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BIOGRAMY, Dyskusje, Polemiki, Recenzje, Przegląd Wydawnictw, Sprawozdania

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Wstęp

W 2023 r. czasopismo „Sport i Turystyka. Środkowoeuropejskie Czasopismo Naukowe” ukazuje się szósty rok. Jest kontynuacją czasopisma „Prace Naukowe Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie Kultura Fizyczna”. W trzecim 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* – zamieszczono trzy artykuły dotyczące następującej problematyki:

- retoryka sportowego bohaterstwa w antyku i współcześnie;
- sport piłki nożnej w województwach stanisławowskim i tarnopolskim w latach 1920–1939;
- Volodymyr Pilat – twórca i lider stylu bojowego hopaka (przyczynek do współczesnej historii ukraińskich sztuk walki).

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

- wpływu programu kształcenia zintegrowanego na gotowość psychofizyczną dzieci do edukacji szkolnej;
- związku między satysfakcją z wolnego czasu a uzależnieniem od mediów społecznościowych (studium przypadku studentów sportu Libańskiego Uniwersytetu Francuskiego);
- fanów sportu korzystających z mediów społecznościowych.

W części III – *Uwarunkowania zdrowia, postawy prozdrowotne, jakość życia* – zamieszczono artykuł przedstawiający systematyczny przegląd piśmiennictwa dotyczącego wykorzystania robotów EMG w rehabilitacji kończyny dolnej u osób po udarze mózgu.

Część IV czasopisma dotyczy problematyki turystyki i rekreacji. W tej części zaprezentowano artykuł podejmujący zagadnienie konstrukcji awaryjnych schronień śnieżnych z wykorzystaniem wyników pomiarów temperatury powietrza, śniegu i gruntu.

W części *Biogramy, dyskusje, polemiki, recenzje, przegląd wydawnictw, sprawozdania* dr Zbigniew Wójcik przybliżył monografię autorstwa Eligiusza Małolepszego i Teresy Drozdek-Małolepszej pt. *Zarys dziejów sportu i turystyki*

w działalności Śląskiego Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe (1946–2021).

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Eligiusz Małolepszy

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CZĘŚĆ I

DZIEJE KULTURY FIZYCZNEJ I TURYSTYKI W POLSCE I NA ŚWIECIE



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On the Rhetoric of Sports Heroism in Ancient and Modern Times

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O retoryce sportowego bohaterstwa w antyku i współcześnie

Streszczenie

Współczesna fascynacja mistrzami sportowymi jest przedmiotem wielu analiz socjologicznych i psychologicznych. Artykuł uzupełnia tę wielopoziomą perspektywę o analizy filozoficzne z zakresu historii idei i komunikacji retorycznej. Prezentuje on ideę bohaterstwa sportowego jako historycznie rozwijającą się formę dyskursu komunikacyjnego. Przesłanką jest teza, że postać sportowego bohatera jest każdorazowo tworem kontekstu komunikacyjnego, czyli przekazu i interpretacji wykorzystujących aksjo-normatywne, apelujące i perswazyjne środki retoryczne. W tej retoryce obiektywne i wymierne mistrzostwo sportowe zostaje wzmocnione i przekształcone w komunikacyjny obraz wzbogacony o znaczenia moralne, społeczne, estetyczne, ludyczno-hedonistyczne oraz marketingowe. Artykuł mieści się w humanistycznym obszarze historii kultury, a jego refleksja, będąca owocem *desk research*, rozwijana jest w odniesieniu do istniejącej literatury tematycznej z wykorzystaniem hermeneutycznej zasady fuzji horyzontów interpretacyjnych. Celem jest ukazanie spektrum znaczeniowych komponentów postaci bohatera sportowego, począwszy od atletyki greckiej, przez dyskurs antycznych filozofów (rozwijany przez Coubertina), aż po medialną sławę dzisiejszych mistrzów sportowych. Retoryka i praktyka sportowego mistrzostwa to dwie strony sportowego medalu.

Słowa kluczowe: bohater, mistrz sportowy, retoryka, komunikacja, media.

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Abstract

Contemporary fascination with sports champions is the subject of many sociological and psychological analyses. The article complements this multi-level perspective with philosophical analyses in the field of the history of ideas and rhetorical communication. It presents the idea of sports heroism as a historically developing form of communication discourse. The premise is the thesis that the figure of a sports hero is each time a creation of a communication context, i.e. a message and interpretation using axio-normative, appealing and persuasive rhetorical means. In this rhetoric, objective and measurable sports mastery is strengthened and transformed into a communicative image enriched with moral, social, aesthetic, ludic-hedonistic and marketing meanings. The article is located in the humanistic area of the history of culture, and its reflection, which is the fruit of desk research, is developed in relation to the existing thematic literature using the hermeneutic principle of the fusion of interpretative horizons. The aim is to show the spectrum of meaning pertaining to the sports hero's character components, starting from Greek athletics, through the discourse of ancient philosophers (developed by Coubertin) to the media fame of today's sports champions. The rhetoric and practice of sporting mastery are two sides of the sporting coin.

Keywords: heroes, sports champions, rhetoric, communication, media.

Introduction

In the academic discourse around sporting mastery, the figure of the hero is often invoked and taken as the personal role model of the athlete. This discourse is an attempt to describe and explain the phenomenon of almost universal admiration, adoration, and even worship of the champions of stadiums and sports halls. In critical interpretations, researchers reach back to archetypes of sporting mastery and therefore go back to the origins of European athletics. The cultural prototype of the hero in Western civilization is the mythical Greek hero. Greek athletics was religious in nature; its ideological and paradigmatic horizon was, alongside the worship of the gods, the worship of divine-human beings, or heroes. The extraordinary feats of the heroes were meant to be a testament to man's ability to approach within his own mortal condition the ideal of perfection and power, thus ensuring immortality at least in the memory of posterity. The spectrum of values constituting the identity of the Greek athlete was a reverberation of the ontic and axiological power of the heroes of the religious cult, such as Heracles, Theseus and Pelops, and the warriors from Hesiod's and Homer's epics, such as Cadmus, Achilles, Ares and Odysseus. The praise poetry (*epinikia*) and ancient philosophy transformed and developed this pattern, adding new and subtle intellectual, aesthetic and moral values to it. This ideal was then developed in subsequent eras. A significant role in this respect fell to medieval chivalry, which had its saintly patrons such as the heroes of the 13th-century *Legenda Aurea* by Jacob de Voragine: George, Maurice, Theodore, Sebastian, all of whom died a martyr's death. Christian heroes became role models for knighthood in wrestling for supremacy in tournaments and on the battle-

fields.¹ These rivalries were intended to confirm the status of the knights' nobility, and this nobility was understood not only as a social position in the feudal hierarchy, but also as a set of moral values in which honor occupied the chief place. In modern times, the idea of honor has been adopted in a new form, in the ethos of the gentleman, which has been absorbed by the ethos of sporting competition based on the principle of fair play.² All these values, ideals and rules were taken up at the end of the 19th century by Baron Pierre de Coubertin, who laid the foundations for the ideology of neo-Olympism. This ideology, integrated into educational, sociological and philosophical discourse, marks out to this day the spectrum of values and principles of sport and is often the premise of moral hermeneutics of sport.³ In this way, in the melting pot of cultural changes, a complex normative model of a sports hero gradually emerged, elitist and dense with powerful meanings elevated far above mass mediocrity.

The professionalization of sport, not accepted by Coubertin himself, progressing since the mid-twentieth century, changed the face of sport and turned modern stadiums into a capitalist agora of influences external to sports rivalry: economic, political, corporate, media, advertising and bureaucratic. Under the new conditions, thanks to fame and presence in the public media, the sports hero has become a profit-generating commodity. The hero is thus transformed into a star and a celebrity. In connection with these inevitable processes, there is criticism that the real noble heroes have left modern stadiums and that their place has been taken over by celebrities and entertainers who treat their sporting successes as a springboard for global fame that multiplies their profits. Researches write about the illusion or degeneration of the heroic role model and the increasing threats to the sustainability of its ethos.⁴ Here we are dealing with the stories that fans, publicists and academic researchers weave around the idea of sporting mastery. These stories enmesh the real people who are elite athletes in the rhetoric of either myth, ethos, ideology or, finally, aesthetic and social discourse on pop culture and entertainment. They are certainly a testimony to the fact that man is a being for whom intentional strategies of sense-making and value-transformation of the existing reality inscribed into the schemes of concepts, ideas, categories, principals, ideals and norms prove indispensable.

¹ J. de Voragine, *Złota legenda*, transl. and prefaced by L. Staff, Wyd. Zielona Sowa, Kraków 2003.

² M. Ossowska, *Etos rycerski i jego odmiany*, Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warszawa 1973.

³ J. Kosiewicz, *Moralność i sport*, Międzynarodowe Towarzystwo Nauk Społecznych o Sporcie, Warszawa 2016; E. Ryall, *Philosophy of Sport. Key Questions*, Bloomsbury, London, Oxford, New York, New Delhi, Sydney 2016, pp. 123–130, 167–170.

⁴ D. Boorstin, *The Image: A Guide to Pseudo-Events in America*, Vintage Books, New York 1992, pp. 45–76; E. Shils, *Mass Society and Its Culture*, „Daedalus” 1960, vol. 89, pp. 288–314; S.J. Drucker, *The Mediated Sports Hero*, [in:] S.J. Drucker, R.S. Cathcart (eds), *American Heroes in a Media Age*, Hampton Press, Inc., Cresskill, NJ 1994, pp. 82–93.

Material and Methods

The article is located in the humanistic area of the history of ideas, mainly the idea of sports heroism, and therefore its reflection, which is the effect of desk research, is developed in relation to the existing conceptions and interpretations dealing with the issue of heroism, including sports heroism. In this respect, the article is based on a search and critical elaboration of the subject literature in the philosophy and sociology of sport, history of culture and sport, mass media communication and other materials like ancient sources and modern sports biographies. The analysis fulfils the methodological directives of the human sciences, in particular the principle of understanding (*Verstehen*) developed in the philosophical hermeneutics of Wilhelm Dilthey and Hans-Georg Gadamer. Considerations are therefore carried out in accordance with the hermeneutic principle of fusion of interpretive and axiological horizons. The aim of this procedure is to outline a complex portrait of a sports hero and his cultural meanings.

Rhetoric and communication

The addition of persuasive and appellative content to sporting mastery, consistently sustained and developed throughout the history of sport, its reception and interpretation, testifies to the fact that we are dealing here with rhetoric that creates a meta-sporting reality. In this rhetoric, objective and measurable sports mastery is reinforced and transformed into a communicative image suggesting a moral, aesthetic or existential message embedded in it. Lance Strate is therefore right when he writes, "But, as a general rule, members of a society are separated from their culture heroes by time, space, and social class and therefore know their heroes only through stories, images, and other forms of information. In this sense, there are no such things as heroes, only communication about heroes"⁵ [Strate 1994: 16]. In his analysis, Strate focuses on showing the historical relativization of the character of the hero, compatible with the development of communication technologies: "It is through communication that we come to know our heroes, and consequently, different kinds of communication will result in different kinds of heroes."⁶ Going further, the author distinguishes three cultural formations on the axis of historical time and the progression of transmission techniques: oral, literate and electronic, attributing

⁵ L. Strate, *Heroes: A Communication Perspective*, [in:] S.J. Drucker, R.S. Cathcart (eds), *American Heroes in a Media Age...*, p. 16.

⁶ Ibid.

to each of them their respective protagonists, i.e. oral heroes, print/typographic heroes and electronic heroes. Using the observations of Walter J. Ong, he started from the category of “heavy figures” of heroes, who were characteristic to illiterate cultures.⁷ According to Ong, the oral form of transmission of the heroes’ stories required extraordinary memory, therefore, the characters of heroes had to be exaggerated, their number limited, deeds full of drama, all in order to be more deeply embedded in memory. With the development of communication technologies, i.e. the invention of writing, printing and then electronic media, it is possible, according to Strate, to notice a gradual liberation of the figure of the hero from the burden of ideal meanings. The hero becomes a realistic figure, psychologically individualized and defined either by intellectual and moral abilities (*typographic/print heroes*) or by media fame and ludic functions created and reproduced by audiovisual representation and the cultural industry (*electronic heroes*). In connection with these processes, there is a gradual proliferation of heroes and their trivialization and the heroes themselves become gradually „lighter”. However, when we look at the successive milestones in the development of the hero figure using the example of a sports hero, it becomes apparent that in the course of the historical transformation of sport and its understanding, it is not weakened, but loaded with new meanings, including ethical, aesthetic, ludic and marketing meanings. Successive eras add new content to the figure of the hero, making it semantically dense to a far greater extent than was the case with heavy figures in illiterate cultures. At the root of this transformation lie certainly historical changes (including the complex history of sport itself) and the development of technology, which fundamentally affects the depiction of the heroic narrative.

However, the issue of heroism is complex and goes beyond communication technology alone. It is a phenomenon developing at the intersection of historical, cultural, ideological, social, psychological, economic, marketing, communication and media factors. Its root motif lies much deeper and is of anthropological provenance, as it concerns the rudimentary question of man’s potential, its limits and the transgressive impulse to transcend them. Alasdair MacIntyre, who in *After Virtue* derives our moral culture from heroic stories, has pointed out that behind these stories lies the fundamental question whether “[...] it can remain true that a human life as a whole can be envisaged as a victory or a defeat and what winning and losing really consist in and amount to.”⁸ The rudimentary nature of this question explains the persistence of the heroic narrative in its many cultural-historical forms throughout human history. Situated in the collec-

⁷ W.J. Ong, *Orality and Literacy. The Technologizing of the World*, Methuen & Co. Ltd, London 1982.

⁸ A. MacIntyre A., *After Virtue. A Study in Moral Theory*, Third Edition, University of Notre Dame Press, Notre Dame, Indiana 2007, p. 130.

tive social imagination (or in the collective unconscious of humanity, as some authors wish, following Carl Gustav Jung or Joseph Campbell),⁹ between the fragility of the mortal human condition and possible immortal feats and fame, the figure of the hero, as if through a lens, focuses these weighty anthropological and existential questions in an archetypal way. Subsequent generations have enriched the hero's portrait with new features, answering this question in their own peculiar way. To highlight this complex process of 'thickening' the figure of the sports hero, let us look at the Greek origins and the contemporary media versions of his historical and cultural development.

Greek heroes of myths and epics

The Greeks had a keen awareness of the impassable boundary between mortals and gods. Despite the fact that gods and people came from the primeval mother Gaia, the human being – as the mythologist Karl Kérenyi writes – was perceived by them in contrast to the „easy-living gods” as *deílón*, a miserable creature and *deinón*, awe-drawing.¹⁰ People are *ephemeroi*, „short-lived beings”, and their fate, burdened with toil and cares, comes to an inevitable end. This is probably why the Greek imagination brought into existence the figure of a hero, a human-divine being capable of overcoming the fragility of existence and at least partially participating in the ontic fullness of the gods.

The morphological structure of Greek mythical heroes is dominated by initiatory trials to reach for power: participation in battles, defeating monsters, travelling far and perilously, colonizing wild lands, assuming the royal throne, hierogamy with the princess, returning to the homeland with treasures. As royal victors, the heroes are demiurges, establishing laws and institutions, functioning as personal and social role models. They attain the highest social and political positions and, in the memory of generations, function as initiators and founding ancestors of societies.¹¹ Among heroes' inventions, the athletic games took a prominent place.¹² The latter have become an important element of their cult in general, a symbolic-ritualistic reproduction of the archetypal fight against hu-

⁹ C.G. Jung, *Archetypy i symbole: pisma wybrane*, selection and translation by J. Prokopiuk, Czytelnik, Warszawa 1993; J. Campbell, *Bohater o tysiącu twarzy*, transl. by A. Jankowski, Wyd. Zysk i S-ka, Poznań 1997.

¹⁰ K. Kerényi, *Misteria Kabirów. Prometeusz*, translated by I. Kania, Czytelnik, Warszawa 2000, p. 63.

¹¹ J. Campbell, *Bohater o tysiącu...*, p. 183; Lord F. Raglan, *The Hero: A Study in Tradition, Myth and Drama*, Watts, London 1949; M. Zowczak, *Mit bohaterski jako opowieść o granicach ludzkich możliwości*, „Etnografia Polska” 1984, vol. XXVIII, no. 2, pp. 243–267.

¹² M. Eliade, *Historia idei i wierzeń religijnych*, vol. 1: *Od epoki kamiennej do misteriów eleuzyjskich*, transl. by S. Tokarski, Instytut Wydawniczy Pax, Warszawa 1988, pp. 199–200.

man boundaries. The central formative event of the heroic condition, however, is the extraordinary death (like the apotheosis of Heracles in the act of self-immolation). There is a paradox in the death of the hero: it is through this final test of power and courage in the clash of being with the horror of non-being that he attains a form of immortality. The hero gains *time*, honor and fame, which are upheld in a ritual form by their followers and worshippers. Ritual immortality means immortal existence in privileged places. Heracles and Ganymede ascend to Olympus, Achilles resides on the mythical island of Leucadia, the heroes of Thebes and Troy inhabit the Happy Isles, their mounds become centres of athletic competitions (Pelops) or oracles (Orpheus), and they themselves assume the function of guardian spirits of these places.¹³ Unlike mere mortals, heroes are still active after death, however, their benevolence is not permanently guaranteed, it can quickly turn into an uncharitable attitude towards human desires. Their superhuman condition entitles them to transcend the norms they themselves constituted. The classical and Hellenistic sublime image of the hero is the result of literary transformation, as in Pindar. Archaic cult heroes such as Heracles or Pelops, or epic heroes such as Achilles (who compares himself to Heracles) combine many contradictory attributes and are ambivalent figures. The bravado and extravagance of their existence is associated with horrific physical and character traits: they have above-average height, they fall into madness, unbridled rage, murder the innocent, rape, perform sacrilegious acts, use treachery and deceit.¹⁴ Pelops won Oenomaus in the chariot race by trickery, and let us remember that the myth of Pelops is the founding act of the Olympic Games. Entering the competition, Pelops bribed the stable boy Myrtilus to place wax pegs in the wheels of Oenomaus' chariot. During the race, the wheels of Oenomaus' chariot fell off and Pelops' rival died, dragged by his own steeds. Myrtilus was then thrown off a rock by Pelops, but he still managed to curse his assassin. To cleanse the taint, Pelops instituted mourning games in Olympia in honor of Oenomaus, but deceit, bribery, treachery and curses constitute their mythological dark reverse, even if the games were fortified in their historical course by precepts of honesty and purity of custom, morals and religion. The mound of Pelops was held in high esteem and reverence in Olympia; it was to this hero that offerings were originally made during the Games, much earlier than to Zeus.¹⁵ The Olympic Games have another patron, i.e. Heracles, who was

¹³ G. Nagy, *The Best of the Achaeans. Concepts of the Hero in Archaic Greek Poetry*, Revised Edition, The Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore and London 1999, p. 9; M. Eliade, *Historia idei i wierzeń...*, p. 201; S. Miller, *Starożytni olimpijczycy. Sportowe życie antycznej Grecji*, transl. by I. Żółtowska, Państwowy Instytut Wydawniczy, Warszawa 2006, p. 152.

¹⁴ M. Eliade, *Historia idei i wierzeń...*, p. 202.

¹⁵ Z. Kubiak, *Mitologia Greków i Rzymian*, Świat Książki, Warszawa 1999, pp. 499–501; M. Pietrzykowski, *Mitologia starożytnej Grecji*, Wydawnictwa Artystyczne i Filmowe, Warszawa 1983,

to bring them back to life again in honor of Pelops, after years of oblivion. His famous 12 labors, consisting mainly of defeating wild animals and monsters that threatened the social order, were called *athloi*, which means “competition”, “games.”¹⁶

Full of contradictions, the characters of the heroes as cultural demiurges, brutes and tricksters stem from their borderline condition, situated between the world of the sacred and the profane, gods and men, life and death, anomy and law. Patroclus calls Achilles an *ainaretēs*, a hero of ‘terrible virtue’, but at the same time worships him like a deity.¹⁷ Achilles is the epitome of the Homeric *arete*, a virtue which was not moral but ontic and social in nature. The category is derived from words such as *aristos* (best), *areskein* (to please) and *aresthai* (to achieve, obtain).¹⁸ And although Homer’s heroes were *aristoi* by birth, they were obliged by the customs of a highly competitive society to assert their nobility in victorious struggles. Competition was a proper test (Gr. *peira*) of a warrior’s power, of his great heart (*megasthymos*).¹⁹ The lives of Homeric heroes oscillated between the fear of *ajdos*, i.e. the shame and humiliation and the desire for *time*, i.e. the honor. *Megasthymos* was the volitional-emotional center of man. It led to avidity, anger, aggression, pride, but also loyalty, friendship, compassion and tenderness. These features are adequately epitomized in the figure of Achilles, whose anger at Agamemnon is the dramatic axis of the plot of *Iliad*. Achilles desecrated Hector’s corpse by dragging it behind a chariot, but in the end, weeping, he yielded to Priam’s request to give up his son’s body, thus showing his deep and hearty compassion.²⁰

The Panhellenic athletic games were already more than just this Achaean struggle between poles of shame and honor, they were a competition subject to certain rules and principals: linking the figures of Heracles or Pelops to the athletes at Olympia, Delphi, Nemea, Corinth, they no longer appealed only to heroic myth. The agonistic athletic display of excellence and physical prowess was a reflection of a complex social ethos, a set of values and rules with religious, aesthetic and moral quality. The poets of choral lyric poetry, the authors of

pp. 223–225; P. Grimal, *Słownik mitologii greckiej i rzymskiej*, transl. by M. Bronarska et al., Zakład Narodowy im. Ossolińskich, Wrocław 1987, pp. 145, 261, 284; J. Łanowski, *Święte igrzyska olimpijskie*, Wydawnictwo Poznańskie, Poznań 2000, pp. 17–18; Miller, *Starożytni olimpijczycy...*, p. 87.

¹⁶ Z. Kubiak, *Mitologia...*, p. 451.

¹⁷ A. Krokiewicz, *Moralność Homera i etyka Hezjoda*, Instytut Wydawniczy Pax, Warszawa 1959, p. 64.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 58; W. Jaeger, *Paideia*, transl. by M. Plezia, vol. 1, Instytut Wydawniczy Pax, Warszawa 1962, pp. 35–46.

¹⁹ A. Krokiewicz, *Moralność Homera...*, p. 59; W. Jaeger, *Paideia...*, p. 40.

²⁰ Homer, *Iliada*, transl. by I. Wieniewski, Wydawnictwo Literackie, Kraków – Wrocław 1984, pp. 527–530.

praise poetry like Pindar, and the philosophers, especially Plato and Aristotle, played a great part in shaping this ethos.

Praise poetry and the fame of athletes

Poems of praise, *epinikia*, was a genre of Greek choral lyric poetry. Its source dates to the Archaic period and the beginning of the Classical era (650–450 BC). The origins of laudatory songs for victory (*epi* – for, *nike* – victory) are marked by the work of Archilochus, and their proper form is associated with the figures of Simonides, Pindar and Bacchylides.²¹ Commissioned and lavishly paid for, the odes of lyric poets proclaimed the praise of their representatives, pointing to the divine origins of their families and their extraordinary martial and athletic achievements. The honor of mythical heroes (*time*) gained a new form of expression – poetic *kléos*, i.e. fame.²² The poets considered themselves to be wise men (*sophoi*), and therefore, while praising the deeds of the winners, interjected *gnomoi*, moral maxims, into their poetry. Such a moral addition particularly distinguished Pindar's victorious odes. Gods and heroes, invoked either as models of victorious achievements or as objects of poetic prayer and sacrifice were subject to moral idealization in this poetry.²³ Pindar freely transformed mythical themes, especially where the archaic versions did not square with his moral and pious image of deities and heroes. Heracles was his favorite hero and was his model of an athlete, but his image was devoid of the darker aspects of his legend. In the *Olympian Ode I*, the poet transformed the myth of Pelops and Oenomaus in a similar spirit.²⁴

Pindar's piety resulted in the rationalization and moralization of myths. Gods and heroes are not only epitomes of ontic power, but also of a moral order. This order is based on the absolute power and supremacy of gods over the world of men. The superiority of gods over humans is manifested, among other things, in the fact that they are the proper demiurges of human success; it is by their grace that man is endowed with talents such as athletic prowess and valor. *Agon*, being the space of struggle with the fragility of existence, is of course the space in which man affirms his aristocratic *arete*, fitness, valor, strength, but athletic suc-

²¹ A. Szastyńska-Siemion, *Epinikion greckie. Monografia gatunku*, Zakład Narodowy im. Ossolińskich, Wrocław 1975, pp. 7–75; A. Komornicka, *Simonides z Keos. Poeta i mędrzec*, Zakład Narodowy im. Ossolińskich, Wydawnictwo Polskiej Akademii Nauk, Wrocław – Warszawa – Kraków – Gdańsk – Łódź 1986, pp. 22–23, 276–291.

²² G. Nagy, *The Best of the Achaeans...*, p. 35.

²³ B. Snell, *Odkrycie ducha. Studia o greckich korzeniach europejskiego myślenia*, transl. by A. Onysymow, Fundacja Aletheia, Warszawa 2009, pp. 113–129.

²⁴ Pindar, *Ody zwycięskie*, transl. by M. Brożek, Wydawnictwo Literackie, Kraków 1987, pp. 76–80.

cess is gods' reward for effort, their payment for *ponos*, the toil of man. The struggle is *peira*, a test of man. „The greatness of reason and the nature of the flesh” are admittedly capable of bringing man closer to the immortal (*Nemean VI*),²⁵ and the words of the poet seal the victory by lasting in the „memory of the times” (*Pythian III*).²⁶ Yet *kléos*, i.e. fame proclaimed in poetry, is merely a symbolic sign of the immortality of the victorious. Both the athlete and the poet must know their place in the world order. The contestation of human position is a sign of *hybris*, pride, which was most unpleasant to the Greek gods, for it threatened their omnipotence. Men should maintain humility, moderation and reason and know their proper position in relation to gods.²⁷ The world, however, is well ordered. By worshipping its order through valiant actions, man accesses a partial share in this universal cosmic beauty.

The praise odes were filled with religious, social, moral and aesthetic values, which places them in the wisdom context of the oldest philosophical tradition of the Seven Sages of Greece (7th /6th century BC). *Epinikia* stand midway between the archaic heroic myths and the ethos set by ideals such as *enkyklios paideia*, *kalokagathia* and *megalopsychos* of the philosophers of the classical period.

Philosophy and the stadium

The most vivid philosophical representation of the archaic myth of the hero is the ethos of the man with the ‘great soul’, the *megalopsychos*, whose image we find in Aristotle’s *Nicomachean Ethics*.²⁸ The *megas psyche* is the ethical equivalent of the Homeric ‘great heart’, the *megasthymos* of the Homeric warriors. The *megalopsychos* is a man of great deeds who is truly worthy of them. He deserves admiration because he is *kaloskagathos*, brave and beautiful morally and physically. The ethical transposition of the warrior-athlete power thus acquired new and subtle ideal meanings. *Arete* which, in Homer, signified the position of an aristocrat, in philosophy becomes the quintessence of humanity. Socrates, Plato and Aristotle developed a program of self-knowledge and moral personal formation, creating a complex image of man as a psycho-somatic being endowed with *logos*, and along with it they framed an idea of integral education, *enkyklios paideia*.²⁹

²⁵ Ibid., p. 166.

²⁶ Ibid., p. 120.

²⁷ M. Stuligrosz, *Gnoma w twórczości Pindara*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UAM, Poznań 2002, pp. 153–167.

²⁸ Arystoteles, *Etyka nikomachejska*, transl. by D. Gromska, Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warszawa 1982, pp. 117–158.

²⁹ W. Jaeger, *Paideia...*, pp. 83–84; S. Miller, *ibidem*, p. 174.

Aristotle's attachment to elite and athletic values resulted from his personal interests in athletics, he was a sports fan and a 'reporter' writing down lists of winners of athletic competitions. Among the athletes he admired above all the pentathlon players, who, thanks to their versatile physical fitness became for him a model of courage, fitness, agility and beauty.³⁰ Philosophical schools in Athens, Plato's Academy and Aristotle's Lyceum, were situated near gymnasia, where intellect and body were developed. The famous passage in Plato's *Republic* about the dialectics of music and gymnastics indicates the need for symmetrical and harmonious human development in the service of the Muses (sciences) and the beauty and fitness of the body. In the sphere of values beauty was connected with good, just like soul and body in man himself. The perfect man is, in a sense, an athlete of body and soul. It is therefore not surprising that athletics gained moral overtones in philosophical reflection. Through *paideia*, philosophical thought created models of perfection applicable not only in gymnasia, but also in stadiums.

The set of values and principles determining the heroic ethos of the Greek athlete turned out to be an extremely durable ideological base of sport and has its legitimacy in modern sport, in which universal perfection is demanded from sports champions, and thus also moral perfection. The rhetorical nature of these images conceals the real history of Greek athletics. The fact that the Greeks created a set of rules that were obligatory for the participants of the Games indicates that the order of athletic competitions was often violated. Such rules included the peace of God (*ekecheiria*), ritual purity of players and an oath at the altar of god, in which they were committed to comply with the rules of the competition and fair play, excluding e.g. bribery. Fighters were not allowed to enter the sacred competition ground with weapons, but blood was often spilled in combat sports, especially during brutal boxing fights. In the sacred grove of Olympia, monuments were erected not only to honor the noble victories of the Olympians. There were also statues of Zeus called *zanes* built with the money from the fines imposed on dishonest athletes.³¹ The rewards for the victory were enhanced after the Sixth Olympiad by salaries and lifelong maintenance by *polis*.³²

Commercialization is therefore not just a symptom of contemporary sport. At the very origins of sport there was already a bifurcation of its nature into actual practice and rhetorical idealization, facts and ideas, sport and meta-sport

³⁰ Arystoteles, *Retoryka. Poetyka*, transl. by H. Podbielski, Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warszawa 1988, pp. 85–86; B.J. Kunicki, *Kultura fizyczna antycznej Grecji (ideologia, filozofia, nauka)*, Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego im. E. Piaseckiego, Poznań 2002, pp. 62–64.

³¹ D. Słapek, *Sport i widowiska w świecie antycznym. Kompendium*, Wydawnictwo Homini – Wydawnictwa Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, Kraków – Warszawa 2010, pp. 751–756.

³² E. Kałamačka, *Duchowe i materialne wartości sportu*, [in:] Z. Dziubiński (ed.), *Aksjologia sportu*, Warszawa 2001, pp. 329–338.

narratives. This bifurcation did not disappear, and indeed took on a sharper dimension in Pierre de Coubertin's ideology of neo-Olympism. His adoration of the Olympics resulted in a bold project to revive the Games, but also in a meta-Olympic discourse on the values and principals of contemporary sport, its educational and moral character.³³ This set of obligatorily understood principles has gained articulation in various sporting ethical codes and set axiological priorities in scientific and public debates on sport. As Fred Inglis writes, sport is understood as a depository of values, concepts and notions that are central to our moral consciousness.³⁴ Among these, the concept of heroism occupies a prominent place.

Heroes of sport today

Sport is a phenomenon in which the interests of many areas of social life intersect. Two of these areas, the economics and the media, have changed the face of the idea of noble and selfless competition. Sport became a business and its complex cultural capital was harnessed to the economic mechanisms of the free market, which, from the 1980s onwards, began to be further fostered by the media boom around sporting events and personalities.³⁵ The development of media technology has led to the globalization and mass presence of images. Virtual images gained power over people's imagination, thoughts and understanding of the world, and became an influential transmitter of new lifestyles, needs and hierarchies of values. They also significantly strengthened the rhetoric of heroic communication in sport, becoming an influential and effective instrument for popularizing sports champions, who they transformed into great stars. Nowadays, the media, together with publicists and academics who deal with the so called 'Media Sport'³⁶ have taken over the role of archaic rhapsodists in promoting, exposing and explicating the characteristics, talents and virtues of heroes. The set of desirable and necessary values for being a sports hero is wide. It is filled with strictly sports values (fitness, excellent training, strength, endurance, effective play, records, victories), personal values (health, bravery, stub-

³³ J. Kosiewicz, *Sport i wartości olimpijskie*, [in:] idem, *Filozoficzne aspekty kultury fizycznej*, Wydawnictwo BK, Warszawa 2009, pp. 295–350; W. Firek, *Filozofia olimpizmu Pierre'a de Coubertina*, Wydawnictwo FALL, Warszawa 2016; M. Zowisło, *Coubertin – the philosopher of paideia*, "Studies in Sport Humanities" 2018, No 23, pp. 25–30; doi: 10.5604/01.3001.0013.2889.

