

120 uczniów) miała 4 klasy. Klasa I oraz II były jednoroczne, klasa III była dwuletnia (rocznik 3 i 4), klasa IV była trzyletnia (rocznik 5, 6, 7). Szkoła powszechna II stopnia o 3 lub 4 nauczycielach (liczba uczniów 121-210) miała 6 klas. Klasy 1-5 były jednoroczne, klasa 6 była dwuletnia (rocznik 6-7). Szkoła powszechna III stopnia o 5, 6, 7 i więcej nauczycielach (liczba uczniów 211-310) miała 7 klas o kursie jednorocznym.

Przy reorganizacji szkolnictwa powszechnego *Statut* zaliczył „do niższych stopni wiele szkół, które miały wszelkie dane do zakwalifikowania do stopni wyższych”.<sup>50</sup> Dotychczasowe szkoły 1- i 2-klasowe zaliczono do szkół stopnia pierwszego. Szkoły 3- i 4-klasowe zakwalifikowano do szkół stopnia drugiego. Dopiero szkoły 5-, 6-, 7- klasowe zaliczono do szkół stopnia trzeciego. Konsekwencją takiego przekształcenia była likwidacja klas siódmych w szkołach drugiego stopnia oraz klas piątych w szkołach pierwszego stopnia.

#### Literatura

1. Dziennik Urzędowy Ministerstwa Wyznań Religijnych i Oświecenia Publicznego 1919-1938
2. Dziennik Ustaw Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej 1919-1939
3. Falski M., *Koncepcja szkoły powszechnej i jej roli w ustroju szkolnictwa w okresie międzywojennym w Polsce*, „Rozprawy z dziejów oświaty”, t. 1, Wrocław 1958
4. Falski M., *Materiały do projektu sieci szkół powszechnych na obszarze województw: warszawskiego, łódzkiego, kieleckiego, lubelskiego i białostockiego oraz miasta stołecznego Warszawy*, Warszawa 1925
5. Garbowska W., *Szkolnictwo powszechne w Polsce w latach 1932-1939*, Ossolineum 1976
6. Kulpa J., *Kształcenie nauczycieli szkół powszechnych w Polsce w latach 1918-1939*, Ossolineum 1963
7. Państwowe Archiwum Obwodu Brzeskiego w Brześciu (Dziarżauy Archiw Breskaj Wobłasci); Kuratorium Okręgu Szkolnego Poleskiego (Brzeskiego) (f. 59)
8. Pęcherski M., Świątek M., *Organizacja oświaty w Polsce w latach 1917-1977. Podstawowe akty prawne*. Warszawa 1978
9. Sliwiński F., *Ustawodawstwo szkolne i organizacja polskich władz szkolnych oraz szkolnictwa wszystkich stopni w pierwszym dziesięcioleciu Odrodzonego Państwa Polskiego*, Łódź 1928
10. Trzebiatowski K., *Szkolnictwo powszechne w Polsce w latach 1918-1932*, Ossolineum 1970
11. Wroczyński R., *Dzieje oświaty polskiej 1795-1945*, Warszawa 1980

## TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PERSPECTIVES IN POLISH LANDSCAPE PARKS

Aleksandra Spychała

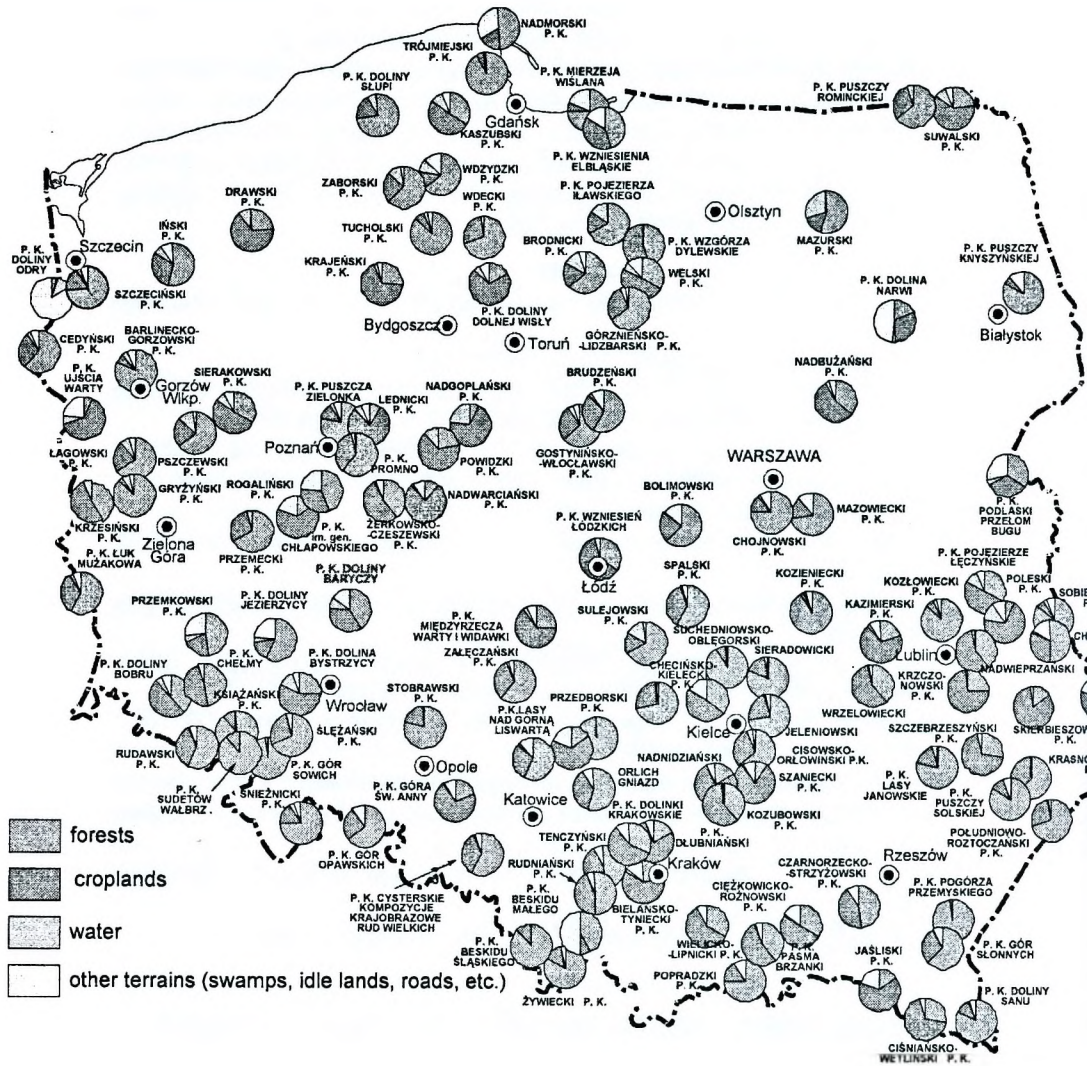
*Poznan University of Life Science, Agritourism Unit, Poland*

A landscape park is currently considered the best model of 21<sup>st</sup> century nature preservation, demonstrating how to retain natural and cultural variety, without renouncing various forms of use – obviously, while observing the rules of eco-development [1]. Therefore, it seems that these areas are predestined for eco-tourism development.

---

<sup>50</sup> M. Falski, *Koncepcja szkoły powszechnej i jej roli w ustroju szkolnictwa w okresie międzywojennym w Polsce*, „Rozprawy z dziejów oświaty”, t. 1, Wrocław 1958, s. 214.

Currently, there are 120 landscape parks in Poland; their surface area is 2517183,9 hectares, that is 8,1% of the whole country territory, with the medium acreage of 21459,4 hectares (Drawing 1).



