



KRAKOWSKA AKADEMIA IM. ANDRZEJA FRYCZA MODRZEWSKIEGO  
ANDRZEJ FRYCZ MODRZEWSKI KRAKOW UNIVERSITY

# BEZPIECZEŃSTWO

## TEORIA I PRAKTYKA

# SECURITY

## THEORY AND PRACTICE

STRESS IN UNIFORMED SERVICES

edited by  
Monika Ostrowska, Sławomir Mazur

e-ISSN 2451-0718  
ISSN 1899-6264

Kraków 2022  
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**Czasopismo punktowane w rankingu Ministerstwa Edukacji i Nauki oraz indeksowane w następujących bazach / The journal is ranked by the Ministry of Education and Science and indexed in the following bases:**

Repozytorium eRIKA. Repozytorium Instytucjonalne Krakowskiej Akademii im. Andrzeja Frycza Modrzewskiego;  
PBN. Polska Bibliografia Naukowa; Index Copernicus; CEJSH. The Central European Journal of Social Sciences; CEEOL. Central and Eastern European Online Library; BazHum

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Kraków 2022

e-ISSN 2451-0718  
ISSN 1899-6264

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**Na zlecenie / Commissioned by:**

Krakowska Akademia im. Andrzeja Frycza Modrzewskiego  
[www.ka.edu.pl](http://www.ka.edu.pl)

**Wydawca / Publisher:** Oficyna Wydawnicza KAAMF



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# Stress in uniformed services: Introduction

The term *stress* has become very popular in recent years. Although widely used, it is still ambiguous. It is applied when referring to uncommon, traumatic events, but also with regard to everyday life situations and related experiences. The concept of stress is derived from the works of physiologist Walter Cannon and endocrinologist Hans Selye and concerns primarily biological stress considered in terms of reactions to present stimuli. Any symptoms of maladjustment or lack of adaptation are treated as indicators of stress. Cannon used the term *stress* to describe the ‘fight or flight’ response triggered to restore the disturbed balance of the body as a result of the activity of disruptive stimuli.<sup>1</sup>

Selye used the term *stress* to mean ‘the nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it’. He called this reaction General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) which proceeds in three successive stages: the alarm reaction stage, the resistance stage, the exhaustion stage. In the first stage, the body mobilises its defence mechanisms and responds with particular, non-specific physiological changes. The second stage is a period of relative adaptation – the body opposes the constantly acting harmful factor. In principle, during this phase, the body tolerates the stressor affecting it well. The last stage, exhaustion, occurs when the exposure to harmful

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<sup>1</sup> See N. Ogińska-Bulik, Z. Juczyński, *Osobowość. Stres a zdrowie*, Difin, Warszawa 2010, p. 46.

factors is prolonged or too intense. On a physiological level, the body responds with an increase in generalised agitation. What follows is a dysregulation of physiological functions and a decrease in the performance of the body defence mechanisms.<sup>2</sup>

The high level of stress is inherent in the activities conducted by uniformed services, because they are constantly in a state of high nervous arousal. Officers live in a state of increased alertness and are subject to psychological, mental, emotional and physical challenges. They do not have an opportunity to isolate themselves from stressors. Participation in exhausting actions, risking one's own and others' lives, availability demands, lack of professional stability, public pressure, the necessity to make quick decisions and the use of weapons are additional stressful factors. Chronic exposure to stress causes an excessive burden on the nervous system and requires above-average mental effort. However, the experience of traumatic stress has not only negative health consequences on a psychological level, but it also contributes to the reduction of motivation to work and affects the way of performing tasks. Officers, soldiers and representatives of other uniformed services who have experienced long-term traumatic stress are at risk for suffering occupational burnout, developing post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and/or depression as well as many other disorders.

The *Articles* section of this publication includes the papers on the subjects related to stress in uniformed services: the assessment of the conditions and consequences of the actions of soldiers and policemen during the conflict on the Polish-Belarusian border (by Krzysztof Janik and Andrzej Skowroński), the phenomenon of combat stress in the Polish Armed Forces (by Monika Ostrowska and Cezary Podlasiński), burnout among police officers (by Jerzy Gut and Kamil Niedziela), the changes in the perception of gender stereotypes in the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic (by Michal Pružinský, Bohuslava Michalcowa), apolitical attitude in the Polish Police (by Iwona Osmólska, Józef Pruchniak), burnout among police officers serving at the Krakow Constabulary (by Monika Ostrowska, Renata Stojeczka-Zuber) and management of the organisational culture of fear (by Kazimierz Nagodny-Mrozowicz, Konstancy Mrozowicz). In the *From the History* section we present Janusz Wojtycza's paper on the subject of participation of young people from Lesser Poland and Cieszyn Silesia in the fights for the Cieszyn Region and Silesian Uprisings in the years 1919–1921.