³⁴ F. Inglis, *The Name of the Game: Sport and Society*, Heinemann, London 1977, p. 85.

³⁵ B. Smart, *The Sport Star. Modern Sport and the Cultural Economy of Sporting Celebrity*, SAGE Publications, London, Thousand Oakes, New Delhi 2005, p. 103.

³⁶ L.A. Wenner, *Media Sport*, Routledge, London and New York 1998, <http://dx.doi.org/10.4324/9780203014059>.

bornness, hard work, firmness, self-confidence, perseverance, will to fight, impulse to improve, knowledge), aesthetic values (beauty of the body movement, clothing, appealing image, eroticism, show performance) and moral (honesty, fair play, cooperation, loyalty, devotion, charity).³⁷ Some, however, see the marriage of sport and the media as the cause of the decline and degeneration of the heroic ethos. According to Daniel J. Boorstin, the heroes of the mass imagination, who should be inspirational models of human excellence, are trivialized by the media and transformed into 'hollow heroes'.³⁸ The media are based on fast transmission, news and penetration of spectacular events. They are a stream of explosive content that is remembered for a short time and briskly flooded with new sensations.³⁹ That is why pop culture idols are shown not only from the point of view of their achievements, but also from the point of view of their trivial or scandalous home background.

The global reach of the media enables the immediate and comfortable reception of sports events, often advertised with the meaningful phrase 'welcome to the party'.⁴⁰ In this way, the media exaggerate the ludic nature of the games to the extreme, and make the athletes a bit of entertainers.⁴¹ In addition to the game itself and sports mastery, the enjoyment of watching the drama of the fight counts more and more, and the more the game is played with beautiful style and suspenseful twists, the greater the effect is. The actors of this tension are repeatedly tracked by the eye of cameras, mobbed by journalists, and then engaged by advertising and marketing managers. That in turn leads to commodification of sports champions. In this process, celebrity champions are no longer just perfect athletes, they are trademarks of the products they advertise.⁴² Having become stars and idols of mass imagination, they are burdened with new challenges beyond the halls of training, matches and competitions. Being on the wave of media fame, which is also a vehicle for wealth, requires effort and a thoughtful strategy to manage one's image and non-sporting life. Some step into these roles with full commitment. Joe DiMaggio, Tiger Woods, David Beckham, Anna Kurnikova, Robert Lewandowski are just some examples of the successful marriage of sport, advertising and big money. Michael Jordan is an exemplary athlete in this respect. Admired by millions of fans, he has become

³⁷ H. Zdebska, *Bohater sportowy. Studium indywidualnego przypadku Bronisława Czecha (1908–1944)*, Wyd. FALL, Kraków 2007, pp. 125–128; A. Tyszka, *Olimpia i Akademia. Szkice o humanistycznej treści sportu*, Wydawnictwo Sport i Turystyka, Warszawa 1970, pp. 94–99.

³⁸ D.J. Boorstin, *The Image: A Guide to Pseudo-Events in America*, Vintage Books, New York 1992, p. 58.

³⁹ L. Strate, *Heroes...*, pp. 19–20; A. Tyszka, *Olimpia i Akademia...*, pp. 94–99.

⁴⁰ L.A. Wenner, *Media Sport...*, p. 6.

⁴¹ R.S. Cathcart, *From Hero to Celebrity. The Media Connection*, [in:] S.J. Drucker, R.S. Cathcart, *American Heroes...*, p. 36–46; Tyszka, *Olimpia i Akademia...*, p. 97.

⁴² B. Smart, *The Sport Star...*, p. 117.

a pop culture icon, a great media personality and, through the marketing and advertising of sports products, also a trademark of the Nike corporation.⁴³ The powerful impact of the media and the champion's media fame, in this case influenced an extraordinary popularization of basketball as America's national sport. Barry Smart noted that basketball before Jordan did not have the same status as it did after Jordan.⁴⁴ Certainly, this applies not only to the phenomenon of this discipline. In Poland, Adam Małysz and "Małyszomania" had a similar significance for ski jumping in the first decade of the 21st century.⁴⁵ However, one can reflect on the degree of popularity of Jordan and another American athlete, Michael Phelps. A legendary swimmer, winner of 28 Olympic medals (including 23 golden ones), who set as many as 39 world records, did not gain such great media fame as Jordan.⁴⁶ Certainly, in the case of Jordan, big and predatory advertising campaigns won, but also an extraordinary media personality: his fierce will to fight and win, 'playing for keeps,'⁴⁷ the pure sportsmanship and joy of the game revealed in competition, and, as Smart emphasized, typically American qualities such as „competitive individualism, sense of responsibility, rigorous work ethic, loyalty and commitment to his team's cause."⁴⁸ Ethics, however, was not always on the way for Jordan, he is certainly not the epitome of American Puritanism. The will to fight, perfectionism and passion for victory took on a violent expression in his life. Full of fury and anger in private and in sports and business competition, Jordan appears almost like a modern Achilles and the epitome of the *megasthymos* of Homeric heroes. He was able to vengefully cut his friend's clothes from the Puma collection, replacing them with similar ones from Nike, because he feels identified with this corporation, and he treats the clothes in his friend's wardrobe as a personal attack on himself. In any environment, he demands to be the center of attention. Even in retirement, he has not lost his wrathful temper and desire to confirm his own worth and position. At the same time, she also reveals a gentle face, donating for charity and visiting seriously ill children.⁴⁹

Some elite athletes such as Ted Williams or Dennis Rodman,⁵⁰ however, come into conflict with the media and fans. Others try to live up to the demands

⁴³ Ibid., p. 117–128.

⁴⁴ Ibid., p. 105.

⁴⁵ J. Andrzejczak, M. Wesołowski, *Adam Małysz. Batman z Wisły*, Wyd. Iskry, Warszawa 2002.

⁴⁶ M. Phelps, B. Cazeneuve, *Autobiografia*, transl. by M. Romanek, Znak Litera Nova, Kraków 2021.

⁴⁷ D. Halberstam, *Grać i wygrać: Michael Jordan i świat NBA*, transl. by W. Ziemiński, Wyd. Sine Qua Non, Kraków 2016.

⁴⁸ B. Smart, *The Sport Star...*, p. 126.

⁴⁹ W. Thompson, *Cena naszych marzeń. Sportowe biografie bez cenzury*, transl. by M. Sieduszewski, L. Wierzbowska, Znak Litera Nova, Kraków 2022, pp. 19–43.

⁵⁰ S.H. Teitelbaum, *Sports Heroes, Fallen Idols*, University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln and London 2005, pp. 13–16; D. Rodman, T. Keown, *Bad as I Wanna Be*, Bantam Doubleday Dell Publishing, New York 1996.

of public life under the spotlight and the marketing policies, but they often fail in this new kind of competition, falling as a result of sporting and non-sporting pressures into addiction to alcohol, drugs, gambling, sex, aggression and embarking on a path of self-destruction. Stanley H. Teitelbaum describes this dark psychology of fallen sports idols.⁵¹ Fan worship and celebrity status evoke vanity, hubris, inflated egos and narcissism in many elite athletes. We see that modern sports heroes continue the old legacy of the ambivalence of heroes: they have their lofty and their dark sides. Being a sporting hero today is burdened by the contexts of the global world, mass culture and mass media, consumerism, marketing and economic liberalism. The heroic narrative is still in play and brings new content to the old myth.

Conclusion

The figure of the sports hero has evolved, soaking up more and more new meanings, ideas, values, becoming an object of rhetorical interpretation and appeal. In the melting pot of the historical and cultural transformations of sport and its rhetorical mediation, the sporting champion was faced with new challenges, which burdened him with often exaggerated demands and imperatives. Today, the athletic hero must not only be a champion athlete, the best representative of their sports discipline (preferably one with a large audience), maintain a consistently high level of fitness and increase the repertoire of records, but also be a personal and moral role model, maintain a consistently high level of interest in their person on the part of fans, media and advertisers, have a lot of money, an impressive estate and possessions, lead a righteous life, be a philanthropist, sponsor and benefactor. Not surprisingly, Charles Barkley contested some of these conditions by uttering the famous phrase, "I'm not a role model."⁵² This sentence reveals glaringly the divergence of actual sporting practice with the meta-sport narratives that become a trap for many elite athletes.

It seems, however, that to stop at this point would be a huge impoverishment of the sports story. We need champions and heroes because they – even when idealized or pushed off pedestals – point to the indelible motif of our intentional consciousness, which remains in a permanent tension between the experience of fragility and the premonition of the fullness and power of existence. Myth continues to work, using different means to express and fill its motives. According to Hans Blumenberg's formula, the work on myth is the work of myth itself.⁵³ In

⁵¹ S.H. Teitelbaum, *Sports Heroes...*, p. 17 et passim.

⁵² *Ibid.*, p. 3.

⁵³ H. Blumenberg, *Arbeit am Mythos*, Suhrkamp, Frankfurt/M 1979.

the light of this thesis, the meta-sports rhetoric of heroism can be understood as just such a vital, never-finished work on the myth (ethos, idea) of the sporting hero. In it, this myth reveals its semiotic openness, fluidity and ambiguity, depositing in its capacious matrix new layers of meanings that are the result of historical and cultural transformations in the field of sport and the discourse around sport. Certainly, it is the myth of sporting heroism that, apart from the hard work of the athletes, the hardship of the training regime, the dedication to one's discipline, team, club and the strong personality of the sporting champions, is what keeps sport still at the top of people's fascinations. The practice and the rhetoric of sport, each in its spectacular dimension, are two inseparable sides of the sporting coin and both develop their rules and principles at the interface of many social, political, ethical, economic, scientific, journalistic, marketing and media influences.

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The Discipline of Football in the Provinces of Stanisławów and Ternopil in the Years 1920–1939. An Outline

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Sport piłki nożnej w województwach stanisławowskim i tarnopolskim w latach 1920–1939. Zarys problematyki

Streszczenie

Celem pracy jest przedstawienie sportu piłki nożnej w województwach stanisławowskim i tarnopolskim w latach 1920–1939. Obszar województw stanisławowskiego i tarnopolskiego zamieszkiwała głównie ludność polska, ukraińska i żydowska. W latach 1920–1939 zwiększała się liczba klubów i towarzystw sportowych, prowadzących sekcję piłki nożnej wśród ludności polskiej, żydowskiej i ukraińskiej. Początkowo kluby i towarzystwa sportowe wchodziły w skład Lwowskiego Okręgowego Związku Piłki Nożnej (OZPN). W II połowie lat dwudziestych oraz w latach trzydziestych XX w. tworzone były struktury organizacyjne piłki nożnej: podokręg stanisławowski, podo-

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kręg tarnopolski oraz Stanisławowski OZPN. Sukcesy sportowe na arenie ogólnopolskiej osiągnęli piłkarze Rewery Stanisławów, Pogoni Stryj oraz Strzelca Górki Stanisławów. W latach 1934–1939 piłkarze z województwa stanisławowskiego brali udział – jako reprezentanci Stanisławowskiego OZPN – w rozgrywkach barażowych o awans do ligi państwowej. Juniorzy Rewery Stanisławów i Strzelca Górki Stanisławów uczestniczyli w turniejach finałowych mistrzostw Polski juniorów w latach 1936–1939.

Słowa kluczowe: sport, piłka nożna, Polska, województwo stanisławowskie, województwo tarnopolskie

Abstract

The aim of the paper is to present the discipline of football in the provinces of Stanisławów and Ternopil in the years 1920-1939. The area of Stanisławów and Ternopil provinces was mainly inhabited by the Poles, Ukrainians and Jews. In the years 1920-1939, the number of clubs and sports associations that ran football sections among Polish, Jewish and Ukrainian citizens grew. Initially, those clubs and sports associations belonged to Lviv Regional Football Association (OZPN). In mid 20s and in the 30s of the 20th century, football organizational structures were created: sub-region of Stanisławów, sub-region of Ternopil and Stanisławów OZPN. The football players of Rewera Stanisławów, Pogoń Stryj and Strzelec Górka Stanisławów became successful all over Poland. In the years 1934-1939, the footballers from the province of Stanisławów – as representatives of Stanisławów OZPN – took part in playoffs to get promoted to the national league. Junior football players of Rewera Stanisławów and Strzelec Górka Stanisławów took part in final tournaments of Polish junior championships in the years 1936-1939.

Keywords: sport, football, Poland, Stanisławów province, Ternopil province.

Introduction

The aim of the paper is to present the discipline of football in the provinces of Stanisławów and Ternopil in the years 1920-1939. The area of Stanisławów and Ternopil provinces was located in the south-eastern part of the Second Polish Republic. Both provinces were established on 23 December 1920. The province of Ternopil covered the area of 16 533 km² and hosted 1 600 400 inhabitants.¹ The province of Ternopil was inhabited by Polish (49.3%), Ukrainian (45.5%), Jewish (4.93%) and German (0.17%)² citizens. The province of Stanisławów covered the area of 16 894 km² and hosted 1 480 300 inhabitants.³ The province of Stanisławów was inhabited by Polish (22.4%), Ukrainian (68.8%), Jewish (7.3%) and German (1.1%)⁴ citizens.

¹ L. Gradowski (ed.), *Polska 1918–1988*, GUS Warszawa 1989, p. 16.

² https://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wojew%C3%B3dztwo_tarnopolskie [accessed on 19.06.2023]

³ L. Gradowski, op. cit., p. 16.

⁴ https://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wojew%C3%B3dztwo_stanis%C5%82awowskie [accessed on 19.06.2023].

As far as the state of the art is concerned, the work by S. Zaborniak entitled *Physical Culture of the Ukrainian citizens on the Polish territory (1868–1939) (Kultura fizyczna ludności ukraińskiej na ziemiach polskich (1868–1939))*⁵ is of the greatest importance. The author presented physical culture of the Ukrainian minority in the area of the provinces of Stanisławów, Ternopil, Volhynia and Lviv of the Second Polish Republic. One has to also mention the publications by T. Drozdek-Małołepsza and E. Małołepszy dealing with the history of physical culture in the provinces of Stanisławów and Ternopil during the mid-war period.⁶

Problems and research methods

The following research methods were used in order to prepare this publication: historical sources analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction and the comparative method. The following research problem were identified:

1. What influenced the development of football in the provinces of Stanisławów and Ternopil?
2. How did the discipline of football develop among the Poles, Ukrainians and Jews?
3. How successful were football sections in sports clubs and associations from the provinces of Stanisławów and Ternopil in the region and in the whole country?

Results and discussion

Football sections in sports clubs and associations from the area of the provinces of Stanisławów and Ternopil belonged to Lviv Regional Football Association (Lviv OZPN), which commenced its activity together with the establishment of the Polish Football Association – PZPN (December 1919).⁷ In fact, it became active in 1921. The activity of Lviv OZPN encompassed the provinces of Lviv,

⁵ S. Zaborniak, *Kultura fizyczna ludności ukraińskiej na ziemiach polskich (1868–1939)*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego, Rzeszów 2007.

⁶ T. Drozdek-Małołepsza, E. Małołepszy, *Chosen forms of participation in physical culture in the multinational Stanisławowski province in the period 1920–1939*, “Physical Activity Review” 2021, 9(2), pp. 149–154; doi: 10.16926/par.2021.09.31; E. Małołepszy, T. Drozdek-Małołepsza, *The Outline of the History of Physical Culture in the Province of Ternopil in the Years 1920–1939*, “Central European Journal of Sport Sciences and Medicine” 2022, vol. 37, no 1, pp. 5–11; doi: 10.18276/cej.2022.1-01.

⁷ *Rocznik Polskiego Związku Piłki Nożnej. Pięćlecie Polskiego Związku Piłki Nożnej (1919–1924)*, Kraków 1925, p. 24; *Polski Związek Piłki Nożnej. Rocznik Jubileuszowy 1930*, Warszawa, no publication date (npd), p. 18.

Stanisławów, Ternopil and Volhynia (in the years 1928–1930). In the years 1928–1930, the Sub-region of Volhynia was active too.⁸ In 1925, Lviv OZPN united 94 football sections from various sports clubs and associations and it counted 2720 football players; in 1930, the number of football players grew up to 4180.⁹ At the time of the third decade of the 20th century, the number of referees was growing too. They belonged to the Regional College of Football Referees (OKS) in Lviv; in 1930 it counted 120 members.¹⁰

In the first half of the 20s of the 20th century, in the area of the province of Stanisławów, the following sports clubs had football sections: Sports Club (KS) Stanisławovia Stanisławów, OKS "Sokół" Stanisławów, Police Sports Club (PKS) Bystrzyca Nadworna, School Sports Club (SKS) Bystrzyca Stanisławów, SKS Rewera Stanisławów, SKS Victoria Stanisławów, SKS Pogoń Stryj, Football Association (SPN) "Sokół" Śniatyń, Jewish Sports Club (ŻKS) Admira Stanisławów, ŻKS Hakoach Stanisławów, ŻKS Hakoach Stryj, ŻKS Judea Stanisławów, Jewish Gymnastics Association (ŻTG) Razes Kołomyja.¹¹

As of 1930, Lviv OZPN – from the area of the province of Stanisławów – united the following clubs and associations: Military Sports Club (WKS) 49 pp. Kołomyja, ŻKS Hasmonea Kołomyja, ŻKS Bystrzyca Nadworna, ŻKS Hakach Nadworna, Ukrainian Sports Association (UTS) Beskid Nadworna, SKS Rewera Stanisławów, ŻKS Hakoach Stanisławów, SKS Górka Stanisławów, KS Jedność Stanisławów, SKS Stanisławovia Stanisławów, Workers' Sports Club (RKS) TUR Stanisławów, ŻKS Admira Stanisławów, KS Strzelec Stanisławów, Railroad Military Training (KPW) Ruch Stanisławów, SKS Pogoń Stryj, KPW Stryjenka Stryj, Gymnastics-Sports Jewish Association (ŻTGS) Dror Stryj, ŻTGS Hakoach Stryj.¹² In the province of Stanisławów, the twenties of the 20th century witnessed the expansion of clubs and associations running football sections.

In the years 1928–1933, within the framework of Lviv OZPN, the sub-region of Stanisławów was active. At that period of time, the best football teams in the sub-region of Stanisławów were as follows: 1928, 1930 – Hakoach Stanisławów;

⁸ E. Małolepszy, T. Drozdek-Małolepsza, *Kultura fizyczna i turystyka w województwie wołyńskim w latach 1921–1939*, Wydawnictwo Nauka i Innowacje, Poznań 2020, pp. 115–120. Volhynia OZPN was created in the second half of 1930, with its office in Rovno. When it was created, it counted 18 football sections and 168 footballers.

⁹ *Rocznik Polskiego Związku Piłki Nożnej. Pięciolecie Polskiego Związku Piłki Nożnej (1919–1924)*, Kraków 1925, p. 139.

¹⁰ *Polski Związek Piłki Nożnej. Rocznik Jubileuszowy 1930*, Warszawa, npd, p. 18.

¹¹ *Rocznik Polskiego Związku Piłki Nożnej. Pięciolecie Polskiego Związku Piłki Nożnej (1919–1924)*, Kraków 1925, pp. 122–125.

¹² *Polski Związek Piłki Nożnej. Rocznik Jubileuszowy 1930*, Warszawa, npd., pp. 61–63. See also: T. Drozdek-Małolepsza, E. Małolepszy, *Chosen forms of participation in physical culture in the multinational Stanisławowski province in the period 1920–1939...*, p. 152.

1929, 1931 – Górka Stanisławów; 1932–1933 – Stanisławovia Stanisławów.¹³ The year 1933 was a breakthrough in the history of Stanisławów football. Stanisławów OZPN was created then, uniting six sports clubs and associations, which ran football sections, among all, from the following places: Kopyczyńce, Nadwórna, Stanisławów: ŻKS Admira Stanisławów, SKS Baworów Kopyczyńce, Sok. KS Belweder Stanisławów, UTS Beskid Nadwórna, PKS Bystrzyca Nadwórna, SKS Bystrzyca Stanisławów. The registered office of the association was located in Stanisławów at 3, 3 Maja St.¹⁴



Photo 1. Football team of KS Strzelec Kołomyja (August 1938)

Source: National Digital Archives (NAC), sygn. 1-S-2096, no pagination

It should be emphasised that many clubs (as of 1933 and in relation to some teams mentioned in 1934) were active within the framework of Lviv OZPN: ŻTGS Dror Stryj, ŻTG Dror Kołomyja, SKS Górka Stanisławów (“Sokół” II), KS Groedłów Skole, ŻKS Hakoach Stanisławów, ŻKS Hakach Nadwórna, ŻTGS Hakoach Stryj, ŻKS Hakoach Kołomyja, KS Jedność Stanisławów, ŻTGS Makkabi Stanisławów, Military-Civilian Sports Club (WCKS) Pogoń Stryj, Ukrainian Sports Association (USP) Prołom Stanisławów, SKS Strzelec Raz Dwa Trzy Stanisławów, SKS Rewera Stanisławów, KPW Ruch Stanisławów, USS Skała Stryj, SKS Stanisławovia

¹³ D. Mandziuk, *Kopanyi miach. Korotka istoriia ukrainskoho futbolu v Halychyni (1909–1944)*, Vyd-vo Staroho Leva, Lviv 2016, p. 252.

¹⁴ *Rocznik Sportowy 1934*, Główna Księgarnia Wojskowa, Warszawa 1934, p. 403.

Stanisławów, SKKS Stryjenka Stryj, KS Strzelec Brosznięw, Sports Association (SS) TUR Tur Stryj, KS TUR Tur Kołomyja, WCKS 49 pp. Kołomyja.¹⁵

According to J. Goksiński, league games (Lviv OZPN, Stanisławów OZPN) – apart from the aforementioned teams – were attended by: Gymnastics Association (TG) „Sokół” Kołomyja, Strzelec Górka Stanisławowska, Workers’ Sports Club (RKS) TUR Stanisławów, ŻKS Hasmonia Kołomyja, KSZN Rypne, Świt Monasterzyska, Strzelec Kałusz, Strzelec Tyśmienica, TESP Kałusz.¹⁶ As for Ukrainian sports clubs and association that ran football sections in the province of Stanisławów, one should mention the following: UTS Prołom Stanisławów, Beskid Nadwórna, Skała Stryj, Zorza Kałusz and Beskid Kosów.¹⁷

The beginnings of Stanisławów OZPN were not easy. At the meeting of Lviv OZPN on 21 January 1935, it was decided that the sub-region of Podkarpacie (sub-region of Stryj) shall be left in its original region of Lviv.¹⁸ The General Meeting of PZPN was planned for 16-17 February 1935. As for the motions for the meeting, as the journal editor put it, “Stanisławów demands the incorporation of Stryj, Żydaczow and Chodorow to Stanisławów OZPN.”¹⁹ During the meeting, PZPN decided to “make the district of Stryj part of Stanisławów Region.”²⁰ The decision was negatively received by activists of sports clubs from Stryj. It is worth mentioning that a year earlier (1934) “PZPN management, considering the arguments given by clubs of Stryj district, let them stay in the sub-region of Podkarpacie LOZPN, where also Zagłębie Naftowe and Sambor belong.”²¹ A strong asset “in the hands” of Stryj activists were financial issues of their sports activity: “Incorporation to Stanisławów region equals bigger distances and, what follows, more expenses. For instance, a journey from Skoly to Nadwórna would require 6 hours with two changes, whereas you can reach Lviv within 2 hours (and there are six connections a day), and Sambor in 2 hours and 20 minutes. Drohobycz and Borysław are so close that even B and C class clubs can afford a journey.”²² Another argument of Stryj region club activists concerned sports matters. They were of an opinion that Stanisławów PZPN Region was artificially established in order to keep some clubs in a higher class, though their level was not “appropri-

¹⁵ Ibidem, pp. 395–398.

¹⁶ J. Goksiński, *Klubowa historia polskiej piłki nożnej do 1934 roku*, vol. I: *Regiony – branże – frekwencja*, PZI Softena, Warszawa 2012, pp. 262–280.

¹⁷ D. Mandziuk, op. cit., p. 252. See also: S. Zaborniak, op. cit., pp. 287–291, 299–300.

¹⁸ „Przegląd Sportowy” 1935, no 8, p. 2. The district of Stryj belonged to the province of Stanisławów.

¹⁹ „Przegląd Sportowy” 1935, no 13, p. 3. The district of Żydaczów belonged to the province of Stanisławów whereas Chodorów belonged to the district of Bóbrka, which belonged to the province of Lviv.

²⁰ „Przegląd Sportowy” 1935, no 19, p. 3.

²¹ Ibidem.

²² Ibidem.

ate". As far as this argument is concerned, one should disagree. Creating a "new" region gave way to new opportunities, including the improvement of sports abilities. The problem was solved at the turn of May and June 1935. "Przegląd Sportowy" published an article entitled "LOZPN backs down and promises to make Stryj obedient", whose fragments read as follows: „The meeting of LOZPN Management Board, run in the presence of engineer Przeworski, made a resolution in which it states that not accepting the fact of suspending Stryj clubs by PZPN was only meant to protest against the resolution of PZPN General Meeting excluding the region of Stryj from LOZPN, and not to confront PZPN. At the same time, LOZPN undertook to influence Stryj clubs to make them comply with the resolution of PZPN General Meeting and its further orders, assuring the sub-region of Stryj that PZPN Management shall submit a formal request at PZPN General Meeting to make Stryj join Lviv again.”²³

Table 1. Final Class A Table of Stanisławów OZPN in the season of 1938/1939

Place	Team name	No of matches	No of points	Goals
1.	Strzelec Górka Stanisławów	14	21	29:17
2.	Rewera Stanisławów	14	18	51:23
3.	KSZN Rypne	14	14	53:40
4.	TESP Kałusz	14	14	25:18
5.	Raz Dwa Trzy Stanisławów	14	14	29:23
6.	Strzelec Broszniów	14	11	19:42
7.	Pokucie Kołomyja	14	10	37:46
8.	Bystrzyca Nadworna	14	10	19:25

The team classification as of 15 June 1939. The results of two matches provoked protests and were to be investigated by PZPN

Source: „Przegląd Sportowy” 1939, no 48, p. 2.

Stanisławów OZPN organised sports competitions in the years 1934–1939. At that time the best teams in the region were: 1934–1935, 1936/1937, 1937/1938 – Rewera Stanisławów; 1936 (spring) – Pogoń Stryj; 1938/1939 – Strzelec Górka Stanisławów.²⁴ Stanisławów OZPN organised class A, B and C football contests. In the season of 1937/1938, Class A counted 8 teams: Rewera Stanisławów, KSZN Rypne, Strzelec Górka Stanisławów, Raz Dwa Trzy Stanisławów, KS Strzelec Broszniów, Pokucie Kołomyja, Bystrzyca Nadworna, UTS Prołom Stanisławów.²⁵

²³ „Przegląd Sportowy” 1935, no 54, p. 5.

²⁴ D. Mandziuk, op. cit., p. 252.

²⁵ Ibidem, p. 268.

The teams from Stanisławów OZPN took part in the final tournament of Polish junior championships (during a football camp in Sieraków, the province of Poznań, in 1936). In 1936, the region was represented by Rewery Stanisławów team, which lost 2:4 in the 1st round with Wisła Kraków (the match to get to the group of the best four teams of these championships). Nine teams from particular PZPN regions participated in the tournament. Wisła Kraków turned out to be the best team. The next final tournament took place in Kozienice in August 1937, and it was attended by 16 teams (representing particular PZPN regions). In the first round, the representatives of Stanisławów OZPN – Rewery Stanisławów team – won with WKS Śmigły Wilno (2:1); in the second round, the footballers of Rewera lost with later Polish vice champions, Pogoń Lwów (1:4).²⁶ In the years 1938–1939, Stanisławów OZPN was represented by a junior team of Strzelec Górka Stanisławów. The footballers of Strzelec Górka played better in 1939, when only in the semi-finals they lost with WKS Łuck (1:2).²⁷

In the first half of the 20th century, on the territory of the province of Ternopil, the following clubs ran football sections: Lubicz Brody, ŻKS Hakoach Brody, KS Sieniawa Brzeżany, ŻKS Brzeżany, PKS Kresy Tarnopol, PKS Zarudzianka Tarnopol, ŻKS Gideon Tarnopol, ŻKS Jehuda Tarnopol, KS Złoczowski Złoczów, PKS Janina Złoczów, ŻKS Scholder Izrael Złoczów.²⁸

As of 1930, Lviv OZPN – from the area of Ternopil province – united the following clubs and associations: ŻKS Brzeżany, ŻKS Jechuda Tarnopol, WCKS Kresy Tarnopol, UST Podilla Tarnopol, ŻKS Gordon Tarnopol, ŻRKS Tarnopol, WKS Janina Złoczów, ŻTGS Złoczów, PDS Strzelec Złoczów.²⁹ 1934 Yearbook informed that the following sports clubs and associations from the area of Ternopil province belonged to Lviv OZPN: ŻKS Gordon Tarnopol, WCKS Janina Złoczów, ŻKS Jehuda Tarnopol, PKS Kresowiaczy Zbaraż, WCKS Kresy 54 pp. Tarnopol, PKS Legion Tarnopol, Ukrainian Sports Association (USS) Podilla Tarnopol, PDS Strzelec Złoczów, KS Strzelec Czortków, KS Trembowelski Trembowla, ŻKS Trumpeldor Kopyczyńce, RKS Żydowski Tarnopol.³⁰

As for league matches of Lviv OZPN from the area of Ternopil province, in the years 1921–1939, they were played by football sections of the following sports clubs and associations: WCKS Kresy Tarnopol, Janina Złoczów (it was

²⁶ https://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mistrzostwa_Polski_junior%C3%B3w_w_pi%C5%82ce_no%C5%BCnej [accessed on 7.07.2023].

²⁷ Ibidem

²⁸ *Rocznik Polskiego Związku Piłki Nożnej. Pięciolecie Polskiego Związku Piłki Nożnej (1919–1924)*, Kraków 1925, pp. 122–125.

²⁹ *Polski Związek Piłki Nożnej. Rocznik Jubileuszowy 1930*, Warszawa, npd, pp. 61–63; See also: E. Małolepszy, T. Drozdek-Małolepsza, *The Outline of the History of Physical Culture in the Province of Ternopil in the Years 1920–1939...*, p. 8.

