sciences. In particular, these are people still active in teaching martial arts. They are also efficient in organizational activities.

Many martial arts organisations produce emblems and badges, and award special distinctions on special badges or medals, paying special attention to their symbolic content. However, symbols from the Christian tradition are not so common in the martial arts environment. Cultural dialogue and diffusion of symbolic content are illustrated by the fact of awarding the highest honour decorations to people from various countries, but mainly Western countries - for merits for Asian martial arts. In the case of EMAC and IPA (Idokan Poland Association), the symbolic content on the decorations is either universal (phoenix, idea of nobility), or Christian and Polish (Saint George, a hussar on a horse). Thus, not only are rewarded people ambassadors of martial arts themselves, but institutions awarding decorations (such as EMAC) appear as vehicles of cultural dialogue. In

several cases, the same people operate in EMAC and IPA. Leaders are also connected by non-profit activities. Grand Masters (like Schöllauf and Sieber, Słopecki and Cynarski) are still adding private funds to this activity.

The *Idokan* organisation has been operating for over 70 years [7], while EMAC for only 10. However, intercultural dialogue takes place here in a similar way, mainly in the relationship between East and Southeast Asia and Europe and the West [7]. The reason may be close cooperation of EMAC and IPA. Through the presence of appropriate iconography and symbolism on honorary medals awarded by EMAC and IPA, symbolic content diffuses; its dissemination, internalization and inculturation continues. Regardless of the religion or worldview of the people participating in the activities of the organisation, on the one hand, the knightly ethos of Europe is accepted, and the traditions of Asian martial arts on the other.

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Increasing the level of fitness of female students with the help of sports and recreational tourism

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Podwyższenie poziomu kondycji fizycznej studentek w oparciu o wykorzystanie środków turystyki sportowo-rekreacyjnej

Streszczenie

Celem badania było opracowanie i aprobata programu wychowania fizycznego dla studentek w wieku 20 i 21 lat Uniwersytetu Narodowego w Zaporozżu i Chersońskiego Uniwersytetu Państwowego, w celu poprawy ich kondycji fizycznej, z wykorzystaniem środków turystyki sportowo-rekreacyjnej. *Znaczenie badań* polegało na eksperymentalnej aprobacie i późniejszej praktycznej implementacji opracowanego programu z wykorzystaniem środków turystyki sportowej i rekreacyjnej w procesie wychowania fizycznego dla wykształcenia wyższego. Badania zostały tematycznie ukierunkowane na różne aspekty wychowania fizycznego, sportu i zdrowia studentek. W wyniku tego uwzględniany jest aktualny poziom kondycji fizycznej studentek i kładzie się nacisk na jej poprawę. *Wyniki badania* wykazały znaczną optymalizację poziomu przygotowania układu krwionośnego studentek uczęszczających na zajęcia kultury fizycznej z wykorzystaniem środków turystyki sportowo-rekreacyjnej, z uwzględnieniem różnych rodzajów treningu (od techniczno-taktycznego po specjalny trening fizyczny). Została przeprowadzona ocena dynamiki integralnych wskaźników układu krwionośnego studentek w procesie wychowania fizycznego, m.in. za pomocą środków turystyki sportowo-rekreacyjnej. Wnioskowano o podniesienie poziomu koherencji układu krwionośnego i oddechowego. Zaobserwowano podniesienie wydolności tlenowej i mieszanej oraz normalizację czynności serca, co obserwuje się podczas przejścia do normotonicznego typu regulacji czynności serca.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka, układ krążeniowo-oddechowy, układ oddechowy, trening fizyczny, specjalny trening fizyczny.

Abstract

The aim of the research was to develop and test Physical Education program for 20- and 21-year-old female students of Zaporizhzhia National University and Kherson State University using means of sports recreational tourism to improve their fitness. *The relevance of the research* is experimental approbation and further practical implementation of the aforementioned PE program featuring sports recreational tourism, into the Physical Education process for higher education. The research focuses on different aspects concerning PE, sports and students health. *The results of the research* have shown a significant optimization of cardiovascular system fitness level of students who attended Physical Education classes with the use of sports recreational tourism and were exposed to different types of training (from technical and tactical to special physical training). The researchers evaluated the dynamics of the integral indices of the cardiovascular system among the female students of the higher educational institutions during the course of Physical Education activities taking advantage of sports recreational tourism. It was concluded that the coherence level of the cardiovascular and respiratory systems has increased. Aerobic and mixed performance increase and cardiac activity normalization that can be seen when changing to a normotonic regulation of cardiac performance were observed.

Keywords: tourism; cardiorespiratory system; respiratory system; physical fitness; special physical training.

Introduction

One of the most important issues of modern society is significant deterioration of health among different categories of population, especially among student youth [25]. Young people as carriers of intellectual, creative potential, reproductive and labor resources, should have reserves of physical health [3, 7]. According to the expert investigations in the field of sports and physical education, students' health development is characterized by an unsatisfactory level of physical training, functional decline of the main physiological organ systems, physical and mental health problems among students [4, 9]. There is a lot of research dealing with the issue of physical condition improvement for students of different age, gender and level of physical fitness. It has been proved that different types of fitness [26, 28], sports games [16, 17], martial arts [24], athletic gymnastics [15], swimming [10] etc. are popular among students.

However, many specialists believe that using sports recreational tourism in the system of Physical Education for students is underestimated. It is a popular and affordable way of physical training and it has been rapidly developing in Ukraine over the past few years. The majority of studies focusing on health promotion and longevity concentrated on adults [5, 8, 27]. Only in recent years have specialists shown a particular interest in the health of children, adolescents and students [1, 7]. According to specialists, the main reason for the deterioration of health indicators is the lack of regular physical activity among modern youth [13, 14, 22].

The analysis of the program and methodological documents that regulate the process of physical education at universities, together with the content and methods of conducting physical education classes, allows us to conclude that they are mainly focused on the formation of appropriate motor skills and abilities of students and to a lesser extent have an impact on the systems and functions of their bodies and health. At the same time, there is a lack of positive motivation for physical education, leading to the deterioration of students' health. This contradiction determines the relevance of the undertaken research.

Methods

To solve the tasks set in the research, interdependent and complementary research methods have been used: theoretical analysis and generalization of data from scientific and methodological literature, pedagogical research methods (pedagogical observation and pedagogical experiment), physiological methods (assessment of the level of physical fitness of the cardiorespiratory system and physical health); sociological research methods (conversation, sociological survey, questioning), methods of mathematical statistics.

The analysis of scientific and methodical literature has been carried out with the aim of theoretical substantiation of the object of the research and generalization of scientific approaches to the sports recreational tourism motor activity of young people. These theoretical methods of the research, the generalization of modern practical experience, made it possible to substantiate the relevance of the research, to identify and specify the goal, objectives and direction of the pedagogical experiment, to develop the content of the research program.

Pedagogical observations have been used as the means of orientation and familiarization with the studied phenomena, in order to identify the main aspects that affect the involvement of young people in the sports and recreational tourism motor activity, which made it possible to clarify the special issues on which the motor activity analysis should be based. The data obtained by the “non-participant observation” method were supplemented by the results of studies using the “conversation” method, conducted in conditions of frank communication with the participants of the research. When preparing the observation, the purpose was specified, as well as methods and ways of processing the data obtained.

One of the main research methods was a *pedagogical experiment*, the structure of which assumed the implementation of ascertaining and transformative procedures. The ascertaining experiment has been carried out in order to obtain initial data on the quality of life of young people. The purpose of the transformative experiment was introduction and testing of the effectiveness of introducing sports recreational tourism in the physical culture curriculum of Zaporizhzhia National University and Kherson State University. Physical education was carried out according to the experimental program developed by us using the means of sports recreational tourism, focused on the means of special physical training. In addition, the study included certain ratios of general and special physical, technical and tactical training of female students and the optimal modes of the pulse scale developed by us in accordance with the current physical condition of female students. The monitoring of the heart rate value during the special program of physical education was carried out using a wristwatch “Polar” [6]. The program of the pedagogical experiment included an assessment of the physical condition of female students at the beginning (September 2020) and the end (May 2021) of the academic year.

Physiological methods (assessment of the level of physical fitness of the cardiorespiratory system and physical health) calculated the quantitative value of the level of fitness of the cardiovascular system (CVFL, points) and respiratory system fitness level (RSFL, points), the values of heart rate (HR, beats per minute⁻¹), systolic (BPs, mm Hg), diastolic (BPd, mm Hg) blood pressure, vital capacity (VC, ml), timed inspiratory capacity (TIC, s), timed expiratory capacity (TEC, s) end-systolic volume (ESV, ml), cardiac output (CO, L/min), hypoxia index (HI,

r. u.), Skibinskiy index (SI, r. u.), cardiac index (CI, L/min/m²), systemic vascular resistance (SVR, dynxs × sm^{-0,5}), which are defined by the traditional method preliminarily.

The obtained quantitative values of CVFL and RSFL are formatted in the following qualitative functional levels: at CVFL and RSFL ≤ 33.1 points the cardiovascular fitness level or respiratory system fitness level is “low”; at CVFL and RSFL ≤ 49.6 the cardiovascular fitness level or respiratory system fitness level is “below average”; at CVFL and RSFL ≤ 66.1 the cardiovascular fitness level or respiratory system fitness level is “average”; at CVFL and RSFL ≤ 82.6 the cardiovascular fitness level or respiratory system fitness level is “above average”; and finally at CVFL and RSFL > 82.6 the cardiovascular fitness level or respiratory system fitness level is “high”.

CVFL was calculated as a cumulative of points on every parameter that characterizes cardiovascular system activity (ESV, CO, SVR, BPs, BPd, CI) divided by the total number of parameters (in our case, it is 6).

RSFL was calculated as a cumulative of points on every parameter that characterizes respiratory system activity (values of VC, HI, SI, TIC, TEC), divided by the total number of parameters (in our case it is 5).

$$\text{RSFL} = \frac{\text{VC} + \text{HI} + \text{SI} + \text{TIC} + \text{TEC}}{5}$$

Sociological research methods have been used to collect primary information by asking respondents questions. The source of information in the questionnaire was the written opinions, i.e. answers of female students involved in sports and recreational tourism activities collected to assess their opinions regarding motives and interests in various conditions.

In the course of research results processing, traditional *methods of mathematical statistics* have been used. With the help of these methods the following criteria were determined: the main statistical characteristics – arithmetic mean (\bar{x}); standard deviation (δ), standard error of mean (S); the credibility of difference between arithmetic means was determined by the Student’s t-test. The credibility was considered substantial even with the 5% level of significance ($p < 0,05$) that was regarded as fairly reliable when conducting pedagogical experiment.

However, to improve the objectivity of the achieved results, the levels of significance 1% ($p < 0,01$) and 0,1% ($p < 0,001$) were considered additionally. The calculations of the Student’s t-test for a normal distribution were conducted using the formula:

$$t = \frac{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|}{\sqrt{S_x^2 + S_y^2}}$$

where \bar{x} , \bar{y} – arithmetic means of samples under study; S_x , S_y – corresponding standard errors of mean.

Purpose and Procedure

The purpose of the research – to develop and test Physical Education program for 20- and 21-year-old female students of Zaporizhzhia National University and Kherson State University using means of sports recreational tourism to improve their physical state level.

The object of the research is Physical Education process in higher education institutions.

The list of means of *general physical training* for female students included cross run, swimming in the pool, step aerobics; *means of technical and tactical training* – herringbone, half-herringbone, rail lift, traverse, rail descent, support descent, abseiling, pendulum traverse, pole fording, group fording, rail fording, log fording, air fording, stepping stone fording; *means of special physical training* – log walking, stone stepping, tourist exercises on grass and talus slopes (to develop special dexterity), rope climbing, pole climbing, slope climbing, weight squats, goblet exercises, stuffed ball exercises, chin-ups to develop special strength), tourist exercises for all-round competition (putting up a tent against the clock, knotting, work with special tourist equipment, etc.) (to develop special speed), weight training on grass and talus slopes and cliffs (to develop special stamina).

To assess the level of fitness of the female students who did sports recreational tourism during the academic year, such forms as a day off camping trip and competitions in orienteering and tourism technical skills were used. Apart from that, the process of technical and tactical training for the experimental group of female students was implemented gradually – from the easiest means (techniques and tactics of grass slopes climbing) to the hardest (techniques and tactics of rock terrain climbing).

The research objectives:

1. To investigate the issue of the female students' current physical state with the use of sports recreational tourism means.
2. To develop and test the efficiency of the experimental Physical Education program for 20- and 21-year-old female students with the use of sports recreational tourism means.

Participants

The research was carried out from 2020 to 2021 in Zaporizhzhia National University and Kherson State University with the participation of 45 third-year female students aged from 20 to 21 of Zaporizhzhia National University and Kherson State University. All of them volunteered to participate in the research. Prior to the testing, the procedures were explained to all of them, including possible involvement risks, and, after the explanation, an informed consent form was signed. The participants were involved in the research after providing their written informed consent. The research was approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee, complied with all relevant national regulations and institutional policies, followed the tenets of the declaration of Helsinki, and was approved by the authors' institutional review committee. Exclusion criteria were a history of injury or disease that would prevent participants from safely performing the research protocol. All participants were asked to refrain from alcohol and physical exercises 24 hours prior to participation and abstain from food intake and beverages that contain caffeine 2 h prior to participation.