Drawing 1. Landscape parks in Poland, and their land use structure

Source: GUS information for the year 2004

Landscape parks take up the largest area in the Subcarpathian Voivodeship - 279750,9 hectares (15,7% of its surface area), and the smallest in the Opole Voivodeship - 62590,5 hectares (6,7% of the voivodeship surface); interestingly, in comparison of percentage share of the parks in relation to the voivodeship area, the Silesian Voivodeship is the first with 18,6 % of this form of nature preservation, while in the Podlaskie Voivodeship – the famous “green lungs” of Poland – landscape parks occupy only 4,4%.

One of the basic functions of landscape parks is tourism, which should mostly be carried out in the following forms: tourist, recreational, weekend, and qualified, as conditioned by natural and cultural-historical diversification of these areas [2, 3]. In the issue of tourism development in landscape parks, it is not their attractiveness that matters – research performed in the nineties showed that over 90% of the parks are located in areas of the highest tourist attractiveness [3]. – but rather the distance from heavily urbanized areas is important, particularly for holiday tourism. In Poland, 53 parks, 32 of which only in part, are located within one-hour isochrone, corresponding to 40 km equidistance from the tourist's domicile (circle radius of 40 km around every voivodeship capital), which is the condition of relatively small waste of driving time in comparison to the rest period [4].

Unfortunately, vividly developing tourism also carries threats – first of all, excessively developed tourist facilities (e.g. Poprad and Żywiec Landscape Parks), and illegal holiday construction (e.g. most of the landscape parks in Greater Poland) [5, 6, 7]. Despite the risk of natural and social environment degradation created by tourism in landscape parks, it should still be developed – obviously in conditions of balanced development – as it can disburden excessively concentrated tourist movement in national parks [8]. One should remember that the area of landscape park has a higher protection level than its buffer zone - therefore development of tourism (especially mass tourism) should take place in the buffer zone.

Research confirm that in communes, which have a landscape park on their territory, the tourist function is intensified, or simply just appears in their functional structure. For example, in 1996, when the Landscape Park was created, magnitude of tourist movement increased by as much as 20% compared to the previous year; interestingly, the number of provided accommodations increased as well, but only by 4%. Therefore, this region became much more frequently visited.

From the point of view of residents, local government, and, of course, tourists, this is a very positive phenomenon – after all, it generates additional profit for the local communities, and the visitors can rest in an unpolluted environment, which guarantees essential regeneration of mental and physical strengths. Unfortunately, this downgrades the protective function, which should also be fulfilled by a park, to further positions. Thus, the fundamental question is: how can these two functions, particularly important in nature preservation provided by a landscape park, coexist.

It should be noted that humans have possibility, at least partial one, to somewhat control and manage the tourist movement. This is possible at the moment of creating individual elements of tourist facilities, created by various, spatially diversified, forms of tourism at various stages of development, allowing for simultaneous protection of the most environmentally valuable areas.

Significantly lesser level of tourist infrastructure development, obviously smaller tourist movement, and natural environment retained in clean condition, despite necessary human actions, make these areas particularly predisposed to development of alternative and environment-friendly tourism, the forms of which include agro-tourism and eco-tourism.

The close relation between development of various tourism types can be also noticed in combination with other elements of tourist attractiveness.

In the areas connected with landscape parks, the long-stay tourism dominates, yet, more and more frequently, one can meet weekend or one-day visitors. These are mostly

qualified (specialist) tourists – lovers of nature, and in particular of birds, anglers, pickers of fruits of the forest, bicyclers, but also sightseers, who travel for research purposes, or finally fans of strictly recreational tourism, who spend most of their time passively. All these forms of tourism are favoured by large density of tourist trails (including bicycle trails), and lots of cyclical cultural, entertainment, and sports events.