³⁰ *Rocznik Sportowy 1934*, Główna Księgarnia Wojskowa, Warszawa 1934, pp. 395–398.

formed under the name of Złoczovia Złoczów), Gwiazda Brody, Jehuda Tarnopol, PKS Kresowiaczy Zbaraż, Legion Tarnopol, Lubicz Brody, Meta Tarnopol, KS Strzelec Czortków, Rusałka Złoczów, Gymnastics Association (TG) "Sokół" Czortków, TG "Sokół" Brody, Sparta Trembowla, USP Podilla Tarnopol, WKS 54 pp. Tarnopol, WCKS Brody, Jewish Workers' Sports Club (ŻRKS) Tarnopol, ŻKS Złoczów, ŻTGS Złoczów.³¹ Among Ukrainian sports clubs and associations that ran football sections in the province of Ternopil one should mention, among others, UST Podilla Tarnopol, Meta Tarnopol and Rusałka Złoczów.³²

The footballers of "Janina" Złoczów, beginning with the sports season of 1927, played in class A contest of Lviv OZPN. In the season of 1927, they took a very good third place in class A matches, giving way only to clubs from Lviv, i.e. WKS and Lechia. In the season of 1930, in class A matches of Lviv OZPN, they occupied the last 9th place, winning two matches, drawing one and losing 13 of them. They were relegated to class B contests of Lviv OZPN.³³

For the first time in the season of 1935, class A matches of the sub-region of Ternopil (belonging to Lviv OZPN) were organized. The teams of Janina Złoczów, Jehuda Tarnopol, UST Podilla Tarnopol and WCKS Kresy Tarnopol participated in the competition. The footballers of Jehuda Tarnopol became the champions of the sub-region of Ternopil. In the following seasons, the best teams of the sub-region of Ternopil were: WCKS Kresy Tarnopol (the season of 1936/1937), Jehudy Tarnopol (the season of 1937/1938), Janina Złoczów (the season of 1938/1939).³⁴ The team of Kresy Tarnopol had played in league contests since the season of 1921, participating in class C matches of Lviv OZPN. From 1934, the club was under the patronage of military circles and adopted the name of WCKS Kresy Tarnopol.

Within the framework of the sub-region of Ternopil of Lviv OZPN, there were class A, B and C league matches organized. There were more and more teams participating in class A matches. In the season of 1935, there were four teams, in the season of 1936/1937 – five teams, in the season of 1937/1938 – six teams, and in the season of 1938/1939 – seven teams.³⁵ In the season of 1938/1939, apart from Janina Złoczów, class A matches were played by the footballers of Jehuda Tarnopol, Legion Tarnopol, Kresy Tarnopol, Podilla Tarnopol, Sparta Trembowla, WCKS Brody.

In 1938, UST Podilla Tarnopol juniors turned out to be the best in the sub-region of Ternopil and they got qualified to the final tournament of Lviv OZPN. The final tournament took place in July 1938, with the participation of the following teams: Podilla Tarnopol, Resovia Rzeszów, Junak Drohobycz and Lechia

³¹ J. Goksiński, op. cit., pp. 313–324; D. Mandziuk, op. cit., p. 237–251.

³² D. Mandziuk, op. cit., p. 252; S. Zaborniak, op. cit., pp. 300–306.

³³ J. Goksiński, op. cit., pp. 317–319.

³⁴ D. Manidziuk, op. cit., p. 237–251.

³⁵ Ibidem

Lwów. The junior footballers of Resovia Rzeszów became the champions of Lwiv OZPN, whereas young players of Podilla Tarnopol took the third place.³⁶



Photo 2. Football team of ŻKS Jehuda Tarnopol, champion of Ternopil sub-region in the season of 1935. From the left: Safia, Denker, Hornung, Katz I, Katz II, Barban, Kuj, Wagszal, Epstein, Likenfeld, Finkelstein, Kelber, Friedman, team leader – Gruberg

Source: NAC, sygn. 1-S-2025, no pagination.



Photo 3. Football team of WCKŚ Kresy Tarnopol (1934), champion of Ternopil sub-region in the season of 1936/1937

Source: NAC, sygn. 1-S-2035, no pagination.

³⁶ Ibidem, p. 248.

In the years of 1934–1939, the footballers of Rewera Stanisławów, Pogoń Stryj and Strzelec Górka Stanisławów, as the representatives of Stanisławów OZPN, took part in playoffs to get promoted to the national league.³⁷ Rewera Stanisławów team was the most successful in 1934 as it won in the first round of playoffs with the following teams in the same group: Czarne Lwy, Police Sports Club Łuck and WKS 7 pp. Legionów Chełm. It lost in the semi-finals in two matches with the team of Śląsk Świętochłowice (0:5, 1:0). The footballers of Śląsk Świętochłowice won in the final group and got promoted to the national league. The history of SKS Rewera Stanisławów goes back to 1908. After the end of WWI, the club received the army's support from 48th infantry regiment, whereas in 1922 it took part in class A matches of Lviv OZPN. On 5 June 1938, the club celebrated its 30th anniversary, during which the team of Rewera Stanisławów defeated Cracovia 5:4.³⁸ Similarly, the participation of Pogoń Stryj footballers, in 1936, in playoffs can be considered successful. Pogoń faced the teams of Cracovia, RKS Wielkie Hajduki and Polonia Przemyśl. It lost its matches with Cracovia (0:11 and 0:3); won and lost with the team of RKS Wielkie Hajduki (3:0 and 1:2) and won and drew with Polonia Przemyśl (2:1 and 1:1), getting the 2nd place in its group, though it did not automatically guarantee qualification to the next round.³⁹ It is worth emphasizing that in the following season the footballers of Cracovia won in the national league contest and became Polish champions.



Photo 4. Football match Śląsk Świętochłowice – Rewera Stanisławów (Świętochłowice, 18 November 1934)

Source: NAC, sygn. 1-S-2416-2, no pagination

³⁷ J. Hałys, (Study by: P. Dobosz, L. Śledziona, E. Kowszewicz), *Piłka nożna w Polsce*, vol. 3, Mielec – Kraków 2020, pp. 171–341.

³⁸ Ibidem, p. 334.

³⁹ Ibidem, p. 238.



Photo 5. Football team of KS Pogoń Stryj (1934)

Source: NAC, sygn. 1-S-2065, no pagination.

Beginning with 1936, Poland organized Polish Cup matches.⁴⁰ They were played by representatives of particular PZPN regions and national league teams (PZPN). During the contest of 1936, in the first round, the representatives of Stanisławów defeated Lviv (2:1), to draw in the second round in Stanisławów with a League B team (2:2). Stanisławów team consisted of the following players: Kazimierz Ogonowski (Pogoń Stryj), Roman Ficek (KSZN Rypne), Feliks Gabara (Pogoń), Wilhelm Schaffer (Rewera), Tadeusz Jończy (Rewera), Mieczysław Juny (Pokucie Kołomyja), Władysław Hrabal (Rypne), Jan Rudziak (Rewera), Józef Zasławski (Pogoń), Bolesław Legaszewski (Pogoń), Eugeniusz Zdobyłak (Rypne); the League B team consisted of the footballers from Garbaria Kraków, Łódź Sports Club (ŁKS), Pogoń Lwów, Śląsk Świętochłowice, Warta Poznań, Wisła Kraków. In an extra match, the League B footballers defeated Stanisławów (5:1). The results and the participation of Stanisławów representatives should be regarded as success.⁴¹ The same Stanisławów team enjoyed good results in Polish Cup matches organised the following year (1937). In the first round it won with Lviv (2:1), to lose in the quarterfinals with Kraków (1:4). In 1939, in the first round, Stanisławów was better than Volhynia (3:2), but it lost with Kraków in the quarterfinals (0:2).⁴² The footballers of Stanisławów enjoyed the best results in Polish Cup in 1939. In the first round they beat Lublin

⁴⁰ The award funded by the president of Poland – Ignacy Mościcki.

⁴¹ J. Hałys, *op. cit.*, p. 239.

⁴² *Ibidem*, pp. 282, 313.

representatives (3:1), and in the quarterfinals they were better than Lviv team (5:2), defeating Vilnius team in the semi-finals (1:0). The final match between the representatives of Stanisławów and Poznań was to be played on 5 November 1939. Due to the German and Soviet invasion of Poland in September 1939, the match did not take place.⁴³

Conclusion

Sports clubs and associations from the provinces of Stanisławów and Ternopil, which ran football sections, organizationally belonged to Lviv OZPN. Establishing organizational structures contributed significantly to the development of football activity in the aforesaid area. Initially, these clubs and associations belonged to Lviv OZPN. In the province of Stanisławów, the sub-region of Stanisławów was active from 1928, and from 1933 Stanisławów OZPN commenced its activity. In the province of Ternopil, the sub-region of Ternopil was active from 1935 within the structure of Lviv OZPN. The development of organizational structures positively influenced the formation of this sports discipline in the aforesaid area. It is worth mentioning that only two provinces of the Second Polish Republic lacked any OZPN structures. These were the provinces of Nowogródek and Ternopil.

Football activity developed among Polish, Ukrainian and Jewish inhabitants of the provinces of Stanisławów and Ternopil. It was a popular sports discipline. In the 20s and 30s of the 20th century, the number of clubs and association running football sections grew significantly.

The province of Stanisławów hosted the following best teams: Rewera Stanisławów, Strzelec Górka Stanisławów, Pogoń Stryj – among Polish citizens; among Ukrainian citizens – UTS Prołom Stanisławów. The most distinguished football teams in the province of Ternopil were: WCKS Kresy Tarnopol, Janina Złoczów – among Polish citizens; Jehuda Tarnopol, ŻKS Złoczów – among Jewish citizens, and UST Podilla Tarnopol among Ukrainian citizens.

In the years 1934–1939, the footballers of Rewera Stanisławów, Pogoń Stryj and Strzelec Górka Stanisławów participated as the representatives of Stanisławów OZPN in playoffs to get promoted to the national league. Junior footballers of Rewera Stanisławów and Strzelec Górka Stanisławów took part in final tournaments of Polish Junior Championships in the years 1936–1939. In 1939, the footballers of Strzelec Górka reached the semi-finals, where they lost with WKS Łuck (1:2). The team representing Stanisławów obtained good results in Polish Cup matches in the years 1936–1939.

⁴³ Ibidem, p. 341.

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Volodymyr Pilat – the creator and leader of the Fighting Hopak style. Contribution to the modern history of Ukrainian martial arts

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Volodymyr Pilat – twórca i lider stylu bojowego hopaka. Przyczynek do współczesnej historii ukraińskich sztuk walki

Streszczenie

Wiele narodów promuje dziś swe historyczne sztuki walki i sporty walki. Może to wynikać z potrzeby zaakcentowania własnych narodowych tradycji i kulturowego dziedzictwa. Dzięki wybitnym postaciom, pasjonatom i ludziom z poczuciem misji dochodzi do powstania lub restauracji tradycji częściowo zaginionych. Przykładem takiego człowieka jest Wielki Mistrz Volodymyr Pilat (Włodzimierz Piłat) – twórca systemu pod nazwą *boiovyi hopak* (bojowy hopak). Autor niniejszego artykułu, na podstawie bezpośredniego wywiadu i dostępnych publikacji, przedstawia drogę Volodymyra Piłata do stworzenia tej sztuki walki, będącej także sportem walki, oraz powołania międzynarodowej federacji, co wskazuje na zaawansowany już rozwój instytucjonalny. Zastosowano analizę źródeł, w tym materiałów filmowych i zdjęć (antropologia wizualna). Ukazano specyfikę tej sztuki walki – *boiovyi hopak* powstał na bazie tradycji kozackich i doświadczeń „drogi wojownika” Włodzimierza Piłata. Historyczny *hopak* to taniec, często praktykowany z towarzyszeniem muzyki.

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W trakcie ćwiczeń używa się tradycyjnych broni, są to: długi kij, szabla, a także szczupak, kosa, sierp, buzdycan, cep i czekan.

Słowa kluczowe: sztuka walki, *hopak*, Wielki Mistrz, wojownik, droga.

Abstract

Many nations today promote their historical martial arts and combat sports. This may result from the need to emphasize their own national traditions and cultural heritage. Thanks to outstanding figures, enthusiasts and people with a sense of mission, traditions that are partly lost are being created or restored. An example is Grand Master Volodymyr Pilat – the creator of the system called *Boiovyi hopak* (Battle / Combat hopak). The author, based on a direct interview and available publications, presents his path to the creation of this martial art, which is also a combat sport, and the establishment of an international federation, which indicates an already advanced institutional development. An analysis of sources was also used, including film materials and photos (visual anthropology). The specificity of this fighting art is shown, which is strongly related to the experiences of Master Pilat's "way of the warrior". *Boiovyi hopak* was created on the basis of Cossack traditions and the experience of Volodymyr Pilat's "way of the warrior". The historical *hopak* was a dance. It is often practised with music. Among the traditional weapons there are a long stick, sabre, pike, scythe, sickle, mace, flail and ice axe.

Keywords: fighting art, *hopak*, Grand Master, the warrior, the pathway.

Introduction

Coming from East and Southeast Asia, martial arts have become known and popular on a global scale. The example of these Chinese, Japanese, Korean and Thai martial arts, their institutionalization and popularization, is followed by leaders and organizations of many Asian countries, as well as some European ones. This may result from the need to emphasize their own historical, national traditions in the field of martial arts or combat sports.

Occasionally, national traditions in martial arts and combat sports are invented and labelled national in order to promote the country's culture and economy. Externally, they are to function as a trademark and export commodity, a means of soft political influence and a contribution to the development of tourism. In other countries, on the other hand, participation in patriotic and military education is an important component of physical culture and constitutes an element strengthening national identification. This policy is served by sport, film/cinema, cultural events, scientific research and the activities of many different state and social institutions. This invention of one's own national traditions/martial arts heritage serving strictly commercial purposes may refer to different cultural traditions.¹ Undoubtedly, it enriches the areas of physical culture

¹ Cf. E.J. Hobsbawm, T.O. Ranger (eds.), *The Invention of Tradition*, Cambridge University Press, New York 1983.

and sports culture (as long as a given martial art enters international competition as another discipline of the multiform phenomenon of combat sports).

IMACSSS congresses are an opportunity to present them, meet and exchange scientific research results, where the traditions of Malaysian *silat*, various styles of Chinese *kung-fu*, Japanese martial arts, *taekwondo* and *Muai Thai* meet the Polish hussar sabre and the Ukrainian *hopak*. This last of the listed martial arts is still little known.

The Combat *hopak* combines the pursuit of spiritual and physical improvement. Thus, it meets the definition of a traditionally understood martial art adopted in the General Theory of Fighting Arts. The techniques of this martial art were passed down from generation to generation in the Cossack tradition and through folk dances, especially the dance called *hopak*. In the second half of the 20th century, Grand Master (GM) Wołodymyr Pyłat / Volodymyr Pilat undertook to recreate this martial art based on the knowledge passed on by his grandfather and other teachers who had knowledge of the old martial art. He and his students are mainly the authors of previous research and publications on the history of this martial art (*vide* - Literature).

Problem and method

The purpose of this short study is to show the profile of Grand Master Volodymyr Pilat from Ukraine – the master of the *Combat hopak* (Ukrainian martial art) – and his path to mastery. How did this influence the shape of the martial art he created?

The author relies mainly on information obtained through direct, uncategorized interviews. Existing publications - literature on the subject - were also taken into account.

A few words about the Chief Master

So who is the creator and Chief Master – **Volodymyr Pilat** [photo 1]? This surname is written in several ways - Polonized as Piłat, Pyłat, but also Pilat and Pylat.² The author believes that Pilat, as a family name with the *Nowina* coat of arms assigned,³ is the best form of transliteration into the Latin alphabet. This is

² Cf. W.J. Cynarski, *Leksykon sztuk walki. Mistrzowie i ich szkoły* [Lexicon of fighting arts. Masters and their schools], Rzeszow University Press, Rzeszów 2021, pp. 129–130.

³ V. Pilat, E. Sidoruk, M. Kurak, *Master Volodymyr S. Pilat – organizer of the revival of the Cossack martial art and his life's work – Boiovyi hopak*, [in:] W.J. Cynarski, P. Pawelec, P. Świder, J. Kulas (eds.), *11th IMACSSS International Conference, 5th World Scientific Congress of Combat*

a family of the nobility of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, probably descending from the Ruthenian nobility before the first Polish-Lithuanian Union. V. Pilat states that he comes from a knightly family with the indicated coat of arms – from 1121.⁴ As a person coming from a noble family and implementing noble, knightly ideals in life, GM Pilat was admitted to the exclusive group of the European Nobility Club in 2022 and was awarded the Knight's Order of *Homo Creator Nobilis*. However, his family tradition today refers more to the heritage of the Cossack culture.

Volodymyr Pilat was born in 1955 and lives in Lviv. Here, in the so-called Galicia, i.e. in the lands of the Austrian partition / Eastern Lesser Poland / Western Ukraine, his ancestors lived for at least several generations. His grandfather – Andrej Gidej – was a personal security worker for the Austro-Hungarian Emperor Franz Joseph. He was also injured during this work and received a pension for the rest of his life - first Austrian, then Polish. In turn, Volodymyr's father – Stepan Pilat – was a militiaman.⁵ This was a circumstance that facilitated practising martial arts in a situation where in the Soviet Union, apart from the military and guard divisions, something similar could only be practised clandestinely.

The athletic build and strength inherited from his grandfather helped Volodymyr succeed in sports and in contact sports, but it also required great courage to pass several serious tests of the fight for life. Volodymyr successively trained gymnastics, boxing (Soviet and Cuban, under the guidance of a Cuban trainer), knife fighting, *Kyokushin* and *Goju-ryu karate*, *Sone* (?), *Tsunami karate*,⁶ experimented with the use of two Cossack sabres [Photo 1], learned the traditions of Ukrainian / Cossack martial arts. He also fought bare-knuckle fights, and in self-defence he had to fight with a knife when attacked by a dozen to one.⁷ Hard training enabled him to win full-contact fights.

In order to learn about various martial arts and combat sports, he visited the area of the former Soviet Union. At that time, trips abroad were limited and extremely difficult. In order to learn about Cossack traditions, he travelled to Kuban, Odessa and Sumy in Ukraine and to Minsk (Belarus). This is how he realized his tourism of martial arts.⁸ Volodymyr trained fighting arts since 1968,

Sports and Martial Arts, October 13–15, 2022, Rzeszów, Rzeszow University Press, Rzeszów 2022, pp. 14–18.

⁴ Cf. S. Okolski, *Orbis Polonus*, Officina Typographica Franciscus Imperator, Kraków 1641; V. Pilat, *History of the school „Boyovyi Hopak”*, [in:] W.J. Cynarski, A. Nizioł (eds.), *3rd IMACSSS International Conference Abstract Book*, Rzeszów University Press, Rzeszów 2014, p. 76.

⁵ According to direct interview with V. Pilat, 2022.

⁶ R. Murat, *Karate for Beginners and Advanced*, Atlantic, New Delhi 2006.

⁷ Quoting the direct interview with V. Pilat, too.

⁸ W.J. Cynarski, *Sztuki walki i sporty walki. W kierunku ogólnej teorii [Martial Arts & Combat Sports: Towards the General Theory of Fighting Arts]*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Katedra, Gdańsk 2019, p. 26; W. Blach, P. Swider, L. Sieber, *Tourism of martial arts: the inspiration for Prof.*

when it was still illegal in the USSR. Formal legalization took place in 1978, but in the 1980s the KGB organized mass arrests of instructors.⁹ From 1986, the KGB counteracted the teaching and development of the Combat Hopak, for example, setting fire in the apartment where the training materials were located.¹⁰

Currently, however, he teaches mainly in Lviv, where he trains instructors. He also deals with massage and natural medicine, based on the folk message according to the Ukrainian tradition and on methods from Asia. The leader of the Ukrainian *Combat hopak* also conducts scientific research and publishes in the field of history, theory of sport, training methodology and health.¹¹

Cossack martial arts traditions

Boiovyi hopak (Battle hopak, Combat hopak, or Fighting gopak in English) has been developed by V. Pilat since 1985. The same Grand Master appears with his students at the IMACSSS Congresses organized every four years in Rzeszów.¹² He was also an active participant in the same event in 2022.¹³ Here, together with his students, he presented the characteristics of this martial art during the Panel of Grand Masters, organized a show at the Gala of Martial Arts and personally conducted workshops.

The Ukrainian traditions explored by GM Pilat cover quite a wide spectrum. *Rukaposhnyi boy*, also known as Alexey A. Kadochnikov's *Sistiema*, was – according to Pilat – created for the army and uniformed services of the USSR on the basis of Cossack combat techniques. V. Pilat visited Kadochnikov in Kuban. He also practised under the guidance of high-ranking Cossacks.¹⁴ He led to the re-activation of the Cossack movement, being the organizer of the first congress after 250 years. He himself finally obtained the historical titles of ataman and hetman of the Cossack Region.

Cynarski's new book, "Ido Movement for Culture. Journal of Martial Arts Anthropology" 2020, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 47–52; doi: 10.14589/ido.20.3.7; and according to the direct interview.

⁹ Cf. Y. Zhykov, *Karate and the Kremlin*, „Black Belt” 1979, vol. 17, no. 6, pp. 6–7; V. Pilat, E. Sidoruk, M. Kurak, *Master Volodymyr S. Pilat...*, op. cit., p. 15.

¹⁰ According to direct interview with V. Pilat; and V. Pilat, E. Sidoruk, M. Kurak, *Master Volodymyr S. Pilat...*, op. cit., p. 16.

¹¹ Cf. E. Pristupa, V. Pilat, *Tradicii ukrainskoj nacionalnoj fizycznej kultury*, Troyan, Lviv 1991; V. Pilat, *Boyovyi Hopak. Sokil skill level*, Logos, Lviv 1999; idem, *Asgarda*, Lviv 2007; idem, *History of the school „Boyovyi Hopak”*, [in:] W.J. Cynarski, A. Nizioł (eds.), *3rd IMACSSS International Conference Abstract Book*, Rzeszów University Press, Rzeszów 2014, pp. 76–78; V. Pylat, *Boyovyi Hopak. Жобтяк*, Spolom, Lviv 2018.

¹² Vide: P. Rut, *Gala & Congress: IMACSSS 2014* (documentary film), Rzeszów 2014; <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fxHr46IKRXo> [accessed: Nov. 19, 2022].

¹³ V. Pilat, E. Sidoruk, M. Kurak, *Master Volodymyr S. Pilat...*, op. cit.; and photos 2–4.

¹⁴ According to direct interview with V. Pilat, 2022.

V. Pilat's late friend, Colonel Anatoli Popowicz, created an educational system called *sobor*.¹⁵ Together, the two developed the "Cossack biathlon" as a sport. In addition, the creator of the *Combat hopak* learned *spa* – the martial art of the Zaporozhian Cossacks (training especially with Oleksandr Besklube), „belt fighting”, *krest*, *nawkrest* (fight to death), *nawkułaczki* (deadly hands), *nawszpinki* (fight fought on the fingers), *arcan* (fight of the Carpathian highlanders). These are folklore studies for the restoration of partly lost cultural heritage.¹⁶



Photo 1. Volodymyr Pilat – President of the International Federation of Boiovyi Hopak

Source: Private collection of W.J. Cynarski; photos – no pagination.

His Martial Art

Boiovyi hopak (Battle / Combat hopak) was created on the basis of Cossack traditions and the experience of Volodymyr Pilat's „way of the warrior”. The historical *hopak* was a dance.¹⁷ Here, exercises and figures of this highly efficient

¹⁵ W. Tkaczuk, A. Popowicz, „*Sobor*” – *ukrainskaja sistiema bor'by, fizycznego i moralnego wospitania młodzieży*, [in:] A. Dąbrowski, T. Jasiński, R.M. Kalina (eds.), *Sporty walki w edukacji dzieci i młodzieży – perspektywa metodyczna*, SWPW, Płock 2002, pp. 37–42.

¹⁶ According to the direct interview with V. Pilat, too.

¹⁷ Cf. Y. Pivtorak, *Ukrainian Hopak: From Dance for Entertainment to Martial Art*, Congress on Research in Dance Conference Proceedings, 2016, vol. 2016, pp. 299–305; doi: 10.1017/cor.2016.40.

dance are used.¹⁸ „The techniques of hand-to-hand combat and the use of various weapons are taught. [...] It is often practised with music – patriotic songs.”¹⁹ Among the traditional weapons, techniques of a long stick, saber, as well as pike, scythe, sickle, mace, flail and ice axe are practised. Training takes place in the traditional Ukrainian costume: an embroidered shirt, salwarpants (wide Cossack trousers [Photos 1–4]) tied with a decorative belt, and high folk boots.

Practitioners also wear a specific hairstyle, in particular Cossack tops [Fig. 1], which is an echo of an ancient tradition. Proto-Slavic “*golva*” (shaving) is a word for the ancient custom of “shaving heads leaving only a tuft of hair on the crown,”²⁰ which concerned Proto-Slavic and perhaps also Scythian warriors. This hairstyle has survived in the Cossack tradition as the so-called Cossack crest. Thus, the Cossack and Ukrainian traditions are adjacent here to an even older, almost archetypal pattern.²¹

Like Popowicz’s *sobor*, *Combat hopak* is not only a training programme and a set of combat techniques, but a relatively complete educational system, which corresponds to the definition of martial arts in the General Theory of Fighting Arts.²² This is because it is a psychophysical practice, where the values and issues of spirituality result from the living tradition of Ukrainian Orthodoxy. Together, it constitutes physical, moral and patriotic education at the same time.

The *Combat hopak* also entered the path of sport. On May 18–19, 1996, the first sports competition was held in Lviv in *Combat hopak*. In 1997, this combat sport was raised to the rank of a national sport. The Central Combat Hopak School was also registered. In 2001, the International Federation of Boiovyy Hopak, whose president is GM Pilat, was founded.

Outside Ukraine, a strong Bojowy Hopak centre operates in Warsaw. The outstanding instructors from this centre are Elias Sidoruk and Michał Kurak.

¹⁸ Vide: P. Rut, *Gala & Congress...*, op. cit.

¹⁹ W.J. Cynarski, *Lexykon sztuk walki. Mistrzowie i ich szkoły [Lexicon of fighting arts. Masters and their schools]*, Rzeszow University Press, Rzeszów 2021, p. 64. More: V. Pylat, *Boiovyy Hopak, Жобтяк*, Spolom, Lviv 2010; idem, *Boiovyy Hopak. Жобтяк*, Spolom, Lviv 2018.

²⁰ K. Moszyński, *Pierwotny zasięg języka prasłowiańskiego [Original reach of the Slavonic language]*, PAN, Ossolineum, Wrocław 1957, p. 251.

²¹ Cf. T. Bureychak, *In Search of Heroes: Vikings and Cossacks in Present Sweden and Ukraine*, “Nordic Journal of Masculinity Studies” 2012, vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 139–159; W.J. Cynarski, *Propinquity of Scythians and Slavs. Remarks on the state of knowledge of Slavic ethnogenesis*, „Ido Movement for Culture. Journal of Martial Arts Anthropology” 2018, vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 1–7; doi: 10.14589/ido.18.1.1; V. Pylat, *Boiovyy Hopak. Жобтяк*, Spolom, Lviv 2018.

²² W.J. Cynarski, J. Skowron, *An analysis of the conceptual language used for the general theory of martial arts – Japanese, Polish and English terminology*, “Ido Movement for Culture. Journal of Martial Arts Anthropology” 2014, vol. 14, no. 3, pp. 49–66; doi: 10.14589/ido.14.3.7; W.J. Cynarski, *Sztuki walki i sporty walki. W kierunku ogólnej teorii [Martial Arts & Combat Sports: Towards the General Theory of Fighting Arts]*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Katedra, Gdańsk 2019.

Both are actively involved in promoting this martial art and combat sport on an international scale [Photos 2–3].



Figure 1. Various types of Cossack hairdo

Source: V. Pylat, *Войовуу Норах. Жобтыак*, Spolom, Lviv 2018, p. 69.



Photo 2. A group from the *Combat hopak* show at the Martial Arts Gala in Rzeszów, Oct. 14, 2022. From the left: E. Sidoruk, Ruslan Dmytrenko (Winnica, Ukraine), M. Kurak, GM V. Pilat

Source: Private collection of W.J. Cynarski; photos – no pagination.



Photo 3. Representation of the Combat Hopak at the IMACSSS 2022 Congress in Rzeszów with the president of this Scientific Society

Source: Private collection of W.J. Cynarski; photos – no pagination.



Photo 4. After the Congress – E. Sidoruk, Prof. W.J. Cynarski, GM V. Pilat, GM Z. Sawicki, E. Sawicka with the IMACSSS flag, hall of the Institute of Physical Culture Studies of the University of Rzeszów, October 15, 2022

Source: Private collection of W. J. Cynarski; photos – no pagination.

Summary

Grand Master Volodymyr Pilat is the founder of *Boiovyi hopak* (Combat hopak), the system of fighting art. His path to the creation of this martial / fighting art, which is also a combat sport, led to the establishment of the curriculum. This was followed by further stages of the institutionalization process like the establishment of an international federation, which indicates an already advanced institutional development. The specificity of this fighting art is shown, which is strongly related to the experiences of the “way of the warrior” of Master Pilat.

Boiovyi hopak was created on the basis of Cossack traditions and the experience of Volodymyr Pilat. Because the historical *hopak* was a dance, it is often practised with music. Among the traditional weapons a long stick, sabre, as well as pike, scythe, sickle, mace, flail and ice axe are practised.

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CZĘŚĆ II

TEORIA I METODYKA WYCHOWANIA FIZYCZNEGO I SPORTU



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The Influence of the Integrated Education Program on the Psycho-Physical Readiness of Children for School Education

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Wpływ programu kształcenia zintegrowanego na gotowość psychofizyczną dzieci do edukacji szkolnej

Streszczenie

Modernizacja przedszkolnego wychowania fizycznego jest przedmiotem badań wielu naukowców. Rozwój i wprowadzanie innowacyjnych technologii rekreacyjno-zdrowotnych do praktyki wychowania fizycznego w placówkach wychowania przedszkolnego są konieczne w związku z intensyfikacją obciążenia edukacyjnego w procesie systematycznej edukacji przedszkolnej, co zwiększa składową statyczną i negatywnie wpływa na kondycję fizyczną dzieci i ich gotowość do podjęcia nauki szkolnej. Wdrażanie istniejących technologii kultury fizycznej i zdrowia w praktyce wychowania fizycznego przebiega powoli.

Celem pracy jest wdrożenie i określenie wpływu kompleksowego programu rozwoju osobowości na poziom rozwoju zdolności fizycznych, poznawczych i mowy 6-letnich dzieci. Aby osiągnąć cel, zastosowano następujące metody: analizę teoretyczną i uogólnienie literatury naukowej i metodycznej, metody pedagogiczne, medyczne i biologiczne, psychodiagnostykę, metody statystyki matematycznej.

Doskonalenie treści zajęć z kultury fizycznej i pracy prozdrowotnej ze starszymi przedszkolakami w ZDO odbywało się poprzez wprowadzanie innowacyjnych technologii wychowania fizycznego, metod pracy psychoprofilaktycznej, elementów zajęć turystyczno-historycznych, elementów wychowania fizycznego o charakterze sportowym. Podejścia te realizowane były poprzez cztery bloki form zajęć ruchowych: zajęcia z wychowania fizycznego, zajęcia z kultury fizycznej i zdrowia w ciągu dnia, aktywny wypoczynek, zajęcia z zakresu turystyki i historii lokalnej. Na podstawie określenia sposobów łącznego rozwoju cech motorycznych i umysłowych opracowano materiał programowy do kompleksowego rozwoju zdolności fizycznych i poznawczych starszych przedszkolaków w procesie wychowania fizycznego.

Słowa kluczowe: integracja, technologia, przedszkolaki, gotowość psychofizyczna.

Abstract

Modernization of preschool physical education is the subject of research by many scientists. The development and introduction of innovative recreation and health technologies into the practice of physical education in preschool education institutions is necessary in connection with the intensification of the educational load in the process of systematic preschool education, which increases the static component and negatively affects the physical condition of children and their readiness to school education. The implementation of existing physical culture and health technologies into the practice of physical education is slow.

The purpose of the study is to implement and determine the impact of the comprehensive personality development program on the level of development of physical, cognitive abilities and speech of older preschoolers. Theoretical analysis and generalization of scientific and methodical literature, pedagogical, medical and biological methods, psychodiagnostic methods, methods of mathematical statistics were used in the study.

Improvement of the content of physical culture and health work with older preschoolers in establishments of preschool education took place by introducing: innovative technologies of physical education, methods of psycho-prophylactic work, elements of tourist and local history activities, elements of sports-oriented physical education. These approaches were implemented through four blocks of physical exercise classes: physical education classes, physical culture and

health activities during the day, active recreation, tourist and local history activities. Based on the determination of the means of combined development of motor and mental qualities, program material for the complex development of physical and cognitive abilities of older preschoolers in the process of physical education was developed.