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<sup>2</sup> See A. Piotrowski, *Stres i wypalenie zawodowe funkcjonariuszy Służby Więziennej*, Difin, Warszawa 2010, p. 45.



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# Articles





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# The service of police officers and soldiers at the Polish-Belarusian border during the 2021–2022 crisis

## Introduction

The events that occurred at the Polish-Belarusian border at the turn of 2021 and 2022 are unprecedented in the history of border security in the Third Republic of Poland. It is worth reminding that after 1989 the phenomenon of immigration has become the reality of our part of Europe as well. It was a consequence of the so-called Second Chechen War, when in the years 2000–2002 the Polish-Belarusian and Polish-Ukrainian borders were crossed by over 120 thousands of Chechen refugees.<sup>1</sup> Later on, after Poland's accession to the European Union, due to our geographical location we became a rather convenient transit country to Europe for many people. Consequently, the phenomenon of foreigners from neighbouring countries choosing to settle in Poland has developed. Among basic reasons for this trend we can name a relatively highly attractive standard of living, cultural proximity, but

<sup>1</sup> The issue of Chechen refugees is more widely approached in K. Pietrasik, *Uchodźcy czeczeńscy w Polsce w latach 1994–2000*, Difin, Warszawa 2020.

also a lack of hope for the development of migrants' home countries.<sup>2</sup> These are possible reasons why the problem of immigrants was non-existent in the public debate and in the general perception of reality.

This state of affairs continued for quite a long time. A large breakthrough came only in 2015. The phenomenon of the so-called migration crisis of 2014–2015, when millions of migrants arrived at Europe's borders as a result of armed conflicts in the Middle East and Libya, was not insignificant.<sup>3</sup> Contrary to the common belief and the narrative presented by the government, Poland was also, indirectly, affected. This is visible in numbers: in 2010 there were 54,310 foreigners legally residing in Poland; in 2015 – 99,124, and in 2020 it was already 524,903 people.<sup>4</sup> Quite importantly, these groups eventually started to include representatives of other cultures and other – non-Christian – religions. The indicated growth is also reflected in the number of issued work permits and their statistics are even more detailed. Thus, the following numbers of work permits were issued: in 2015 – approx. 66 thousand, in 2016 – over 127 thousand, in 2017 – almost 236 thousand, in 2018 – already 329 thousand, in 2019 – 445 thousand, and in 2020 – 406,5 thousand, which was most probably affected by the pandemic. Last year, already over 580 thousand of work permits were issued to citizens of 129 countries and to 11 stateless persons.<sup>5</sup> The trend is stable, as in May 2022, 797 thousand of foreigners were legally working in Poland.<sup>6</sup> Let us add that work permits were most commonly given to Ukrainian citizens. Almost 73% of foreigners granted with a work permit in Poland had a passport of this country. A notable percentage of permits was also granted to the citizens of Georgia and India (both at 2.0% of all granted permits), as well as Moldova (1.9%).<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> See E. Grzelak-Kostulska, M. Hołowiecki, D. Szymańska, *Migracje stałe do Polski w okresie transformacji ustrojowej*, [in:] *Ruchliwość przestrzenna ludności w okresie przemian ustrojowych*, ed. D. Szymańska, Uniwersytet Mikołaja Kopernika w Toruniu, Toruń 1998, pp. 181–189.

<sup>3</sup> An interesting analysis of this crisis was provided by M. Dahl, *Europejski kryzys migracyjny z 2015 roku i jego wpływ na prowadzoną przez Polskę w latach 2015–2018 politykę zagraniczną*, "Myśl Ekonomiczna i Polityczna" 2019, no. 2(65), pp. 202–219, [https://mysl.lazarski.pl/fileadmin/user\\_upload/oficyna/Mysl\\_Ekonomiczna\\_i\\_Polityczna/meip-64/MEiP\\_2-19\\_12Dahl.pdf](https://mysl.lazarski.pl/fileadmin/user_upload/oficyna/Mysl_Ekonomiczna_i_Polityczna/meip-64/MEiP_2-19_12Dahl.pdf) [accessed: 24.11.2021].