Results

Taking into account the recent data that show a low level of students' physical state, it was considered to introduce new, popular and available among the youth physical exercises taking advantage of sports recreational tourism into the Physical Education program [14].

These physical exercises are popular among students and have been rapidly developing in Ukraine over the past few years. Thus, they can attract more students to a healthy lifestyle, sport, prepare them better for future professional activities, expand their scientific and cognitive potential, and assure long-term health and capability to work. Therefore, the experimental approbation of physical culture and further practical implementation of sports recreational tourism in the process of physical education of universities takes into account the current level of physical condition of students and is aimed at improving it, which determined the relevance of this research.

Heart rate monitoring is a useful tool for assessing individual cardiovascular activity and evaluating intensity [27]. Moreover, it is widely used for recreational purposes [23]. In addition, it is specifically used by coaches to assess individual capacity and exercise intensity, hence accurate measures of HR. At the end of the experiment the values of heart rate (to 64 ± 1.07 bpm⁻¹), all types of blood pressure, circulatory efficiency coefficient (to 3115.29 ± 120.90 r. u. or to the average level), Robinson index (to 71.09 ± 1.52 r. u. or to above average level) were

reliably decreased and the cardiovascular fitness level (CVFL) was reliably increased (to 82.11 ± 2.75 points or to above average level) (Table 1).

Table 1. Cardiovascular and respiratory systems' parameters of female students at the end of the experiment

Parameters	Beginning of experiment	End of experiment
HR, bpm ⁻¹	71.2±1.08	64±1.07***
BPs, mm Hg.	123.67±3.03	111.07±1.45***
BPd, mm Hg.	69.33±2.38	62.43±1.64**
BPr, mm Hg.	54.33±3	48.64±1.71
BPavg., mm Hg.	88.35±2.2	79.45±1.34***
ESV, ml	81.02±2.83 high	81.43±2.47 high
CO, L/min	5.77±0.21 above average	5.21±0.18* above average
CI, L/min/m ⁻²	3.15±0.12 average	2.87±0.09 hypodynamic
SVR, dynxsxsm ^{-0.5}	1241.28±68.66 below average	1231.45±59.54 below average
CVFL, points	64.50±3.43 average	82.11±2.75*** above average
VC, ml	4420±90.08	4907.14±83.34***
TIC, s	78.07±8.6	85.36±7.95
TEC, dec	36.33±4.42	46.93±4.44
HI, r.u.	0.51±0.06 average	0.74±0.07** high
SI, r.u.	2251.69±271.37 below average	3595.93±331.60** above average
RSFL, points	65.33±4.31 average	76.41±4.73* above average
PFL, points	46.47±1.78 below average	59.16±2.35*** average

NB: * – $p < 0.05$; ** – $p < 0.01$; *** – $p < 0.001$ comparing with the beginning of experiment

Source: own research.

At the end of the experiment, there were also positive changes of factors characterizing the current respiratory system fitness level and physical fitness level. According to the information received at the end of the experiment, there was a reliable increase among female students in values of VC (to 4907.14 ± 83.34 ml), hypoxia index (to 0.74 ± 0.07 r. u. or to high level), Skibinskiy index (to 3595.93 ± 331.60 r. u. or above average level), respiratory system fitness level (to

76.41±4.73 point or above average level) and physical fitness level (to 59.16±2.35 points or to average level). The female students had a high value of general physical working capacity (by 40.18±0.21%) and aerobic performance (by 17.66±1.85%). At the end of the research there were higher values of the cardiovascular system fitness level (by 19.40±1.51%), respiratory system fitness level (by 12.15±1.56) and physical fitness level (by 25.79±1.74%).

The results of the research have shown a significant optimization of the cardiovascular system fitness level of the female students who attended Physical Education classes that used sports recreational tourism means and included different types of training (from technical and tactical to special physical training).

Coherence in the work of the diaphragm and the cardiovascular system was revealed, which, in the form of a Valsalva wave, increased the efficiency of blood oxygen saturation and detoxification. The research showed a beneficial effect on the entire body as a whole, improving not only its respiratory function and blood circulation, but also the activity of the peripheral nervous system and the brain. Within the framework of the experimental program, a scale of optimal pulse modes was created for female students aged 20 and 21 with different levels of physical fitness during the implementation of the aforesaid special program of physical education (Fig. 1, 2).

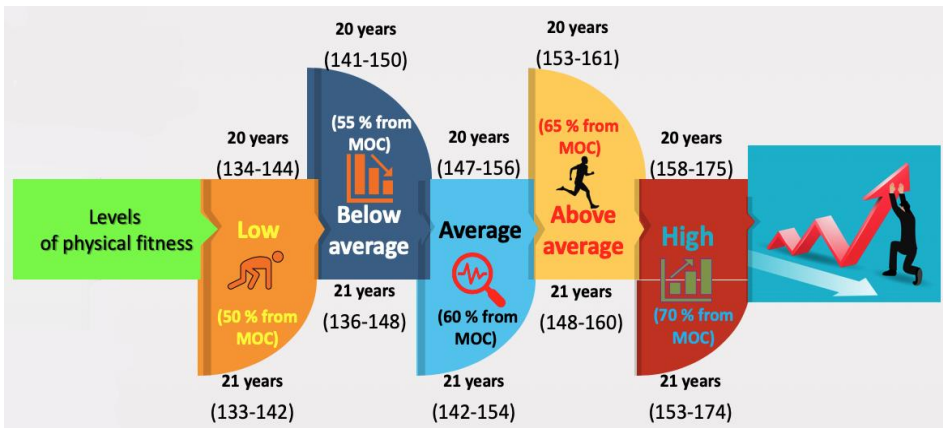


Figure 1. Optimal heart rate values (bpm^{-1}) for female students with different level of physical fitness while participating in the special Physical Education program

Source: own research.

One study [20] emphasizes the importance of the complex use of test batteries to assess the functional state. They must comply with the principles of measurement theory; reflect the course of physiological processes. The informativeness and validity of tests were singled out as the main principles. The

same conclusion was made in this article when studying the problems of organization of children's, teenage, student physical culture [21].

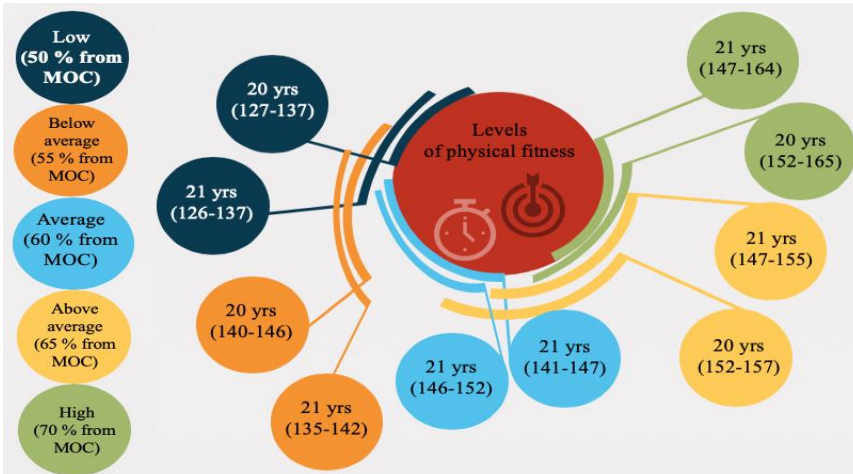


Figure 2. Optimal heart rate values (bpm^{-1}) for female students with different level of physical fitness while participating in special Physical Education program

Source: own research.

The development of the scale of optimal pulse modes was based on the analysis of the results of experimental studies concerning the morphological and functional characteristics of female students over the past 5 years. This takes into account known methods for calculating the optimal value of heart rate (HR) and bibliographic data on the relationship between the level of physical fitness and the value of maximum oxygen consumption (MOC) [18].

For instance, it has been demonstrated that:

- there is the following relation between maximal oxygen consumption value (MOC, ml/min) and maximal physical working capacity (aPWC_{170} , kgm/min):

$$\text{aMOC} = 1.7 \times \text{aPWC}_{170}(\text{max}) + 1240, \text{ or } \text{aPWC}_{170}(\text{max}) = (\text{aMOC} - 1240) / 1.7$$

the most favorable activity is 60–75% from MOC or maximal values of PWC_{170} .

Activities of such intensity cause normal circulatory system intensification, which corresponds with a given activity intensity and later signs of tiredness.

- to calculate the optimal heart rate value when performing physical activities, a formula suggested:

$$\text{HR}_{\text{OPT}} = \text{COF}_1 + \text{COF}_2 \times N - \text{COF}_3 \times A^2 \times \text{BW},$$

where HR_{OPT} – optimal heart rate value when performing physical activities, bpm; $\text{COF}_1(82,81)$; $\text{COF}_2(1,19)$; $\text{COF}_3(0,001)$ – constant coefficients; A – age, years; BW – body weight, kg; N – load power (% from MOC or $\text{aPWC}_{170}(\text{max})$).

In view of the foregoing, we suggested to calculate optimal heart rate volumes using such formulas:

$$\text{HR}_{\min} = 88.2 + 1.19 \times N - 0,001 \times A^2 \times \text{BW}_{\min}$$

$$\text{HR}_{\max} = 88.2 + 1.19 \times N - 0,001 \times A^2 \times \text{BW}_{\max},$$

where HR_{\min} – minimal heart rate value, bpm^{-1} ; HR_{\max} – maximal heart rate value, bpm^{-1} ; BW_{\min} – minimal body weight value in the group examined, kg; BW_{\max} – maximal body weight value in the group examined, kg; A – age, years; N – load power in % from MOC; 88.2; 1.19; 0.001 – constant coefficients.

Discussion

Each generation has its own characteristics and, consequently, needs. To encourage today's youth to any activity, you need to take into account their characteristics and speak the same language to them. Here it is necessary to use one's ingenuity and constantly experiment, even if we are talking about ordinary physical education lessons. Some innovative educators manage to find the key to their students' motivation, however, unfortunately, so far this remains a pleasant exception. In order to globalize the love of students for sports and for attending physical education classes, caring organizations introduce special programs.

If we are talking about a teacher, then this should be a professional and creative person who is not afraid of change and does not act according to a pattern. They must leave their comfort zone, find new approaches to present the material in an interesting and modern way, be an example and authority for students, constantly engage in self-education and improve their professional level. The authority of the teacher should come first. We must try to find an approach to each pupil. An interesting teacher – an interesting lesson – a sincere and grateful student!

Weak dialogization, lack of creative tasks are also the problems of modern physical culture lessons. Students quite often play the role of passive executors of the teacher's instructions. Unfortunately, a vast majority of them have low motivation, do not know how / do not want to come up with and implement new ideas. And very often we can "lose a child" behind programs and standards, without giving them any opportunity to fall in love with sports and enjoy physical activity.

Today, the main obstacle to conduct high-quality physical education lessons is a weak material and technical base – insufficient modern sports equipment and equipment inconsistent with age standards. In Ukraine, there are educational institutions with no gyms at all, and students are forced to study in corridors and converted rooms in the winter. It is worth paying attention to the congestion of sports halls. In the cities of Ukraine, one can often observe a picture

when two, and sometimes three courses of different ages are exercising in one gym at the same time. In such conditions it is very difficult to provide a high level of physical education lessons and even more so to motivate and encourage students to go in for sports.

An urgent task is to stimulate the independent motor activity of young Ukrainians, the search for innovative technologies, means, forms to preserve and increase their health potential [13]. Experts recommend to modernize the process of physical education at universities. In practice of physical education, it is customary to declare: the fight against obesity, the increase in cardiorespiratory endurance, the development of strength and flexibility of the joints of the body. In particular, a number of authors note a wide variety of sports and health options (physical education, health, rehabilitation, etc.), which significantly increases the prospects for their use as one of the most effective ways to improve the physical condition of students [20]. Also, experts point out that physical activity can improve some human functions [2], and recreational activities can improve their physiological functions, as well as can lead to an improvement in cognitive functions and psychosocial characteristics [1]. Powerful stabilizing results will also affect emotional harmonization, a sustainable healing effect that extends to all systems and organs. This is due to the work of the nervous system which is maintained by the transition of nervous activity to a state of parasympathetic activity, and this is an exceptional condition for the absorption of nutrients and recovery at the cellular level.

With the rising concerns about population health, the tourism has received considerable attention and has become an integral part of students' life. There is a lack of scientifically-based data concerning the use of different means of sports recreational tourism in Physical Education for students; it is chiefly fragmentary [11, 12, 19].

This approach involves the use of relatively low physical activity, which contributes to the choice of such means and forms of sports recreational tourism, which provide leisure time for female students and have a positive effect on sports and health tourism.