Keywords: integration, technology, preschoolers, psychophysical readiness.

Introduction

One of the main tasks defined by the Law of Ukraine «On Preschool Education» (2001) is the preservation and strengthening of the child's physical, mental and spiritual health.

For the current state of development of preschool pedagogy, the concepts of preschool education are of great importance as they define the decisive directions of work on updating the system of education and training of preschool children – humanizing pedagogical work, creating favorable conditions for children and teachers in kindergarten, ensuring continuity in all areas of physical education, mental and social development of the child.

The State National Program «Education» («Ukraine in the 21st century») presents the development strategy for the coming years and the future perspective. In particular, the main directions of reforming preschool education include: comprehensive study of the problems of family and social education in modern socio-cultural conditions, establishment of age norms of physical, mental and spiritual development of children, creation of an organizational and methodical family service, optimal scientific and methodical conditions for the activities of preschool education institutions of various types, updating the content, forms and methods of children's education and development (Panhelova, 2014).

At the same time, the results of a number of studies indicate that one of the main problems of today in Ukraine is the significant deterioration of preschool children's health. Currently, almost 80% of children have one or more chronic diseases, every third child has deviations in physical or mental development (Maksimenko & Skrypka, 2020), which makes it difficult to prepare a child for schooling (Maliar, 2014).

It is known that a child's health is largely determined by a sufficient level of their motor activity (Panhelova, 2022), (Panhelova & Tsapuk, 2018). Any restrictions on the motor activity of children cause violation of their psychomotor development (Panhelova, 2020). Therefore, involving preschoolers in systematic physical exercises is a priority task. At the same time, it is observed that a significant part of children do not show interest in traditional physical education classes (Sukhomlinov, 2020), which justifies the search for ways to optimize the functioning of physical education and health work in preschool education institutions.

In recent years, the problems of increasing the effectiveness of preschool physical education have been the subject of research by Lakhno (2013), Loshytska (2020), Maliar (2014), Panhelova (2020), Pasichnyk (2014), Poliakova (2016), Maksimenko (2019).

The analysis of special scientific and methodological literature shows a significant interest in the development and implementation of innovative technologies in the process of physical education and health activities of preschool children (Vitos, 2015). This issue becomes especially relevant in connection with the intensification and increase in the volume of the educational load in the process of systematic preschool education (Starchenko, 2015), which increases the static component and negatively affects the physical condition of children and their readiness for schooling (Cheverda, 2021).

It should be noted that the introduction of already developed modern physical culture and health technologies into the practice of educational institutions is rather slow. Therefore, determining the influence of innovative recreational and health technologies on the psychophysical state of children justifies the direction of our research.

The purpose of the study is to implement and determine the impact of the comprehensive personality development program on the level of development of physical, cognitive abilities and speech of 6-year-old children.

Materials and Methods

Research materials and methods: theoretical analysis and generalization of scientific and methodical literature, pedagogical methods (experiments, testing), psychodiagnostic methods (a standardized set of psychodiagnostic methods of cognitive processes and speech), medical and biological methods (anthropometry, spirometry, dynamometry, Ruffier's test), methods of mathematical statistics.

Statistical analysis. The processing of the research results was carried out by statistical methods on a personal computer using the STATISTIKA 6.0 package of applied statistics of automated data processing systems, as well as the EXCEL spreadsheet editor for MAC-2015.

Participants. 49 children of the senior group of the preschool education institution (24 boys and 25 girls) took part in the research. Children's participation in the research took place with the written consent of their parents.

Research organization. The pedagogical experiment was conducted during September-May 2018-2019 on the premises of the preschool education institution «Sonechko» in Pereoaslav, Kyiv region. The experimental study was carried out in three stages: during the first one (September – October 2018) an ascer-

tainment experiment was conducted, where the initial data of children's physical development and physical readiness were determined; the second stage (October 2018 – April 2019) consisted of a formative experiment, which involved the introduction of a comprehensive personality development program into physical education and health work with children, as well as determining its effectiveness. For this purpose, an experimental group (EG) – 21 boys and 18 girls, and a control group (CG) – 19 boys and 16 girls were created. In the experimental group, the content of physical education and health work was a program of comprehensive development of the child's personality developed by Panhelova (2014), and in the control group, children studied according to the basic State program «I am in the World» (2001). The third stage (April – May 2019) was devoted to the assessment of the level of physical development and physical fitness of the EG and CG children. Mathematical processing of the received data and their interpretation was carried out.

Results

For the teacher, when solving educational tasks and tasks of physical development in the process of physical education, the methods of using the selected tools that will help to more successfully and productively achieve the set goal are of an utmost importance. This search is connected with the choice of effective methods to teach motor actions, develop physical abilities and personal qualities. The set of these various methods is called “methodology” in the narrow sense of this term (Krutsevich, 2002).

The method of organizing and conducting classes with educationally oriented physical exercises in the conditions of a preschool educational institution is based on the pedagogical strategy of education, which is the main objective of the educator's activity, providing conditions for the development of the spiritual, moral and intellectual sphere of the child's personality.

The modernization of current physical education of preschool children involves the creation of such an educational environment that purposefully orients the child's personality around self-determination, self-regulation, and self-development in order to fully express themselves in further life activities.

We put forward a hypothesis that the use of means and methods of mental education in the main forms of organizing physical education classes for preschoolers will contribute to the comprehensive development of the preschooler's personality, namely: morphological and functional improvement, strengthening of health, formation of motor skills and physical qualities as well as acquisition of elementary knowledge about the environment, life and work of people, social phenomena, not to mention the formation of abilities and skills

pertaining to mental activity, the development of cognitive processes, which in the aggregate will contribute to the formation of the child's readiness for schooling.

It is known that the content of mental education is the formation of a certain amount of knowledge in children about objects and phenomena, ways of thinking (the ability to observe, analyze, compare, generalize).

The content of mental education is implemented through the use of such means as:

- familiarization with objects and phenomena of the surrounding world,
- communication with adults,
- various types of children's activities (subject, speech development, games, creative activities, visual aids, labor),
- education (Panhelova & Krasov, 2014).

It is known that a given tool becomes effective in combination with adequate methods and methods of education.

Means and methods of mental education have found their application in our proposed approaches to the organization and conducting of educationally oriented physical exercises for children of older preschool age, namely: story and game physical education classes; methods of psychoprophylactic work; children's tourist and local history activities; sports and game physical training of older preschoolers.

These approaches were implemented in the following organisational work forms on physical education in the working conditions of a preschool educational institution: physical education classes, physical culture and health activities during the day, active recreation, tourist and local history activities.

In the classification of organizational forms of educationally oriented physical exercises in a preschool educational institution that we developed, four blocks were distinguished (Panhelova, 2014).

- *Physical education classes of various types* with the implementation of means and methods of mental education, namely:
 - educational and training classes, which are aimed at the formation and improvement of motor skills and abilities, the development of physical qualities,
 - story-based games based on a single story («Zoo», «Cosmonauts», etc.) based on a variety of moving games, relay games, and attraction games. The tasks of improving motor abilities and skills, developing physical abilities, fostering interest in physical exercises, promoting the formation of positive moral qualities are solved.
 - complex classes aimed at integrating various types of activities. The tasks of the child's physical, mental, and social development are solved.
 - physical education and cognitive classes, which have a syncretic (integrated) character and solve the tasks of ecological-physical, moral-physical, mental and physical development of the child, etc.,

- thematic classes, usually devoted to one type of sports games or exercises: skiing, swimming, elements of volleyball, football, etc. Here it is also possible to create conditions for purposeful pedagogical influences of an educational character.

Physical education classes are the main organizational form of teaching children physical exercises. They are mandatory for all pupils and are held daily. In the process of conducting physical education classes, health and educational tasks are most fully solved.

- *Physical culture and health activities during the day*, which have an educational focus, were represented by mobile games and indoor complex games, on the kindergarten's premises, using natural and social objects («ecological path», etc.).

Active games are an important means of comprehensive education of preschool children. They contribute not only to the harmonious development of the child's body, the improvement of various skills in basic movement skills (walking, running, throwing, jumping, balance), the development of physical abilities, but also to the education of intellectual and moral-willed qualities.

There are several classifications of mobile games types depending on their characteristics that are the basis of one or another classification. We classified mobile games in terms of their educational potential. It was found out that mobile games contribute to the development of creativity, the formation of relationships in a group, and the motor development of a child. *The development of creativity* is manifested in the performance of a leading and mass role in the game, as well as in the identification of the child's initiative in the following aspects: role distribution, movements, behavior, actions, changing environment, independent variations of game options. *The formation of mutual relations* takes place in children's manifestation of moral and volitional qualities: manifestation of endurance, persistent overcoming of obstacles, compliance with established behavioural norms, conscious implementation of rules, ability to follow a positive example, ability to enjoy one's playmates' success and sympathize with their failure. *The motor development* of the child in the game is carried out in the process of formation: the ability to independently unite for the game, the need to independently organize mobile games, motor emotional activity in folk, plot and sports games, the ability to achieve a positive result, the optimal level of motor training.

- The most effective forms of active recreation for children, which have significant educational potential, are physical education holidays, health days, competitions-entertainment:
 - physical culture holidays are held two or three times a year (duration 50 minutes –1 hour 20 minutes) and they are the final form of work on physical education, where children demonstrate their achievements.

Physical culture holidays are aimed at comprehensive implementation of a wide range of health and educational tasks. Participation in them helps to show independence and initiative in performing motor tasks, achieve better results in competition conditions, foster creativity, perseverance, responsibility, discipline, etc.

- Health Day is held once a month and the main goal is to reach all pupils with various physical activities. It is carried out throughout the day: in the morning – games of medium mobility (during the reception of children), morning gymnastics, physical education classes (other educational classes are not held on this day), during walks various competitions in games and sports exercises are planned, games – relay races, entertainment – rides, physical exercises (running, jumping, throwing, climbing). When organizing health days, it is necessary to take into account the climatic features of the season, possibility of using natural resources (forests, parks, meadows, water reservoirs, etc.), which are an effective means of mental education;
- Physical education activities are planned for the second half of the day, either indoors or on the playground and are held two or three times a month. Physical culture entertainment consists of mobile games, exercises and games of a sports nature, exercises on physical culture simulators. The main goal of physical education entertainment is to create a positive emotional background in children, improve their motor skills in a relaxed game environment, and involve them in the systematic performance of physical exercises.
- *Tourist and local history activities* were implemented in the following types and forms: crossings, walks-hikes, excursions, tourist holidays, weekend hikes with the participation of parents, during which children were familiarized with the rules of behaviour in nature, on the route, acquired initial orientation skills in the area, mastered some basic elements of tourism techniques.

Excursions and purpose-built walks were conducted on the following topics:

- military-historical (laying flowers at monuments to commemorate national heroes, visiting veterans, etc.);
- local history (the local history museum);
- natural science (seasonal excursions to the park, forest, reservoir);
- artistic (visiting exhibitions of children's works at an art school, participation in city festive events).

We developed plans-summaries of physical education classes, physical culture and health activities during the day, scenarios for various forms of active recreation and tourist and local history activities.

Based on the definition of tasks and means of complex development of motor and mental qualities of preschoolers, program material for complex devel-

opment of motor, mental qualities and speech of a child in the process of physical education was developed, the content of which is given below.

Senior group (6th year of life)

The development task

Physical development: forming the need to take care of one's health, systematically engaging in physical culture and improving stamina, forming motor skills, developing physical abilities (speed, dexterity, endurance, flexibility, strength), familiarizing with information on the development of sports in Ukraine and the world, the Olympic movement.

Social and moral development: promoting the formation of social competences, developing social emotions and motives, teaching to function in real-life social conditions, improving communication skills, encouraging to be guided by group interests in joint activities, learning to be tolerant.

Cognitive development: developing cognitive abilities (ability to analyze, draw conclusions, generalize), teaching to name the features of objects, compare, identify similarities and differences, developing the symbolic function of thinking, schematic thinking.

Speech development: improving prolonged pronunciation of soft consonants, pronunciation of sonorous consonants, preventing deviations from the literary norm caused by individual characteristics, the influence of other languages, the local dialect.

Program content

Basic gymnastics: general developmental exercises (GDE) with and without objects, lining up and rearranging, basic movements (walking exercises, running exercises, jumping exercises, throwing, catching, throwing exercises, crawling, climbing exercises, balance exercises).

Movement games and elements of sports games: basketball (tossing the ball to each other with two hands from the chest, from below, from behind the head, bouncing the ball with the right and left hand), badminton (hitting the shuttlecock with a racket), football (pumping the ball with the right and left foot in a certain direction, circling the ball around objects, passing the ball to each other in pairs).

Sports types of physical exercises: sledding, cycling, roller skating, skating, skiing, swimming (if there is a pool).

Dance exercises: trying to express the character of the music in movement, starting and ending movements in accordance with the musical phrase, using familiar dance moves.

Innovative technologies: psychogymnastics – simulation exercises (expressing various emotional states, i.e. «Ant is tired», «Night sounds», «Island of crying»), expressing moral feelings («Three Moods», «Queen Unsmiling», «Squirrel Glasses»), fairy tale therapy, eurythmic gymnastics, breathing exercises, children's tourism, elements of sports-oriented physical education, models of combined development of physical and cognitive abilities.

The organization and methods of conducting all forms of physical exercises with preschoolers took place in compliance with the main didactic laws, rules and principles, taking into account age-related characteristics pertaining to an average level of physical exertion.

Discussion

The developed method of forming the components of 6-year-old children's personality in the process of physical education, the content of which included both traditional means of preschool physical education and innovative technologies serving educational purposes, was experimentally tested in the process of conducting various organizational forms of physical education in the working conditions of a preschool education institution (physical education classes, physical culture and health activities during the day, active recreation, tourist and local history activities).

In the experimental groups, the process of physical education was built on the basis of the developed structural model of the formation of a harmoniously developed personality of a preschooler in the process of physical education.

We proposed to include elements of innovative pedagogical technologies of physical education, which contribute to the comprehensive development of the child's personality in combination with the program material for teaching and educating preschool children, to all organizational forms of work on physical education: story-game physical education classes (with elements of fairy-tale therapy, eurythmic gymnastics, «Theater of physical education», models of combined development of physical and cognitive abilities) were held at least once a week, physical culture and health activities including mobile games with an educational focus, elements of psycho-gymnastics, which were carried out during walks at least three times a week, active recreation including physical culture holidays (once in 3 months), health days (once a month), physical culture entertainment (2 times a week), tourist and local history activities implemented in the form of transitions, excursions, targeted walks, weekly weekend hikes with the participation of parents.

In the control groups, all organizational forms of physical exercises were carried out in accordance with the generally accepted methodology (Panhelova N.,

2022), where in the process of executing physical exercises there is no provision for the accentuated use of means and methods of mental and moral education of preschoolers. In the control groups, daily physical education classes, physical culture and health activities (morning gymnastics, mobile games, gymnastics after daytime sleep) were held, and children's independent motor activity was organized in accordance with the content of the program section «Ensuring motor activity» of the Basic Program for the Development of Preschool Children «I'm in the World» (*Basic program of preschool child development «I am in the World»*, 2009).

Physical education classes in the control and experimental groups were conducted by a physical education instructor. In the experimental groups, physical education classes using innovative technologies were conducted according to the methodology developed by us.

Both in the control and experimental groups, physical culture and health activities during the day, mobile walking games, which contributed to the development of cognitive processes and the moral and emotional sphere of children, were carried out according to the developed plans-summaries.

Active recreation of children in the experimental groups (physical culture holidays, health days, physical culture entertainment) and tourist and local history activities (walks, excursions, walks-hikes) were organized and conducted by educators, a physical culture instructor of a preschool educational institution and directly by the authors of the article.

Classes in the control and experimental groups were conducted in compliance with all methodical principles and rules for teaching movements and developing physical abilities.

In order to check the effectiveness of the introduction of the proposed technology into the process of physical education of preschoolers, we conducted a comparative analysis of the indicators of the morphofunctional state, physical fitness and cognitive processes of children in the control and experimental groups, which were obtained after the end of the main stage of the pedagogical experiment.

The criteria for the effectiveness of comprehensive personality development of a preschool child in the process of physical education were:

- dynamics of morphofunctional state indicators,
- dynamics of indicators of physical fitness,
- dynamics of indicators of cognitive processes and speech.

We assessed the children's morphofunctional state using anthropometry, spirometry, pulsometry, and the Ruffier test (Table 1).

Table 1

Indicators of the morphofunctional state of 6-year-old children in the control and experimental groups

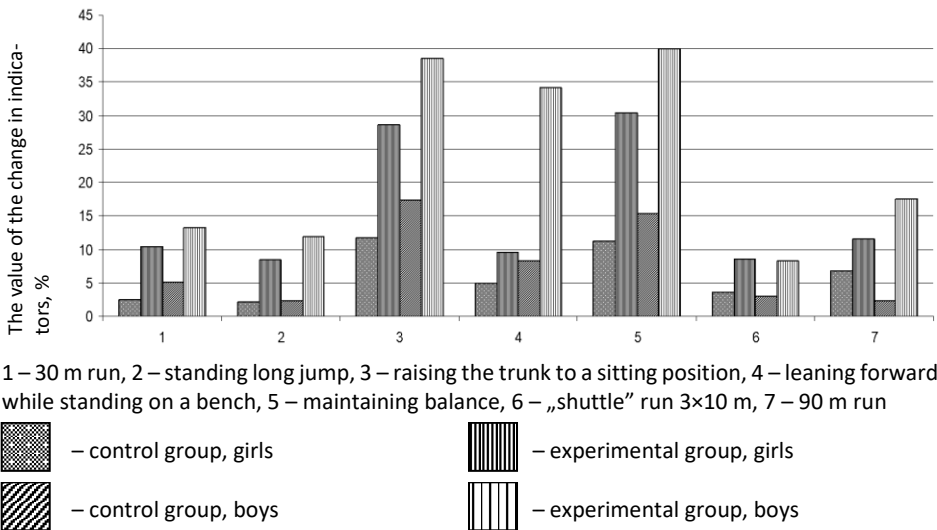
Indicators	Before the experiment				After the experiment								Girls		Boys	
	Total (n=74)				Control (n=35)				Experimental (n=39)							
	Girls (n=34)		Boys (n=40)		Girls (n=16)		Boys (n=19)		Girls (n=18)		Boys (n=21)		t	p	t	p
	(\bar{x})	m	(\bar{x})	m	(\bar{x})	m	(\bar{x})	m	(\bar{x})	m	(\bar{x})	m				
Body length, cm	116	0.73	117	0.66	119.3	0.85	120.1	0.93	119.5	0.71	119.9	0.69	0.18	>0.05	0.17	>0.05
Body weight, kg	21.0	0.37	21.7	0.55	21.8	0.25	22.5	0.34	21.9	0.41	22.6	0.39	0.21	>0.05	0.20	>0.05
Circumference of the chest, cm	56.2	0.41	58.2	0.91	57.1	0.59	59.0	0.56	57.3	0.42	59.1	0.51	0.28	>0.05	0.13	>0.05
The vital capacity of the lungs, ml	1100	57.3	1200	43.9	1250	34.4	1300	43.6	1350	28.3	1400	54.3	11.2	<0.05	7.18	<0.05
The pulse of real peace, beats ·min-1	87	1.56	87	1.25	86	0.73	85	0.36	84	0.36	83	0.42	2.46	<0.05	3.63	<0.05
Ruffier index, points	10	0.89	10	0.61	9.1	0.39	9.0	0.51	7.1	0.42	6.9	0.63	3.50	<0.05	2.59	<0.05

In the process of analyzing the results of the conducted formative pedagogical experiment, it was found out that such indicators of physical development as body length and weight, chest circumference in children of both the control and experimental groups were approximately the same.

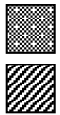
As for the functional abilities of the studied groups of children, it can be noted that in the experimental groups of 6-year-old children, both the boys and girls, the indicators of spirometry, pulsometry, Ruffier tests were higher with a significant difference from the control groups ($p < 0.005$).

This allows us to conclude that the developed program for the combined development of children's motor and mental qualities in the process of physical exercises had a positive effect on the improvement of the body's adaptation mechanisms of older preschoolers to physical exertion.

The physical fitness of 6-year-old children after the end of the pedagogical experiment was determined using the following tests: 30 m run, long jumps from a standing position, raising the trunk to a sitting position from the position of lying on the back, hands behind the head, leaning forward while standing on a bench, maintaining balance (tests of Bondarevsky E. Ya.), «shuttle» run 3×10 m with two obstacles, 90 m run (Figure 1).

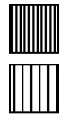


1 – 30 m run, 2 – standing long jump, 3 – raising the trunk to a sitting position, 4 – leaning forward while standing on a bench, 5 – maintaining balance, 6 – „shuttle” run 3×10 m, 7 – 90 m run



– control group, girls

– control group, boys



– experimental group, girls

– experimental group, boys

Figure 1

Changes in indicators of physical fitness of 6-year old girls and boys of the research groups after the experiment

The calculation of the pupils' t-test allows us to talk about a significant advantage of the children of the experimental groups over their peers in terms of physical fitness, which is clearly observed in 6-year-old girls and boys in terms of coordi-

nation and speed-strength abilities, trunk muscle strength, speed and endurance. However, in the girls, unlike in the boys, the improvement of indicators of such a physical ability as flexibility in the experimental groups is not reliable ($p>0.005$).

The obtained results testify to the positive influence of educationally oriented physical culture and health classes on increasing the level of physical fitness of older preschool children.

The study of cognitive processes (perception, memory, thinking, imagination, attention) and speech of preschool children was based on generally accepted psychodiagnostic methods.

The results of the application of a standardized set of psychodiagnostic methods during the pedagogical experiment allow us to assert a significantly higher level of development of all cognitive processes and speech in the children of the experimental groups compared to the control groups ($p<0.05$) (Fig. 2).

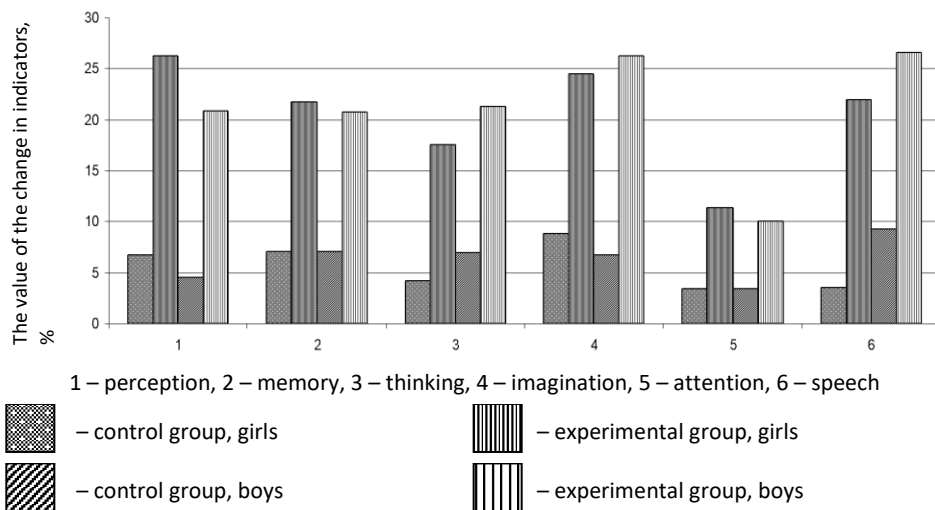


Figure 2

Changes in indicators of cognitive abilities and speech of 6-year-old girls and boys of the studied groups after the experiment

The most intensive development was found in the indicators of perception and imagination. In the experimental groups, it is 27.3% and 24.9% for girls, respectively, and 21.3% and 28.1% for boys. There are quite high rates of growth in the children of the experimental groups in the indicators of memory development (girls – 22.3%, boys – 21.5%) and thinking (18.2% and 22.0%, respectively). It should be noted that at the age of 6, the pace of age-related changes in the development of attention slows down somewhat (experimental groups – 11.2% – 10.0%, control ones – 4.3% – 4.1%, respectively).

The results we obtained during speech diagnosis indicate a higher level of its development in the children of the experimental groups (EG – girls 22.7%, boys 26.1%, CG – 9.1% and 4.5%, respectively).

Thus, the indicators of cognitive processes and speech development of 6-year-old children in the experimental groups indicate that the implementation of the proposed approaches to the comprehensive development of physical abilities, cognitive processes and speech in the process of physical exercises contributed to the increased level of children's readiness for future educational activities in institutions of general primary education.

Conclusion

Improvement of the content of physical culture and health work with 6-year-old children in preschool education took place in the following directions: implementation of innovative technologies of physical education; implementation of methods of psycho-prophylactic work; application of elements of tourist and local history activities; introduction of elements of sports-oriented physical education.

These approaches were implemented in various forms of organizational work. In the developed classification of forms of educationally oriented physical exercises, four blocks were distinguished, i.e. physical education classes, physical culture and health classes held during the day, recreation, tourist and local history activities.

Having determined the means of combined development of motor, mental qualities and speech of preschoolers, program material for the complex development of motor and mental qualities of older preschoolers in the process of physical education was developed.

The analysis of the results of the pedagogical experiments shows that the proposed model of the formation of a harmoniously developed personality of preschoolers contributed to a significant increase in the level of their readiness for systematic schooling.

STATEMENT OF ETHICS

This study was conducted in accordance with the World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki. The research protocol was reviewed and approved by the Council of the Faculty of Physical Culture, Sports and Health, Grigory Skovoroda University in Pereyaslav / Kuybida Vitalii – PhD in biology, Doctor of Historical Sciences; Kotsur Nadiia, Doctor of Historical Sciences, Professor; Panhelova Nataliia, Doctor of Sciences in Physical Education and Sports, Professor; Kokhanets Petro, PhD in Physical Education and Sports, Associate Professor/ №5, October 15, 2022, Pereyaslav, Ukraine/. All the participants provided

written informed consent to participate in this study entitled *The Influence of the Integrated Education Program on the Psycho-Physical Readiness of Children for School Education*.

DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of the article *The Influence of the Integrated Education Program on the Psycho-Physical Readiness of Children for School Education*.

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Relationship between Leisure Satisfaction and Addiction to Social Media: Case Study on Sports Students of Lebanese French University

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Związek między satysfakcją z wolnego czasu a uzależnieniem od mediów społecznościowych: studium przypadku studentów sportu Libańskiego Uniwersytetu Francuskiego

Streszczenie

W epoce cyfrowej, kiedy co druga osoba ma dostęp do internetu, istnieje wysokie prawdopodobieństwo spędzania zbyt długiego czasu na surfowaniu. Ostatnio, w związku z wirusem COVID-19, po raz pierwszy ogół społeczeństwa stanął w obliczu całkowitego lockdownu. W efekcie internet stał się jedynym źródłem rozrywki i komunikacji. W tej sytuacji, związanej z pandemią, podobnie jak inni studenci, studenci sportu spędzali bardzo dużo czasu w mediach społecznościowych, po-

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nieważ nie mieli innej alternatywy w postaci np. wyjść i wspólnego spędzania czasu z rówieśnikami. Niniejsze badanie zostało przeprowadzone, aby znaleźć związek między satysfakcją z wypoczynku a uzależnieniem od mediów społecznościowych. Badaną populację stanowili studenci Libańskiego Uniwersytetu Francuskiego w Erbil zaangażowani w jakiegokolwiek zajęcia sportowe. Próba składała się z 224 studentów (107 mężczyzn i 117 kobiet). Dane zostały zebrane od uczniów za pomocą ustrukturyzowanego kwestionariusza. W celu sformułowania wniosków zastosowano T-Test i test ANOVA. Stwierdzono, że płeć i wiek uczniów wpływają na poziom satysfakcji z wypoczynku. Okazało się, że studentki były bardziej zadowolone z czasu wolnego niż studenci. Jednak wśród studentów uniwersytetu stwierdzono negatywny istotny związek między satysfakcją z wypoczynku a uzależnieniem od mediów społecznościowych.

Słowa kluczowe: uzależnienie, internet, czas wolny, satysfakcja, sport.

Abstract

In this digital age, when every second person has access to the internet, one is more likely to spend too much time surfing. Recently, due to the Covid-19 virus, the general public faced a total lockdown for the first time. As a result, the Internet has become the only source of entertainment and communication. In this pandemic situation, along with other students, sports students spent a lot of time on social media because they had no choice but to sit at home and not go out and play. This study was conducted to find a relationship between leisure satisfaction and addiction to social media. The study population consisted of students engaged in any sports activity from the Lebanese French University, Erbil. The sample counted 224 (107 male and 117 female) students. Data was collected from the students with the help of a structured questionnaire. To reach a conclusion, T-Test and Anova were used. It was found out that the students' gender and age affect their levels of leisure satisfaction. It turned out that the female students were more satisfied with their leisure time than their male counterparts. However, among university students, a significant negative relationship was found between leisure satisfaction and addiction to social media.

Keywords: addiction, Internet, leisure, satisfaction, sports.

Introduction

Rapid economic development and improved living conditions have made leisure an indispensable part of the lives of urban people. They are no longer happy to experience temporary monotonous rewards. In their place, they favor pursuing long-term, multifaceted advantages that they achieve while participating in leisure activities (Zhou, Tian, & Qiu, 2017). In a situation when a person devotes a noteworthy portion of their daily life to everyday duties and continues their life in that way for 20–25 years, it is vital for their mental and physical health to find enjoyment in life (Telman & Unsal, 2004). Among many factors, leisure is recognized as an important area that has an impact on overall happiness (Liu & Da, 2019). Leisure activities are explained as no-work and non-compulsory activities founded on an individual's joy and their interests in free-time activities (Ragheb & Tate, 1993, Holder, Coleman, & Sehn, 2009). They provide emotional, physical, and social benefits (McLean & Hurd, 2015). Leisure activities have cer-

tain positive outcomes, including stress relief, participants' relaxation in an enjoyable environment and the formation of new social relationships while participating in leisure activities (Li, 2010). Ample studies have proven that participating in leisure doings can provide an individual with multiple advantages. They include psychological, communal, physical, and self-development benefits for an individual as well as their intellectual development (Hou et. al., 2018), promotion of health (Labbe, Miller, & Ng, 2019) and family relationships (Zhang et. al., 2017). The whole concept is related to the theme of developmental and economic benefits (Schnohr., 2018).

Review of Literature

Today, the satisfaction of individuals lies in the number of leisure activities they take up, which helps them to enhance their life quality and carry on with their everyday lives in a healthy mode while facing everyday difficulties (Demiral, 2018). Satisfaction is a term that was first coined in the 13th century. The word originated from the Latin word "satis" denoting satisfaction (Kaya, 2013). Satisfaction represents a situation that only people concerned can recognize (Isican & Timuroglu, 2007). Leisure satisfaction is an individual's constructive assessment derived from their involvement in leisure activities (Ragheb & Tate, 1993). It is an essential function of leisure (Sarturk, Akyuz, & Karata, 2017). It denotes the subjective feeling of being satisfied with general leisure experience, which is replicated in positive emotions (Pohl, Borrie, & Patterson, 2000). It is built on the comprehension of an individual's positive emotions or leisure activities and is defined as a positive feeling that a person gets as an outcome of taking part in leisure activities and fulfilling their requirements (Du, 2002). Leisure satisfaction is considered in 6 aspects and is associated with or interacts with diverse factors that improve/reduce life quality. For instance, it marks people's perception of overall life fulfillment (Choi & Yoo, 2017). Factors contributing to leisure satisfaction include psychological and social ones, physical fitness, relaxation, activity characteristics, and educational value development. Moreover, the research shows that participation in leisure activities has a constructive impact on overall life satisfaction (Ahn & Chon, 2018).