<sup>4</sup> See *Statystyki – Polska – Aktualne dokumenty – Mapa – Porównanie lat 2021/2010*, <https://migracje.gov.pl/statystyki/zakres/polska/typ/dokumenty/widok/mapa/rok/2021/rok2/2010/?x=0.6896&y=1.5023&level=1> [accessed: 24.11.2021].

<sup>5</sup> *Statystyki – Polska – Aktualne dokumenty – Mapa – Rok: 2022*, <https://migracje.gov.pl/statystyki/zakres/polska/> [accessed: 12.06.2022].

<sup>6</sup> *Coraz więcej cudzoziemców pracuje w Polsce*, Money.pl, <https://www.money.pl/gospodarka/coraz-wiecej-cudzoziemcow-pracuje-w-polsce-6649123652348800a.html> [accessed: 12.06.2022].

<sup>7</sup> *Zezwolenia na pracę cudzoziemców w 2020 roku*, Główny Urząd Statystyczny, <https://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/rynek-pracy/opracowania/zezwozenia-na-prace-cudzoziemcow-w-2020-roku,18,4.html> [accessed: 24.11.2021].

However, it must be noted that the overall number of foreigners residing in the Republic of Poland is much higher. Even before the COVID-19 pandemic, Central Statistical Office (Pol. Główny Urząd Statystyczny, GUS) estimated it to exceed 2.1 million. 2020 brought a slight decrease in the number of foreign citizens, but the stabilisation of the post-pandemic situation restored previous figures.<sup>8</sup> The quoted number includes employees, students and all other persons residing within our borders while illegally prolonging their resident visa, but also those who crossed the Polish border declaring the intention of proceeding to other EU countries and never fulfilled it. The unofficial estimates of the Polish Border Guard prior to the outbreak of the Ukrainian conflict indicated a number of approx. 2.5 million foreigners.

Two things should be mentioned here. Firstly, the aforementioned dominance of immigrants from our cultural circle. Poland is chosen as the country of final destination mostly by Ukrainians, but also, even though much less commonly, by Belarusians and Russians. It seems we can also carefully assume that apart from the closeness of the language, the Christian religious and ethnic identity (Pan-Slavism is still a present ethno-ideological movement to the east of the Polish borders), the historical political experience was also a decisive aspect. All post-communist countries were expected to have similar institutions and procedures, meaning that the adaptation to the new conditions in Poland should be easier.

The second observation is of different nature. Emigration from a native country is usually an individual, independent and independently carried out decision, with a possible psychological and logistic assistance from relatives, frequently family or neighbours, who had previously experienced it themselves. Considering the perspective of a home country, it may have a positive aspect of easing the tensions on the local labour market, bringing foreign exchange funds to the local economy and increasing the standard of living of its citizens. On the other hand, in the long term it may also have negative outputs. It drains the economy of the native country out of qualified workers, consequently lowering its human and social potential. Nevertheless, in most countries, governments try to avoid any administrative or forceful interference in these processes, recognising the citizens' rights to undertake individual decisions on the matter.

The events of autumn of 2021 at the Polish-Belarusian border contradicted this practice. Regardless of the intentions of Belarusian authorities, it is without doubt that the state machine of the country was responsible for these incidents and their goal was to destabilise the border protection system, if not the entire defence system of our country. The material collected on this matter lets us suggest that both the campaign promoting the entry to the EU through Poland, the migrants'

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<sup>8</sup> *Imigracja do Polski: wymiar sektorowy i regionalny*, <https://9lib.org/article/imigracja-dopolski-wymiar-sektorowy-i-regionalny.yj7r8k8m> [accessed: 12.06.2022].

stay in Belarus, and the attempts to cross the border were all motivated by Belarusian police forces.<sup>9</sup> Here is where there occurs a certain novelty when it comes to population migrations in modern times. Arguably, we can mention the case of the Mexican-USA border, but, even though the authorities of the former supported the emigration of foreigners to the United States, they never organised their arrival in Mexico and did not actively encourage them in attempting to cross the border.

It is, nonetheless, not our goal to analyse this issue. Nor do we intend to analyse the reaction of Polish authorities to these events. Certainly, time will come to do that and profound studies will answer the questions of if the reaction was adequate to the level of emergency and if our state followed the applicable international conventions on the treatment of refugees and foreigners seeking international protection. If the forces and measures, not only police, but also military, were used in accordance with the existing procedures and duly equipped with legal instruments and technical and material resources to ensure an effective goal execution. A thing that certainly does not help in answering these questions is the news blackout established since the beginning of this crisis. Whatever we know about these events is more a result of speculations of journalists and stories of volunteers that served in the areas of Podlasie and Lublin Province, as they usually do in such crises.