Although hunting is considered one of the most conflictual form of tourism [9], which collides with its other forms, and – most importantly – with nature conservation, it is permissible in landscape parks. Moreover, hunting changes the seasonal layout of tourist movement, extending it over spring and autumn, which is positive from the point of view of accommodation providers. For example, the period between September and 21<sup>st</sup> of December is the time of hunting for birds (ducks, geese, herons, and coots); autumn is also the apex of deer hunting [10].

According to the theory of tourist space classification by S. Liszewski [11], due to the influence of tourism on natural environment (table 1), it would be best if the protected areas were the place of developing tourist assimilation characterized by relatively small concentration of tourist movement, created by tourists who first of all want to rest, and get to know the tourist destination place; they mostly use the already existing infrastructure. The tourist assimilation area is most frequently created by accommodation facilities connected with agro-tourism and country tourism.

Table 1 – Characteristics of tourist area types

Area type	Characteristic traits			
	concentration of tourist movement	tourist facilities	major tourist function	influence of tourism on nature
exploration	minimal	none	research	harmless
penetration	varied, from small to mass	small	research-recreational	oppressive
assimilation	average	average	recreational-research	neutral
colonization	large	large	recreational	transforming (harmful)
urbanization	average	large	residential	degrading

Source: Liszewski, 1995

First, the difference between these two notions, which are so similar that they are often used interchangeably, while they definitely are not identical, should be explained. Generally speaking, country tourism is every form of tourism which takes place in country environment, while the accommodation is provided mainly by small, family boarding houses, camping sites located next to homesteads, individual housing units, but also hunting lodgings, etc. Agro-tourism, on the other had, is strictly connected with a functioning farmstead, where the tourists sleep, and its major attractions are cultivation and animal husbandry [12]. Thus, agro-tourism is a part of broadly taken country tourism, but only it can create tourist assimilation area, as accommodation facilities are not new; their tourist function is secondary to the residential function for their owners, the owners do not appropriate new lands. A tourist's stay under one roof with permanent residents is most often the best measure of tourist assimilation.

Unfortunately, in the case of landscape parks, the most frequently encountered phenomenon is that of sub-space of colonization, characterized by permanent tourist development in an area, which, in combination with concentrated tourist movement, often leads to unfavourable transformations of the natural environment. This area is occupied by tourist settlements, understood as all the permanent, but temporarily-operating, facilities, created as the result of tourist function [13]. It exists in two basic forms: facilities connected with mass rest (mostly leisure centres) and individual rest (recreational cottages and the so-called second houses).

To sum up, three main conclusions should be emphasized – uneven development of tourism is favourable for protected areas, as it enables preservation of the most valuable – from the environmental point of view – grounds.

Second, a protected area can and should stimulate tourism development which is beneficial for the local community, the well-being of which is part of eco-tourism principles.

The communes connected with a landscape park should also be of multi-purpose nature, and they should maintain harmonious interaction between culture and nature, by means of actions in keeping with the rules of eco-development. For if development of tourism omits these principles, it could virtually cause a catastrophe, particularly in protected areas. I. Kamieniecka [14] estimates the share of tourist economy in environment degradation at about 6%, but in the case of places which are extensively overloaded with tourist movement, these values can reach up to 40%, due to light and heavy industry.

Landscape parks are established on areas which are environmentally less valuable than the most important protected areas - national parks, and they should become a peculiar buffer, which moderate tourist movement. Unfortunately, many landscape parks are absent from tourist maps, mainly due to lack of proper tourist infrastructure and information, despite high attractiveness of their natural values.