The Merriam-Webster dictionary presents social media as "forms of electronic communication (like Web sites for social networking and blogging) through which users create online communities to share information, ideas, personal messages, and other content (e.g. videos)." Social media is an online environment that allows individuals to familiarize themselves with such a social environment and share their concepts, opinions, pictures, videos, stories, memories, and additional things with others (Colak, 2020). Digital communication

technologies, mobile apps and social media are slowly becoming a share of day-to-day lives of billions and billions of individuals globally. According to the latest statistics for January 2021, 4.66 billion of people are actively using the internet, which is 59.5% of the world's populace (Statista, 2020a). The use of social media has become an internal part of many individuals' lives around the globe. In 2020, 3.6 billion of individuals were active users of social media around the world. This number is projected to rise to nearly 4.41 billion by 2025 (Statistica, 2020b).

Superior technology has succeeded in attracting young people, which turns into addiction (Savci & Aysan, 2017). Excessive social media engagement has been suggested to be mediated by the fear of missing out and addiction to the smartphone (Oberst et. al., 2017). Addiction to social media is people's tendency to lose control of their utilization of social media, which ultimately poses psychological, academic, social, or professional difficulties in their lives (Kaur, Sharma & Manu, 2016). Divya and Manju (2021) surveyed 140 college students on social media addiction and found that boys are more addicted to social media than their female counterparts. Ozlem and Neslihan (2019) collected data from 596 students and found a significant relationship between students of Turkish high schools' everyday net usage average time and addiction to social media. Khan & Abdullah, (2019) conducted a survey on 63 students of the Lebanese French university, found them to be addicted to using social media, and concluded that the students find it easy to use social media to exchange messages. They find social media helpful in completing their homework and assignments. On the contrary, Khan, Sultan and Alsamarai (2019) in their research conducted on students found out that their addiction to social media is a waste of time and a distracting element.

Life satisfaction is crucial in reducing social media addiction (Longstreet & Brooks, 2017). Tennur (2013) found a constructive direct relationship between leisure satisfaction and life satisfaction. Along the same lines, Murat (2019) found a positive link between life satisfaction and every sub-variable of leisure satisfaction. Siyahtas (2020) concluded that leisure satisfaction along with life satisfaction are crucial for people to stay happy, peaceful, not stressed or depressed. Thus, it becomes essential to explore leisure time satisfaction, which creates a crucial impact on addiction to social media among younger humans, especially students. After examining ample literature, it was found out that a good number of studies were conducted on leisure satisfaction but no studies were carried out in this region of Iraq to find the effect of leisure satisfaction on addiction to social media, especially in sports students. Hence, this research was carried out.

Research Objective

To investigate the relationship between leisure satisfaction obtained from the activities performed by the students from the Lebanese French university and addiction to social media.

Methodology

A survey technique was used to gather primary data for the present investigation. This data was administered through SPSS (version 24) to reach conclusions. The data was collected from the respondents with the help of a questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of questions on personal information (for example, gender, age, year of study, period of using social media), leisure satisfaction and social media addiction.

A scale for measuring leisure satisfaction built by Beard and Ragheb (1980) was used. It has 24 items consisting of 6 sub-dimensions such as Psychological and Social ones, Education, Relaxation, Physiological and Esthetic ones. A scale for measuring addiction to social media was built by Tutgun & Deniz (2015). It consists of 26 items with 3 sub-dimensions, i.e. social isolation, functional deterioration, and control difficulty and deprivation. These questions from the leisure satisfaction and social media addiction scales were evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale. The reliability of the data was tested to check its internal consistency using Cronbach's Alpha (Cronbach, 1951). The coefficient for Cronbach's alpha should exceed .6 (Nunnally, 1978). The study validity of the scale was obtained through factor analysis. The respondents' demographic profile was analyzed using the percentage and frequency method. After considering the normality of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test data, the T-Test, ANOVA, & Pearson correlation tests were applied to reach conclusions. For the analysis in question the level of significance was set to .05.

A total of 224 students involved in sports activities from the Lebanese French university in Erbil participated in the study. A total of 250 feedback forms were distributed. 236 students returned their feedback forms. However, the responses of 12 students were discarded as they were not sports students. Therefore, 224 students constituted the research sample for the study. They were selected with the help of a simple random sampling technique. The data was gathered in October 2022.

Results

Table 1

Statistics of the Demographic Profile

	Gender	Age	Stage	Department	Period of using social media	Frequency of using social media
N	Valid	224	224	224	224	224
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0

Source: Output of SPSS.

Table 1 illustrates non-missing terms and hence all the data was used to draw a meaningful conclusion for the research work.

Table 2

The participants' demographic profile

		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	107	47.77
	Female	117	52.23
Age in years	18–21	72	32.14
	22–25	84	37.5
	26–29	51	22.77
	30 and above	17	7.59
	Year 1	69	30.80
Stage (Year)	Year 2	83	37.05
	Year 3	48	21.43
	Year 4	24	10.72
	Tourism Administration	59	26.34
Department	Business Administration	48	21.43
	Accounting	35	15.63
	Health	39	17.41
	Marketing	19	8.48
	Legal Administration	24	10.71
	Period of social media usage	1–6 Months	3
6 months to 1 year		9	4.02
1 to 3 years		18	8.04
3 to 5 years		91	40.62
5 years and more		103	45.98

Table 2 (cont.)

		Frequency	Percentage
Frequency of using social media (per day in hours)	Less than an hour	8	3.57
	1–3	47	20.98
	4–7	87	38.84
	8–12	69	30.80
	More than 12	13	5.81

Source: Survey output.

Table 2 presents the demographic profile of the respondents. The table above shows that there were more female students (52.23%) among the respondents. The biggest number of the survey respondents were from year 2 of their graduate program. The table clearly shows that a little less than 70% were less than 25 years of age. In the survey, tourism administration students were the most numerous. Of the total of 224 respondents, 59 students were from this department. 103 students have experienced using social media for more than 5 years. This is roughly 50% of the total sample size. Most of the participants use social media for 4 to 12 hours daily. This implies that they are familiar with using social media daily.

Table 3

Result of T-Test between Leisure Satisfaction Scale & Scale for Addiction to Social Media concerning the respondents' gender

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Sd	t	p-value																																																																				
Scale for Leisure Satisfaction	Male	107	4.05	0.59	193	-.397	.691																																																																				
	Female	117	4.09	0.58				Psychological	Male	107	4.06	0.59	193	.998	.318	Female	117	3.99	0.69	Educational	Male	107	4.05	0.67	193	-2.77	.041	Female	117	4.13	0.69	Social	Male	107	3.97	0.65	193	-.409	.681	Female	117	4.12	0.64	Relaxation	Male	107	4.06	0.79	193	-.871	.395	Female	117	4.19	0.85	Physiological	Male	107	4.03	0.59	193	.579	.579	Female	117	3.97	0.66	Aesthetic	Male	107	4.07	0.69	193	-3.589	.000*
Psychological	Male	107	4.06	0.59	193	.998	.318																																																																				
	Female	117	3.99	0.69				Educational	Male	107	4.05	0.67	193	-2.77	.041	Female	117	4.13	0.69	Social	Male	107	3.97	0.65	193	-.409	.681	Female	117	4.12	0.64	Relaxation	Male	107	4.06	0.79	193	-.871	.395	Female	117	4.19	0.85	Physiological	Male	107	4.03	0.59	193	.579	.579	Female	117	3.97	0.66	Aesthetic	Male	107	4.07	0.69	193	-3.589	.000*	Female	117	4.12	0.71								
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	Female	117	4.12	0.71																																																																							

Table 3 (cont.)

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Sd	t	p-value
Social Media Ad- diction Scale	Male	107	3.72	0.54	193	-.332	.739
	Female	117	3.77	0.41			
Social Isolation	Male	107	4.24	0.97	193	-.039	.973
	Female	117	4.25	0.88			
Functional Deteri- oration	Male	107	4.02	0.53	193	-.448	.658
	Female	117	4.06	0.59			
Control Difficulty & Deprivation	Male	107	4.06	0.65	193	-2.67	.796
	Female	117	4.11	0.68			

Source: Output of SPSS.

Table 3 demonstrates the results of the T-test on the scale of leisure satisfaction and the scale of addiction to social media according to the respondent's gender. It is clear from the table above that 4 sub-dimensions, i.e. psychological, physiological and social ones as well as relaxation are not statistically significant differences between the leisure satisfaction scale of individuals and their gender. The researchers have reached this conclusion as the said four sub-dimensions of the leisure satisfaction scale have a p-value exceeding 0.05. At the same time, it was found out that education and aesthetics were the two sub-dimension scales that were statistically significantly different. These (education and aesthetics) sub-dimensions had a p-value < .05.

However, from the outcome obtained, it was clear that there was no statistically significant change in addiction to social media concerning the respondents' gender. All the sub-dimensions of the social media addiction scale had a p-value of more than 0.05.

Table 4

Result of Anova between Leisure Satisfaction Scale & Scale for Addiction to Social Media concerning the respondents' age

		N	Mean	Std Dev.	F	P	Diff.
Leisure Satis- faction Scale	18 – 21	72	4.26	.45	6.409	.002*	1-2
	22 – 25	84	3.92	.65			
	26 – 29	51	3.98	.61			
	30 and above	17	4.06	.56			
Psychological	18 – 21	72	4.23	.61	4.371	0.015*	1-2
	22 – 25	84	3.93	.65			
	26 – 29	51	3.95	.67			
	30 and above	17	4.03	.60			

Table 4 (cont.)

		N	Mean	Std Dev.	F	P	Diff.
Educational	18 – 21	72	4.32	.57	6.411	.002*	1.2
	22 – 25	84	3.91	.76			
	26 – 29	51	3.89	.74			
	30 and above	17	4.15	.65			
Social	18 – 21	72	4.19	.48	2.811	.087	
	22 – 25	84	3.90	.72			
	26 – 29	51	3.92	.69			
	30 and above	17	3.91	.65			
Relaxation	18 – 21	72	4.31	.68	5.253	.007*	1-2
	22 – 25	84	3.92	.89			
	26 – 29	51	3.90	.88			
	30 and above	17	4.29	.67			
Physiological	18 – 21	72	4.17	.61	1.581	.124	
	22 – 25	84	3.95	.60			
	26 – 29	51	3.89	.60			
	30 and above	17	3.91	.65			
Aesthetic	18 – 21	72	4.31	.57	6.559	.000*	1-2
	22 – 25	84	3.90	.76			
	26 – 29	51	3.92	.71			
	30 and above	17	4.17	.61			
Social Media Addiction Scale	18 – 21	72	3.58	.63	4.385	.015	1-2
	22 – 25	84	3.89	.41			
	26 – 29	51	3.78	.43			
	30 and above	17	3.68	.58			
Social Isolation	18 – 21	72	4.04	1.13	1.435	.246	
	22 – 25	84	4.49	.79			
	26 – 29	51	4.45	.71			
	30 and above	17	4.16	.87			

Table 4 (cont.)

		N	Mean	Std Dev.	F	P	Diff.
Functional Deterioration	18 – 21	72	4.24	.45	6.772	0.001	1-2
	22 – 25	84	3.93	.63			
	26 – 29	51	3.92	.71			
	30 and above	17	4.07	.55			
Control Difficulty and Deprivation	18 – 21	72	4.28	.54	4.769	0.011	1-2
	22 – 25	84	3.91	.67			
	26 – 29	51	3.98	.61			
	30 and above	17	4.09	.58			

Source: Output of SPSS.

Table 4 shows the results of Anova test depicting a significant difference between the sub-dimensions of the leisure satisfaction scale and sub-dimensions of the addiction to social media scale concerning the respondents' age. The said table demonstrates a significant difference between the sub-dimensions of the leisure satisfaction scale (f value is 6.409 and the p-value is less than 0.05) and the respondents' age. These sub-dimensions are psychological, educational, aesthetic ones and relaxation. The p-values for these four variables are 0.015, 0.002, 0.000, and 0.007 respectively. However, social and physiological factors were not found to be significantly different as their p-value was greater than 0.05.

A noteworthy difference was established between the social media addiction scale and the participants' age. The sub-dimensions of the addiction to social media scale such as functional deterioration and control difficulty and deprivation were found to be statistically significant, and only social isolation was not statistically significant as its p-value was .246, which is greater than 0.05.

Table 5

Connection between Leisure Satisfaction and Addiction to social media

		Social Media Addiction	Social Isolation	Functional Deterioration	Control Difficulty & Deprivation
Leisure Satisfaction	R	-.308	-.117	-.327	-.223
	P	.000	.004	.010	.007
Psychological	R	-.342	-.208	-.223	-.309
	P	.000	.000	.000	.032
Education	R	-.348	-.362	-.348	-.219
	P	.005	.004	.022	.022

Table 5 (cont.)

		Social Media Addiction	Social Isolation	Functional Deterioration	Control Difficulty & Deprivation
Social	R	-.291	-.211	-.261	-.156
	P	.000	.000	.000	.000
Relaxation	R	-.311	-.374	-.206	-.257
	P	.000	.007	.003	.000
Physiological	R	-.253	-.339	-.356	-.281
	P	.024	.000	.000	.000
Aesthetic	R	-.301	-.309	-.260	-.257
	P	.021	.000	.013	.001

Source: Output of SPSS.

Table 5 illustrates the correlation between the sub-dimensions of leisure satisfaction and the sub-dimensions of addiction to social media. It demonstrates a significant but negative relationship ($p < 0.05$) between leisure satisfaction and sub-dimensions of the addiction to social media scale as well as a significant negative relationship ($p < 0.05$) between leisure satisfaction and addiction to social media ($r = -.308$).

Conclusion

The advancement of technologies and good-speed internet connectivity glued us to our smartphones. When we talk about sports students, they are not away from this habit of using the internet on mobile phones either. However, the students use social media more than any other users. Thus, this research work was carried out to find the relationship between leisure satisfaction obtained from sports activities performed by the students from the Lebanese French university and social media addiction. The researchers found out that two sub-dimensions from the leisure satisfaction scale, i.e. education and aesthetics were significantly different while taking into account the respondents' gender. Hence, it can be added that the major difference between the said two sub-dimensions (education and aesthetics) can be said to be in favor of the female students who are more satisfied with their leisure than male students. Secondly, a noteworthy difference between such sub-dimensions of the leisure satisfaction scale as psychological, educational, aesthetic ones and relaxation concerning the respondents' age was found. The other two sub-dimensions for leisure satisfaction, i.e. social and physiological factors were found to be statistically insignificant. Two sub-dimensions from the addiction to social media scale

(functional deterioration and control difficulty and deprivation) were found to be significant and only social isolation was not statistically significant. Finally, a noteworthy negative relationship was revealed between leisure satisfaction and addiction to social media.

STATEMENT OF ETHICS

This study was conducted in accordance with the World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki. The study protocol was reviewed and approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the Department of Business Administration (25 May 2023, Quality Assurance, LFU, Erbil, Iraq). All participants provided written informed consent to participate in this study.

DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS

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Sport fans using social media: A study on celebrity sports fans

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Fani sportu korzystający z mediów społecznościowych: badanie dotyczące fanów gwiazd sportu

Streszczenie

Media społecznościowe stały się bardzo ważną platformą dla fanów sportu, sportowców, klubów i drużyn. Niniejsze badanie stanowi kompleksowy przegląd rozwoju badań nad mediami społecznościowymi, jaki nastąpił w ostatniej dekadzie, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem sposobu, w jaki fani sportu wykorzystują tę technologię do realizowania swoich zainteresowań. Celem ba-

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dania jest przyjrzenie się, w jaki sposób fani sportu korzystają z mediów społecznościowych, aby nawiązać kontakt ze swoimi ulubionymi sportowcami i drużynami, identyfikacja odpowiednich teorii i koncepcji wyjaśniających znaczenie mediów społecznościowych dla fanów sportu oraz analiza zachowań i interakcji fanów sportu w mediach społecznościowych. Na podstawie przeglądu 29 wybranych artykułów badanie wykazało, że media społecznościowe służą fanom jako środek wyrażania ich uwielbienia dla danej gwiazdy, a ich tożsamość i interakcje w mediach społecznościowych są określone przez teorię użytkowania i gratyfikacji, która jest powszechnie stosowana w badaniach skupiających się na fanach i mediach społecznościowych. Z badania wynika także, że wśród fanów pojawił się feminizm sportowy.

Chociaż przypadki rasistowskich komentarzy i zachowań wśród zagorzałych kibiców pozostają niewątpliwym minusem ich aktywności, niezwykle istotne jest zbadanie znaczenia umiejętności cyfrowych wśród fanów sportu.

Słowa kluczowe: fandom, fani celebrytów, fani sportu, media społecznościowe.

Abstract

Social media has become an essential platform for sports fans, athletes, clubs, and teams. This study provides a comprehensive review of the last decade's research developments in social media, with a particular focus on how sports fans utilize this technology to engage with their interests. The study's objectives are to explore how sports fans use social media to connect with their favorite athletes and teams, identify relevant theories and concepts that explain the significance of social media for sports fans, and analyze sports fans' behavior and interactions on social media. Based on a review of 29 selected articles, the study finds that social media serves as a means for fans to express their fandom and that their identities and interactions on social media are framed by use and gratification theory, which is commonly employed in fan and social media research. Additionally, the study reveals that sports feminism has emerged among fans. While instances of racist comments and behavior among diehard fans remain a downside, it is crucial to investigate the importance of digital literacy among sports fans.

Keywords: fandom, celebrity fans, sports fans, social media.

Introduction

Social media has become a prevalent medium for fans to connect with their idols, offering advantages that cultivate commitment and loyalty (M. Kim & Kim, 2020). Fans' commitment and loyalty have become a new aspect in celebrity culture promoted by social media (a new celebrity culture) (Redhead, 2019). This phenomenon was previously promoted by the mass media and newspapers (Owens, 2016). John Street defines a celebrity as a person who speaks out about politics and claims the right to represent people (Street, 2004). In the new era of social media, loyal fans create hashtags (#) and trending. The positive impact on fans' lives is mediated by attitudes and motivation to use social media (Yuan et al., 2016), specifically as a personal factor in terms of individual fantasies (Liebers & Straub, 2020). Attitudes, motivations, and fan fantasies are then filled with self-disclosure of idol figures on their social media accounts. Self-disclosure

related to work, personal life with friends and family, and fans' retweeting behavior on social media has influenced parasocial interactions with their idol figures (Kim & Song, 2016).

Social media is important for sports fans and idols (Yoo, 2021). The presence of social media (i.e. Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter) makes their relationship even closer. Idols use it as a channel to communicate with their fans (Filo et al., 2015). Posts, tweets, or comments published as a branding tool display a positive image, so building closeness with old fans and attracting new fans are significant. Besides, a good account management will benefit them by incorporating advertisements and business (Korzynski & Paniagua, 2016). For example, the social media accounts of Lionel Messi and Cristiano Ronaldo bring fans closer to their idols. There are several reasons and motivations for sports fans to follow their idols on social media. They get fun and friendship, thus they can participate in conveying voices, and share information with other fans (Vimieiro, 2018).

Loneliness is a factor causing fans to continue to follow their idols on social media (Kim et al., 2019). In addition to personality factors, it is more concerned with the type and clarity of content shared by celebrities (Annamalai et al., 2021). The clarity of content shared by idols contributes to fan engagement, i.e. likes, comments, shares, and positive responses. Fascination with fans appears to be strongest in early adolescence (Brooks, 2021). This period is justified because teenagers are looking for idols other than their parents in the process of forming their own identity.

Social media mediation as parasocial interaction and celebrity worship influence fans' attitudes toward brands, advertisements, and shopping intentions (Aw & Chuah, 2021; Rachmattie et al., 2022; Singh & Banerjee, 2019). The idols on social media are considered proven to influence fans in their decision to repurchase products, support brands and products they recommend (Kim et al., 2015; Yuan et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2020), including sports ones (Sokolova & Perez, 2021). Social media mediation with idols also continues when a given idol dies. When they pass away, it is not only grief and sorrow that fans will experience but also the importance of maintaining health to avoid what happened to their idol (Cohen & Hoffner, 2016).

Fan loyalty to idols is interesting to study, especially as far as sports fans are concerned and how social media mediates them. The growth of social media has facilitated for sports fans accessing information about their idols, which is viewed positively in increasing interpersonal relationships with idols as well as supporting sports teams (MacPherson & Kerr, 2019; Stavros et al., 2014). For this reason, social media is a means of interaction between fans, idols, and sports teams in terms of reciprocity.

Nowadays, fans have new channels of social media to interact with their idols through short message service (SMS), chat, direct messaging (DM), inbox,

live streaming, etc. Social media channels have transformed media technology and triggered a shift in digital practices (Sturm, 2020). Previously, media (i.e. television) were seen as semi-participatory as far as fans and idols were concerned. They were regarded as “passive” subjects in this one-way communication. YouTube is the evidence of migration to this new media, coupled with the characteristics of the current younger generation of digital natives (Kuyucu, 2019; Tkalac Verčič & Verčič, 2013). Furthermore, it can be discerned in fans’ various activities, their identity, and fandoms located in the media channels that they can reach.

Fans and fandoms are those who always follow their idols that could be both sportspeople and activists (Gray et al., 2017). The concept of fans which was previously viewed by the media as passive has now shifted to being active and engaged in critical fan practices. The shift in fandom practices gave rise to two spaces, namely “offline” and “online”(Woods & Ludvigsen, 2021). This is because social media provides space for fandoms to channel their interactions and identities. Previously, fandoms met and gathered in groups limited in number, but now the internet network expands fandom groups so that several sports teams have foreign fans. It is not only a limited group that they have, but also a larger range of fans.

The idol identity can be explained by social identity theory (Humphries & Kucek, 2019). Those who claim to be fans highlight their identity more than others (fanatics). The fandom that develops through network interaction and social integration can have its origins in the role of fans’ environment (i.e. parents) (Tinson et al., 2017). Parenting patterns can also be closely related with fandom identity similarities. For example, parents who attend their favorite team’s soccer match involve their children in watching and enjoying the game. On the other hand, fandom practices are gender biased (McInroy & Craig, 2018; Poczta & Malchrowicz-Moško, 2019). This can make it difficult for some to participate and explore their idol’s identity.

Social media is a very useful channel for fans to interact and show their fandom identity. On the other hand, it has disadvantages for fans. Previous research has explained that social media can cause conflict (Matang et al., 2022), both personal and interpersonal. Fans can get addicted, which leads to a conflict with their parents. Another study also emphasizes that conflicts may occur due to negative comment disputes among fans on social media, even racist attacks from fellow football fans (Cleland, 2013; Ilhan et al., 2018).

Using various descriptions of fans, fandoms, and social media mediation, this study attempted to investigate how sports fans use social media to connect with their idols and their favorite sports teams, which theories and concepts can explain the importance of social media for sports fans, and the interaction and behavior of sports fans on social media.

Methods

This study used a literature review (Bowden-Green et al., 2021; Sharma & Gupta, 2021). Articles are searched from the big five databases (Elsevier, Springer-Verlag, Taylor and Francis, John Wiley and Sons, and Sage Publications). Articles in English and Publication date from 2011-2021. The following search keyword topics were used: “fan” AND “social media” OR “fans” AND “social media” OR “fandom” AND “social media” OR “Sport fan” AND “social media” OR “Sports fans” AND “social media” OR “Sport fandom” AND “social media” OR “celebrity” AND “social media”. The search results as shown in Fig. 1. N = 29 was the final search result with the exception of articles not included in the topic of Sports Fans and social media and excluded articles published before 2011. Table 1 is the result of the identification of fans and social media by bringing up various themes and theories that are used in fan research and social media. The coding of the study sub-themes shows the links and relationships that had similar findings and study variables for sports fans and social media. The results and findings are discussed further.

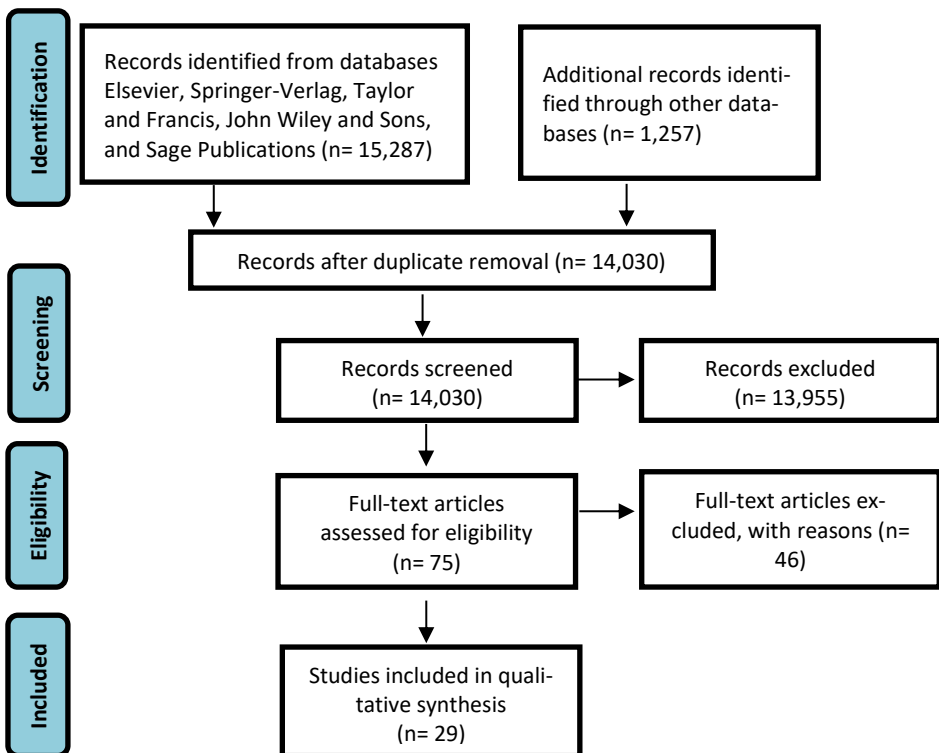


Fig. 1

PRISMA flow diagram

Source: own research.

Table 1
Identified themes for Fans and Social Media

N	Sub-theme	Code	Theory	
Sturm (2020)	Fan engagement	Digital sports fandom	Social identity theory	
Annamalai, et al. (2021)		Fan attachment		
Zadeh (2021)		Interaction and engagement through social media content		
Checchinato, et al. (2015)	Football clubs and fans			
Mudrick, et al. (2016)	Social media on fan reactions	Fans with team identification		
Fan, et al. (2020)		Fan identification		
Cranmer, et al. (2019)				
Vale & Fernandes (2018)	Driving fan engagement	Sports fans' engagement with clubs on social media		Uses and Gratifications
Kim, et al. (2021)	Twitter followers			
Levental, et al. (2016)	Fans interacting			Braithwaite's Theory
Cleland (2014)		Racist fans		
MacPherson & Kerr (2021)	Fans' responses	Negative consequences of interactions on social media		
Avalos, & Dori-Hacohen (2018)		Criticism and consensus		
Fenton, et al. (2021)				
Toffoletti, et al. (2021)	Female sports fans	Female fandom	Theories of social capital	
Kunert (2021)				
Pavlidis, et al. (2020)		Female fans' experience		
Gong & Wang (2021)	Sports fans' behavior while using social media	Women displaying their fandom on social media	Uses and gratifications	
Williams, et al. (2014)				
Toder-Alon, et al. (2019)	Sports fans	Old fans	Theory of interpersonal behavior	
Kim, Cho, & Kim (2021)		Using #hashtags		
Clavio & Walsh (2014)				
Spinda & Puckette (2018)	Fan following	Sports fans' use of social media	Uses and gratifications	
Wakefield & Bennett (2018)	Sports fans' experience			
Stavros, et al. (2014)	Sports fans' motivations	Fans' motivations to engage and interact		
Billings, et al. (2017)				
Jackson & Thaker (2021)	Sport fans' reactions	Fan loyalty		
Wulf, et al. (2017)	Social media professionals			
Parganas, et al. (2015)		Sports brands		

Source: own research.

Results and Discussion

The Relationship between Sports Fans and Fandom, and the Presence of Social Media

There are three powers of social media (Korzynski & Paniagua, 2016). Firstly, it is the power of information. Personally, idols can convey information quickly through posts and live on their accounts. After the game, idols convey emotions, feelings of happiness or sadness, while the confirmation of club transfer and some important information is delivered to fans. Fans capture the moment by sharing information with other fans (Kim et al., 2019). Secondly, it is the power of interaction. The power of interaction can be seen in the number of likes and comments posted by idols. Idols can also perform live online interaction with fans. Thirdly, it is the power of inspiration. The success stories of the sports figures such as Lionel Messi and Cristiano Ronaldo are posted on social media, providing an inspiration for their fans to follow the success of their idols.

The relationship between sports fans and idols is getting stronger with the presence of social media. Pica-Smith provides an example of the COVID-19 times (Pica-Smith et al., 2019). On social media, idols fostered support for fans and adherence to public health, welfare, and community life. They shared how they had overcome the pandemic and hoped for a better future. The success of a sports celebrity is building relationships with their fans. Finally, it can lead to mobilizing fans into forms of activism and philanthropy (Hayat et al., 2020), making sports fans and idols realize their power to drive change as citizens.

The contribution of social media to fostering relationships between sports fans and idols (Filo et al., 2015) increases parasocial interactions with idols (Kim & Song, 2016). Interactions that go well for both parties create a closer psychological relationship. Then, psychological friendship increases the loyalty of sports fans. Fans' loyalty is a motivation for idols to make the best contributions. The presence of social media makes the relationship between sports fans and idols even closer (Korzynski & Paniagua, 2016).

Sports Fans Using Social Media

The development of social media has given sports fans an opportunity to connect with their favorite idols and teams (Vale & Fernandes, 2017). Various platforms make it easier for sports fans to observe their idols' daily activities and allow them to express their identities as fans and fandoms (Mudrick et al., 2016). They follow their idols' and sports teams' social media accounts as a form of identity, expression, and interaction (Kim et al., 2021). It is natural for the social media accounts of idol figures and sports teams to have many followers. On these social media accounts, fans and fandoms gather to interact and get information.

Sports fans use social media to follow their idols' and sports teams' social media accounts. It is a form of their fandom identity and the way to get the latest information that can be seen in uploaded idols' and sports teams' accounts. Information comes not only from idols' and sports teams' social media accounts but can also be obtained in the form of hashtags (Kim et al., 2019). Information in hashtags (#) is usually popular on social media. This kind of information is a way of conveying the news to fellow fandoms. It develops the identity of fellow fandoms and shares information so that others are not left out.

The results of the study reveal that the motive in following idols' and teams' social media accounts is convenience and comfort in providing information (Spinda & Puckette, 2017). In addition, the motivation of sports fans to follow their idols' and teams' social media accounts is entertainment, integration, and social interaction, as well as identity as a fandom (Vale & Fernandes, 2017). The need for information is a relatively new aspect when it comes to social media. This is because social media conveys information directly and in real-time quickly. As evidence, social media platforms (i.e. Facebook, Instagram, and YouTube) provide live streaming services. Idols can immediately greet their fans, build relationships, and display their surroundings and activities. On idols' and sports teams' social media accounts two-way communication can also be built.

Traditionally, sports celebrities communicated with fans through television, radio, and newspapers. In the modern context, it is a new celebrity culture flourishing through social media (Coppa, 2013; Redhead, 2019). Idols promote opinions, goals, and values to their fans and society. Likewise, communication and interaction between idols and fans is a clear illustration of parasocial theory. This is an important role of social media for fans. Fans can continue to be connected with their idols, even though they are limited by region, geography, and country. In this case, various theories and concepts can explain why sports fans use social media.

Theories on Sports Fans and Social Media Studies

Various theories are used to explain the phenomenon of fans using social media. These theories are social identity theory, Braithwaite's Theory, Theories of social capital, Theory of interpersonal behavior, and Uses and Gratifications Theory (U&G). The last theory seems to be the one that researchers often use in their studies. U&G is a commonly used theory in exploring social media use (Ferris et al., 2021; Ifinedo, 2016; Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008). The argument for the importance of using U&G theory in social media research is that this theory is relevant to both conventional and modern media. Ruggiero argued that U&G theory always provides up-to-date theoretical approaches to media, such as newspapers, radio, television, the internet, and today's media (i.e. social media) (Ruggiero, 2000).