The origins of these events are most certainly to be found around the political crisis that occurred in Belarus after the 2020 presidential elections, which, according to many political environments, were neither free nor fair. Such an opinion was shared by the authorities of many European countries, including the government of the Republic of Poland. Criticism of Belarusian leaders increased after their violent suppression of public protests in Minsk and following the active support of the local opposition by EU countries and the threat of sanctions to be issued against the regime. The threat escalated after a Ryanair flight was forced to land in Minsk on 23 May 2021 and one of the leaders of the opposition was arrested as a passenger of the flight. In response to the sanction threat, on 26 May 2021, Alexander Lukashenko stated that his country will no longer stop the immigrants from crossing the EU border. In view of this situation, relevant EU administration announced the list of economic sanctions against Belarus and its authorities. In the beginning of July 2021, first organised groups of immigrants appear at the Lithuanian-Belarusian border, and a few days later at the Latvian-Belarusian border. Lithuania reacts to these events with the development of a fence on its border with Belarus, whereas Latvia introduces a state of emergency along its frontier. FRONTEX formations arrive in both countries, equipped with helicopters, means of communication and video surveillance.

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<sup>9</sup> The issue has been broadly covered in publications. See e.g. K. Bachman, *Kto zadzwoni do Łukaszenki*, "Gazeta Wyborcza", 13.11.2021; W. Sokała, *Niepokój ze Wschodu*, "Dziennik Gazeta Prawna", 10–14.11.2021; W. Łobodziński, *Piekło uchodźców trwa* [interview with Rut Kurkiewicz], "Dziennik Trybuna" 4–5.05.2022.

As a consequence, groups of immigrants move to the Polish-Belarusian border. The reaction of Polish authorities consists in a decision to build a fence along the Polish-Belarusian border and to introduce, as of 2 September 2021, a state of emergency in 183 municipalities bordering with Belarus. This is the beginning of a crisis that will last until the spring of 2022 and involve events raising dramatic emotions within the Polish society and political life. For our further considerations, it is important to note that from 10 August 2021, the actions of the Polish Border Guard were supported by the soldiers of the Polish Armed Forces and, subsequently, police officers.<sup>10</sup> Unfortunately, we were unable to find data that would allow to establish the size of this support among the publicly available sources, whether it would refer to the number of soldiers and officers, or their equipment.

## Research methodology

Among the soldiers and officers mobilised to serve on the border, there were several male and female students of Andrzej Frycz Modrzewski Krakow University. It was not kept secret, as service on the border was indicated as a reason of absence in classes, and the topic of observations and feelings related to this episode in their careers would also come up in informal conversations. This was the primary inspiration for the authors of this article to undertake research on the recruitment methods, preparations and conditions of service in the border area. Concurrently, we were aware of the methodological deficiency of the study. It was not possible to ensure representativeness of the research, mostly due to the aforementioned problems with establishing a reference group that would allow to confirm the level of representativeness.

Furthermore, it was not possible to ask all the questions necessary to explain the arising research problems. It was clear to us that some of the crucial issues are covered by the confidentiality of service and, obviously, it was not our goal to breach it. Hence, the designed questionnaire may be deemed non-exhaustive when it comes to substantial complexity and methodological correctness, but its final shape seemed optimal to us, especially with regard to the sincerity of replies and the comfort of the respondents. Received answers, opinions and the presented feelings of the participants allow to solve research problems and verify the hypotheses we constructed at the beginning of the study.

Our main research problem was formulated as a question: what were the circumstances of deployment and service in Podlasie and Lublin Province and their

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<sup>10</sup> *Kryzys migracyjny na granicy Polska-Białoruś*, XXI wiek Wiki, [https://xxiwiek.fandom.com/pl/wiki/Kryzys\\_migracyjny\\_na\\_granicy\\_Polska\\_-\\_Bia%C5%82oru%C5%9B](https://xxiwiek.fandom.com/pl/wiki/Kryzys_migracyjny_na_granicy_Polska_-_Bia%C5%82oru%C5%9B) [accessed: 16.06.2022]; *Granica polsko-białoruska – o co chodzi w konfliktach (Kalendarium wydarzeń)*, TVN24, <https://tvn24.pl/swiat/granica-polsko-bialoruska-o-co-chodzi-w-konfliktach-kalendarium-wydarzen-5484213> [accessed: 16.06.2022].

consequences for the participants? By dividing it into more specific problems, we intended to find an answer to the following questions:

1. What did the recruitment process look like?
2. Did the participants have trouble adapting to the situation at the border and what were the common issues?
3. What were the social and living conditions of soldiers and officers serving on the Polish-Belarusian border?
4. What kind of feelings and impressions did the participants experience during service?