The analysis has revealed only some facts of evaluation of sports and health-improving means in the system of physical education of female students, affecting the issues of the influence of these physical exercises on individual components of the physical fitness of students of different ages and gender. The lack of extreme physical activity and its intensity, the relative ease of mastering the basic methods of physical culture and health tourism, the high emotional dynamics of classes, especially in the conditions of a tourist trip, distinguish physical culture and health tourism from other types of physical activity and types of tourism and make it appropriate for use in various age groups.

We hope the scrutiny will guide the dynamic process of sustainability in health. Thus, experimental approbation and further practical implementation of sports and health tourism means in the Physical Education process for higher education regards the current level of female students' physical state and focuses on its improvement.

Conclusion

1. Based on the previous studies and discussion in academia, one could notice how physical activity contributes to the functionality and effectiveness of health promotion. The analysis of the scientific literature has revealed only several facts regarding the assessment of sport and health efficiency means in the system of Physical Education for students, dealing with the issues of influence of these physical exercises on particular physical fitness components for students of different age and gender.
2. The results of the research have shown a significant optimization of the cardiovascular system fitness level of female students who attended Physical Education classes with the use of sport and health tourism means, including different types of training (from technical and tactical to special physical training). The coherence level of the cardiovascular and respiratory systems was increased. Aerobic and mixed performance increase, and cardiac activity normalization can be seen when changing to a normotonic type of regulation of cardiac performance.

At the end of the research, the female students had higher reduction values of heart rate (by 3%), systolic blood pressure (by 7%), diastolic blood pressure (by 9%), circulatory efficiency coefficient (by 7%), Robinson index (by 10%), timed inspiratory capacity (by 7%), timed expiratory capacity (by 28%), hypoxia index (by 14%), Skibinskiy index (by 33%), cardiovascular fitness level (by 19% accordingly), respiratory system fitness level (by 12%) and physical fitness level (by 26%).

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CZĘŚĆ III
TURYSTYKA I REKREACJA



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Sektor turystyczny w Polsce w przededniu i obliczu pandemii COVID-19

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The tourism sector in Poland on the eve of and in the face of the COVID-19 pandemic

Abstract

On a global scale, the travel and tourism sector is the part of the economy that has been notably severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. This article presents the state of the tourism sector in Poland on the eve and in the first year of this pandemic. First, key definitions were briefly discussed as a foundation for tourism policy. The defined terms include the following: tourism, visitor, hiker, tourist, international (incoming) and domestic tourism, tourism sector, invisible export industry, tourist accommodation facility, tourist attraction. Then, data on international and domestic tourism in Poland just before the COVID-19 pandemic was presented, including the number of tourists served by the Polish tourism sector. The tourist attractiveness of Poland, the base of accommodation facilities, the share of tourism in Poland's GDP and national employment were discussed. Poland's flagship tourist attractions in 2019 were presented, among which the most important are cultural heritage attractions, sacred places and natural heritage. The issue of the COVID-19 pandemic was presented and on its background scenarios developed by the UNCTAD for the tourism sector related to travel restrictions introduced in response to the pandemic. Declines in tourism indicators between 2019 and 2020 were presented. Next, the *strategy of the*

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middle was characterized as a method used in the anti-crisis policy in the tourism sector, and the *middle scenario* that emerged in the Polish tourism sector in the first pandemic year is indicated.

Keywords: tourism, COVID-19 pandemic, tourism policy.

Streszczenie

Sektor podróży i turystyki w skali globalnej jest tą częścią gospodarki, która w sposób zdecydowanie negatywny odczuła pandemię COVID-19. Niniejszy artykuł przedstawia stan sektora turystyki w Polsce w przededniu i w pierwszym roku tej pandemii. W pierwszej kolejności skrótowo omawia on kluczowe definicje jako fundament dla polityki turystycznej. Wśród zdefiniowanych pojęć znalazły się następujące: *turystyka, odwiedzający, wycieczkowicz, turysta, turystyka międzynarodowa (przyjazdowa) i krajowa, sektor turystyczny, branża niewidzialnego eksportu, turystyczny obiekt noclegowy, atrakcja turystyczna*. Następnie przedstawiono dane dotyczące turystyki międzynarodowej i krajowej w Polsce tuż przed pandemią COVID-19, w tym liczbę turystów obsługiwanych przez polski sektor turystyczny. Omówiono atrakcyjność turystyczną Polski, bazę obiektów noclegowych, udział turystyki w PKB Polski oraz w krajowym zatrudnieniu. Zaprezentowano flagowe atrakcje turystyczne Polski w 2019 r., wśród których najistotniejsze są atrakcje dziedzictwa kulturowego, miejsca *sacrum* oraz dziedzictwo przyrodnicze. Przedstawiona została kwestia wybuchu pandemii COVID-19 i na jej tle opracowane przez UNCTAD scenariusze dla sektora turystyki związane z ograniczeniami podróżowania wprowadzonymi w odpowiedzi na pandemię. Dalej omówiono kwestię ograniczenia ruchu turystycznego w Polsce w pierwszym roku pandemii. Zaprezentowano spadki wskaźników turystycznych pomiędzy 2019 a 2020 r. Następnie scharakteryzowano *strategię środka* jako metodę zastosowaną w ramach polityki antykrzysowej w sektorze turystycznym, a także wskazano *scenariusz środka*, który zrealizował się w polskim sektorze turystycznym w pierwszym pandemicznym roku.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka, pandemia COVID-19, polityka turystyczna.

Wstęp

Turystyka jest zjawiskiem gospodarczym, społecznym i kulturowym wpływającym na środowisko życia ludzi oraz istotnym jako pole realizacji potrzeb osobistych człowieka. W wymiarze gospodarczym wspiera ona rozwój i wzrost gospodarek narodowych, regionalnych i lokalnych. W wymiarze społecznym tworzy miejsca pracy, ma rolę edukacyjną, zdrowotną i więziotwórczą. W wymiarze kulturowym wiąże się z komunikowaniem, porozumieniem, poznaniem, rozumieniem, tożsamością, wartościami, wytworami. W wymiarze środowiska życia człowieka wpływa na kształt i jakość przestrzeni, a także na bezpieczeństwo. W życiu osobistym (prywatnym) jednostki ludzkiej pełni rolę m.in. wypoczynkową, poznawczą, religijną, zdrowotną, relacyjną, rodzinną, sentymentalną, rozwoju osobistego.

Turystyka wspomaga postęp równości i zrównoważony wzrost gospodarczy [36], ale bywa także wewnątrznie przestrzenią niesprawiedliwości [29] oraz konfliktów [22]. Uzależniona jest ona od złożonych procesów, różnych interesów,

postaw i oczekiwań, wartości i celów. Funkcjonuje jako część szerszych systemów gospodarczych, geopolitycznych i społecznych. Jest areną, na której w interakcje wchodzi wielu graczy [29]. Jej rozwój rozpatrywany jest na trzech płaszczyznach: ekonomicznej, społecznej i środowiskowej [22]. Konieczne jest dodanie płaszczyzny kulturowej oraz osobistej człowieka. Współczesne państwa prowadzą politykę turystyczną, która z perspektywy *państwocentrycznej* jest formalnym intencjonalnym rozwiązaniem instytucjonalnym oraz ciągłą, systemową i racjonalną działalnością aparatu państwa kształtującą rolę i charakter turystyki w społeczeństwie i w gospodarce narodowej. Z perspektywy *publicnocentrycznej* zaś obejmuje złożony proces kreowany przez różne podmioty, oparty na wielostronnej komunikacji i interakcji między różnymi aktorami (jednostkami, grupami) i dziejący się w konkretnym kontekście.

Turystyka w ciągu ostatnich 70 lat stała się globalnie istotnym elementem stylu życia ludzkości i odnotowała znaczny rozwój [23]. Świat pokochał podróżować. Przed wybuchem pandemii COVID-19 przewidywano trwanie wzrostowego trendu rozwoju sektora turystyki [42]. Jednak to globalne ekstremalne wydarzenie kryzysowe, z którym mamy do czynienia od marca 2020 r., bezpośrednio negatywnie dotknęło ten sektor.

Niniejszy artykuł przedstawia stan sektora turystyki w Polsce w przededniu i w pierwszym roku pandemii COVID-19. Jego celem jest zebranie podstawowych definicji, danych i metod ważnych dla polityki turystycznej w trakcie trwającego od marca 2020 r. zdarzenia kryzysowego. Ustalenia pracy opierają się na *desk research* i analizie literatury (źródła zebrane zostały w bibliografii) oraz na wywiadzie dotyczącym frekwencji w największych atrakcjach, co do których nie były dostępne informacje za 2019 r. [13]. W pierwszej kolejności zaprezentowano definicje podstawowych pojęć, czyli: *turystyka, odwiedzający, wycieczkowiec, turysta, turystyka międzynarodowa (przyjazdowa) i krajowa, sektor turystyczny, branża niewidzialnego eksportu, turystyczny obiekt noclegowy, atrakcja turystyczna*. Następnie przedstawiono zebrane dane dotyczące turystyki międzynarodowej i krajowej w Polsce tuż przed pandemią COVID-19, w tym liczbę turystów obsługiwanych przez polski sektor turystyczny. Dalej omówiono atrakcyjność turystyczną Polski, bazę obiektów noclegowych, udział turystyki w PKB Polski oraz w krajowym zatrudnieniu. Zaprezentowano flagowe atrakcje turystyczne Polski w 2019 r., wśród których najistotniejsze są atrakcje dziedzictwa kulturowego, dziedzictwo przyrodnicze oraz miejsca *sacrum*, ale obecne także te związane z edukacją, aktywnością fizyczną i rozrywką. Przedstawiona została kwestia wybuchu pandemii COVID-19 i na jej tle opracowane przez UNCTAD scenariusze dla sektora turystyki związane z ograniczeniami podróżowania wprowadzonymi w odpowiedzi na pandemię. Analiza scenariuszy jest ważną metodą polityki publicznej wspierającą proces planowania i wdrażania polityki antykryzysowej. Następnie omówiono kwestię ograniczenia ruchu turystycznego w Pol-

sce w pierwszym roku pandemii. Zaprezentowano spadki wskaźników turystycznych pomiędzy 2019 a 2020 r. w skali kraju oraz największych miast turystycznych. Scharakteryzowano *strategię środka* jako metodę zastosowaną w ramach polityki anty kryzysowej w sektorze turystycznym, a także wskazano *scenariusz środka*, który zrealizował się w polskim sektorze turystycznym w pierwszym pandemicznym roku.

1. Turystyka w ujęciu prawno-społecznym

Turystyka jest zjawiskiem społecznym, kulturowym i gospodarczym, które wiąże się z przemieszczaniem się ludzi do krajów lub miejsc poza ich codzienne otoczenie w celach osobistych lub biznesowych na okres krótszy niż rok. Na gruncie prawa Unii Europejskiej (UE) oznacza ona czynności odwiedzających, którzy podejmują podróż do głównego miejsca docelowego położonego poza ich zwykłym otoczeniem, na okres krótszy niż rok, w dowolnym głównym celu, w tym w celu służbowym, wypoczynkowym lub innym celu osobistym, innym niż migracja ekonomiczna (zatrudnienie przez podmiot miejscowy dla odwiedzanego miejsca, podjęcie pracy sezonowej), migracja czasowa (czasowe osiedlenie się np. w celu podjęcia edukacji) oraz migracja wahadłowa (regularne dojazdy do pracy, szkoły, na zakupy). Zwykłe otoczenie jest to obszar geograficzny, w którym dana osoba odbywa zwykłe życiowe zajęcia. Określany jest on na podstawie następujących kryteriów: przekraczanie granic administracyjnych lub odległość od zwykłego miejsca zamieszkania, długość trwania pobytu, częstotliwość podróży, cel pobytu [28]. Wśród celów osobistych turystyki możemy wymienić: wypoczynkowe, poznawcze, religijne, zdrowotne, rodzinne, sentymentalne, rozwój osobisty, sportowe, zakupowe itp. Wśród celów zawodowych zaś: spotkania biznesowe, konferencje, szkolenia, kursy, seminaria, wystawy, targi, podróże motywacyjne, imprezy firmowe.

Odwiedzający jest to podróżujący odbywający podróż do głównej destynacji poza swoim zwykłym/codziennym środowiskiem na okres krótszy niż rok, z różnych powodów (biznes, rekreacja lub inne cele osobiste) innych niż zatrudnienie przez podmiot rezydenta w kraju lub miejscu destynacji. Jedną część odwiedzających stanowią *goście jednego / tego samego dnia* (ang. *same-day visitors*), zwani także *wycieczkowiczami* (ang. *excursionists*). Są to osoby niekorzystające w destynacji z noclegu. Drugą część stanowią *turyści* (ang. *tourists*), zwani *gośćmi z noclegiem* (ang. *overnight visitors*). Są to osoby, których pobyt w destynacji obejmuje nocleg [35].