The experts who often refer to U&G theory are Katz, Blumler, and Gurevitch. Their work *Uses and Gratifications Research* revealed several important assumptions of U&G. Firstly, there is a typology of audience satisfaction. Different media, content, material, or culture will produce a certain typology of audience satisfaction. Media is a place to escape from routine, release emotions, and connect with other people, ranging from family, friends, nations, and others. Secondly, satisfaction and needs should be mentioned. Gratification research is close to the needs of the media in the sense that the media has been observed to satisfy audiences. Thirdly, the media is a source of gratification. Audience satisfaction can be obtained from three different sources, namely media content, media exposure, and social contexts that describe different media exposure situations. For example, the need to relax or kill time can be satisfied by watching television or reading. Further on, there is gratification and media attributes. Media with different or similar attributes are more likely to serve different or similar needs. Media attributes are perceptual or intrinsic. The extent to which consumers perceive media attributes and their intrinsic qualities is correlated with the pursuit of certain satisfaction which the audience needs. Psychological, sociological, and environmental factors determine media use. There can be also different sources of one's needs' satisfaction. Media content can serve various audience needs and functions, such as social functions, empathy, and escapism. Last but not least, one can mention gratification and effects. Certain media broadcast fictitious content that is intended to entertain but is not socially real. Of the various important assumptions that have been put forward, Katz and his colleagues finally suggest that a media enthusiast studies human needs to find out to what extent the media contributes to their creation and satisfaction (Katz et al., 1973).

U&G describes the processes and reasons for choosing certain media to meet users' needs (Ifinedo, 2016). In this case, social media is considered capable of meeting the personal and social needs of its users. They need to connect with old friends, make new friends, they need (to be) a source of information and entertainment, and connect with their favorite idols and teams (Clavio & Walsh, 2013; Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008; Vale & Fernandes, 2017). The need for social media is also seen as the users' satisfaction that will ultimately have an impact on the intention of sports fans to continue using social media (Bae, 2018). The use of social media is then seen as an identity in interacting with sports fans.

Apart from U&G theory, fans' identity can also be seen in hashtags. The theory of interpersonal behavior confirms that sports fans share information through social media (H. S. Kim et al., 2019). Triandis states that fan behavior is influenced by intentions, which in turn are influenced by perceived consequences, social factors, and influence (Triandis, 1977). Sports fans tend to use

social media to develop emotional connections. Hashtags demonstrate their motivation and intention to take on fan identity. The motivation to share information creates feelings of pleasure and joy. This motivation fosters sports fan engagement and engagement through social media content.

Identity, Interaction and Behavior of Sports Fans on Social Media

The interaction and engagement of sports fans through social media content contribute to developing the relationship between fans and their favorite teams (Annamalai et al., 2021; Zadeh, 2021). Social media's importance is also demonstrated by its ability to mobilize sports fans for civic movements, as well as in purchase intentions towards brand attributes that are broadcast on idols' and teams' official social media accounts (Checchinato et al., 2015; Levental et al., 2016; Parganas et al., 2015). Good relations between both parties, i.e. fans and idols, then become an advantage for third parties as attribute providers in marketing products on social media. For this reason, many business people conduct a partnership with idols and sports teams in marketing their products.

The content broadcast by idols and teams strengthens fan loyalty (Wulf et al., 2017). This is evident on sports fans' and teams' social media accounts before and after matches (Gong & Wang, 2021; Williams et al., 2014). The behavior pattern of fans reflects the value of friendship and expectations in their relationship. Sports fans who have positive experiences with their team will share them on their social media accounts (Wakefield & Bennett, 2018). When the fandom gets good results from their favorite team's match, they will broadcast it as a form of identification with the team's fandom. Reactions and responses can vary, i.e. could show support or disapproval (Cranmer et al., 2019). Sports fans will negotiate fandoms of successful idols and teams, otherwise, rarely reveal fandoms of idols and teams if they are not successful.

Sports fans who display their fandoms on social media are not always male. Several research results reveal that female sports fans use social media to demonstrate their fandoms (Pavlidis et al., 2020). Female sports fans use social media as a platform to facilitate the development of their fandom community, which is dominated by male sports fandom discourse. Feminism studies on sports fans finally opened up insights into the importance of reflecting the identity of female fandoms on social media (Fenton et al., 2021). Women's sports fandoms use social media to represent themselves in their fandoms. The presence of female fans may offer an alternative approach (Pope, 2018). It challenges the culture that sees sports fans as violent and only male. The identity of these female fans can be seen through the posts and interactions of fellow fans.

The interactions between sports fans and idols are not always positive. When idols perform actions that violate norms and morals, there will be a with-

drawal of support from their fans (Archer, 2021; MacPherson & Kerr, 2019). There have even been instances of idol-shaming criticism and expressions of disappointment shown by sports fans on social media (Fischer & Mohrman, 2020; Jackson & Thaker, 2021). On the other hand, interactions among fandoms are not always good either. The research results reveal that interaction of sports fans on social media can lead to racist attacks (Cleland, 2013) such as rejecting multiculturalism. Thus, racist cases are also present on social media (Fischer & Mohrman, 2020) making sports fans face the dark side of their engagement on the Internet. For this reason, it seems important to increase knowledge and understanding of particular phenomena regarding sports events so that social media can be used wisely.

Conclusion

Social media has become an important platform for sports fans to engage, interact and connect with their favorite idols and teams. It is a new means to show fandom identity and obtain the latest information by following idols' and fans' favorite teams' social media accounts. The phenomenon of sports fans using social media can be explained by Uses and Gratifications theory. The use of social media is chosen by sports fans because it has various perceived gratifications. The information obtained can be valid and provided directly because of the existence of official social media accounts for idols and teams so that two-way communication can occur between sports fans and their idols, as well as creating a place for fellow fandoms to display their identity.

The use of social media by sports fans is not always viewed positively. Embarrassing criticism of idols and teams, withdrawals of endorsements, and expressions of disappointment can also occur on social media, as well as racist incidents and brawls among sports fans. For this reason, further research is expected to provide knowledge and insight into the importance of being a healthy sports fan. In other words, the study of social media literacy (Celik et al., 2021; Festl, 2021; Nagle, 2018) must be realized by sports fans. The negative influence of freedom of expression on social media that harms oneself and others should be minimized. This literature study has weaknesses because the search for the studies was limited to five databases and journal articles published before 2011 were not included in this study.

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CZĘŚĆ III

UWARUNKOWANIA ZDROWIA,
POSTAWY PROZDROWOTNE, JAKOŚĆ ŻYCIA

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Systematic Review of EMG-Driven Robots in Lower Extremity Post-Stroke Rehabilitation

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Systematyczny przegląd piśmiennictwa dotyczący wykorzystania robotów EMG w rehabilitacji kończyny dolnej u osób po udarze mózgu

Streszczenie

Udar mózgu jest powszechnym problemem zdrowotnym na całym świecie, często powodującym deficyty kończyn dolnych i stanowiącym znaczne wyzwanie dla fizjoterapeutów w zakresie rehabilitacji chodu. Wraz z postępem technologicznym, opracowano nowe narzędzia rehabilitacyjne, takie jak roboty sterowane za pomocą elektromiografii (EMG). Jednakże, ze względu na ich wysoki koszt, konieczne jest zbadanie ich skuteczności w rehabilitacji. W związku z tym celem tej pracy było określenie skuteczności terapii z wykorzystaniem robotów sterowanych EMG w porów-

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naniu do konwencjonalnej fizjoterapii w rehabilitacji chodu u pacjentów po udarze mózgu. Korzystając z baz danych PubMed, Cochrane i PEDro przeprowadzono systematyczny przegląd literatury. Do przeglądu włączono randomizowane badania kliniczne (RCT), skupiające się na pacjentach po udarze mózgu z zaburzeniami chodu, w których do jego oceny wykorzystano kliniczne skale funkcjonalne. Do przeglądu włączono 3 badania, które nie wykazały istotnej poprawy w zakresie lokomocji, wyników funkcjonalnych ani parametrów równowagi wyłącznie przy użyciu robotów sterowanych EMG. Jednakże, gdy były one stosowane w połączeniu z konwencjonalną fizjoterapią, zaobserwowano poprawę tych wyników. Stwierdzono pozytywne efekty w zakresie spastyczności i obwodu uda. Podsumowując, roboty sterowane EMG mogą być skutecznym sposobem poprawy rehabilitacji chodu u pacjentów po udarze mózgu, konieczne jest jednak przeprowadzenie dalszych badań z określonym protokołem i wyjaśnieniem dostosowania do każdego pacjenta.

Słowa kluczowe: udar mózgu, hemipareza, sterowanie EMG, interwencja robotyczna, rehabilitacja chodu.

Abstract

Stroke is a prevalent health issue worldwide, often leading to lower extremity deficits and posing a significant challenge for physiotherapists in terms of gait rehabilitation. With the advent of technological advancements, new rehabilitation tools like EMG-driven robots have been developed. However, their effectiveness in rehabilitation needs to be explored due to their high cost. Therefore, this study aimed to determine whether EMG-driven robot therapy was more effective than conventional physiotherapy for gait rehabilitation in stroke patients. The researchers conducted a literature search using the PubMed, Cochrane, and PEDro databases and included only randomized controlled trials (RCTs) focused on stroke patients with gait impairment, assessed using clinical functional scales. The treatment compared EMG-driven robot therapy for the lower extremities with conventional therapy. The analysis included three studies, which showed no significant improvement in locomotion, functional outcomes, or balance parameters with EMG-driven robots alone. However, when combined with conventional physiotherapy, EMG-driven robots demonstrated improvement in these outcomes. Positive effects were observed for spasticity and thigh circumference. In conclusion, EMG-driven robots can be an effective way to improve gait rehabilitation in stroke patients; however, further research with a specific protocol and explanation of the adaptation to each patient is needed.

Keywords: Stroke; Hemiparesis; EMG-triggered; robot intervention; gait rehabilitation.

Introduction

With a growing size and aging population, stroke is a worldwide health problem and one of the leading causes of disability in adults, counting every year 12–15 million people (GBD 2019 Stroke Collaborators, 2021). Depending on whether the stroke is an ischemic or hemorrhagic stroke, the cause is, respectively, narrowing or complete blocking of the blood vessels, reducing blood and nutrient supply to the brain, leading to brain cell death, or a leak/rupture of a blood vessel leading to a hemorrhage. Hemiparesis is one of the main consequences of cerebrovascular accidents, resulting in lower limb impairment and

gait performance deficits (Kooncumchoo et al., 2021). In fact, only 30% of stroke survivors are able to walk independently (Kiper et al., 2020; Luque-Moreno et al., 2021). Therefore, gait rehabilitation is a major issue for physiotherapists in this type of patient (Louie et al., 2020; Luque-Moreno et al., 2016).

In recent years, a new form of neurorehabilitation, specific to stroke patients' gait cycle improvement, has been increasingly used in therapeutic management: electromyography-driven robotic training (Lewandowska-Sroka et al., 2021). This falls under the category of exoskeletons defined by Gorgey et al. (2019) as wearable robotic units aimed at restoring locomotion (Gorgey et al., 2019). This specific type of robot captures the EMG signal of the muscles and thus helps the patient perform a movement. Due to the active participation of the individual, the sensorimotor network shows significantly higher activation than if the movement is performed passively, which allows learning how to use these preserved paths (Kiper et al., 2016; Lewandowska-Sroka et al., 2021). EMG-driven robots can differ in the way the signal is recorded; some of them use superficial EMG signals with non-invasive electrodes while others use needles and fine wires, which can record deeper muscle signals (Chowdhury et al., 2013). Some examples of EMG-driven exoskeletons used for the rehabilitation of stroke are the Hybrid Assistive Limb (HAL) and the LUNA EMG robot (Nakajima et al., 2021; Oleksy et al., 2022). Physiotherapists may wonder if these new expensive devices could be efficiently implemented for the rehabilitation of this major public health problem and if their effectiveness would be worth their financial cost.

Therefore, the aim of this review was to investigate the current literature on the effectiveness of EMG-driven robots for gait management in the physiotherapy treatment of stroke patients. The research question was: "In adult post-stroke hemiparetic patients, what is the effect of EMG-driven robots on gait rehabilitation compared to conventional physiotherapy training (CPT)?"

Methods

A systematic literature search was conducted in February 2022 using three databases: PubMed, Cochrane trials, and PEDro. Study selection was performed following the PRISMA guidelines (Page et al., 2021) and is summarized in the PRISMA flow diagram presented in Figure 1. We formulated the terms for Population, Intervention, Comparison, Outcomes, and study design (PICOs) framework as follows:

- Population: Stroke patients;
- Intervention: EMG-robot, Exoskeleton;
- Comparison: Conventional physiotherapy rehabilitation;

- Outcomes: 6-Minute Walking Test (6MWT), Functional Ambulatory Categories (FAC), Time-up and Go (TUG) test and the Berg Balance Scale (BBS);
- Study design: Randomized Controlled Trial (RCT).

Boolean operators and key terms were used to build search strategies. The ways in which the key terms were associated to form the search strategies are presented in Table A1. The search was limited to peer-reviewed articles published in English and involving human subjects. No restrictions regarding publication dates were applied. Two reviewers conducted the search, and any disagreements were resolved by a third one.

Studies were included based on the following inclusion criteria: all post-stroke patients were accepted, regardless of the stage or type of stroke; EMG-driven robot for a lower limb must be the intervention; the intervention needs to be compared to CPT and at least one of the selected (6 MWT, TUG, BBS, and FAC) outcomes were present (Alghadir et al., 2018; Flansbjerg et al., 2005; Mehrholz et al., 2007). Studies were excluded if they included patients with traumatic brain injury or spinal cord injury and if the robot was used for the upper limb.

Using version 2 of the Cochrane risk of bias tool for randomized trials (RoB 2), two independent reviewers assessed the quality of the studies included in the analysis (Sterne et al., 2019). The risk of bias assessment encompassed five criteria, which were: random sequence generation and allocation concealment (randomization bias), blinding of participants and personnel (performance bias), blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias), incomplete outcome data (attrition bias), selective reporting (reporting bias), and overall bias.

Results

Out of 379 identified records, 22 were deemed eligible for screening and ultimately, 3 were included in the review (Figure 1). Two studies evaluated the effectiveness of the HAL robot device (Sczesny-Kaiser et al., 2019; Wall et al., 2020), while another study investigated the use of the LUNA EMG robot as a rehabilitation device (Lewandowska-Sroka et al., 2021). Table 1 illustrates the characteristics of the included studies.

Both studies which evaluated the use of the HAL robot found no significant differences between the intervention and control groups for any of the measured outcomes (Sczesny-Kaiser et al., 2019; Wall et al., 2020). In the study conducted by Lewandowska-Sroka et al. (2021), Bayesian statistics were used to compare LUNA EMG robot and control exercises (Lewandowska-Sroka et al., 2021). The EMG-driven robotic training group had a significantly higher reduction in spasticity of the knee flexors and extensors. Another main difference observed was in thigh circumference measurements, where there was a credible

increase with LUNA EMG robot training (Lewandowska-Sroka et al., 2021). Although both groups showed improvement in their TUG scores, there was no significant difference between them.

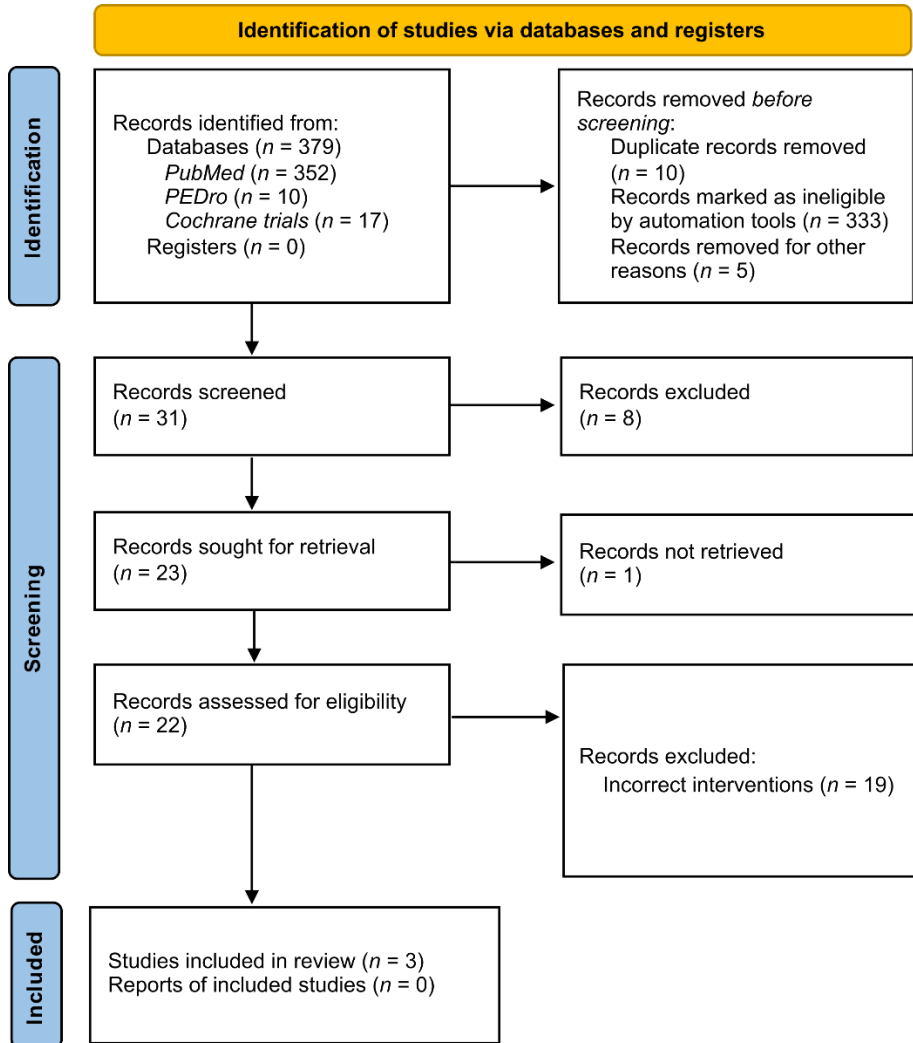


Figure 1
PRISMA flow diagram

Table 1
 Characteristics of the included studies

Article	Sczesny-Kaiser et al. (2019)	Wall et al. (2020)	Lewandowska-Sroka et al. (2021)
Participants	<p>Description: Ambulatory, chronic stroke patients with incomplete hemiparesis after a single incident of an ischemic or a hemorrhagic stroke</p> <p>Number of participants/studies: 18</p> <p>Sampling procedure: Randomly assigned to Group 1 and Group 2 using a computer-generated list</p> <p>Age: 18 to 75 years old</p> <p>Gender: Male and Female</p>	<p>Description: Subacute stroke patients with an inability to walk or in need of continuous manual support to walk due to legs paresis</p> <p>Number of participants/studies: 33</p> <p>Sampling procedure: A nurse, not otherwise involved in the study, manually randomized the patients according to a block design to either incorporated HAL training or CGT only</p> <p>Age: 51 (Mean age)</p> <p>Gender: Male and Female</p>	<p>Description: Patients with an impaired motor function and gait after an ischemic subacute stroke</p> <p>Number of participants: 60</p> <p>Sampling procedure: All the participants evenly distributed regarding their gender or age and no obvious similarities between groups noticed</p> <p>Age: 66.8 (Mean age)</p> <p>Gender: Male and Female</p>
Drop-out	No drop-out but patient number 10 missed 2 sessions of conventional PT because of logistic trouble resulting in 28 sessions.	2 patients were lost to follow up (at T3), both in the CONV group, due to private or medical factors.	11 patients have been disqualified during study (3- absenteeism over 10% of training, 5- shorter than 4 weeks, 3-another stroke episode during the research)
Interventions	Intervention duration: 6 weeks	Intervention duration: 4 weeks	Intervention duration: 6 weeks
Name-Treatment Category	<p>Follow-up: at baseline, at crossover and at the end of the study.</p> <p>HAL-BWSTT (intervention) group: Exoskeleton</p> <p>30-min individual training sessions, 5X/we</p> <p>CPT (control) group – Mixed intervention with Bobath’s concept, PNF, motor (re)learning programs</p> <p>30-45-min individual training sessions, 5X/we</p>	<p>Follow-up: at baseline, after the intervention and 6 months after stroke</p> <p>HAL (intervention) group – Gait training with HAL 90-min training session, 4X/we</p> <p>CGT (control) group – Training of motor function in the upper and lower extremity, trunk control, transferring oneself and gait</p> <p>30-60min training sessions, 5 X/we</p>	<p>Follow-up: at baseline, at weeks 2, 4 and 6.</p> <p>Robot (intervention) group – Individual standard physiotherapy (kinesiotherapy, physical therapy, classical lower limb massage) and rehabilitation with robot Luna EMG 90-120-min training session, 5X/we</p> <p>Control group – Individual standard physiotherapy (kinesiotherapy, physical therapy, classical lower limb massage) + use of a lower limb rotor 90–120-min training session, 5X/we</p>
Outcomes Measures	<p>Primary outcome: Walking time (10MWT), Time (TUG), Distance (6MWT)</p> <p>Secondary outcome: FAC, BBS</p>	<p>Primary outcome: FAC</p> <p>Secondary outcome: Fugl-Meyer Assessment, 2MWT, BBS, BI</p>	<p>Primary outcome: TUG, Ashworth scale, Tight circumference, Lovett scale assessment, ROM</p>
Results	Walking, functional and balance metrics → No difference between both groups	Walking, movement function, self-selected walking speed, balance, self-care → No significant difference	<p>↑ in both groups</p> <p>Better ↑ spasticity + thigh circumference: Robotic group</p>

Abbreviations: Hybrid Assistive Limb (HAL); Conventional Physiotherapy (CPT); Body-weight supported treadmill training (BWSTT); 10-Minute Walking Test (10MWT), 6-Minute Walking Test (6MWT), Functional Ambulatory Categories (FAC); Berg-Balance Scale (BBS); Conventional Gait Training (CGT); 2-Minute Walking Test (2MWT); Range of Motion (ROM); ↑ = improvement

Figure 2 illustrates the results of the risk of bias assessment. Of the included studies, two were classified as having an overall bias of 'some concerns', while one was classified as having 'high' bias. Two studies had 'some concerns' regarding allocation concealment, as the concealment method was either not described or lacked sufficient detail for judgment. Additionally, two studies had 'some concerns' about deviation from the intended intervention, while one study had a 'high' risk of bias due to missing outcome data.

		Risk of bias domains					Overall
		D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	
Study	Szczesny-Kaiser et al. (2019)	-	+	+	+	+	-
	Wall et al. (2020)	+	-	+	+	+	-
	Lewandowska-Sroka et al. (2021)	-	-	X	+	+	X

Domains:
D1: Bias arising from the randomization process.
D2: Bias due to deviations from intended intervention.
D3: Bias due to missing outcome data.
D4: Bias in measurement of the outcome.
D5: Bias in selection of the reported result.




Judgement
 High
 Some concerns
 Low

Figure 2
Risk of bias assessment results

Discussion

Summary of evidence

The aim of the systematic review was to determine whether EMG-driven robot therapy is more effective than conventional physiotherapy. Finally, only three articles were included in this publication. Each of them was randomized, in which a total of 111 patients were studied. The treatment duration was 4 to 6 weeks. A follow-up study was made after each intervention. In two of the three studies, HAL training was incorporated as part of the rehabilitation program. In one study LUNA EMG robotic device was used as an intervention tool. In the control groups rehabilitation was based on mixed intervention with Bobath's concept, PNF, motor (re)learning programs, training of motor function in the upper and lower extremity, trunk control, transferring oneself and gait, standard physiotherapy and lower limb rotor exercises. Two of the three studies revealed no significant difference between groups in walking tests (10MWT, 6MWT, 2MWT). There was no significant difference between groups in the functional correlate to balance and fall risk metrics either. In the study about using EMG-triggered therapy in rehabilitation of stroke patients, both proposed rehabilitation protocols significantly improved the patients' condition regarding all meas-

ured outcomes, but the spasticity and thigh circumference improved significantly better in the robotic group in comparison to controls.

Overall, the HAL training was not found to be significantly more effective than mixed-approach CPT for improving walking, functional and balance metrics in ambulatory, chronic stroke patients (Sczesny-Kaiser et al., 2019). For subacute stroke patients, no significant effect of HAL training was found when compared with CGT for improving lower limb function (Wall et al., 2020). As for the other type of EMG-driven robot, LUNA EMG, which was used in combination with standard physiotherapy, was found to be superior to standard physiotherapy alone for improving gait function. However, it was better than standard physiotherapy alone for reducing spasticity and increasing thigh circumference, which are two parameters that can influence gait (Lewandowska-Sroka et al., 2021).

All three studies used EMG-driven robots, where sEMG surface was used to detect the electromyography signals. In these studies, two out of three showed that the effectiveness of EMG-driven robot rehabilitation alone in improving lower limb function in stroke patients is questionable due to the lack of significant results. Poor quality of life is a major cause of stroke; therefore, we can assume that these patients are likely to carry a more significant quantity of subcutaneous tissue and thus alter the signals retrieved, which could explain the results. We cannot neglect the fact that the use of sEMG may not be the most reliable for this type of patient (Kiper et al., 2021). In fact, sEMG highly depends on the depth of subcutaneous tissue; the more fat the patient has, the less accurate the signal is (Türker, 1993). Moreover, this type of EMG also requires very good contact with the skin to work optimally, contrary to intramuscular EMG. They are also known to have difficulty in targeting a specific muscle, especially when it is not superficial (Türker, 1993).

It would be interesting to conduct further investigations on this subject regarding the exponential number of stroke survivors. These new technologies may have a greater impact on a certain type of stroke, at a certain stage, or on younger patients who may be more responsive. It is possible that an alternative method for retrieving EMG signals is more reliable. Because these new technologies are expensive, it is necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of EMG-driven robots for stroke patients to determine whether they can be used for a larger number of stroke patients.

Limitation of the included studies

Some limitations were found at the level of the studies. First, the design of Sczesny-Kaiser et al. (2019) study can be considered a limitation because it is a crossover design where a “washout” period is present. In this case, statistical analysis was performed to ensure no carryover effects. However, there is no

certainty regarding the possibility of maintaining the newly acquired motor skills, which could be an advantage for the second treatment phase of the crossover (Sczesny-Kaiser et al., 2019). Moreover, the crossover trials took more time, and if the participants did not complete all stages of the trial, the statistical analysis may be complicated (Wellek & Blettner, 2012).

Thus, having a small sample size decreased the statistical power of Sczesny-Kaiser et al. (2019) and Wall et al. (2020) articles results. In addition, the sample of Wall et al. (2020) study was not representative of the population because it was composed of a majority of men while stroke appears more frequently in an elderly population, especially in women (Ovbiagele & Nguyen-Huynh, 2011). Another major limitation in Wall et al. (2020) study was the difference in duration and session repetition per week between the HAL and CGT groups. Dropouts were reported in Wall et al. (2020) and Lewandowska-Sroka et al. (2021) studies; therefore, it decreased the statistical power of the studies.

At the level of review limitations, the fact that articles only in English could have led to missing interesting articles on this subject should be taken into account. In addition, there is a possibility that our search strategy could have also missed some articles; however, it was made to cover the maximum amount of literature possible about this topic. In addition, as all types and stages of stroke were included in this review, it was difficult to compare the results. Another limitation is the small number of articles included. Finally, the heterogeneity of the protocols and EMG-driven robots in the three studies make it difficult to compare the results obtained.

Conclusion

In summary, no relevant conclusion can be drawn about the effectiveness of EMG-driven robots alone for post-stroke patients' gait in comparison with conventional physiotherapy training, but it seems that a mixed approach combining both of them could be the most beneficial. However, the results of these studies need to be interpreted with caution as the sample sizes and participants enrolled may not be able to reflect their results to the entire population. Further studies should be conducted with larger sample sizes and more heterogeneous participants to increase the power of the study. Therefore, there is a need to conduct more studies like RCTs to evaluate the effectiveness of EMG-driven robots for lower limb rehabilitation in patients with different stages of stroke and with different types of EMG-driven robots. The next studies should focus on standardizing testing protocols so that we can understand how much therapy is needed to improve a patient's functional condition.

Appendix

Table A1

Database search strategies on Cochrane, PubMed and PEDro

Research steps	Type of search terms	Results
Cochrane		
#1	MeSH descriptor: [Exoskeleton Device] explode all trees	48
#2	(EMG-driven robot): ti, ab, kw	11
#3	#1 OR #2	58
#4	(stroke): ti, ab, kw	61,269
#5	(„cerebrovascular accident“): ti, ab, kw	13,946
#6	#4 OR #5	64,027
#7	(gait): ti, ab, kw	11,006
#8	(lower limb): ti, ab, kw	13,569
#9	(walk): ti, ab, kw	34,342
#10	#7 OR #8 OR #9	49,975
#11	#3 AND #6 AND #10	17
PubMed		
1	(EMG robot* OR exoskeleton OR machine)	152,205
2	(stroke OR cerebrovascular accident)	395,097
3	(walk* OR gait)	263,170
4	(EMG robot* OR exoskeleton OR machine) AND (stroke OR cerebrovascular accident) AND (walk* OR gait)	352
PEDro		
1	Exoskeleton AND stroke AND walking	10

Abbreviations: ti, ab, kw: Searches the Title field, Abstract field, Keyword field

DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS

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CZĘŚĆ IV
TURYSTYKA I REKREACJA



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Construction of emergency snow shelters using the results of air, snow and ground temperature measurements

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Konstrukcja awaryjnych schronień śnieżnych z wykorzystaniem wyników pomiarów temperatury powietrza, śniegu i gruntu

Streszczenie

Niniejsza praca przedstawia wykorzystanie wyników pomiarów temperatury gruntu, śniegu i powietrza do konstrukcji prowizorycznych schronień ze śniegu. W Polsce w najzimniejszych miejscach (Tatry, Kotlina Orawska) wartości temperatury na kontakcie powierzchni gruntu z pokrywą śnieżną oscylują najczęściej w przedziale od 0°C do -3°C. Dlatego przy konstrukcji schronień śnież-

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nych nie powinno się zostawiać na gruncie wewnątrz schronienia śnieżnej warstwy izolacyjnej, która blokuje ogrzewanie jego wnętrza przez ciepło zgromadzone w gruncie. Bardzo duży wpływ na temperaturę we wnętrzu schronień śnieżnych ma wielkość otworu wejściowego i wysokość jego usytuowania. Im większy otwór i wyżej usytuowany w stosunku do podłoża, tym niższe wartości temperatury i większy pionowy gradient termiczny występują wewnątrz schronienia. Temperaturę w poprawnie skonstruowanym śnieżnym schronieniu reguluje się za pomocą przysłonięcia otworu wejściowego. Grubość ścian, a zwłaszcza stropu, nie powinna przekraczać 40 cm. Ściany o grubości 30 cm zapewniają wystarczającą termoizolację.

Słowa kluczowe: schronienia śnieżne, temperatura gruntu, temperatura pokrywy śnieżnej, ratownictwo górskie, turystyka wysokogórska, Kotlina Orawska, Tatry.

Abstract

This paper presents the use of ground, snow, and air temperature measurements for the construction of makeshift snow shelters. In Poland, in the coldest places (the Tatra Mountains, the Orava Basin) the temperature values at the contact of the ground surface with the snow cover usually oscillate in the range from 0°C to -3°C. Therefore, when constructing snow shelters, a snow insulation layer should not be left on the ground inside the shelter, which blocks the heating of the shelter interior by the heat accumulated in the ground. A very big influence on the temperature inside snow shelters is the size of the entrance opening and the height of its location. The larger the opening and the higher it is located in relation to the ground, the lower the temperature values and the greater the vertical thermal gradient occur inside the shelter. The temperature in a properly constructed snow shelter is regulated by covering the entrance hole. The thickness of the walls, and especially the roof of the shelter, should not exceed 40 cm. Walls with a thickness of 30 cm provide sufficient thermal insulation.