Main hypothesis:

It is assumed that the stay at the border would have no significant impact on the service nor any consequences for the condition of officers and soldiers.

Specific hypotheses:

1. It is supposed that the officers and soldiers were assigned to this duty by order.
2. It is suspected that the participants had no problem with adaptation and the most affecting factor was separation from family.
3. It is assumed that social and living conditions deviate from the official message.
4. It is believed that the majority of feelings and impressions regarding the service on the border are positive.

The research was conducted in April 2022 among the students of Andrzej Frycz Modrzewski Krakow University who served on the Polish-Belarusian border during the ongoing crisis. It used a diagnostic survey as the method, a questionnaire as the technique, and a survey questionnaire as the research tool. The survey questionnaire comprised of 19 questions regarding social and living conditions, preparations for service, and 21 questions designed to reflect the impressions, feelings and problems related to the, nonetheless, new and particular manners of conducting service in very specific conditions.

## Profile of the research group

The research involved 50 representatives of uniformed services, police officers and soldiers only. The survey questionnaire was provided to 56 persons confirmed, directly or by a university group representative, to have served on the border. The questionnaire was sent via e-mail. Every fifth person from the list received the survey questionnaire directly from us, the others received it through their university group representatives or through another respondent who voluntarily provided the questionnaire to them. In order to ensure anonymity, we asked the respondents to send back their replies via e-mail through other persons they trusted or through student group representatives. 50 respondents participated. We do not know the reasons behind the other 6 persons not sending the surveys back, nor do we know



who they were. All this being said, we are fully aware of the risk of such a sample selection being unreliable, especially in view of the research representativeness, but other methods were out of question.

The research group was mainly comprised of men, with women representing 8% of all respondents, meaning a much lower proportion than in the main formation; moreover, all female participants were police officers. The latter constituted a vast majority of all respondents, i.e. 86%, whereas soldiers comprised 14%. A different, more balanced set of proportions refers to the age of the respondents. People under 25 years old constituted 30% of all participants; over a half of the respondents, 56%, was between 26–35 years old, whereas the group with a more significant life experience, over 36 years old, constituted just 7 persons.

Among the soldiers, the most numerous group had experienced between 3 to 6 years of service, whereas among the police officers, the groups were proportionally similar: for the experience of up to 3 years – 15 officers, for service of 3 to 6 years – 14 officers, for service of over 6 years – 14 officers (Table 1). It is worth reminding that all respondents were students of National Security or Internal Security at Andrzej Frycz Modrzewski Krakow University, meaning that they were in the process of receiving higher education, including a few participants at Master's level. This variable has been omitted in order to ensure full anonymity.

Table 1. Gender, experience in service and formation of respondents

Formation	Female	Male	Total	Experience of up to 3 years	Experience of 3–6 years	Experience of over 7 years
Armed Forces	0	7	7	1	5	1
Police	4	39	43	15	14	14
Total	4	46	50	16	19	15

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Therefore, we can establish that the age and the experience in service correspond with the generational structure of main formations, especially the part that constitutes their executive section. This is confirmed by the place within the structure of these formations occupied by our respondents, which can be determined by their corps and rank. Consequently, there were no commissioned officers among the respondents and the most numerous group comprised privates and non-commissioned officers, 24 and 21 persons, respectively. The corps of warrant officers and inspectors was represented by 4 policemen and 1 soldier. If we compare this category with the experience in service and the structure of the Armed Forces and the Police, it seems that this data is characteristic for the main formations and their paths of promotions. In line with this, we can assume with high probability that the research group, even though sparse and somewhat randomly selected, can indeed, to some extent, be

considered representative of the totality of soldiers and police officers. Nevertheless, it does not entitle us to draw any far-fetched general conclusions.

## Deployment and service on the border

The answers of the respondents revealed that only 20% of them volunteered for service on the border, whereas the remaining 80%, i.e. 40 persons, including 4 women, were assigned to service by order. The specific distribution of this data is displayed in Table 2, and its content does not allow for any definite conclusions, apart from the one that no woman has volunteered for this duty and the proportion of soldiers to police officers among volunteers was higher.