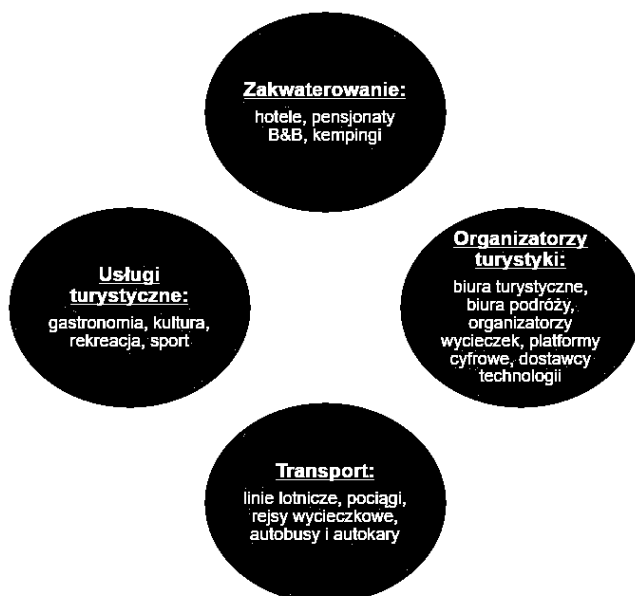
Turystykę dzielimy na międzynarodową i krajową, czy też przyjazdową (ang. *inbound tourism*) oraz krajową (ang. *domestic tourism*). Turystyka przyjazdowa oznacza podróże do państwa odbywane przez odwiedzających niebędących re-

zydentami tego państwa. Są to przyjazdy do danego kraju osób stale mieszkających poza nim. Wpływy w niej wynikają z wydatków poczynionych przez odwiedzających z zagranicy i uwzględniają wpływy generowane przez turystów i wycieczkowiczów. Turystyka krajowa oznacza podróże w granicach państwa odbywane przez odwiedzających będących rezydentami tego państwa [28]. To podróże rezydentów po terenie państwa swojego zamieszkania.

2. Turystyka w ujęciu ekonomicznym

Sektor turystyczny jest to klaster jednostek produkcyjnych w różnych branżach, które dostarczają towary i usługi konsumpcyjne wymagane przez odwiedzających (ang. *visitors*). Branże te nazywamy branżami turystycznymi, ponieważ zakupy odwiedzających stanowią tak znaczną część popytu na ich towary i usługi, że przy braku odwiedzających ich produkcja przestałaby istnieć w znaczącej ilości.

Sektor turystyki tworzony jest przez następujące branże: zakwaterowanie (hotele, pensjonaty B&B, kempingi), organizatorzy turystyki (biura turystyczne, biura podróży, organizatorzy wycieczek, platformy cyfrowe, dostawcy technologii), transport (linie lotnicze, pociągi, rejsy wycieczkowe, autobusy i autokary), usługi turystyczne (gastronomia, kultura, rekreacja, sport) [5]. Prezentuje je ryc. 1.



Ryc. 1. Branże turystyczne

Źródło: opracowanie własne na podstawie [5].

Turystyka, z jednej strony, jest branżą niewidocznego eksportu (ang. *invisible export industry*), ponieważ produkt turystyki (czyli doświadczenie z podróży, doświadczenie turystyczne) jest niematerialny, opłacany przez turystów przywozających do regionu nowe pieniądze i eksportowany z destynacji, w której jest tworzony [34]. Jednak, z drugiej strony, jest ona sektorem eksportu widocznego w zakresie zakupu i wywozu przez turystów przedmiotów wartościowych (np. pamiątki, prezenty, wyroby rzemieślnicze, jubilerskie, sztuka, antyki, ubrania itp.).

Turystyczny obiekt noclegowy to lokalna jednostka działalności świadcząca płatne usługi – chociaż ich cena może być częściowo lub całkowicie subsydiowana – w zakresie zakwaterowania krótkotrwałego. Są to hotele i podobne obiekty zakwaterowania, obiekty noclegowe turystyczne i miejsca krótkotrwałego zakwaterowania, pola kempingowe, włączając pola dla pojazdów kempingowych i pola namiotowe [28]. W Polskiej Klasyfikacji Działalności turystyczne obiekty noclegowe funkcjonują w podklasach: 55.10.Z (Hotele i podobne obiekty zakwaterowania), 55.20.Z (Obiekty noclegowe turystyczne i miejsca krótkotrwałego zakwaterowania), 55.30.Z (Pola kempingowe (włączając pola dla pojazdów kempingowych) i pola namiotowe).

Atrakcją turystyczną jest cokolwiek (miejsce, dzieło, wydarzenie), co zaciekawia turystów i wycieczkowiczów, co przyciąga ich do siebie, co jest przedmiotem ich uwagi, co skłania ich do obycia podróży, aby tego „czegoś” doświadczyć. Atrakcje ściągają odwiedzających ze względu na swoje szczególne cechy. Może nią stać się każdy element środowiska naturalnego, dzieło stworzone przez człowieka, miejsce będące wspólnym dziełem człowieka i przyrody (zaprojektowane w różnych celach), wydarzenie (impreza) dostarczające poszukiwanego przez turystów doświadczenia, przeżycia godnego zapamiętania w wymiarze emocjonalnym, fizycznym, intelektualnym czy duchowym [4], [17], [18]. Atrakcjami są te elementy produktu turystycznego, które determinują wybór dokonywany przez poszczególnego turystę w kwestii odwiedzenia konkretnego miejsca docelowego, a nie innego [27].

Kształtowanie wielkości i charakteru sektora turystyki w danym państwie, regionie czy gminie jest domeną polityki turystycznej, w tym intencjonalnych, wdrażanych przez rządy centralne, władze regionalne i lokalne strategii turystyki. Ważnym aktorem tych polityk są organizacje zarządzające obszarami recepcji turystycznej (Destination Marketing Organization, DMO). Są one odpowiedzialne za rozwój turystyki na danym obszarze oraz realizują konkretne zadania z zakresu polityki turystycznej [1].

3. Turystyka międzynarodowa i krajowa w Polsce tuż przed pandemią COVID-19

W 2019 r. do Polski przyjechało 88,5 mln cudzoziemców, z tego 21,2 mln turystów i 67,4 mln odwiedzających jednodniowych. Byli to głównie mieszkańcy

krajów sąsiednich (60% przyjeżdżających), a wśród nich przeważali mieszkańcy Niemiec (33,4% turystów i 42,7% odwiedzających jednodniowych). 7,5 mln turystów zagranicznych skorzystało w Polsce z usług turystycznych obiektów noclegowych posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych. Była to większość turystów zagranicznych (98,6% z 7,6 mln). Wybierali oni głównie hotele (6 mln osób, tj. 80%). W ogólnej liczbie turystów zagranicznych korzystających z bazy noclegowej w Polsce przeważali obywatele państw europejskich. Polskie turystyczne obiekty noclegowe gościły obywatele Niemiec (1,9 mln osób), Wielkiej Brytanii (605 tys.), Ukrainy (556 tys.), Stanów Zjednoczonych Ameryki (374 tys.), Izraela (256 tys.), Rosji (290 tys.), Włoch (264 tys.) i Francji (232 tys.). Turyści zagraniczni w ciągu 2019 r. skorzystali z 18,7 mln noclegów [6]. Oznacza to, że średnio w skali roku jeden turysta zagraniczny nocujący w turystycznych obiektach noclegowych skorzystał z polskiej bazy noclegowej w wymiarze 2,5 nocy.

W zakresie turystyki krajowej należy wskazać, że w ciągu 2019 r. mieszkańcy Polski odbyli łącznie 75,1 mln podróży w większości krajowych (59,8 mln; 79,6% podróży) z tego 34,5 mln podróży krótkookresowych (2–4 dni) oraz 25,3 mln podróży trwających 5 dni lub dłużej. Podróży zagranicznych Polacy odbyli 15,3 mln i przeważnie trwały one 5 dni lub dłużej (12,4 mln). W ciągu 2019 r. 28,2 mln turystów krajowych skorzystało w kraju z turystycznych obiektów noclegowych posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych. Zanotowano w nich 74,7 mln noclegów [6], [7]. W 2019 r. 20,8 mln Polaków w wieku 15+ (64,1% tej grupy wiekowej) uczestniczyło w przynajmniej jednym prywatnym wyjeździe turystycznym [6]. Liczba wyjazdów turystycznych zrealizowanych przez gospodarstwa domowe wyniosła 41,4 mln, co oznacza, że jedno gospodarstwo domowe uczestniczyło średnio w 3 wyjazdach. Przeciętnie w jednym wyjeździe uczestniczyły 2 osoby [6].

Polski Instytut Ekonomiczny (PIE) wskazuje, że polski sektor turystyczny obsługuje głównie turystów krajowych (79%), a mniejszość to turyści zagraniczni (21%). Jednak to turystyka przyjazdowa stanowiła w 2018 r. źródło przeszło połowy (55,4%) jego przychodów (34,5 mld PLN wydatków turystów zagranicznych w Polsce), a mniej niż połowa (44,5%) pochodziła z turystyki krajowej (27,7 mld PLN wydatków turystów krajowych w Polsce) [3].

4. Atrakcyjność turystyczna Polski

W 2019 r. Polska zajmowała w Indeksie Atrakcyjności i Konkurencyjności Turystycznej 42. miejsce na 140 krajów. Jako największe atuty naszego kraju wskazano bezpieczeństwo, zdrowie i higienę, dostępność technologii informacyjno-komunikacyjnych, otwartość międzynarodową, konkurencyjność cenową oraz zasoby ludzkie i rynku pracy. Powyżej średniej światowej Polska lokowała się

także w obszarze zasobów kulturowych. Poniżej średniej oceniono zaś zrównoważenie środowiskowe, priorytet polityki turystycznej oraz stworzoną przez państwo przyjazność środowiska dla prowadzenia działalności biznesowej. Nie wiele ponad średnią światową Polska osiągnęła w infrastrukturze transportu powietrznego [40].

W 2019 r. z turystycznych obiektów noclegowych w Polsce skorzystało 36,5 mln turystów (o 5,6% więcej niż rok wcześniej), z czego 35,7 mln osób w obiektach posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych [6], [7], [8]. Liczba noclegów udzielonych turystom wyniosła 96,1 mln. W obiektach posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych turyści skorzystali z 93,3 mln noclegów, w tym turyści zagraniczni z 18,7 mln [6], [7]. Zgodnie z danymi United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) i World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) liczba międzynarodowych przyjazdów turystycznych do Polski w 2019 r. wyniosła zaś 18,2 mln [40]. Szczyt sezonu turystycznego w Polsce przypada na lipiec i sierpień (w 2019 r. 25% ogółu rocznych zakwaterowań) lub, patrząc szerzej, na okres od maja do września (w 2019 r. 52% ogółu zakwaterowań) [6].

Liczba turystycznych obiektów noclegowych w Polsce w 2019 r. wynosiła 19,2 tys., z czego 11,251 tys. posiadało 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych, a 7,9 tys. mniej. Oferowały one 891,2 tys. miejsc noclegowych, z czego 825,5 tys. było w obiektach posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc [6]. Liczba miejsc do spania w obiektach posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych lokuje Polskę w drugiej dziesiątce krajów UE – na poziomie zbliżonym do Szwecji (w 2018 r. – 816 tys. miejsc) i troszkę wyższym niż Czechy (w 2018 r. 741 tys. miejsc) [25]. W strukturze turystycznych obiektów noclegowych w Polsce wyróżnić należy: pokoje gościnne / kwatery prywatne (6976), kwatery agroturystyczne (4099), obiekty hotelowe (4229)¹, pozostałe obiekty noclegowe² (3862). Wśród obiektów posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc do spania obiekty hotelowe oferowały 369 tys. miejsc noclegowych, a pozostałe obiekty noclegowe 456,5 tys. [6], [7]. Najwięcej hoteli zlokalizowanych było w województwie małopolskim (391; 14,8% ogółu hoteli w kraju). Najwięcej ośrodków wczasowych (354, tj. 32,3% obiektów tego typu w kraju) oraz zespołów domków turystycznych (148, tj.

¹ Tj. hotele, motele, pensjonaty, inne obiekty hotelowe. W 2019 r. najwięcej było hoteli 3-gwiazdkowych (1318), 2-gwiazdkowych (559), 4-gwiazdkowych (418), 1-gwiazdkowych (136), natomiast 5-gwiazdkowych było najmniej (76). Hotele oferowały turystom 286,231 tys. miejsc w ponad 141,383 tys. pokoi. Najwięcej miejsc noclegowych było w hotelach 3- i 4-gwiazdkowych (odpowiednio 122 tys. i 82 tys.), hotele 5-gwiazdkowe zaś dysponowały 19 tys. miejsc noclegowych [6], [7].

² Tj. domy wycieczkowe (39), schroniska (38), schroniska młodzieżowe (36), szkolne schroniska młodzieżowe (262), ośrodki wczasowe (1095), ośrodki kolonijne (94), ośrodki szkoleniowo-wypoczynkowe (403), domy pracy twórczej (32), zespoły domków turystycznych (582), kempingi (160), pola biwakowe (164), hostele (185), zakłady uzdrowiskowe (210), pozostałe niesklasyfikowane (545) [7].

25,4%) znajdowało się zaś w województwie zachodniopomorskim. Najwięcej pokoiów gościnnych było natomiast w województwach pomorskim, zachodniopomorskim oraz małopolskim [6], [7].