Keywords: snow shelters, ground temperature, snow cover temperature, mountain rescue, alpine tourism, the Orava Basin, the Tatra Mountains.

Introduction

The most research on the development of ground temperature and the depth of its freezing in the winter in Polish mountains has been conducted in the Tatra mountains. It was commenced over half a century ago by Hess (1963), Kłapa (1963, 1966) and Gerlach (1971). In 1994, the research on the winter ground temperature distribution and the occurrence of permafrost was conducted with the help of modern geophysical methods of BTS (the Bottom Temperature of Snowcover), vertical electrical sounding, electromagnetic, seismic and georadar sounding, infrared measurements, statistical modelling (Dobiński, 1996a, b, c, 1997a, 2011; Dec & Dobiński, 1997, 1998; Kędzia et al., 1988; Mościcki & Kędzia, 2001, 2002; Mościcki, 2008, 2010, 2011; Baranowski et al., 2004, 2005; Lamparski & Kędzia, 2007; Dobiński et al., 2008; Gądek & Kędzia, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009; Gądek & Leszkiewicz, 2010, 2012; Gądek et al., 2013). Although the research on the winter temperature distribution in the High Tatras is

continued with little pauses, its use is very sporadic. An example of practical use of this type of research was the evaluation of geotechnical conditions needed for the modernization works of the cable car to Kasprowy Wierch (Kotyrbka et al., 2004). Although this type of research can be practically used in many other areas of human activity in the mountains, it rarely happens.

An example of not using the results of ground temperature studies in our country is the way snow and snow-and-plant shelters are built. From the beginning of mountain rescue services and tourism, especially alpine one, the use of snow shelters serving to survive in difficult and dangerous weather conditions has been well-known (Simpson, 1992; Więckowski, 1998; Marasek, 2016, 2019, 2020). Many alpine tourists have survived an unexpected camping experience in the mountains only thanks to digging a snow cave, a type of snow shelter. Likewise, our army uses snow shelters during its training and activities in the mountains (among all, Bernabiuk, 2007; Rybak, 2021; Gruszczak, 1994; Dąbrowska, 2009; Pietraszek, 2013). Unfortunately, erecting such shelters has most often little to do with the conclusions drawn from the research on ground, snow and ground-level air temperature distribution in Polish mountains. The blame lies with an uncritical approach to many survival guides showing how the inhabitants of far-north regions, most often the Inuits, construct their snow shelters. Hence, the aim of this research is evaluating snow shelter constructions used so far and showing how they should be properly erected in relation to the results of the research on ground, snow and ground-level air temperature distribution. It is crucial to construct snow shelters properly as human health, and very often human life as well, depend on it.

State of the art

For many people, the winter season is a period of an intense activity, both professional (mountaineers, alpinists, climbing instructors, guides, mountain rescue teams' members, ski tour competitors, researchers, polar regions explorers, soldiers, etc.) and recreational one (high-mountain trekking, outdoor sports, climbing, winter tourism, etc.). In emergency situations, especially in high mountains, when the weather becomes extreme, there are exceptionally unfavourable conditions to survive. Strong winds, often coupled with a snowstorm and blizzard, significantly lower the apparent temperature. If an individual does not have proper clothing, they might suffer from hypothermia and freeze to death within a few hours (Uchmański, 1974). The only solution in this situation is building a proper shelter as fast as possible. Putting up a tent in strong wind is often impossible. Apart from that, a tent protects one from the wind but not from low temperature. The safest shelter, protecting both from the wind and low tem-

perature, is a snow one, or a snow-and-plant one. If, due to planning mistakes, an unexpected accident, the loss of camping equipment or a sudden change of weather conditions, one has to rely on their own resources, building a winter shelter might turn out to be the only way to survive. As many real-life examples show, oftentimes snow shelters have been used in extreme situations. The history of mountain climbing is peppered with instances of ascending unclimbed peaks when snow shelters let many alpinists and Himalayan mountaineers survive the night.

Many such cases were described by M. Więckowski (1998). According to the facts presented, the participants of an unsuccessful Austrian-German expedition to Nanga Parbat in 1934 spent difficult to survive nights in the snow. During another mountain expedition to Pobeda Peak in 1955, due to strong winds combined with a snowstorm, the Kazakhs lost their tents and to survive another night they had to dig a snow cave that could shelter their twelve-person team.

Polish Himalayan mountaineers have also used snow shelters during their mountain expeditions. During the first expeditions of Polish teams, Jerzy Kukuczka and Krzysztof Wielicki with their partners were forced several times to survive a night in a makeshift igloo or a snow cave (Kukuczka: in 1974 on McKinley, in 1985 on Dhaulagiri, in 1985 on Nanga Parbat, Wielicki: in 1989 on Lhotse) (Kortko & Pietraszewski, 2016). A contemporary successful mountain climber, A. Bielecki, also spent a few days in a snow cave when the weather turned extreme during his expedition in the Tian Shan in 2008 (Bielecki & Szczepański, 2017).

Professional climbers were not the only ones to use snow shelters. In 1986, on the western coast of the United States, in the Cascade Range, a group of school children with their guide were surprised with a sudden and extreme change in weather conditions. Due to their exhaustion, they were forced to stay in the mountains and seek shelter in a snow cave they dug (Więckowski, 1998). Similarly, in 1972, after climbing Mont Blanc, a group of English climbers was stuck on the mountain due to bad weather. They spent a few days in snow caves. Unfortunately, a long waiting time, soaked sleeping bags and exhaustion resulting from high altitude finally defeated the climbers. They were found dead by French guides (Więckowski, 1998).

Winter shelters are used not only for life saving purposes. Building snow caves might be included in the tactics of reaching summits. In order not to carry all the heavy equipment, some teams do not take tents with them, deciding to sleep in snow caves. This is what the Georgians did while climbing Pobeda Peak in 1981 (Więckowski, 1998). The same strategy was used by two British climbers during their ascent of a huge and dangerous wall of Siula Grande in the Andes (Simpson, 1988).

Using snow caves for survival is also practised in our contemporary times. In February 2016, two tourists did not reach the mountain shelter in the Five Polish

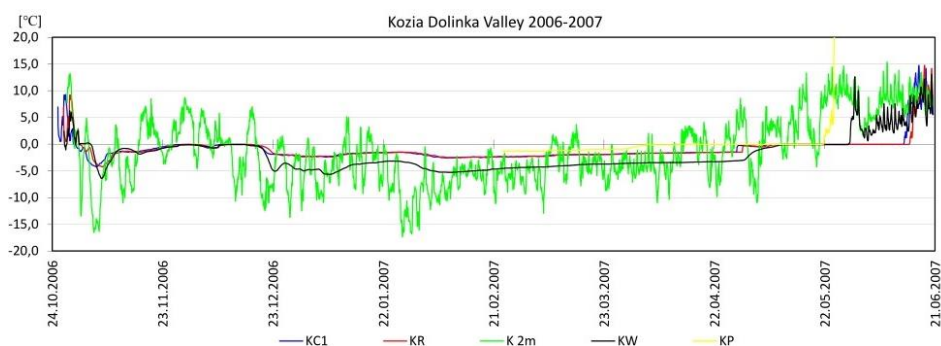
Lakes Valley. After a whole-night rescue action, mountain rescue team members reached the tourists who had dug a snow cave and survived in good shape (Marasek, 2016). In 2019, TOPR (Tatra Volunteer Search and Rescue) team members found a missing person and decided to dig a snow cave and safely spend the night there as the tourist was too weak to reach the shelter in unfavourable weather conditions. The next day she was transported to hospital by helicopter (Marasek, 2019). In December 2019, a group of four tourists was forced to stay in the Tatras for the night as the rescuers could not find them due to a raging blizzard. They survived thanks to digging a snow cave (Marasek, 2020). Likewise, three tourists who got stuck in the evening on Kopa Kondracka on 21 January 2022 rescued themselves by digging a snow cave. At night the temperature dropped to -17°C . The tourist spent the night in the cave and only the next day in the afternoon were they led down by the rescuers (Marasek, 2022).

As it is shown, one can find many examples of using snow shelters. There is a hypothetical question how many of them have not been described by professional literature. Additionally, it can be assumed that in many cases people lost their lives as due to lack of proper equipment or knowledge they did not construct appropriate shelters. It should be also emphasized that mountain tourism is gaining more and more followers, which the statistics of Tatra National Park clearly illustrate (tpn.pl, 2023).

While constructing snow shelters, people follow their own intuition or use instructions for shelter designs from survival guides written in majority by foreign authors (among all, Headquarters, Department of the Army, 1968, 1986, 2002, 2016; Jankowsky, 1986; U. S. Marine Corps, 1988; McManners, 1994; Darman, 1996; Graydon & Hanson 1997; Lewis, 1997; Marshall, 1997; Kočański, 1999, 2016; Wiseman, 1999, 2010; Fowler, 2005; Swedish Armed Forces, 2005; McNab, 2008a, b; McPherson, 2008; Rogers, 2012; Mastro, 2016). The biggest number of details pertaining to constructing such shelters can be found in military guides/ instructions of the Norwegian, Canadian and American Army (Chefen för Armén, 1988; Headquarters Defence Command Norway, 1989; Army et al., 1999; Department of the US Army, 2008; Norwegian School of Winter Warfare, 2010; The Finnish Defence Forces, 2017). In all shelters built from snow, the guides recommend leaving about a 30 cm layer of snow on the ground, serving as the floor, insulating from the influence of the frozen ground. At the entrance, there should be a big enough hollow in the snow floor to accumulate cold, i.e. heavier than warm, air. In foreign publications, this hollow is usually called “a trap for cold air” or “a cold air catcher”. This assumption is in accordance with an igloo construction erected by the Inuits, who tried to put their beds on a snow pulpit. In very cold areas, e.g. Alaska, north Canada, north Siberia or in some mountains, i.e. the Japanese Alps, the Himalayas where permafrost occurs and the ground temperature where it touches the bottom of the

snow cover reaches very low values of minus several °C, such a construction of a snow shelter proves effective (Ishicava, 2003; Nicolscy et al., 2016). However, as the research conducted by Gądka and Kędzia (2007, 2008, 2009), Kędzia (2004, 2006), Kędzia et al., (1988) and Mościcki and Kędzia (2001, 2002) showed, only in the Kozia Dolinka Valley where permafrost occurs the BTS measured in the 90s of the 20th century equalled $-8.0 \div -10.0^\circ\text{C}$. In the years to follow such a low temperature was not recorded any more (Fig. 1). In the most area of the Tatra Mountains, the BTS value oscillates between 0°C up to about -3.0°C . In snow shelters, the temperature between -1.0°C and -3.0°C is the most desired one. Above 0°C , the walls of the shelter, especially its roof, begin to melt. The temperature value below -3.0°C is not desired either as it does not significantly impact the structure of the shelter but makes the person inside unnecessarily suffer from hypothermia.

As the ground temperature where it touches the bottom of the snow cover in Polish mountains oscillates within the range of temperature values desired in snow shelters, one should ask a question if leaving a snow layer insulating from the ground is justified. What is more, Figure 2 shows that the temperature of the snow cover above the ground might have significantly lower values than at the ground level. Thus, it is one more reason which questions leaving a snow layer insulating from the ground in a snow shelter. To put an end to these doubts, the decision was taken to field test constructing snow and snow-and-plant shelters of various structure types (Fig. 3a, b, c, 4a, b, c).



Explanation of the places chosen: KC1 – talus cone at the foot of Kozie Czuby summit, KR – talus cone at the foot of Rysa Zaruskiego, K2m – air temperature at the height of 2 m on talus cone at the foot of Kozie Czuby, KW - talus cone at the foot Kozi Wierch summit (the place of permafrost occurrence), KP – the entrance to the Kozia Dolinka Valley.

Fig. 1

Ground temperature distribution in selected places in the Kozia Dolinka Valley in the cold period of the year

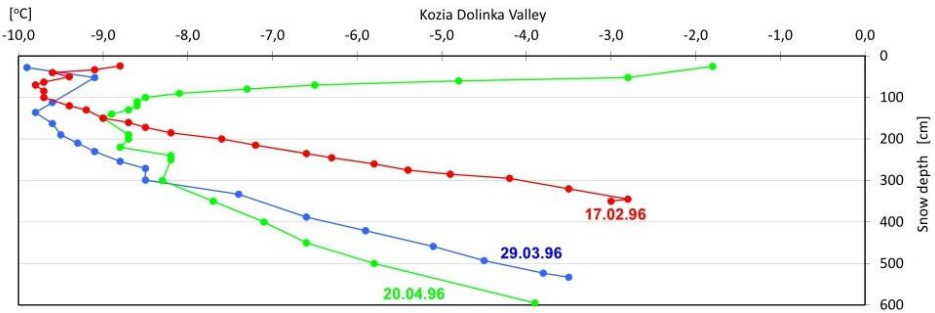


Fig. 2

Vertical temperature distribution in the snow cover in the Kozia Dolinka Valley on 17.02.1996, 29.03.1996, 20.04.1996 (Kędzia, 2005)

The area of the research and methods

Piekielnik, a place located on the outskirts of the Orava Basin, was selected as the research area. In the Orava-Nowy Targ Valley, especially in the winter, stagnant cold air accumulates and is responsible for temperature inversion (Hes, 1965). That is why the lowest minimal temperature values are not recorded on Tatra summits but in the valleys surrounding those summits. Hence the choice of the Orava Basin as the research area. It is at its bottom that ones of the lowest minimal temperature values in Poland are recorded. The research was conducted in the period of time from 16 to 18.01.2021.

As mid-forest clearings are characterised by lower minimal air temperature values than the forest itself (Molga, 1986), the shelters were built on one mid-forest clearing of slight ground inclination (Photo 1). Each of six shelters had an air hole in the roof and a very tight entrance, located just above the ground. Ground inclination favoured gravitational indoor ventilation. The shelter types (quinzhee and snow-and-plant ones) had to be chosen because of snow conditions – powdery snow of low thickness (Photos 2, 3). In Poland, only in some places (mainly in the mountains), and only for a short period of time there is a snow cover appropriate for building a traditional igloo. In his publication of 2015, Kędzia writes more about it. The wall thickness of constructed shelters equalled about 30 cm. In five shelters, there were two Onset HOBO automatic temperature gauges installed (Fig. 3a, b, 4a, b, c). One was placed a few centimetres under a snow roof, another one a few centimetres above the snow ground. The sixth shelter (Fig. 3c) had 4 temperature gauges installed. The first two were located at the entrance (at the roof and above the ground), and the other two were placed at the end of the shelter (also at the roof and above the ground). In order to record air temperature outside the shelters, one tempera-

ture gauge was placed at the border of the forest, on a spruce branch, from the northern side. The first sensor recorded air temperature at the height of about 20 cm above the snow cover, while the second one recorded air temperature at the height of about 200 cm above the snow cover. The temperature value was recorded by all the sensors every 10 minutes. Although the sensors were new, both before and after the research they were subject to calibration which showed that within the range of a few degrees below and above 0 °C the reading discrepancy was smaller than 0.2°C. Each research participant slept in their shelter for two nights. During the day, the shelters were left empty. Before dawn, when the research participants were sleeping in their shelters, the measurements were performed with the help of a thermal imaging camera. Apart from military purposes, the measurements were to prove that the shelters' structure was correct, mainly as far as their wall thickness was concerned. For the safety of the persons sleeping in the snow shelters, self-rescue tests for a person buried in a snow shelter were also organized for them. The aim of these tests was to obtain information on the safe maximum wall thickness of a snow shelter.



Photo 1

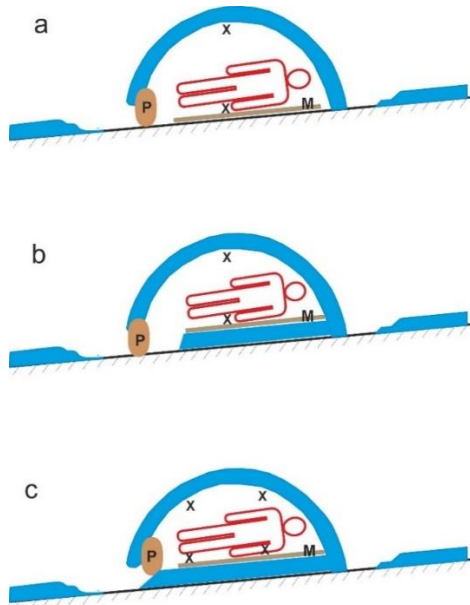
The place where the snow and snow-and-plant shelters were built (Photo: S. Kędzia 2021)



Photo 2
A quinzhee shelter type (Photo: S. Kędzia 2021)



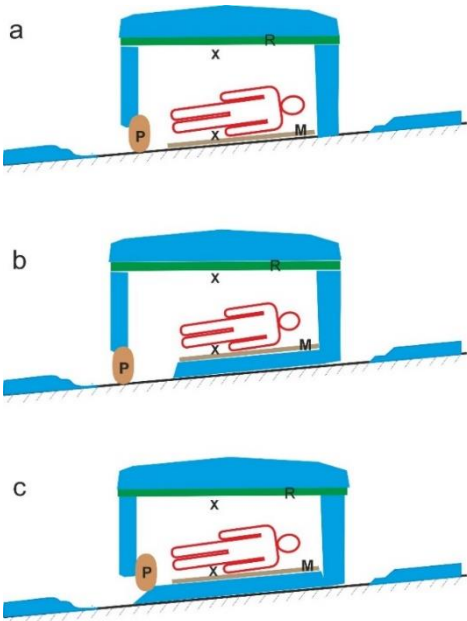
Photo 3
A snow-and-plant shelter (Photo: M. Kalita 2021)



The meaning of symbols: x – temperature sensors, P – backpack, M – mattress. The snow is marked in blue.

Fig. 3 →

Quinzhee (quizee) type shelters: a) without an insulating snow layer on the ground, b) with an insulating snow layer on the ground and the cold air catcher, c) with an insulating snow layer on the ground and without the cold air catcher



The meaning of symbols: x – temperature sensors, P – backpack, M – mattress, R – the roof layer built with coniferous tree branches covered with a space blanket and snow. The snow is marked in blue.

← Fig. 4

Plant-and-snow shelters: a) without an insulating snow layer on the ground, b) with an insulating snow layer on the ground and the cold air catcher, c) with an insulating snow layer on the ground and without the cold air catcher

Figures 5 and 6 show temperature distribution at the ground level in Piekelnik, in the place of the research. Temperature measurements were performed in two places. The temperature sensors were covered with a very thin 1–2 cm layer of the ground. In the winter season of 2019/2020, the temperature value dropped only slightly below 0 °C. It did not reach the value of -1.0 °C (Fig.

5) even once. During the next winter season of 2020/2021, the ground temperature reached its lowest values in the snowless period, i.e. in the first half of January and in March. When the snow covered the ground, the temperature value oscillated around 0 °C up to about 1.5 °C although the air temperature value at the height of 2 m over the snow cover dropped to about -20.0 °C.

The next figure (Fig. 7) illustrates the ground temperature distribution in the Kozia Dolinka Valley in the Tatra Mountains in the winter of 2020/2021. The measurement was carried out in two places situated at the height of about 1930 m above the sea level, below talus cones where permafrost occurs. Similarly to Piekienik, the thermistors were covered with a ground layer of about 1–2 cm. The lowest temperature value slightly below -10.0 °C was recorded at the turn of November and December, just before the formation of the snow cover. When the snow cover was on the ground, the lowest temperature reached the value of about -2.0 °C. At the turn of April and May the snow started to melt and the ground temperature equalled 0 °C up till mid-July when the snow in the measurement place completely melted.

The research conducted both in highly located Kozia Dolinka Valey in the Tatra Mountains and in one of the coldest places in Poland, i.e. the Orava-Nowy Targ Basin proves that the ground temperature during the occurrence of the snow cover most often oscillates within the range of 0 °C up to about -2.0°C. In some places where permafrost occurs in the Tatra Mountains, the ground temperature reaches lower values (Dobiński 1996a, b, c, 1997a, 2011; Kędzia et al., 1998; Kędzia, 2004, 2006; Mościcki & Kędzia, 2001, 2002; Gądek & Kędzia, 2008, 2009). However, these are very few places and not all of them are suitable for building snow shelters.

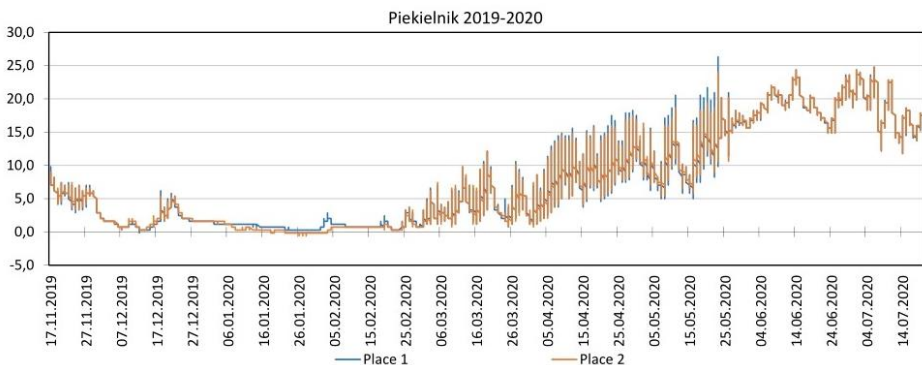


Fig. 5

Temperature distribution at the ground where the research was conducted in Piekienik

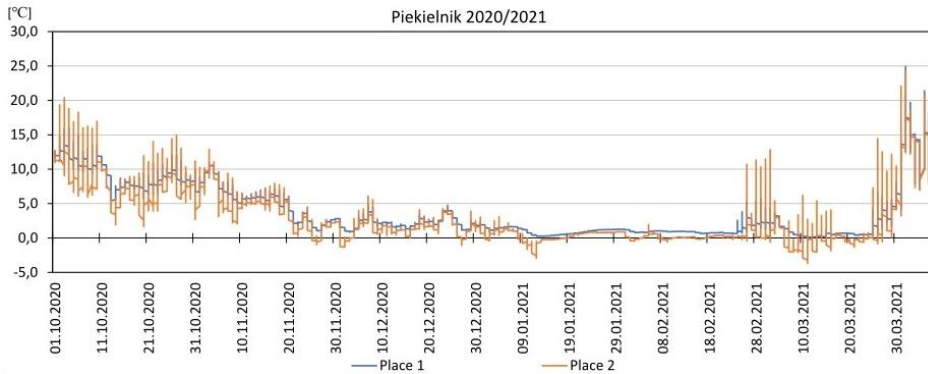


Fig. 6

Temperature distribution at the ground where the research was conducted in Piekielnik

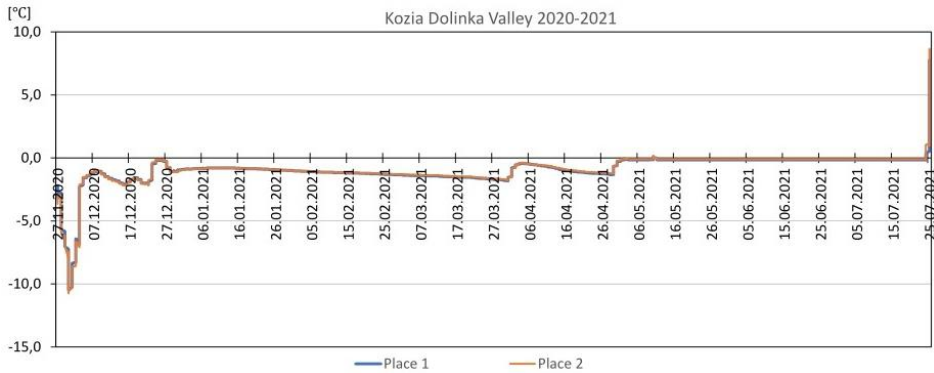


Fig. 7

Temperature distribution at the ground in the Kozia Dolinka Valley

The research results

Figure 8 presents the development of air temperature in a quinzhee shelter type, where the snow was removed from the ground. Temperature sensors were located in snow shelters after their construction, i.e. about 6 p.m. Meanwhile, one of the sensors was placed at the spruce branch. After installing the sensor in the shelter (Fig. 3a), the air temperature above the ground and under the roof oscillated within the range of about -5.0°C up to -6.0°C . When a given person entered the shelter and started to settle to sleep, the temperature under the roof rose to about 2.0°C while the temperature above the ground reached the value of about 0°C . After settling in one's sleeping bag and zipping it up, the temperature under the roof stayed at the level of about 0°C for the whole night. On the other hand, the temperature under the ground reached the value of about -2.5°C . At the same

time, the temperature outside the shelter oscillated within the range of about $-8.0 \div -9.0$ °C. During the whole night, the entrance was fully open. At about 9:30, the temperature value under the roof and above the ground rose again as the person got up. During the day, the entrance was fully open. Although the temperature outside equalled about -12.5 °C, in the evening the temperature inside the shelter, both under the roof and above the ground stabilised at the level of about $-4,0$ °C. When the person entered the shelter again and settled to sleep, the temperature rose again. During the night, the temperature under the roof dropped to about -3.0 °C, whereas above the ground it dropped to about -7.0 °C. At the same time, the outdoor temperature dropped below -20.0 °C. During the whole night the entrance was only partially covered.

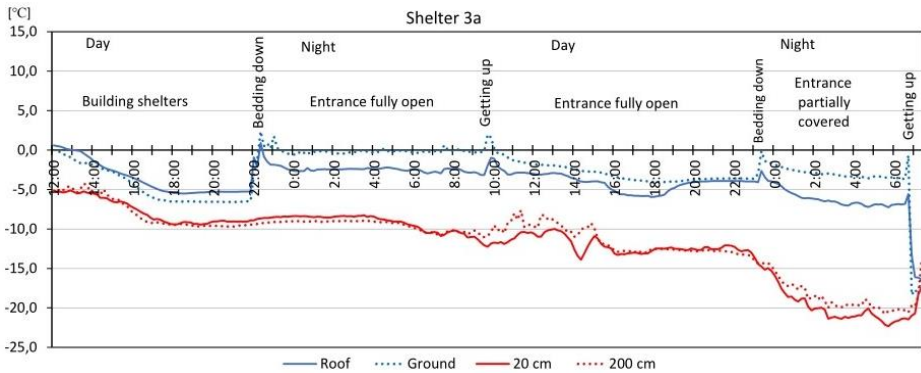


Fig. 8

Temperature distribution in shelter 3a under the roof and above the shelter's ground and outside the shelter at the height of 20 cm and 200 cm above the snow surface in the period of time of 16–18.01.2021

Figure 9 also presents a quinzhee shelter type, but with an insulating snow layer on the ground inside the shelter. Only near the entrance there was no snow cover on the ground. The hollow formed in this way was supposed to accumulate cold air. The assumed thickness of the insulating snow layer left on the ground inside the shelter was to equal about 30 cm. However, due to very powdery snow and its being pressed under the mattress, the layer was much thinner and during the second night it decreased to about 10 cm. This situation took place in all the snow shelters with an insulating snow layer on the ground. Unfortunately, the device measuring the temperature above the ground got damaged and that is why the temperature values presented in the chart come only from the sensor measuring the temperature under the shelter's roof. During the first night, the temperature under the roof, except at the moments of lying down, getting up and going to the bathroom, was positive and kept its value at the level of $0.7 \div 0.9$ °C. During the day and most of the night, despite the per-

son's absence and a significant decrease in outdoor temperature, the temperature under the roof dropped only to -3.7°C . On the other hand, when the person entered the shelter, this value, similarly to the first night, went above 0°C , i.e. up to about 0.3°C . Despite the thin insulating layer of snow on the ground in the shelter, covering significantly a very small and low-located entrance made the temperature inside the shelter nearly 20°C higher than outside when the person was absent. When the person was inside the shelter, the temperature stayed above 0°C and was more than 20°C higher than outdoor temperature.

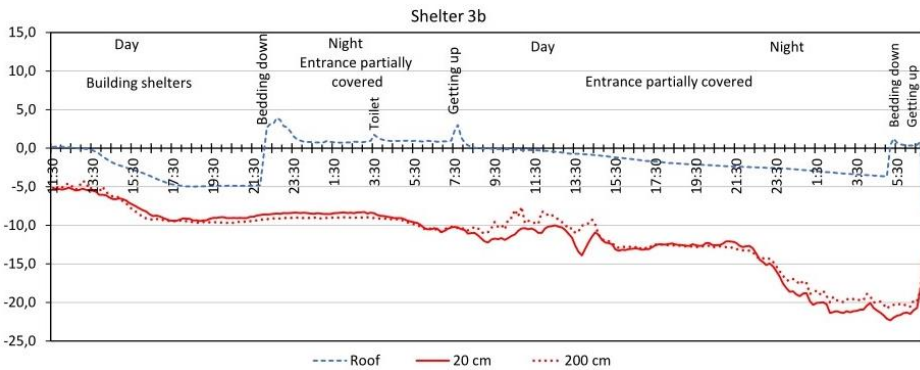


Fig. 9

Temperature distribution in shelter 3b under the roof and above the shelter's ground and outside the shelter at the height of 20 cm and 200 cm above the snow surface in the period of time of 16–18.01.2021

Figure 10 shows air temperature distribution in the quinzhee with an insulating layer of snow on the ground inside the shelter. Covering the entrance in 90% made the temperature under the roof both at the entrance and at the other end of the shelter rise during entering and getting up to over 5.0°C . On the other hand, the temperature above the ground at the entrance and at the other end of the shelter oscillated within the range of $-1.7 \div -0.1^{\circ}\text{C}$. During the day entrance covering was decreased to about 70%. In the evening, all four sensors registered the temperature of about 5.0°C when the person was absent.

The most common mistake of people constructing snow shelters is making too big an entrance, situated high in comparison to the shelter's ground. That is why within the framework of the experiment, during the second night, the entrance was made bigger in its upper part and it was covered in about 50%. The air temperature under the roof oscillated around 0°C , both at the entrance and at the other end of the shelter. On the other hand, in the morning the temperature above the ground dropped to about -15.0°C at the entrance and -9.0°C at the other end of the shelter. Taking into account the fact that a vertical distance between the sensors at the roof and the ones above the ground was about

80cm, a huge vertical temperature gradient is surprising. The difference in temperature values above the ground and under the roof was 13.0 °C at the entrance and about 7.0°C at the other end of the shelter.

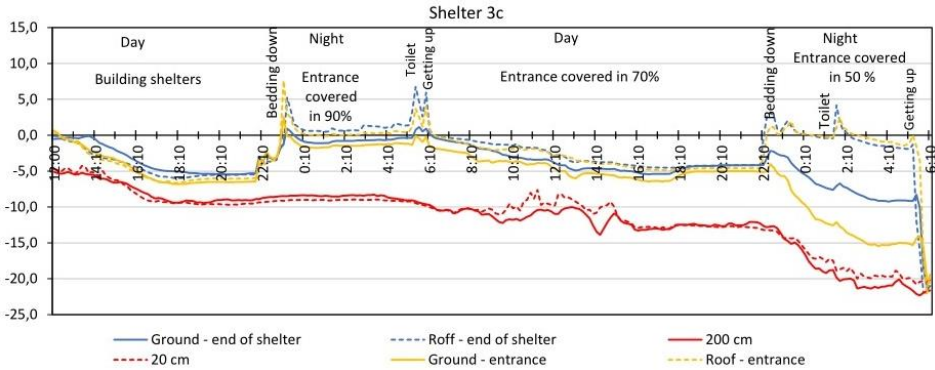


Fig. 10

Temperature distribution in shelter 3c under the roof and above the shelter's ground and outside the shelter at the height of 20 cm and 200 cm above the snow surface in the period of time of 16–18.01.2021

Figure 11 presents temperature distribution in a snow-and-plant shelter without an insulating layer of snow on the ground inside the shelter (Fig. 4a). During the first night, the temperature values both under the roof and above the ground were similar and oscillated within the range of $-4.0 \div -5.0$ °C, except for the activities of lying down and getting up. The entrance was then covered in about 75%. During the day, with the entrance fully uncovered, the temperature under the roof and above the ground slightly decreased, especially in the evening. Our attention should be drawn to a relatively stable difference between the temperature inside and outside the shelter. During the first evening and night and during the whole next day it equalled about 5.0-6.0 °C. During the second night, when the entrance was covered in 75%, the temperature started to drop to the value of -7.5 °C under the roof and about -12.0 °C above the ground.