Table 2. Formation, corps, form of deployment regarding gender of respondents

Formation, corps		Gender, form of deployment		Voluntary application		By order	
		F	M	F	M		
Armed Forces	privates	0	2	0	4		
	non-commissioned officers	0	0	0	0		
	warrant officers/inspectors	0	1	0	0		
Police	constables	0	2	2	14		
	non-commissioned officers	0	2	2	17		
	warrant officers/inspectors	0	3	0	1		
Total		0	10	4	36		

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Only the second question allows for some conclusions of qualitative nature. The respondents were asked for their motivation behind joining the service on the border. One participant (volunteer) refrained from responding, while the choice of others is quite surprising. Six respondents (i.e. slightly over 12%) indicated a motivation we would define as patriotic: 'I was happy to go, the border needs to be defended'. Twelve other participants indicated a pragmatic reason ('I was happy to go, it's always a new experience'). These two answers were chosen, unsurprisingly, by all respondents that went to the border voluntarily. Meanwhile, the others divided into two halves. Sixteen participants chose the easiest explanation ('an order is an order'), whereas the other sixteen indicated: 'it ruined my plans, the service was a burden'. In our opinion, this means that during the recruitment of soldiers and police officers for this duty, the task of building motivation for service was completely neglected and the process of recruitment itself did not create a desirable, positive motivation. This is confirmed by the answers to another question, where 68% of respondents declare unwillingness towards repeating the service on the border and further 16% have no opinion on the matter.

The aforementioned critical remark is additionally confirmed by the answers to the question about the preparation for service. For a substantial majority of those assigned to serve on the border, i.e. over 70%, no training was organised with regard to the risks they could expect to face, not to mention the lack of trainings on the operation tactics and conflict resolution. Only 16% of officers and soldiers participated in the trainings for the service on the border. Every tenth respondent participated in the training and evaluated it as superficial. If we were to refer to the press coverage from their service on the border, one can carefully assess that the soldiers and officers were not prepared for the duty, and the training deficiencies and the lack of knowledge of the procedures resulted in many misunderstandings and conflicts.<sup>11</sup>

A certain chaos in the preparation of deployment of soldiers and officers to the border is additionally reflected in the fact that the service had various time frames. Most commonly, officers and soldiers were deployed on two-week duties, under the assumption this is the most optimal and effective time frame. Almost a half of respondents performed a two-week duty. Among the others, 14 persons served on the border for 1 month and the rest went there several times for a couple of days, which may suggest that their duties were of a more interventionist, interim character rather than planned.

Concurrently, it seems that the level of satisfaction from service was related to the social and living conditions provided for the soldiers and officers on the border. The accounts of respondents suggest that the soldiers and officers had an unlimited access to hot water. This results predominantly from the fact that 80% of them were accommodated in hotels or dormitories. When it comes to washing and drying clothes, it was ensured for only slightly over a half of them. All respondents, regardless of the place of accommodation, had access to a sufficient number of toilets. Depending on the place of accommodation, meals for the soldiers and the officers were either prepared on-site, or catering was provided. According to 60% of respondents, access to a heated canteen was available between specific hours, which was probably due to a very large group of forces on the border. However, only a few officers and soldiers (nearly 30%) had access to hot drinks on duty.

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<sup>11</sup> See e.g. B. Dżon-Ozimek, *Polska źle zarządza migracją* [interview with Michał Wanke, sociologist, University of Opole], "Przegląd", 7–13.03.2022; A. Jucewicz, *Chcę wrócić na granicę* [interview with Weronika Kalemba], "Gazeta Wyborcza", 16.04.2022; eadem, *Nie hejtuj pogranicznika* [interview with Sylwia Urbańska and Przemysław Sadura], "Gazeta Wyborcza", 13.11.2021. It is hereby worth mentioning that in December 2021, representatives of the Ombudsman's office controlled the conditions of soldiers serving on the border. The conclusions from this inspection were delivered to the Minister of National Defence and the bulk of them found confirmation in our research. See *Problemy służby żołnierzy na granicy. Marcin Wiącek sygnalizuje je MON po wizytacji Biura RPO. Resort odpowiada*, <https://bip.brpo.gov.pl/pl/content/rpo-mon-zolnierze-granica-problemy> [accessed: 15.06.2022].

When it comes to the question of free time for the officers and soldiers on the border, the situation looked very unfavourable. A vast majority (66%) was not provided with any organised leisure activities. For the rest, their main free time activities were watching TV and playing table tennis. This was indicated by 16% of respondents, whereas the others mentioned social games or other, individually organised leisure activities. Such an organisational shortcoming undoubtedly affected the level of satisfaction from the task. In hindsight, we can conclude that neglecting this issue and the lack of its closer analysis was our mistake in the process of developing the research.