Należy wskazać 25 flagowych atrakcji turystycznych Polski w 2019 r. Każdą z nich odwiedziło w tamtym roku co najmniej 1 mln osób. Wśród wspomnianych miejsc 9 związanych było z dziedzictwem kulturowym, 4 z przestrzenią *sacrum* (religią), 5 z walorami przyrodniczymi, 3 z życiem miasta (w jego specyficznych odślonach), 2 z doświadczeniem edukacyjnym, 1 z aktywnością fizyczną oraz 1 z rozrywką. Przedstawia je tabela 1. Miejsca dziedzictwa kulturowego, przestrzenie *sacrum* oraz dziedzictwo przyrodnicze były najistotniejszymi flagowymi atrakcjami Polski (patrz tabela 2). Warto zauważyć, że przestrzenie *sacrum* są częścią dziedzictwa kulturowego. W 2015 r. wśród flagowych atrakcji było także Sanktuarium Matki Bożej Bolesnej Królowej Polski w Licheniu (1,2 mln odwiedzających), jednak w 2019 r. zostało ono odwiedzone przez około 800–900 tys. osób [13], [19].

Tabela 1. Flagowe atrakcje turystyczne w Polsce w 2019 r.

Lp.	Atrakcja	Liczba odwiedzających w 2019 r. w mln osób	Rodzaj atrakcji
1.	Muzeum Łazienki Królewskie w Warszawie	4,97	DZIEDZICTWO
2.	Sanktuarium Matki Bożej Częstochowskiej na Jasnej Górze	4,4	SACRUM
3.	Tatrzański Park Narodowy	3,95	PRZYRODA
4.	Muzeum Pałacu Króla Jana III w Wilanowie	3,1	DZIEDZICTWO
5.	Państwowe Muzeum Auschwitz-Birkenau w Oświęcimiu	2,32	DZIEDZICTWO
6.	Karkonoski Park Narodowy	2,16	PRZYRODA
7.	Muzeum Żup Krakowskich w Wieliczce	2,08	DZIEDZICTWO
8.	Sanktuarium Bożego Miłosierdzia w Krakowie-Łagiewnikach	ok 2	SACRUM
9.	Sanktuarium Narodowe Matki Bożej Fatimskiej Zakopane-Krzepitówki	2 (w 2015 r.)	SACRUM
10.	Stadion Narodowy w Warszawie	blisko 2	MIEJSKA
11.	Sanktuarium Pasyjno-Maryjne w Kalwarii Zebrzydowskiej	ponad 1,8	SACRUM
12.	Aquapark Wrocław	1,75	AKTYWNOŚĆ FIZYCZNA
13.	Zoo Wrocław	1,65	EDUKACJA
14.	Energylandia Park Rozrywki w Zatorze	1,6	ROZRYWKA

Tabela 1. Flagowe atrakcje turystyczne w Polsce w 2019 r. (cd.)

Lp.	Atrakcja	Liczba odwiedzających w 2019 r. w mln osób	Rodzaj atrakcji
15.	Zamek Królewski na Wawelu – Państwowe Zbiory Sztuki	1,59	DZIEDZICTWO
16.	Woliński Park Narodowy	1,5	PRZYRODA
17.	Muzeum Historyczne Miasta Krakowa	1,32	DZIEDZICTWO
18.	Centrum Nauki Kopernik w Warszawie	1,12	EDUKACJA
19.	Szlak Zabytków Techniki Województwa Śląskiego	1,2	DZIEDZICTWO
20.	Wielkopolski Park Narodowy	1,2	PRZYRODA
21.	Muzeum Narodowe w Krakowie	1,17	DZIEDZICTWO
22.	Molo w Sopocie	1,17	MIEJSKA
23.	Hala Widowiskowa Spodek w Katowicach	1,08	MIEJSKA
24.	Zamek Królewski w Warszawie – Muzeum. Rezydencja Królów i Rzeczypospolitej	1,03	DZIEDZICTWO
25.	Kampinoski Park Narodowy	1	PRZYRODA

Źródło: opracowanie własne na podstawie: [2], [12], [13], [16], [20], [21], [24], [31].

Tabela 2. Liczba i odsetki odwiedzających flagowe atrakcje Polski w 2019 r. według ich rodzajów

Lp.	Rodzaj atrakcji flagowych	Liczba odwiedzających w 2019 r. w mln osób	Odsetek odwiedzających
1.	DZIEDZICTWO	18,77	38,19%
2.	SACRUM	10,2	20,75%
3.	PRZYRODA	9,81	19,96%
4.	MIEJSKA	4,25	8,65%
5.	EDUKACJA	2,77	5,64%
6.	AKTYWNOŚĆ FIZYCZNA	1,75	3,56%
7.	ROZRYWKA	1,6	3,26%
SUMA		49,15	100,00%

Źródło: opracowanie własne.

Największe polskie atrakcje przyciągają turystów z wielu państw świata, a organizowane wydarzenia zwiększają zainteresowanie odwiedzających³. Waż-

³ Przykładowo Sanktuarium Bożego Miłosierdzia w Krakowie-Łagiewnikach przed pandemią COVID-19 odwiedzało (nawiedzało) rocznie około 2 mln pielgrzymów z 90–100 krajów świata. Rekord został odnotowany w 2016 r., czyli Roku Miłosierdzia i Światowych Dni Mło-

nymi atrakcjami turystycznymi przyciągającymi największą liczbę odwiedzających były historyczne centra miast, tj. Stare Miasto w Warszawie (szacunek liczby odwiedzających to 12,2 mln osób w 2012 r.), Stare Miasto w Krakowie (szacunek 10,5 mln osób w 2015 r.), Stare Miasto w Gdańsku (które podczas samego Jarmarku Dominikańskiego w 2015 r. odwiedziło szacunkowo 6 mln osób), Stare Miasto we Wrocławiu (szacunek 3 mln osób w 2015 r.), średniowieczny zespół miejski Torunia (szacunek 1,6 mln osób w 2013 r.) [20], [21], [24]. Wśród wydarzeń w 2019 r., oprócz Gdańskiego Jarmarku Dominikańskiego (ponad 6 mln gości), istotnie przekonała odwiedzających także Industriada (Święto Szlaku Zabytków Techniki Województwa Śląskiego) (1 mln odwiedzających) [21]. Wskazuje to, iż za fundamentalną część polskiej turystyki należy uznać turystykę dziedzictwa kulturowego. Miejsca dziedzictwa kulturowego przyciągają miliony odwiedzających i generują pozytywne efekty zewnętrzne [24].

5. Udział turystyki w PKB Polski oraz w zatrudnieniu krajowym

W 2015 r. szacowana według metodologii World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) wartość Produktu Krajowego Brutto (PKB) wytworzonego przez polski przemysł turystyczny w cenach realnych wynosiła 30,14 mld PLN, cała zaś gospodarka turystyczna wygenerowała 77,91 mld PLN. Stanowiło to odpowiednio 1,68% oraz 4,34% PKB Polski [30].

Zgodnie z danymi Eurostatu w 2017 r. gospodarka polska należała do jednej z najmniej opartych na turystyce w całej Unii Europejskiej (UE). Wkład turystyki do PKB Polski zgodnie z danymi Eurostatu wynosił 1,47% [25].

PIE wskazał, że wartość dodana do polskiego PKB wygenerowana przez branżę turystyczną w 2018 r. wyniosła bezpośrednio 1,3% PKB (26,65 mld PLN). Wpływ pośredni wyniósł 86,02 mld PLN, a indukowany 28,24 mld PLN. Całkowity udział sektora turystyki w wartości dodanej wytworzonej przez polską gospodarkę w 2018 r. oszacowano zatem na 6,6% PKB (140,92 mld PLN). Przyjęto generalne wskazanie, iż całkowity udział turystyki w tworzeniu polskiego PKB w 2018 r. wyniósł 4% [3]. Z danych GUS wynika, że łączne wydatki zagranicznych turystów i wycieczkowiczów (odwiedzających jednodniowych) w Polsce w 2019 r. wyniosły 61 mld PLN, a turystów krajowych na krajowe wyjazdy z noclegami 30,9 mld PLN [6].

Zgodnie z danymi UNWTO i WTTC wkład sektora podróży i turystyki do polskiego PKB w 2019 r. wynosił 1,9% (11,168 mld USD) [40].

dzieży, kiedy to obiekt został odwiedzony przez ponad 5 mln osób z ponad 170 krajów świata. W czasie pandemii liczba osób fizycznie nawiedzających Sanktuarium zmalała. W 2021 r. było to około 1 mln pielgrzymów, ale bardzo wzrosła liczba wirtualnych pielgrzymów ze względu na transmisje radiowe, telewizyjne i internetowe – są to miliony ludzi tygodniowo [13].

W 2018 r. branża turystyczna w Polsce przyczyniła się bezpośrednio do utrzymania 433,7 tys. miejsc pracy (2,6% zatrudnienia krajowego), oraz poprzez wpływ pośredni 700,55 tys. i indukowany 221,37 tys. Oznacza to, że turystyka wspierała blisko 1,36 mln miejsc pracy, czyli około 8% w Polsce [3]. Zgodnie z danymi UNWTO i WTTC zatrudnionych w tym sektorze było 332,5 tys. osób, co stanowiło 2% krajowego zatrudnienia [40].

6. Wybuch pandemii COVID-19 i scenariusze dla sektora turystyki

11 marca 2020 r. Światowa Organizacja Zdrowia (World Health Organization – WHO) oceniła, że COVID-19 można scharakteryzować jako pandemię. 13 marca Europa stała się epicentrum pandemii, gdzie odnotowano więcej przypadków i zgonów niż w reszcie świata razem wziętej, z wyjątkiem Chińskiej Republiki Ludowej [41]. W Polsce pierwszy przypadek koronawirusa odnotowano 4 marca [26]. W odpowiedzi na pandemię COVID-19 państwa na świecie powszechnie zastosowały narzędzia w postaci restrykcji, które silnie uderzyły w sektor turystyki i łącznie ustanowiły *zakaz podróżowania* oraz *zamrożenie sektora turystyki*, czyli całkowity zakaz lub znaczne ograniczenie działalności przedsiębiorstw z tego sektora. Działania władz Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej (RP) w tym zakresie rozpoczęły się 2 marca 2020 r. Od 14 marca ogłoszono na obszarze RP stan zagrożenia epidemicznego, a od 20 marca stan epidemii. Od 15 marca zawieszono międzynarodowe pasażerskie połączenia lotnicze i kolejowe. Wszystkie osoby powracające do kraju zobowiązano do odbycia 14-dniowej kwarantanny w miejscu zamieszkania. Zamknięto granice dla obcokrajowców. Do końca marca 2020 r. większość państw w odpowiedzi na pandemię COVID-19 zamknęło całkowicie lub częściowo swoje granice dla osób niebędących ich obywatelami lub rezydentami [25]. Ta nagła i nieoczekiwana zmiana w szerokim otoczeniu przedsiębiorstw turystycznych miała natychmiastowy negatywny wpływ na ich wyniki i przeniosła branżę turystyczną w czas zastoju [38]. W dalszym okresie trwania pandemii sektor ten doświadczał okresów zaostrzenia i luzowania obostrzeń dla jego działalności w zależności od liczby zachorowań.

Działania podjęte przez władze państw na całym świecie w odpowiedzi na pandemię COVID-19 stanowiły najpoważniejsze ograniczenie podróży w historii. Przełożyło się to na dotychczas niespotkane negatywne skutki dla tej branży. UNWTO wskazało, że koszt związany z ograniczeniami podróżowania wprowadzonymi w odpowiedzi na COVID-19 ma wymiar historyczny [36].

Konferencja Narodów Zjednoczonych ds. Handlu i Rozwoju (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development – UNCTAD) w czerwcu 2020 r. założyła trzy scenariusze wpływu *zamrożenia sektora turystyki międzynarodowej* na gospodarkę światową:

- scenariusz umiarkowany (optymistyczny) (ang. *moderate, optimistic*): w każdym kraju usuwana jest $\frac{1}{3}$ rocznych wydatków na turystykę przyjazdową, co jest ekwiwalentem czteromiesięcznego przestoju w turystyce międzynarodowej lub 80% spadku w ciągu pięciu miesięcy i generowałyby makroekonomiczne globalne straty w wysokości 1,2 bln USD;
- scenariusz pośredni (ang. *intermediate*): usunięcie w każdym kraju $\frac{2}{3}$ rocznych wydatków na turystykę przyjazdową, co byłoby odpowiednikiem ośmiomiesięcznego przestoju w turystyce międzynarodowej lub 80% spadku w ciągu dziesięciu miesięcy i spowodowało straty o wartości 2,2 bln USD;
- scenariusz dramatyczny (ang. *dramatic*): usunięcie w każdym kraju całości wydatków w turystyce przyjazdowej, co byłoby równoważne prawie dwunastomiesięcznemu przestojowi w turystyce międzynarodowej i generowałyby stratę w wysokości 3,3 bln USD [11].