The next figure no 12 also shows a snow-and-plant shelter but with the catcher of cold air (Fig. 4b). During the first night, the entrance was fully covered and the temperature, except for the moment of lying down and getting up, was about -1.5 °C under the roof and about -3.0 °C above the ground. During the day the entrance was fully exposed and the temperature was systematically decreasing to reach the value of about -5.0 °C under the roof and about -7.0 °C above the ground in the evening. During the second night, the entrance was fully covered, like during the first night. As the temperature was decreasing outside, it was also decreasing inside the shelter. In the morning it reached the value of almost -5.0 °C under the roof while above the ground it dropped to about -7.5 °C.

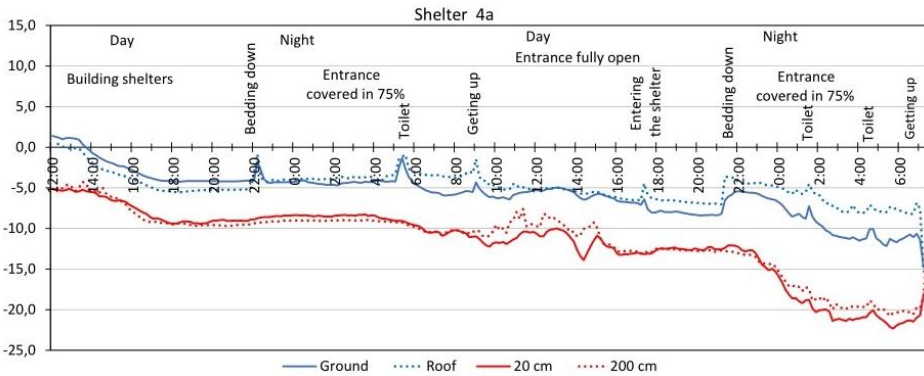


Fig. 11

Temperature distribution in shelter 4a under the roof and above the shelter's ground and outside the shelter at the height of 20 cm and 200 cm above the snow surface in the period of time of 16–18.01.2021

The next figure no 12 also shows a snow-and-plant shelter but with the catcher of cold air (Fig. 4b). During the first night, the entrance was fully covered and the temperature, except for the moment of lying down and getting up, was about $-1.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ under the roof and about $-3.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ above the ground. During the day the entrance was fully exposed and the temperature was systematically decreasing to reach the value of about $-5.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ under the roof and about $-7.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ above the ground in the evening. During the second night, the entrance was fully covered, like during the first night. As the temperature was decreasing outside, it was also decreasing inside the shelter. In the morning it reached the value of almost $-5.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ under the roof while above the ground it dropped to about $-7.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.

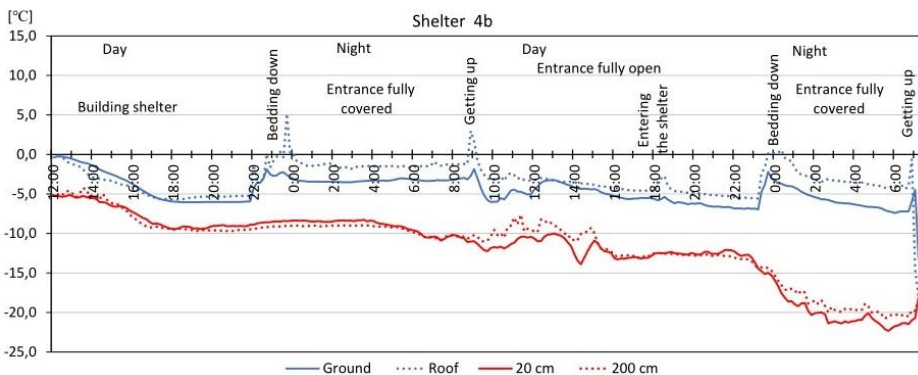


Fig. 12

Temperature distribution in shelter 4b under the roof and above the shelter's ground and outside the shelter at the height of 20 cm and 200 cm above the snow surface in the period of time of 16–18.01.2021

Figure 13 presents the last snow-and-plant shelter that was tested, also with an insulating layer of snow on the ground (Fig. 4c). Out of all snow-and-plant shelters, this one had the smallest entrance. During the first night, though the entrance was partially exposed, the temperature under the roof oscillated at 0 °C, while over the ground it was only a few tenths of °C lower. During the day, the full exposure of the entrance made the temperature drop sharply over the ground and decrease slowly under the roof. During the second night, with the entrance partially covered, the temperature under the roof oscillated at 0 °C, while over the ground it dropped to about -5.0 °C in the morning.

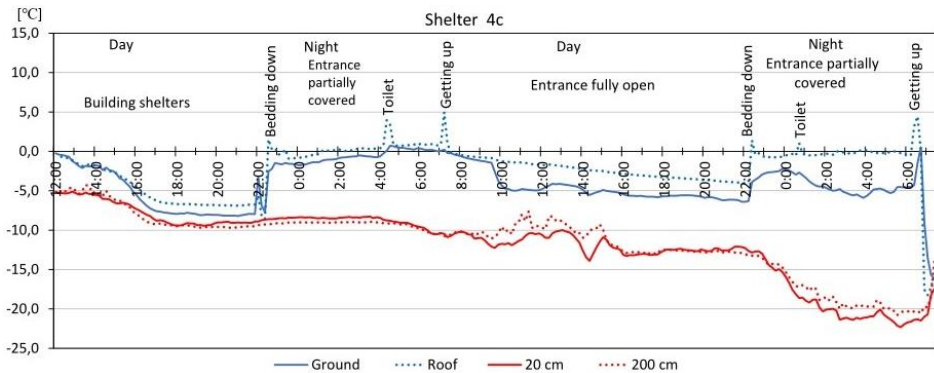


Fig. 13

Temperature distribution in shelter 4c under the roof and above the shelter's ground and outside the shelter at the height of 20 cm and 200 cm above the snow surface in the period of time of 16–18.01.2021

Self-rescue tests of the person buried in snow as a result of a collapsed snow shelter showed that wall thickness, especially the shelter's roof, should not exceed 40 cm. When the walls are thicker, getting out of the collapsed shelter might be very difficult without any help from outside, or even impossible in case of very dense snow.

The analysis of the research results

The analysis of temperature distribution in six shelters of a different design rendered very interesting results. In all quinzhee type shelters, despite the absence of a person, the temperature during the second day towards its end was higher in the shelters than outside. The difference was about 7.0 to 10.0 °C (Fig. 8–10). In the shelters with fully uncovered ground and the entrance, the temperature above the ground and under the roof dropped in the evening (about 10:00 p.m.) only to about -4.0 °C although the temperature outside dropped to

about $-12.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Fig. 8). On the other hand, in quinzhees with a partially covered entrance during the day and partially uncovered ground (the cold air catcher), the temperature dropped to $-4.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ only in the morning at about 5:00 a.m. when the temperature outside reached the value below $-20.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Fig. 9). Only in quinzhees with a complete insulating layer of snow on the ground the temperature in the evening dropped to about $-5.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in all four measurement places despite a partially covered entrance. This proves that the temperature in the shelter is strongly influenced by the heat accumulated in the ground. The more the ground is uncovered, the bigger its warming influence is.

The next very important design element having a very big impact on the temperature inside the shelter is the size of the entrance and its location. It was illustrated best during the experiment in a quinzhee with a full insulating snow layer on the ground (Fig. 10). Making the entrance bigger in its upper part during the second night and covering it in only 50% led to a significant decrease in the temperature above the ground. At the entrance it reached the value of about $-15.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ whereas inside the shelter the temperature above the ground dropped to about $-9.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. Under the roof the temperature dropped to only about $-2.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. The entrance enlargement in its upper part also led to a huge thermal gradient. The difference in temperature values at the entrance between the roof and the ground was $13.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ at the height difference of about 80 cm. This proves how important it is to locate the entrance low. When it is big and dug high, the make-shift bed should be situated in the highest place possible. The analysis of three figures with quinzhees also shows that the lower in relation to the ground in the shelter the entrance is situated and the more covered it is, not only will the temperature in the shelter be higher but the difference in temperature values under the roof and above the ground will be smaller too.

In case of snow-and-plant shelters, slightly different temperature distribution was recorded. This type of shelter, contrary to quinzhees, is characterised by a slightly bigger and square entrance (Photo 3). Due to that fact, more heat escapes through the entrance than in case of quinzhees. A snow-and-plant shelter devoid of an insulating snow layer on the ground should have the highest temperature value inside. However, because of a big entrance which was covered in about 75%, the temperature in this shelter was the lowest of all shelters (Fig. 11). What is more, measurements with the help of a thermal imaging camera showed that a lot of heat escaped through the walls of this shelter as they were not thick enough, especially in their upper part. On the other hand, covering the entrance completely in the next snow-and-plant shelter with the catcher of cold air made the temperature higher than in the previously described one.

The highest temperature of all snow-and-plant shelters was recorded in the shelter with an insulating snow layer on the ground (Fig. 13). Despite the fact that the entrance was not fully covered during the night and the ground was

covered with an insulating layer of snow, the temperature value during the first night, both under the roof and above the ground was high and oscillated within the range of -1.0 up to about 1.0 °C. During the second night, the temperature under the roof was still about 0 °C while the temperature above the ground dropped to about -5.0 °C. In the last snow-and-plant shelter, temperature distribution inside did not differ from temperature distribution in the quinzhees. It was because of a small entrance, walls thick enough and the roof, which was illustrated by measurements with a thermal imaging camera.

As temperature distribution graphs in figures 11–13 and measurements with a thermal imaging camera show, in case of snow-and-plant shelters special attention shall be put to the entrance size and snow wall thickness. A properly constructed snow-and-plant shelter can be as well insulated as quinzhee-type shelters. A space blanket placed at the roof of this shelter additionally protects it against dropping water from melting snow if the temperature in this shelter gets too high.

Conclusions

The results of the research conducted in the highest mountains in Poland and one of the coldest valleys in our country show that the ground temperature under the snow cover usually oscillates within the range of 0 °C to -3 °C. Such temperature values are the most suitable for the inside of snow and snow-and-plant shelters. Higher temperature values make the snow of the inside shelter layer melt and cause its faster degradation while lower values lead to excessive hypothermia of the person in the shelter.

To obtain the aforesaid temperature values in snow and snow-and-plant shelters, one should not leave an insulating layer of snow on the ground inside the shelter as it is recommended in all civil and military survival guides. The research in question showed that in the shelter without this insulating layer, the heat accumulated in the ground, despite an open entrance and lack of anyone inside, kept the temperature inside the shelter about 10 °C higher than outside. On the other hand, covering the entrance partially, when there was no one inside, increased that temperature difference to over 15 °C. Even a small ground exposure inside the shelter in form of the cold air catcher increases air temperature inside the shelter.

The size of the entrance and how high it is located have a big impact on the temperature inside snow and snow-and-plant shelters. The bigger the hole and the higher it is situated in relation to the ground, the lower temperature values and the bigger vertical thermal gradient occur inside the shelter. The conducted research shows that when the entrance was big and situated high, the difference

in temperature values between the roof and the ground reached even 13.0 °C at the height difference of about 80 cm. What is more, it got too cold inside the shelter. The temperature over the ground dropped to about -15 °C. That is why the entrance should be as small as possible and it should be located at the lowest place in relation to the ground in the shelter.

The temperature in a properly designed shelter is regulated by covering the entrance. An upper (roof) air hole should be open all the time.

Obtaining the temperature values within the range of 0 °C to -3 °C in a properly designed snow and snow-and-plant shelter is possible thanks to the heat emitted by uncovered ground and the body of a person staying in the shelter. This statement is valid even when the temperature outside the shelter drops to about -20 °C. The thickness of the walls, especially the roof, should not exceed 40 cm. 30 cm thick walls provide satisfactory insulation.

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**BIOGRAMY, DYSKUSJE, POLEMIKI, RECENZJE,
PRZEGLĄD WYDAWNICTW, SPRAWOZDANIA**



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**[rec.] Eligiusz Małolepszy, Teresa Drozdek-
-Małolepsza, *Zarys dziejów sportu i turystyki
w działalności Śląskiego Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia
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Upowszechnianie kultury fizycznej w środowisku wiejskim po II wojnie światowej zainicjowano już wczesną wiosną 1946 roku. Trzy lata później w trakcie obrad Głównej Rady Sportu Wiejskiego postanowiono, że organizacje promujące te szczytne idee przyjmą nazwę Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe (LZS). Właśnie tej problematyce poświęcona jest książka *Zarys dziejów sportu i turystyki w działalności Śląskiego Zrzeszenia Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe (1946–2021)* autorstwa Eligiusza Małolepszego i Teresy Drozdek-Małolepszej z Uniwersytetu Jana Długosza w Częstochowie. Do zaprezentowania efektów badań dotyczących dziejów LZS w różnych okresach historycznych na zmieniającym się obszarze słusznie zastosowano układ mieszany (chronologiczno-rzeczowy). Monografia liczy 275 stron, a jej naukowym recenzentem był dr hab. Dariusz Słapek, prof. UMCS.

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Warto podkreślić, że znany w środowisku naukowym duet częstochowskich historyków dwa lata wcześniej zakończył badania i wydał zbliżoną tematycznie monografię pt. *Zarys dziejów Gminnego Ludowego Klubu Sportowego Pogoń 1947 Kłomnice (1947–2021)*. Obydwie poświęcone są rozwojowi wiejskiego ruchu sportowego na obszarze województwa śląskiego.

W opracowaniu monografii poświęconej kulturze fizycznej w okręgu śląsko-dąbrowskim wykorzystano źródła archiwalne, drukowane, internetowe, prasę i relacje ustne oraz (szeroko) literaturę tematyczną. Zgromadzony zasób materiałów stanowił dobrze udokumentowaną podstawę teoretyczną podjętych badań. Już ze wstępu Czytelnik dowiedzieć się może, że celem pracy jest przedstawienie zarysu dziejów sportu i turystyki w działalności Śląskiego Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe w latach 1946–2021. Cezurę początkową (1946) – co wydaje się być oczywiste – wyznacza fakt powołania pierwszych ogniw LZS na Ziemi Górnośląskiej i w Zagłębiu Dąbrowskim, natomiast końcową (2021) jubileusz 75-lecia działalności. Był to zapewne jeden z istotnych powodów zainicjowanych przez Autorów analiz. Ważnym wydaje się być fakt, iż w dalszej części wstępu omawiają oni fakty związane z zakresem terytorialnym opisanym w monografii. Wyjaśniają też, że początek rozważań wyznaczać powinien rok 1952, kiedy to na mocy uchwały Głównego Komitetu Kultury Fizycznej utworzono Zrzeszenie Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe. Szczególnie cenne, a zarazem uzasadnione w zaistniałej sytuacji jest przedstawienie historycznego tła omawianego problemu poprzez ukazanie procesów rozwoju sportu i turystyki w Polsce w XX-leciu międzywojennym w środowisku wiejskim, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem wsi śląskiej i zagłębiowskiej. Na tej podstawie łatwiej jest przyswoić Czytelnikowi procesy zachodzące w upowszechnianiu wiejskiego sportu po II wojnie światowej. Zauważyć również należy, że region ten zaliczany jest do najbardziej zaludnionych i uprzemysłowionych w Polsce. Nie bez powodu pierwsze ogniwka LZS na Ziemi Górnośląskiej i w Zagłębiu Dąbrowskim zawiązały się rok po zakończeniu działań wojennych. Do najprężniej działających w tamtym okresie zaliczano LZS Barania Wiśła. Natomiast pierwsze sukcesy na szczeblu regionalnym i centralnym pojawiły się już na przełomie lat 1947/1948. Podjęte przez Autorów badania odnosiły się do obszaru byłego województwa katowickiego do 1975 roku. Pewien problem pojawił się dopiero po wprowadzeniu nowego podziału administracyjnego kraju (1975), jednakże badacze wyjaśniają, że w prowadzonych analizach uwzględnili zmianę zakresu terytorialnego i włączyli do swoich rozważań obszar województw bielskiego i częstochowskiego. Po następnym podziale administracyjnym (1999) zasięg terytorialny ponownie uległ zmianie i objął obszar województwa śląskiego. Należy podkreślić, że we wstępie zaprezentowano także aktualny stan badań nad podjętą problematyką i podano wykorzystane metody, jak i problemy badawcze. Zakreślono również zarys problematyki omawianej w poszczególnych rozdziałach. Z powyższych względów uznać należy

że konstrukcja wstępu spełnia wszystkie kryteria opracowania o podłożu historycznym.

W rozdziale pierwszym, pt. *Wprowadzenie do dziejów sportu i turystyki na wsi w Polsce do 1939 r. ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem Górnego Śląska i Zagłębia Dąbrowskiego*, E. Małolepszy i T. Drozdek-Małolepsza przedstawiają kulisy ruchu sportowego na polskiej wsi w czasach II Rzeczypospolitej. Powołując się na powszechny spis ludności, dowodzą, że w roku 1921 ówczesna Polska liczyła 27 177 tysięcy mieszkańców, z których ponad 75% żyło w środowisku wiejskim. Dlatego już po odzyskaniu niepodległości podejmowano próby utworzenia instytucji mającej na celu propagowanie aktywności fizycznej. Autorzy wskazują tu na doniosłą rolę, jaką pod tym względem odegrał Państwowy Urząd Wychowania Fizycznego i Przystosowania Wojskowego wraz ze strukturami terenowymi. Podkreślają, że dzięki operatywności zatrudnionych tam urzędników nastąpił intensywny rozwój infrastruktury sportowej, a powodem dostrzegalnego postępu okazała się nie tylko dbałość o kondycję fizyczną społeczeństwa, lecz także problematyka dotycząca obronności państwa polskiego. Z powyższych względów – jak dowodzą Autorzy – w roku 1936 w gminach wiejskich województwa śląskiego sport i rekreację fizyczną uprawiać można było na szeregu boisk, bieżni, kortów tenisowych, strzelnic, w halach gimnastycznych, otwartych pływalniach, przystaniach wioślarskich, skoczniach narciarskich, torach łyżwiarskich, saneczkowych i motocyklowych, schroniskach turystyczno-sportowych i ogrodach jordanowskich. Zwracają też uwagę, że w upowszechnianiu aktywności fizycznej w środowisku wiejskim ważną rolę odegrała działalność szkół rolniczych, Wiejskich Uniwersytetów Ludowych, organizacji młodzieżowych, Towarzystwa Gimnastycznego „Sokół”, Związku Strzeleckiego oraz Związku Harcerstwa Polskiego.

Rozdział drugi, pt. *Geneza i rozwój sportu w działalności Ludowych Zespołów Sportowych na Górnym Śląsku i w Zagłębiu Dąbrowskim (1946–1952)*, obejmuje już pierwsze lata Polski Ludowej. Przedstawiono tu uwarunkowania prawno-organizacyjne, na bazie których praktykowane uprzednio wszelkie formy sportu wiejskiego rozwijane m.in. w zakładach rolnych, świetlicach, organizacjach młodzieżowych i uniwersytetach ludowych kontynuować należy pod nazwą Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe. E. Małolepszy i T. Drozdek-Małolepsza podejmują też polemikę z autorami też zawartych w opracowaniach *40 lat Ludowych Zespołów Sportowych* oraz *Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe. Zarys dziejów 1946–1964* w zakresie aktywności fizycznej propagowanej przez organizacje młodzieżowe, towarzystwa sportowe i społeczne w czasach II Rzeczypospolitej. Odmienny punkt widzenia uzasadniają wynikami badań własnych oraz innych autorów zaprezentowanych w przedmiotowej literaturze. W dalszej części tego rozdziału doszukać się możemy okoliczności towarzyszących zawiązywaniu się pierwszych ognisk LZS, opisu uprawianych w nich aktywności sportowych oraz osiągniętych rezul-

tatów. W sposób szczególny wyeksponowano sporty zimowe (LZS Barania Wisła) i zapasy uprawiane w Pogoni Imielin.

Rozdział trzeci, pt. *Działalność Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe w Katowicach (1952–1975)*, zgodnie z układem rzeczowym podzielono na trzy podrozdziały: *Rozwój organizacyjny Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia Ludowe Zespoły sportowe w Katowicach* (podrozdział pierwszy), *Wychowanie fizyczne i sport* (podrozdział drugi) oraz *Działalność w zakresie turystyki i rekreacji* (podrozdział trzeci). Już na początku podano datę utworzenia wojewódzkiego zrzeszenia, nazwiska przewodniczących, składy personalne zarządów i komisji rewizyjnych funkcjonujących do czasu wdrożenia nowego podziału administracyjnego kraju (1975). Czytelnik doszukać się tu może nazwisk wielu społecznych działaczy i sportowców, wśród których znalazł się m.in. dwukrotny olimpijczyk (skoki narciarskie) Józef Przybyła. Do równie interesujących należą informacje o liczbie kół i członków LZS, źródłach finansowania działalności statutowej, a także inicjatywach dotyczących rozbudowy wiejskiej infrastruktury sportowej. Wskazano tu również na konieczność kształcenia kadry szkoleniowej, dzięki której dynamicznie wzrastała liczba kół, sekcji sportowych i imprez organizowanych przez działaczy Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia LZS w Katowicach.

W ramach podrozdziału drugiego omówiono zagadnienia współzawodnictwa sportowego. Podczas spartakiad i festynów sportowcy LZS najczęściej rywalizowali w lekkiej atletyce, grach drużynowych, szachach, tenisie stołowym i warcabach. Natomiast w zakresie sportu kwalifikowanego do najprężniej działających w tamtym czasie zaliczany był Ludowy Klub Kolarski Zagłębiak Będzin, LKS-y Klimczok Bystra i Wisła Istebna oraz LZS Mikuszowice – znane z wysokiego poziomu szkolenia w sportach zimowych. Przykładem tego są m.in. olimpijczycy: Antoni Wieczorek (Oslo 1952), Antoni Łaciak (Innsbruck 1964), Józef Kocjan (Grenoble 1968) oraz przywoływany już J. Przybyła (Innsbruck 1964, Grenoble 1968) – narciarstwo klasyczne, oraz Edward Fender, Mieczysław Pawełkiewicz (Innsbruck 1964) i Stanisław Paczka (Grenoble 1968) – saneczkarstwo. Równie interesujący wydaje się fakt, że w katowickich LZS-ach uprawiano także akrobatykę sportową. Wielu spośród śląskich sportowców zdobywało laury w rywalizacji ogólnopolskiej, a najwięcej mistrzów Polski wychował LZS Cieszyn. Jednakże do najpopularniejszych dyscyplin zaliczała się piłka nożna. Taka sekcja istniała zasadniczo w każdym wiejskim kole. Mimo że futbol uprawiano na skalę masową, to w tym współzawodnictwie znaczących rezultatów nie zanotowano. W Wojewódzkim Zrzeszeniu LZS w Katowicach, oprócz wcześniej wymienionych, funkcjonowały także sekcje łucznicze, uprawiano sport strzelecki, podnoszenie ciężarów, kajakarstwo. Podkreślić należy, że istotnym wzmocnieniem wiejskiego ruchu sportowego były szkoły rolnicze. Największą aktywnością wyróżniało się Państwowe Technikum Ogrodnicze w Bielsku-Białej. Najbardziej zasłużonych szkoleniowców, zawodników i działaczy sportowym znakiem jakości Omega na-

gradzała redakcja „Wiadomości Sportowych”. Wielu spośród nich znalazło się na czołowych miejscach w plebiscycie „20 najlepszych sportowców wsi wybranych w XX-leciu LZS” oraz plebiscycie „10 najlepszych sportowców wsi wybranych w XXV-leciu LZS”. Katowickim aktywistom przyznawano również tytuły Zasłużonych Mistrzów Sportu oraz medale Za Wybitne Osiągnięcia Sportowe.

Podrozdział trzeci E. Małolepszy i T. Drozdek-Małolepsza poświęcili działalności turystyczno-rekreacyjnej uprawianej w Zrzeszeniu LZS na terenie województwa katowickiego. Wskazują, iż w działalności tej wyróżniali się członkowie LZS z Rad Powiatowych w Lublińcu, Pszczynie i Rybniku. Istotnym czynnikiem była tu kadra propagująca aktywny tryb życia wśród ludzi pracy Górnego Śląska. Wojaże, wędrowki i peregrynacje cieszyły się dużym zainteresowaniem, a świadczy o tym nie tylko liczba uczestników, lecz także systematyczny wzrost liczby organizatorów i działaczy. W pierwszej połowie lat siedemdziesiątych ubiegłego wieku aktywność ta tworzyło ok. 270 osób. Największą popularnością cieszyły się zloty (Święto Kupaty) i organizowane corocznie rajdy motocyklowe (Złoty Kask). Natomiast piechurzy podziwiali uroki krajobrazu na Szlaku Beskidzkim (Ustroń w Beskidzie Śląskim – Wołosate w Bieszczadach). Jednym z celów turystyczno-rekreacyjnej aktywności była masowość. Realizację przyjętego uprzednio programu uprawiano m.in. pod hasłem „Poznaj piękno własnego regionu” lub w ramach konkursu „Szlakiem przemian i dorobku wsi”. W sezonie zimowym organizowano szereg imprez pod modnym wówczas hasłem „My się zimy nie boimy”.

Rozdział czwarty, tak pod względem struktury, jak i sposobu przedstawienia treści nie różni się zasadniczo od poprzedniego. Wyodrębniono tu również trzy podrozdziały: *Działalność Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe w Bielsku-Białej* (podrozdział pierwszy), *Działalność Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe w Częstochowie* (podrozdział drugi), *Działalność Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe w Katowicach* (podrozdział trzeci). Autorzy we właściwy sposób przedstawili tu cezury czasowe i z niezwykłą starannością opisali składy zarządów kół na przestrzeni lat, liczbę członków oraz okoliczności działalności sportowej i turystyczno-rekreacyjnej. Nie pominięto najbardziej zaangażowanych działaczy i szkoleniowców, dzięki którym następował systematyczny rozwój niezbędnej infrastruktury umożliwiającej kontynuację procesu szkoleniowego, osiągania wyników na arenie regionalnej, ogólnopolskiej, a stosunkowo często także międzynarodowej – z igrzyskami olimpijskimi łącznie. Dzięki temu każdy z zainteresowanych odnaleźć może koło/klub LZS, który przed laty reprezentował, rodzaje zawodów sportowych i imprez masowych oraz rezultaty współzawodnictwa. Po lekturze zaprezentowanych wyników badań nasuwa się konkluzja, że – tak jak przed laty – do najbardziej popularnych należały gry sportowe, a spośród nich piłka nożna. Z dużym powodzeniem uprawiano też akrobatykę sportową, jeździectwo, judo, kolarstwo, lekkoatletykę, łucznictwo, podnoszenie ciężarów, strzelectwo, szachy, sporty zimowe,

tenis stołowy i zapasy. Zasadniczo odnosi się to do powstałych po roku 1975 nowych województw z siedzibą władz w Bielsku-Białej, Częstochowie i Katowicach. W poświęconym im podrozdziałom Czytelnik w łatwy sposób odnaleźć może interesujące go informacje, zestawić je ze sobą i wyciągnąć stosowne wnioski. Dotyczy to także szkół rolniczych, spółdzielczych i leśnych, które były nie tylko kuźnią kadr dla gospodarki narodowej, ale także istotnym zapleczem sportu wiejskiego. W opracowaniu wskazano też na ważną rolę, jaką w omawianych województwach odgrywały sport masowy, turystyka i rekreacja. Wojewódzkie Zrzeszenia LZS prowadziły w tym celu wypożyczalnie potrzebnego sprzętu. Ważnym elementem aktywizacji ogniw terenowych – jak podnoszą wspomniani już po wielokroć badacze – było współzawodnictwo na „Najlepiej pracujący LZS”.

W opracowaniu rozdziału piątego, pt. *Działalność Śląskiego Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe (1999–2021)*, przyjęto podobne zasady. Jego częściami składowymi są również trzy podrozdziały: *Uwarunkowania prawno-organizacyjne i finansowe* (podrozdział pierwszy), *Wychowanie fizyczne i sport w działalności Śląskiego Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe* (podrozdział drugi), *Turystyka i rekreacja w działalności Śląskich Ludowych Zespołów Sportowych* (podrozdział trzeci). Zaprezentowane tu przez Autorów wyniki badań dotyczą zasadniczo zbliżonej problematyki. Odnoszą się do współczesnego obszaru, jaki zajmuje województwo śląskie, lecz w czasie późniejszym od omawianych już powyżej rozdziałów. Szczegółowo przedstawiono tu składy personalne zarządów poszczególnych kadencji. Uważny Czytelnik dowiedzieć się może, że śląscy działacze LZS pełnili również odpowiedzialne funkcje w Krajowym Zrzeszeniu Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe w Warszawie. Ponadto, E. Małolepszy i T. Drozdek-Małolepsza podnoszą, iż w pierwszych latach XXI wieku w kołach i klubach LZS przywiązywano dużą uwagę do rozbudowy i modernizacji infrastruktury sportowej. Dobrym tego przykładem jest m.in. baza LKS Pasjonat Dankowice. W czytelny sposób zaprezentowano tu także proces szkolenia kolejnych pokoleń organizatorów i animatorów sportu wiejskiego, tabelarycznie zaprezentowano liczbę przeprowadzonych imprez sportowych i ich uczestników. Wiele uwagi poświęcono programom „Sportowe Wakacje”, „Sport dla Wszystkich”, „Sport Wszystkich Dzieci”, „Animator Sportu Dzieci i Młodzieży”, wokół których ogniskował się ruch masowy. Równie ważnym zagadnieniem wydaje się fakt, że nie pominięto źródeł finansowania działalności statutowej. Mniej zorientowanego Czytelnika zainteresują z pewnością informacje o początkach kariery sportowej i późniejszych sukcesach m.in. Magdaleny Gwizdoń, Adama Małysza, Piotra Żyły, Tomisława i Wojciecha Tajnerów, Łukasza Kruczka, Jakuba Wolnego czy Aleksandra Zniszczoła. W końcowej części tego rozdziału Autorzy przybliżają efekty współzawodnictwa prowadzonego na terenie Śląskiego Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia LZS w wielu dyscyplinach sportowych – nie pomijając aktywności

młodzieży szkolnej kształcącej się w placówkach oświatowych o profilu rolniczym. Omawiają też działalność turystyczną i rekreacyjną.

W ostatnim rozdziale (szóstym) omawianej monografii, pt. *Uznani sportowcy, szkoleniowcy i działacze*, przybliżono sylwetki najbardziej aktywnych członków śląskich LZS. Zawiera on krótkie charakterystyki 52 utytułowanych zawodników, 53 szkoleniowców oraz 121 działaczy. Opracowanie zamyka merytoryczne zakończenie, w którym Autorzy dokonali podsumowania i zwięzłej oceny dziejów sportu i turystyki w działalności Śląskiego Wojewódzkiego Zrzeszenia LZS. Niezwykle istotną część pracy stanowią szczegółowo opracowane aneksy, a wśród nich wykaz klubów sportowych! Zamieszczono też korelującą z tytułem bibliografię, wykaz skrótów, streszczenie w języku angielskim, spis tabel i fotografii oraz bardzo przydatny indeks nazwisk.

Monografia E. Małolepszego i T. Drozdek-Małolepszej jest wartościowym interesującym uzupełnieniem aktualnego stanu badań w zakresie działalności i upowszechniania sportu, turystyki, rekreacji i krajoznawstwa przez Zrzeszenie Ludowe Zespoły Sportowe na terenie kraju. Może też być inspiracją do zapoczątkowania podobnych badań w pozostałych województwach, gdzie nie dokonano jeszcze takich analiz i publikacji efektów końcowych.