The question that sums up this section of our study concerned the problems with adaptation during service on the border. It is worth noting that all volunteers for service had no problems with adaptation, whereas among the others, 25 respondents gave a similar answer. Among all participants, only 7 respondents admitted to any difficulties in the matter. In absolute numbers, this is illustrated in Table 3. In this case, we applied a five-point Likert scale with a final score of 1.26 point, and even with the deduction of the volunteer group, the score was still well above 1 point (1.06). Hereby, it needs to be added that other variables (gender, age, experience and corps) do not differentiate the participants.

Table 3. Problems with adaptation and form of recruitment

Likert scale	Problems with adaptation	Volunteers	By order
-2	Yes, I did experience	0	3
-1	I may have experienced some	0	4
0	It is difficult to say	0	3
+1	I almost did not experience any	0	7
+2	No, I did not experience	10	23

Source: authors' own elaboration.

In this case, we asked a control question about if the respondents noticed their colleagues from service mentioning any problems related to their stay on the border. The question was answered positively by 17 respondents (34%), who were also allowed to indicate more than one reason for these problems. We present the outline of these answers in Table 4.

The issue most commonly reported by the officers and soldiers was separation from family. Over 30% of respondents indicate coming across such opinions. Only 10% of respondents observed an opinion mentioning an emotional reaction to the difficult situation of immigrants, including especially the images of migrant children. What draws attention here, is the low level of discomfort regarding the situation of immigrants. We may argue that the studied group of soldiers and officers had a limited direct contact with refugees during their service on the border, and

the information on their location was provided either through media coverage or unofficially. Perhaps what we encounter here as well is a certain state of denial of this issue. The conflict between the sense of duty and the human compassion was resolved in favour of the former.

Table 4. Problems most commonly reported by soldiers and officers, as specified by respondents (more than one answer was possible)

	Problems reported	No problems reported
	17	33
Type of problem		
Separation from family	16	
Difficult situation of immigrants	1	
Images of migrant children	4	
Other, unspecified	2	
Other (stress)	1	

Source: authors' own elaboration.

## Impressions and feelings of participants

Finally, the last part of the survey questionnaire was dedicated to the issue of impressions and feelings, which we decided to capture under statements that the respondents needed to address. We simplified the task asking the participants to determine their opinion on a particular issue using digits that correspond to the following scale:

- 0 – never,
- 1 – rarely,
- 2 – sometimes,
- 3 – quite often,
- 4 – very often.

The questionnaire included 21 statements of various character, aimed at verifying the previous views and opinions and provide a basis to answer the question to what extent we can actually observe satisfaction from this duty and which parameters can define the level and quality of this satisfaction. We applied a solution that seems obvious, even though it may raise doubts in certain questions. We divided these factors into two groups: one being positive elements, meaning those that affected the sense of satisfaction positively. The second group includes negative feelings and impressions that may suggest that the satisfaction from duty is debatable. Three parameters are not suitable for this division, which is why they were set aside and described separately.

We classified all the above in terms of the level of impact of a particular factor on the feelings of the respondents. Additionally, we distinguished two groups of participants: police officers and respondents with short experience in service (both soldiers and police officers). These two variables stand out among the others when it comes to the feelings of the respondents, which is why they deserve attention. Feelings classified as positive are hereby presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Positive feelings and impressions of respondents according to the impact of a particular parameter

Ranking	Feeling/impression	Average result	Police officers	Respondents with experience of up to 3 years
1	A willingness to cooperate prevailed in my team	3.06	2.93	3.06
2	During service I was positively evaluated by superiors	2.46	2.30	2.31
3	I found satisfaction in the service	1.74	1.63	1.69
4	I felt the sense of purpose of this job	1.22	1.05	1.13
5	I see it as a good experience on my professional path	1.19	0.98	0.88
6	I learnt new skills	1.10	1.00	1.63
7	I thought I was finally doing something I like	0.72	0.53	0.63

Source: authors' own elaboration.

In order to provide a comprehensive view, it is worth adding that among the above impressions, the answer '4' was most commonly assigned to entry 1 (22 participants), entry 2 (10 participants) and entry 3 (6 participants). Other impressions received only one answer represented by '4' each, with no such answer to entry 7. Contrarily, the feelings that never accompanied the participants were entry 7 (26 respondents), entry 6 (20 respondents), entry 5 (19 respondents), entry 4 (18 respondents) and entry 3 (8 respondents). Three respondents questioned entry 1, and two others entry 2. Generally speaking, the average result for these impressions was 1.64, meaning that they were closest to the 'sometimes' category.