Należało oczywiście rozszerzyć te scenariusze o zamrożenie turystyki krajowej. W scenariuszu dramatycznym, zakładającym *zakaz podróży* zarówno międzynarodowych, jak i krajowych oraz całkowite *zamrożenie sektora turystyki* przez rok, zagrożonych mogło być nawet 10% światowego PKB (13,5 bln USD) i przeszło 300 mln miejsc pracy (10% światowego zatrudnienia). UNCTAD i WTTC prognozowały w czerwcu 2020 r., że turystyka po kryzysie COVID-19 prawdopodobnie odrodzi się wolniej niż inne branże. Może to trwać nawet 19 miesięcy [11].

Oparcie polskiej gospodarki i rynku pracy w mniejszym stopniu (na tle europejskim) na turystyce pozwalało prognozować, że polska gospodarka i rynek pracy w mniejszym też stopniu niż inne gospodarki UE odczują wpływ kryzysu COVID-19. W scenariuszu dramatycznym zagrożone bezpośrednio było pomiędzy 1,3% a 1,9% PKB (około 35 mld PLN) i 2,6% krajowego zatrudnienia (około 430 tys. miejsc pracy). Biorąc zaś pod uwagę wpływy bezpośrednie, pośrednie i indukowane turystyki, zagrożone mogło być około 6,6% PKB (około 150 mld PLN) i 8% krajowego zatrudnienia (1,36 mln miejsc pracy).

7. Ograniczenie ruchu turystycznego w Polsce w pierwszym roku pandemicznym oraz scenariusz i metoda środka

W 2020 r., w porównaniu z 2019 r., odnotowano spadek wydatków zagranicznych odwiedzających (turystów i wycieczkowiczów) oraz turystów krajowych w Polsce o 45%. Spadek wydatków turystów zagranicznych wyniósł 64%, a spadek wydatków turystów krajowych na krajowe wyjazdy z noclegami wyniósł 28%. Biorąc pod uwagę te i inne wskaźniki zaprezentowane w tabeli 3 należy stwierdzić, iż w skali kraju w Polsce w 2020 r. zrealizował się scenariusz UNCTAD pośredni w turystyce przyjazdowej oraz scenariusz umiarkowany (op-

tymistyczny) w turystyce krajowej. Możemy powiedzieć, iż mieliśmy w Polsce do czynienia ze *scenariuszem środka*.

W 2020 r. z noclegów w turystycznych obiektach noclegowych w Polsce skorzystało tylko 18,8 mln osób, co oznacza spadek o 48,5% w stosunku do 2019 r. (w tym 17,9 mln skorzystało z obiektów posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych – spadek rok do roku o 49,9%). Turystów zagranicznych było 2,3 mln (spadek o 69,8%). Liczba noclegów udzielonych turystom w 2020 r. wyniosła 54 mln (spadek o 43,8%), w tym 6,7 mln była to usługa dla turystów zagranicznych (spadek o 64,7%). W obiektach posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych turyści skorzystali z 51,4 mln noclegów (spadek o 45%), w tym turyści zagraniczni z 6,6 mln (spadek o 64,7%) [8] [9].

Liczba mieszkańców Polski w wieku 15 lat lub więcej, uczestniczących w 2020 r. w przynajmniej jednym prywatnym wyjeździe turystycznym, z co najmniej jednym noclegiem, wyniosła 14,1 mln, czyli była niższa o 32,1% w porównaniu z 2019 r. W pierwszym roku pandemicznym podróżowało zatem 43,6% mieszkańców Polski w wieku 15+, co oznacza spadek o 20,5%. Głównym powodem rezygnacji z podróży był koronawirus SARS-CoV-2 (36,9%), powody finansowe (21,7%) oraz brak motywacji do podróży (11,3%). Jedno gospodarstwo domowe w Polsce uczestniczyło średnio w 2 wyjazdach (przed pandemią w 3) [8].

Tabela 3. Spadki wskaźników turystycznych pomiędzy 2019 a 2020 r.

Rodzaj wskaźnika	Wskaźnik	2019	2020	Wielkość spadku
OGÓLNE	Wydatki odwiedzających zagranicznych i turystów krajowych w Polsce (w mld PLN)	91,9	52,2	43%
	Liczba turystów korzystających z noclegów w turystycznych obiektach noclegowych w Polsce (w mln osób)	36,5	18,8	48%
	Liczba turystów korzystających z noclegów w turystycznych obiektach noclegowych w Polsce w obiektach posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych (w mln osób)	35,7	17,9	50%
	Liczba noclegów udzielonych turystom przez turystyczne obiekty noclegowe w Polsce (w mln osób)	96,1	54	44%
	Liczba noclegów udzielonych turystom przez turystyczne obiekty noclegowe w Polsce posiadające 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych (w mln osób)	93,3	51,4	45%
	Liczba noclegów udzielonych turystom przez turystyczne obiekty noclegowe w Polsce posiadające mniej niż 10 miejsc noclegowych (w mln osób)	2,8	2,6	7%

Tabela 3. Spadki wskaźników turystycznych pomiędzy 2019 a 2020 r. (cd.)

Rodzaj wskaźnika	Wskaźnik	2019	2020	Wielkość spadku
TURYSTYKA PRZYJAZDOWA	Wydatki zagranicznych odwiedzających (turystów i wycieczkowiczów) w Polsce (w mld PLN)	61	27,4	55%
	Wydatki zagranicznych turystów w Polsce (w mld PLN)	37,1	13,4	64%
	Liczba turystów zagranicznych w Polsce (w mln osób)	21,2	8,4	60%
	Liczba odwiedzających zagranicznych w Polsce (w mln osób)	67,4	42,7	37%
	Liczba turystów zagranicznych nocujących w turystycznych obiektach noclegowych posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych w Polsce (w mln osób)	7,5	2,3	69%
	Liczba noclegów udzielonych turystom zagranicznym przez turystyczne obiekty noclegowe posiadające 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych w Polsce (w mln)	18,7	6,6	65%
TURYSTYKA KRAJOWA	Wydatki mieszkańców Polski związane z podróżami (w mld PLN)	79,5	48,3	39%
	Wydatki mieszkańców Polski na krajowe wyjazdy z noclegami (w mld PLN)	30,9	24,8	20%
	Liczba podróży zrealizowanych przez mieszkańców Polski (w mln)	75,1	53	29%
	Liczba podróży zrealizowanych przez mieszkańców Polski w wieku 15+ (w mln)	63,6	44,8	30%
	Liczba mieszkańców Polski w wieku 15+ uczestniczących w przynajmniej jednym prywatnym wyjeździe turystycznym (w mln osób)	20,8	14,1	32%
	Odsetek podróżujących Polaków w wieku 15+	64,1%	43,6%	21%
	Liczba turystów krajowych nocujących w turystycznych obiektach noclegowych posiadających 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych w Polsce (w mln osób)	28,2	15,6	45%
	Liczba noclegów udzielonych turystom krajowym przez turystyczne obiekty noclegowe posiadające 10 lub więcej miejsc noclegowych w Polsce (w mln)	74,7	47,4	37%

Źródło: opracowanie własne w oparciu o [6], [7], [8], [9].

W 2020 r. największa liczba turystów w Polsce odwiedziła Warszawę, jednak w porównaniu z 2019 r. było ich zdecydowanie mniej [8]. Liczba odwiedzających,

k którzy przyjechali do Warszawy w 2019 r., wyniosła 10,09 mln osób (7,26 mln krajowych oraz 2,83 mln zagranicznych), z czego 3,8 mln osób skorzystało w stolicy z bazy noclegowej (udzielono 6,5 mln noclegów). Największą atrakcją Warszawy według nich było Stare Miasto i najchętniej oddawali się oni zwiedzaniu (46%) [32]. W 2020 r. liczba odwiedzających Warszawę wyniosła 3,3 mln (2,6 mln krajowych oraz 0,7 mln zagranicznych), z czego 1,3 mln osób skorzystało z warszawskich obiektów noclegowych (udzielono 2,3 mln noclegów). Odnotowano zatem spadek liczby odwiedzających o 67% w stosunku do roku poprzedniego. Sprawy służbowe / interesy były istotniejszym celem przyjazdów niż rok wcześniej (2020: 17%; 2019: 9%), a zwiedzanie zabytków zmniejszyło istotność (26%). Spadek wkładu gospodarki turystycznej w PKB Warszawy w 2020 r. w porównaniu do 2019 r. oszacowano na -36%, a w zatrudnienie na -1,8% [33]. Kolejnymi powiatami, w których w 2020 r. turyści nocowali najczęściej w Polsce, były: Kraków z 818,2 tys. turystów (spadek liczby turystów o 70% w porównaniu z 2019 r.), powiat tatrzański z 725,2 tys. (spadek o 37%), Gdańsk z 639,9 tys. (spadek o 47%), Wrocław z 595,1 tys. (spadek o 58%), powiat kołobrzeski z 559,0 tys. (spadek o 34%) oraz karkonoski z 551,5 tys. (spadek o 29%) [8].

Wiele państw, w tym Rzeczypospolita Polska, wdrożyło szereg instrumentów wsparcia (w tym finansowego) dla podmiotów sektora podróży, w ramach polityki anty kryzysowej, zmniejszając skalę negatywnych skutków kryzysu pandemicznego COVID-19 dla tych podmiotów. Działania wspierające sektor podejmowane były także przez władze samorządowe, w tym miejskie. Miasta turystyczne stanęły przed widmem kryzysu gospodarczego i problemów społecznych. Ratunkiem okazała się *strategia środka*, tj. kiedy sytuacja epidemiczna na to pozwalała, wprowadzano stopniowe (etapowe) restarty/odmrozenia gospodarki i przedsiębiorstw (znosząc zakazy prowadzenia działalności, umożliwiając działalność przy spełnieniu epidemicznych wymogów) oraz społeczeństw (znosząc powszechny nakaz przebywania w domu czy zakaz przemieszczania się) cały czas monitorując sytuację epidemiczną i lokalne przypadki zakażeń [15]. Strategię tę możemy nazwać narzędziem polityki anty kryzysowej w sektorze turystycznym. Pandemia stała się ponadto w sektorze turystycznym katalizatorem innowacji bazujących na nowych technologiach, a także okresem dyskusji nad polityką rozwoju turystyki w kolejnych latach [15].

Podsumowanie

Najistotniejsze dla polityki turystycznej jako części polityki gospodarczej wskaźniki dotyczące sektora turystyki uwiadcniają, że sektor ten przed pandemią COVID-19 odpowiadał w Polsce bezpośrednio za pomiędzy 1,3% a 1,9% polskiego PKB i 2,6% krajowego zatrudnienia. Biorąc zaś pod uwagę wpływy bezpo-

średnie, pośrednie i indukowane – za około 6,6% PKB i 8% krajowego zatrudnienia. Od strony społecznej należy wskazać, że 64,1% społeczeństwa polskiego w wieku 15+ uczestniczyło w prywatnych wyjazdach turystycznych, realizując poprzez nie swoje potrzeby osobiste (wypoczynkowe, poznawcze, relacyjne, rodzinne, zdrowotne, religijne, sentymentalne, rozwoju osobistego, sportowe, zakupowe itp.) oraz zawodowe (spotkania, konferencje, szkolenia, kursy, seminaria, wystawy, targi itp.).

Odwiedzający Polskę z zagranicy byli to głównie goście jednego dnia (76,1%). Turyści stanowili tylko 23,9% odwiedzających przyjazdowych. Polskę odwiedzali głównie mieszkańcy krajów sąsiednich (60% przyjeżdżających), najczęściej obywatele Niemiec. Polski sektor turystyczny obsługiwał głównie turystów krajowych (79%), turyści zagraniczni stanowili mniejszość (21%). Jednak to turystyka przyjazdowa była w 2019 r. źródłem przeszło połowy jego przychodów (55,4%), a mniej niż połowa pochodziła z turystyki krajowej (44,5%). W polskiej turystyce bardzo istotne były atrakcje dziedzictwa kulturowego, miejsca *sacrum* oraz dziedzictwo przyrodnicze.

W pierwszym roku pandemii COVID-19 ruch turystyczny w Polsce uległ istotnemu ograniczeniu. Narzędzia wdrożone w ramach polityki antypandemicznej przez władze państw na całym świecie, w tym przez władze Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, w odpowiedzi na pandemię COVID-19, stanowiły najpoważniejsze ograniczenie podróży w historii. W połowie kwietnia 2020 r. 96% destynacji turystycznych na świecie objętych było restrykcjami, a około 90% całkowitym lub częściowym zamknięciem granic państwowych dla turystów [25]. Instrumenty tej polityki w postaci *zakazu podróżowania* oraz *zamrożenia sektora turystyki* przełożyły się na niespotkane w historii negatywne skutki dla branży turystycznej oraz dla wypełniania przez ten sektor roli gospodarczej, a także jego ról w wymiarze społecznym, kulturowym oraz potrzeb osobistych ludzi. Brak możliwości podróżowania należy rozpatrywać w kategoriach skutków we wszystkich wymiarach oddziaływania turystyki. Państwa wdrożyły jednak także szereg instrumentów wsparcia dla podmiotów sektora podróży w ramach polityki antykryzysowej oraz realizowały *strategię środka* umożliwiającą funkcjonowanie turystyki w bardziej lub mniej ograniczonym zakresie pomimo trwania pandemii.