#### REFERENCES

1. Beresford M., Phillips, A., 2000, Protected Landscapes: a conservation model for the 21st century, Forum 17 (1), The Journal of George Wright Society, Hancock, Michigan, USA
2. Ptaszycka-Jackowska, D., Baranowska-Janota M., 1998, Przyrodnicze obszary chronione. Możliwości użytkowania, Instytut Gospodarki Przestrzennej i Komunalnej, Warszawa
3. Baranowska-Janota M., Korzeniak G., 1991, Zasady turystycznego użytkowania i ochrony parków krajobrazowych, IGPIK, Kraków
4. Warszyńska J., 1974, Ocena zasobów środowiska naturalnego dla potrzeb turystyki (na przykładzie woj. krakowskiego), Zeszyty Naukowe UJ, z. 350, Kraków
5. Denisiuk Z., 1997, Ekologiczny system obszarów chronionych w Polsce, [w:] Brey Meyer A. (red.), Rezerваты Biosfery w Polsce, Agencja Reklamowo-Wydawnicza A. Grzegorzczak, Warszawa
6. Denisiuk Z., 2001, Ochrona przyrody w Polsce na przestrzeni wieków – tradycja, sukcesy, rozczarowania, Chrońmy Przyrodę Ojczystą, nr 57
7. Raszeja E., 2000, Problematyka ochrony i kształtowania krajobrazu w zagospodarowaniu przestrzennym parków krajobrazowych, Biuletyn Parków Krajobrazowych Wielkopolski, nr 6 (8)

8. Kurzyński J, Mielnicka B., 2002a, Parki krajobrazowe alternatywą dla turystyki w parkach narodowych (na przykładzie polskich Karpat), [w:] Partyka J. (red.), Użytkowanie turystyczne parków narodowych, Ojców, IOP PAN
9. Szadziński S., 1984, Możliwości i uwarunkowania rozwoju funkcji turystycznych Doliny Gómej Narwi, Ośrodek Badań Naukowych, Białystok
10. Order of the Minister of Environment of 2005-05-16, regarding definition of game hunting periods, Journal of Laws 05.48.459
11. Liszewski S., 1995, Przestrzeń turystyczna, Acta Universitatis Lodziensis, Turyzm, t. 5, z.2
12. Majewski J., Lane B., 2002, Turystyka wiejska i rozwój lokalny, Fundacja Fundusz Współpracy, Warszawa
13. Liszewski S., 1991, Osadnictwo turystyczne, Problemy Turystyki, nr 1/2, Warszawa
14. Kamieniecka I., 1998, Ekopolityka w turystyce, Instytut na Rzecz Ekorozwoju, Warszawa

## ДИАЛЕКТИКА КУЛЬТУРЫ, ИСКУССТВА, ПОЛИТИКИ В ПОСТСОВЕТСКИХ СТРАНАХ

Йонас Сребалюс

*Вильнюсский технический университет им. Гедиминаса, г. Вильнюс, Литва,*

Введение. В статье поднимается проблема диалектики человеческого фактора. Объект статьи обоснован проблемой и определен духовными, производственными, политическими формами моральных истин достойной личности, субъекта единства культуры противоположностей в семье, в структурах экономики и политического управления государством. Новизна статьи определена объектом и его описанием, логическим обоснованием которого является: 1. Закон абсолютного роста энтропии; 2. Закон диалектики и единства противоположных сил системы; 3. Закон выживания системы. Закон абсолютного роста энтропии гласит, что реальные макроскопические системы имеют тенденцию перехода от сложного структурного состояния к более простому состоянию [1, 33-34.]. Закон выживания системы гласит, что материальная система может функционировать, если она обеспечивается энергией антиэнтропии, необходимой трудом сдерживать тенденцию роста энтропии структурного состояния системы. Закон диалектики и единства противоположных сил системы является логической основой познания объекта статьи.

Теоретической базой системного метода познания является новая теория выживания системных функций - энергоэнтропика, которая оценивает качественные и количественные изменения работающих систем в условиях действия абсолютного роста энтропии структур.

Функция диалектики. На стыке XX и XXI веков в экономических и политических структурах постсоветских стран, а так же в государствах Балтии проявилась тенденция абсолютного роста энтропии. Растущая скорость энтропии - это новый вызов диалектике моральных истин в семье, в структурах материального производства, в способах развития политических систем управления и самоуправления куль-