W pierwszym roku pandemii w polskim sektorze turystycznym zrealizował się *scenariusz środka*. W 2020 r., w porównaniu z 2019 r., odnotowano spadek wydatków zagranicznych odwiedzających (turyistów i wycieczkowiczów) oraz turystów krajowych w Polsce o 43%. Spadek wydatków turystów zagranicznych wyniósł 64%, co oznacza scenariusz UNCTAD pośredni. Natomiast spadek wydatków turystów krajowych na krajowe wyjazdy z noclegami wyniósł 20%, co oznacza scenariusz UNCTAD umiarkowany (optymistyczny).

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Tourism, the hotel industry at the time of the COVID-19 pandemic

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Turystyka, hotelarstwo w czasie pandemii COVID-19

Streszczenie

Branża turystyczna jest szczególnie wrażliwa na niespodziewane katastrofy, takie jak pandemia, klęski żywiołowe, wojny, ataki terrorystyczne. Konsekwencje nie są jednakowe, ponieważ każda sytuacja kryzysowa ma swój unikalny charakter. W 2020 roku wybuch pandemii COVID-19 i ograniczenia w podróżowaniu spowodowały problemy w branży turystycznej i hotelarskiej. Zarządzający hotelami, personel hotelowy i ich goście musieli stawić czoła różnym wyzwaniom, było konieczne podejmowanie szeregu działań, aby sprostać nowej sytuacji.

Artykuł zawiera prezentację skutków pandemii COVID-19 w sektorach turystycznym i hotelarskim oraz strategii przetrwania, już obecnych i możliwych do wdrożenia podczas kryzysu pande-

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micznego (w perspektywach krótko- i długoterminowej). W tekście wykorzystano przegląd literatury przedmiotu, dane statystyczne oraz przepisy sanitarne opracowane przez UN WHO i branżę hotelarską. Poddano krytycznej analizie systemy zarządzania w hotelarstwie wdrażane w odpowiedzi na kryzys pandemii (przegląd literatury przedmiotu, dane jakościowe) oraz dane ilościowe uzyskane w oparciu o dostępne informacje statystyczne na temat ruchu turystycznego i obłożenia hoteli (lata 2019–2020). Tak zgromadzony materiał pozwolił porównać, pod kątem różnych aspektów, sytuację branży hotelarskiej przed pandemią oraz podczas kryzysu COVID-19. Wnioski końcowe zostały przedstawione w kilku wątkach problemowych: kryzys branży hotelarskiej, ochrona personelu i gości, ograniczenia wynikające z reżimu sanitarnego i możliwe rekomendacje zarządzania hotelem.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka, branża hotelarska, COVID-19.

Abstract

THE tourism industry is especially sensitive to a pandemic and other unexpected circumstances as natural disasters, war, terrorist attacks. Different types of crisis bring various consequences. In 2020 the outbreak of the COVID-19 disease and travel restrictions caused bruises to the tourism and hospitality industries. Hotel managers, hotel staff and their guests had to take a series of measures to deal with various challenges and face a new situation.

This paper aims to critically examine the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism and hotel industries and discuss some possible survival strategies to be implemented in the hotel sector during the pandemic crisis (in the short and long-term perspective). The research was based on an overview of the relevant literature and sanitary rules developed by UN WHO, local governments and the hotel industry. The authors critically investigated some available statistic data to compare room occupancy before the pandemic and during the COVID-19 crisis and hospitality services offered to hotel guests before the pandemic and after its outbreak. The main findings are presented from several dimensions: hotel and health crisis, sanitary restrictions and possible recovery recommendations.

Keywords: tourism, hotel industry, COVID-19.

Introduction

The hotel industry is closely linked to tourism, as hotels are the most common overnight accommodation for travelling people. Travellers could find there also meals and many other services (as tourist information, concierge services, excursion booking etc.).

The etymology of the contemporary meaning of ‘hotel’ has its roots in a French word ‘hôtel’, which meant in the Middle Ages a building providing care (hospital). However, the tradition of a building offering accommodation for travellers is much older and derives from the ancient Persian, Greek and Roman culture.

Possibly the oldest in the world, but still operating hotel, is Nishiyama Onsen Keiunkan in Japan, founded in 705 AD. In mediaeval Europe the chain of inns offered food, lodging and stabling for horses for travelling pilgrims, traders and others being ‘on the road’. However, the hotel industry flourished not earlier

than in the 18th century when the level of services met the expectations of more demanding clientele. The first hotel in modern sense was the Royal Clarence in Exeter, founded in 1768, the next was Mivart's Hotel in London founded in 1812 (today known as Claridges Hotel in London), followed by Tremont House in Boston (1829), the Astor House in New York City (1836), the Savoy Hotel in London (1889), Hotel Ritz in London and Paris (1890). It is to be underlined, that all these facilities are luxurious and famous, focused on wealthy and demanding tourists [18].

There are no reliable statistic data providing information of how many hotels are today around the world. Possibly we have about one million buildings, offering together more than 21 000 000 rooms [8, 12].

These hotels vary in size (from 10 to 7500 rooms), having different functions and standards (category indicated by star classification).¹ Other than star categories are descriptions, as: luxury, boutique, resort hotel, economy, business and conference hotel, motel, capsule hotel, botels (adapted boats), extended stay (more than a month) and micro stay hotel (less than 24 hours). There are hotels converted from nuclear bunkers (Null Stern Hotel in Teufen, Switzerland), cave hotels built into natural caves (hotels in Cappadocia, Turkey), cliff hotels built on the seacoast (Caesar Augustus Hotel, Capri), igloo hotels (The Ice Hotel, Jukkasjavi Sweden), underwater hotels (Utter Inn, Sweden) and overwater hotels (Maldives hotels on Indian Ocean islands) [18].

The hospitality industry before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic flourished, generating about 1 250 billion USD per year in 2019 (as tourists' expenses in destinations) [8,12]. In 2020, as a result of travel restrictions some hotels experienced up to 90% losses and many had to close down [13]. Undeniably, due to the COVID-19 outbreak, tourism faced severe consequences. The hotel industry business was expected to make substantial changes in their management policy and development strategies in order to ensure staff and tourists' health safety and wellbeing. It means that some effective strategies had to be considered and implemented to rebuild travellers' confidence, mitigate the negative impact of the pandemic and help the hotel industry to recover [3, 8, 12].

Research methods

Tourism was confronted with an unexpected effect of the COVID-19 disease, facing significant social and economic risks. The pandemic has challenged hospitality across the globe and impacted the hotel industry severely. In 2020 and

¹ It is believed that the largest hotel in the world is the Izmailovo Hotel in Moscow (offering as many as 7500 rooms), according to the Guinness World Record Book [2021]. The facility offering less than 10 rooms formally cannot be recognised as a hotel [12].

2021, studies conducted in the different part of the world (Europe, Asia, North America) suggested that most people (over 50%) were not willing to travel any time soon and preferred to stay home [3, 10]. Therefore, today scholars are obliged to provide answers to a number of questions regarding possible effective strategies of the hotel industry, which might be crucial to mitigate the negative impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and rebuilt customers' confidence.

Our study was undertaken to assess consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic on the hotel industry. This paper aims to critically examine the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism and the hotel industry and discuss some possible survival strategies to be implemented in the hotel sector during the pandemic crisis (in the short and long-term perspective). The research was based on an overview of the relevant literature and sanitary rules developed by UN WHO, UN WTO, local governments and the hotel industry. Especially useful for evaluating the COVID-19 crisis impact on the hotel industry were empirical papers (included in the papers reference list) on pandemic consequences and management practices. The authors critically investigated some available statistic data to compare room occupancy before the pandemic and during the COVID-19 crisis and a range of hospitality services offered to hotel guests before the pandemic and after its outbreak.

This study used both the quantitative and qualitative research methods to examine the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the hotel industry and to consider possible 'crisis management' policies and strategies in 'new normal' days of the pandemic crisis to mitigate its negative impact and prepare for post-pandemic recovery.

The main findings are presented from several dimensions: hotel and health crisis, sanitary restrictions, guests and staff health security and wellbeing and possible recovery recommendations. This approach, as it is believed, could provide a more holistic understanding of the subject, including economic, social, marketing and other fields. Assuming that the tourism industry is extremely vulnerable to numerous factors (natural disasters, pandemics, terrorism, wars) and assuming that these disasters are unavoidable, the authors hoped that their main findings and formed conclusions of a general character might be helpful for shaping recovery strategies, and serve as a guidance in dealing with similar crises in the future [Table 2]. However, due to limited resources and objective implications of the study, this paper is unable to cover diligently the research material, as it is difficult to study the questions when every day brings new data. It is also to be underlined that as the COVID-19 pandemic is still evolving and the future situation is highly unknown and unpredictable – the study might be inductive.

Tourism in the COVID-19 pandemic time: hotels

During the 20th century, especially after the II WW, tourism increased significantly, as travelling became more accessible to more people. All over the world, middle class members growing in numbers could afford relatively inexpensive air tickets and experience tourist trips for adventure, education and relaxation, as well as meet their business needs. In 2019 globally, there were more than 1.4 billion international trips, travel restrictions in 2020 reduced travels by 35%. The tourism industry is significantly fragile to pandemic and crisis. As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, tourism declined more than ever in the recent decades: after terrorist attacks in 2011 – 11%, during the great recession in 2008 – 8%, and during the COVID-19 pandemic as many as 35% [13].²

The tourism industry is in a unique and dangerous position as transport and travels serve as a conveyer for spreading the virus. It makes the tourism industry both a catalyst and victim of the pandemic. In 2020 and 2021 travel restrictions such as border closures, quarantine and other sanitary measures were instituted by governments to minimize the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic. These actions were supported by the UN WHO recommendations to discourage travelling to the regions affected by the pandemic. These immediately resulted in flight cancellations and a number of hotel reservations declined.

Undeniably, hotels are among the segments of the tourism industry most severely impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic. For example, in March 2020 hotels in some popular tourist destinations of Italy (Rome, Venice, Milan) had an occupancy rate as low as 6% [14]. It means substantial revenue losses and endangered staff jobs. It is clear that the COVID-19 pandemic will leave the hotel industry heavily impacted and most experts agree that to survive hotels should adopt new strategies and implement innovative projects [1, 3, 4].

In other words, hotels cannot follow the already existing model of management [3]. This means the change of some hotel functions, rearrangement of hotel rooms, restaurants, spa and sport segments, conference rooms and other common areas, as well as deep changes in hotel sanitary protocols (as cleaning and disinfection routines). It also includes the revaluation of hotel services to make them more attractive in the COVID-19 pandemic time (as safe transfer to and from the airport, stations etc.) and revision concerning the use of facilities. For example, the UN World Health Organization recommends avoiding in hotels, where only it is possible, the use of fans and air – conditioning systems (split

² Some of the crises are only regional. For example, the H1N1 Swine Flu pandemic in 2009–2010 caused to the Mexican tourism industry the loss of about 2.8 billion USD only over the 5-month period and had hardly any impact on travels in Europe [13]. It is to be underlined that this data vary according to the source: for example Dow Jones Index (2021) indicates the percentage change in travel and tourism equalling 32% [15].

A-C units or central cooling). Floor or ceiling fans are safe, when people occupying the room are from the same household, but not recommended in common areas like restaurants. Instead, rather outdoor air exchange is safer by opening doors and windows [6, 7, 11].

Cleanliness of hotel rooms (bedrooms and bathrooms) has always been a core component of hotel reputation and popularity. It includes all segments: key cards, door handles and light switches, bed linen, remote control and bath facilities – all devices receiving frequent human contact. It should be emphasized that since 2020 this factor has become even more important, seen as a principal determinant of travellers' choices and guest satisfaction and, as a consequence, hotel managers should revise their housekeeping procedures, to ensure effective cleaning and sanitation of hotel rooms and common areas [1, 2, 5, 8, 12].

Today, due to the health crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, tourists tend to pay more attention to the health services they can find at their destination. The availability and quality of medical services are important in the travel decision making process. It is an important question how hotels could respond to this expectation; how they can assure guests that they can be provided with sufficient health services. Surely, it is not an issue for luxury hotels (in most cases they offered the 7/24 health service already in the pre-pandemic times), but remains a difficult problem to be solved satisfactorily in low-budget establishments (such as hostels).

Another issue to be solved is to keep physical distance in the common areas, including breakfast rooms, bars and restaurants. The virus is transmitted not only between guests and hotel staff, but also between tourists and staff themselves. Ensuring effective physical distancing and a limited number of guests and staff, not only in the hotel rooms and foyers, but also in the hotel kitchen and offices should be a priority [5, 6, 7, 11]. It is to be highlighted that the knowledge of sanitary measures to be implemented in the hotels is not a new issue to be now explored and discovered. We already have sufficient knowledge based on experience of hospitals, medical hotels and sanatoriums. Often, it is enough to copy their health safety protocols, selecting these which are applicable to the hotel needs.

Assuming that staff health and well-being is an important issue, the UN World Health Organization has elaborated a series of detailed recommendations on this matter 'Coronavirus disease (COVID-19): Working in hotels and other accommodation establishments' [8,12]. It refers not only to the general sanitary protocols (as local government directives), but also insists on obeying everyday basic precautions, for example: washing hands for at least 20 seconds if using alcohol hand rub and 40 seconds with soap and water after exchanging objects such as money or credit cards, maintain at least a 1-meter distance from other

staff and guests, if possible stay behind Plexiglas boards at reception and concierge desk, if possible work online to avoid physical contact with others, use a face mask to reduce droplet transmission of the virus [8, 12]. These recommendations also refer to the sanitary protocol, which should be implemented in case of a hotel guest becoming sick: the hotel manager should contact the local health authority, the sick person should be isolated in a room alone, no visitors should be permitted to enter the room occupied by the affected guest, people travelling with the sick person should be moved to a different room, staff entering the room of the ill person should keep the distance of at least 1 meter and wear a face mask and eye protection.

It is to be underlined that most governments in EU countries (including the Polish government) have issued a number of projects to help the hotel industry, in the form of relief funds, tax cuts, subsidies, credit facilities and employment support. Nevertheless, it is mostly in the individual hotel manager's hands to institute a COVID-19 crisis recovery plan to ensure their business can survive. One of the surviving strategies promoted in 2021 by the UN WTO is the 'COVID' management plan (Cost-cutting, Orderliness, Virtualization, Integration and Domestication) [14]. It is based on the following measures:

- 'C' – hotel cost – cutting budget,
- 'O' – orderliness in sanitation, health, safety and operational strategies,
- 'V' – virtualization of hotel information and services, developed online presence and leverage technology,
- 'I' – integrated efforts with other hotels and other destination stake holders along with local government authorities,
- 'D' – domestication, targeting domestic visitors.

In 2021 we are still facing the serious repercussions of lockdowns in many countries worldwide. However, the impact of the coronavirus pandemic seen globally is not black and white. Some countries suffer very severe restrictions and its consequences, while others had brilliant opportunities to recover [5, 8, 12]. The latter mostly refers to domestic tourism and hotels in Europe and North America. For example, in the summer months of 2020 and 2021, hotels located in mountains or sea resorts in Poland achieved record numbers of guests [Table 1]. It was due to an almost complete shutdown of international travels along with the government economic initiatives supporting hotels (tourist vouchers for children).³

³ Some scholars believe that instead of vague promises of cash infusion and 'tourists' vouchers' given to particular groups of society (for example, families with children, seniors), which are frequent tools of social tourism, but might destabilize the financial balance of the state economy, a better way to deal with the problems of the hospitality industry is to help individual companies to limp through the crisis [10].

As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, global tourism has declined and the estimated time of recovery is 2023. Meanwhile, the hotel industry accepts the situation (colloquially called 'new normal') and tries adapting to it, implementing various measures.

According to the UN WHO recommendations to avoid infection and to slow down the COVID-19 virus transmission [6, 7], people are encouraged to practise the following: wash hands regularly with soap and water or with alcohol-based hand rub, secure at least 1-meter physical distance (more if others are coughing and sneezing), avoid touching their face, cover their mouth and nose when coughing and sneezing, stay home if they are unwell, avoid unnecessary travel and stay away from large groups.

Following the UN WHO suggestions, first of all, 'in the new normal', health safety, wellbeing and hygiene of staff and hotel guests should be the priorities. It means strict cleaning protocols on hotel premises (indoor and outdoor) along with DDM (distance – disinfections – masks) rules, vaccination of staff and demanding COVID passports of visitors. Hotel-based health care facilities might play a crucial role in the industry effective recovery. These facilities could reassure guests that in the event of any disease they are in the safe hands, getting professional help.

The next important issue is efficient communication with potential customers and reliable information – preferably transmitted by hotels online [2, 3, 9].

The other aspect of effective dealing with COVID-19 is flexibility of hotel managers and staff and readiness to adapt to an evolving situation. By offering understanding and flexibility in booking, hotels might offer their customers a sense of security and courage to plan their trips. What mainly causes the increase in the number of hotel guests is a sense of insecurity while booking accommodation, fear of closing borders or flight cancellations [2].

Today experts try to predict post-pandemic prospects for the hotel industry, also reflecting upon tourists' evolving expectations. Some scholars believe [3, 9, 10] that COVID-19 has so deeply changed people's lifestyle that hotel managers should be prepared to answer these new needs. For example, many people reconsidered their life values and now rather than adventure cherish slow pace of living, family life, meditation. Possibly, a future hotel trend will be focused on mental well being, offering meditation classes, detox weekends and healthy diet programmes [Table 2].

Some consulting firms (for example, McKinsey report on the path of hospitality recovery in the US, 2021) [17] predict that in the years to come, travellers will be more flexible and relaxed, adapting better to an evolving situation, for example, while looking for safer solutions, they shall be making rather last-minute bookings than planning their trip in advance. According to McKinsey report titled 'The path to recovery for US hospitality' luxury hotels will be the slowest

to recover, while low-budget accommodation possibly will rebound more easily.⁴ [17]

Recommendations of security measures

It is obvious that the COVID-19 pandemic has deeply impacted the tourism industry, including hotels. Since 2020 the hotel industry has been devastated by a low level of visitors, as globally there were 30% less international trips in 2020 than in 2019 (Europe and Asia saw the most significant decrease). Even today travellers are still not comfortable with staying at hotels and possibly low-occupancy rates will impact the hospitality industry in the year 2022. Hospitality has taken up a new meaning these days, including innovative projects which could help to encourage people to travel. Today, for example, hotel guests expect online information displayed on the hotel website or social media about the current COVID-19 pandemic situation and restrictions to be obeyed in a region they plan to visit. The hotel should provide detailed information about security measures, hotel staff should be prepared for different inquiries regarding sanitary rules and restrictions, along with concierge services and available museum tickets. What is more, hotel staff should offer advice on how to meet local sanitary restrictions.

Some of these actions are to be implemented immediately, some are important in a long-distance perspective. All of them are crucial to activate the hospitality sector:

- updating a booking and cancellation policy, considering the possibility of the COVID-19 pandemic as well as natural disasters and different alerts (e.g. terrorist attacks),
- rearranging hotel rooms to allow guests to have a comfortable space in case of unexpected quarantines (it includes securing a working place in a room),
- flexibility of check-in and check-out times, as hotel guests have no chance to wait in common areas, restaurant, museum or cinema,
- securing 24/7 medical care for hotel guests,
- developing a clear and consistent protocol for staff and guests (for example, about quarantines), displayed on the website, updated each day,
- informing about the hotel policy of sanitary safety (i.e. face masks wearing obligation in the hotel common areas) on the website, updated each day,
- creating a guide about COVID-19 local sanitary restrictions on the website, updated each day,

⁴ However, according to McKinsey report in 2021 'The path to recovery for US hospitality', issued on June 14, 2021 (cited and commented by Hotel Tech Report 2021), about 70% of the respondents to their poll were fearful to stay at an Airbnb [13, 17]

- ensuring safe transport to the hotel (transfers from airports and railway/ bus stations),
- providing hotel services according to current sanitary safety measures (laundry, gastronomy),
- implementing very strict and consistent protocol of cleaning the hotel area,
- using chemicals recognized (authorized) and recommended by government directives,
- installing automatic doors wherever it is possible, if it is not – frequent cleaning of door handles is necessary,
- doormat at the hotel entrance should be regularly disinfected,
- facemasks should be available for hotel guests at the entrance along with a trash bin for items already used,
- floor marking in the common area (like a foyer) to help keeping physical distance,
- installing plastic shields at the reception to protect staff,
- hotel guests should be able to pre-book snacks, meals (limits of guests at a restaurant are necessary),
- training staff to identify possible symptoms caused by COVID-19,
- implementing a body temperature control system for hotel guests and staff,
- displaying hand disinfection dispensers at the hotel entrance, in common areas and hotel rooms,
- upgrading the ventilation system (A-C system) in the hotel common area and hotel rooms,
- displaying visible information about prevention measures in the whole area of the hotel, along with information issued by TV internal channels to the hotel rooms.⁵

To make a rebound of hotel services possible, it is crucial to communicate hotel actions based on security measures and local sanitary restrictions to potential customers. It is important to transmit a clear message to the visitors about the hotel policy during the pandemic crisis.

Future guests should be sure that maximum effort is being made to meet hygiene measures and provide them with security and comfort. The situation is certainly unique and hotel managers need to react quickly and efficiently to find a rational balance between social responsibility (safety and wellbeing of guests and staff), government and local restrictions and sanitary measures, and last but not least, hotel economy and its future [Table 2].

⁵ It is important to build trust by open communication; information should be synchronized and transparent, as misinformation could lead to various social issues at the hotel, inciting hotel guests against staff (it might include different types of anti-social behaviour as verbal and physical aggression, violence and even crime).

It is to be underlined that the role of new technologies is rising. They are a great tool used to build customers' trust and efficient communication. Moreover, today various software applications and staff knowledge about them are important to secure different hotel services. Furthermore, as it was proved, social networks during the COVID-19 crisis are very important for communication with future customers, helpful to build their trust, convince to travel and increase room reservation rates. Overall, nowadays hotel managers pay undeniably more attention to potential benefits of new technologies, including artificial intelligence (AI) and its applications (as robotics), so helpful in rendering everyday hotel services during the pandemic crisis. Possibly it is one of these issues which could foster positive changes in hotel segment practices also after the pandemic crisis.

Final results and discussion

The crisis has challenged tourism across the globe and deeply impacted the hotel industry. In 2021, the COVID-19 pandemic is not over and we have still an ongoing crisis, therefore it is difficult to get the whole picture of the situation (even within one country).

However, new, more detailed and accurate data and information are yet to come. So far, there are only very few studies regarding the hospitality industry and its response to the pandemic crisis, therefore there is an urgent need to fill this gap.

Undeniably, there is a need for future interdisciplinary research projects (undertaken by scholars and practitioners) to examine the impact of this crisis on the hotel industry and to learn how to effectively shape and develop some recovery schemes.

It is also worth emphasising that we have past experience in managing different crises in the hotel industry sector and it is important to accumulate this knowledge and use some of the already known solutions (selecting these, which could be applicable in this particular situation), to deal more efficiently with the present COVID-19 pandemic crisis. Nevertheless, given that each crisis is unique, it is necessary to adapt schemes to the present situation (which might significantly vary even across the same country).

In the crisis situation (like the COVID-19 pandemic), it is impossible to have one perfect solution. Flexibility is important and strongly recommended. It is crucial to monitor and evaluate the present situation and try to minimize its negative impact as much as it is possible [Table 2].

Table 1. Hotels in Poland: Occupancy of tourist accommodation establishments (2019–2020)

	2019	2020	Change in 2020
1	11 251 – Number of tourist accommodation establishments	circa 11 000 – Exact number of tourist accommodation establishments, no detailed data available	NA.
2	93 300 000 – Number of all overnights stays	51 400 000 – Number of all overnights stays	–45%
3	35 700 000 – Number of tourists accommodated in all establishments	17 900 000 – Number of tourists accommodated in all establishments	–49,9%

Source: The authors' elaboration based on: Statistical Office GUS data, Poland [16] Notice: data concern tourist accommodation establishments with 10 or more bed places (hotels, motels, boarding houses, guesthouses, inns etc.).

Table 2. Hotel management and the COVID-19 pandemic crisis

	Category	Suggested practice
1	Marketing practices	Reducing prices, special offers, marketing and promoting new products and services, marketing aimed at international and domestic tourists in joint campaigns with local authorities, local merchants
2	Maintenance practices	Cost cuts by postponing works or purchasing lower cost supplies (for example, to hotel offices), closing less used facilities, extending credit payments or postponing scheduled payments
3	Epidemic prevention	Implement body temperature check on entering the hotel premises (for staff and guests), provide face masks (for staff and guests) and hand disinfection dispensers in the public areas of the hotel and hotel rooms, install Plexiglas shields at the concierge counter and the reception desk, secure sufficient cleaning chemicals, inform guests and staff about prevention procedures, develop, implement and update regularly epidemic prevention procedures, encourage staff to take vaccination, and if it is legal in the hotel location – demand the COVID-19 passport from the guests
4	Human resource practices	Reduce personal contact if possible (between staff members, staff and guests), by self-service, replace traditional services (concierge desk, reception desk) by online or tele-services.
5	Governmental assistance	Tax benefits and tax reduction policy, subsidies provided by the government or local governments.

Source: The author's elaboration based on: Ka Wai Lai I., Weng Chou Wong J. (2020): Comparing crisis management practices in the hotel industry between initial and pandemic stages of COVID-19 [in:] *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* (IJCHM), Vol. 32, No 10/2020, pp. 3135–3165; <https://www.emerald.com/insight/0959-6119.htm> and UN WTO reports [4, 11, 12].

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DEKLARACJA BRAKU KONFLIKTU INTERESÓW

Autorki deklarują brak potencjalnych konfliktów interesów w odniesieniu do badań, autorstwa i/lub publikacji artykułu *Tourism, the hotel industry at the time of the COVID-19 pandemic*.

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

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