What draws attention here is a relatively high evaluation of the atmosphere in the teams of the respondents and their relations with direct superiors during service. Considering the service integration processes, these results cannot be overlooked, as they have an impact on the identification with the uniform, determining to high extent the level of professional satisfaction. Nevertheless, this does not diminish the importance of the negative factors, low level of contentment with the types of tasks assigned to our participants, a certain disappointment with the experience.

We verified this thesis confronting the feelings and impressions of respondents which we qualified as negative (Table 6).

Table 6. Negative feelings and impressions of respondents according to the impact of a particular parameter

Ranking	Feeling/impression	Average result	Police officers	Respondents with experience of up to 3 years
1	I counted down the days until the duty was over	2.92	3.07	3.06
2	I had a feeling not a lot depended on me	2.60	2.81	2.31
3	I thought the service should be organised differently	2.38	2.49	2.25
4	I felt like I was wasting my time	2.33	2.30	2.00
5	I felt discouraged	2.10	2.23	1.94
6	I was struggling to relax	1.80	1.93	1.81
7	During service on the border, I felt nervous	1.74	1.81	1.94
8	I was feeling irritated	1.64	1.84	1.56
9	During this service I felt lonely	1.35	1.37	1.44
10	I don't think I'll ever experience anything worse	1.29	1.33	1.44
11	I was given tasks beyond my capabilities	0.58	0.58	0.69

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Just as with the Table 5, we were interested to see what was the distribution of answers presented in absolute numbers, and once again we used the answer '4' here, meaning the case where particular feelings were mentioned very often. The highest number, over a half of the respondents, admitted they often counted down the days until the duty was over. Much less persons, 14 respondents, indicated entry 2 as common, while 11 respondents commonly identified with the feelings mentioned in entries 3 and 4. The remaining answers were evaluated with digits 1 to 3, meaning it did not have a great impact on the Table 6. Let us note that the average result for these feelings was 1.88.

We suppose that this is related to a lack of respectful approach towards the officers and soldiers during their service or, perhaps even more importantly, poor preparation for the job, which we already described earlier. The respondents indirectly admit that they had not been informed about the character of service, the nature of tasks, the essence and meaning of their duty. If this interpretation is true, it is a straight path towards the development and increase of stress and burnout. The analysis of these issues would require a more elaborate and extensive research, both when it refers to the research group and the substantial scope.

Ultimately, it is worth noticing the feelings we qualified as neutral, not being able to clearly assign them to one of the aforementioned groups. Their parameters are displayed in Table 7.

Table 7. Neutral feelings and impressions of respondents

Feeling/impression	Average	Police officers	Respondents with experience of up to 3 years
After returning from service, I felt completely exhausted	2.21	2.30	1.94
I still have memories of service	1.90	1.97	2.13
I feel that this episode has not affected me in any way	1.85	1.88	2.13

Source: authors' own elaboration.

The results displayed in Table 7 are not easily interpreted, as they may appear as both negative and positive. It is worth emphasising that around 20% of respondents chose the answer '1', meaning never. The other answers were indicated rather equally often, meaning that this incidental deployment was an episode worth remembering in the lives of these young people, and as such, it is worth the attention of researchers and professional superiors.

What is worth noticing here is the two subgroups we distinguished in the Tables: police officers and a group at the beginning of their professional career. We already mentioned that the average result of positive feelings in the entire research group was 1.64. Police officers proved to be less satisfied, with an average of 1.49. Similarly, the average of the feelings we classified as negative for all participants was 1.88, while the average for police officers was 0.1 point higher. This may either mean that police officers are more critical of this service or the preparation for deployment and the leadership was worse.

Similarly, the group of less experienced soldiers and police officers displayed a lower level of satisfaction than the entire research group (average 1.62), but also lower dissatisfaction (average 1.85). The less experienced, as the specified results of Table 6 may be interpreted, had lower expectations towards service, but also much more commonly they mentioned feeling nervous, lonely, and thinking nothing worse could ever happen to them. They appreciated (Table 5) gaining new skills, but in general they did not think it was a good experience on their professional path.

The question intended to verify the results presented in the Tables was the following: Given the opportunity, would you join similar service again? We correlated the answers to this question with several variables and two of them proved to be of high level. The first one: the form of recruitment for this service is illustrated in Table 8. It clearly displays that 60% of volunteers and only 5% of the participants deployed to the border by order are willing to perform such service again. This result leads us to interpret the data included in Tables 5, 6, 7 extremely carefully and resolve any doubts in favour of the thesis suggesting poor experiences from this service. This data is displayed in Table 8.



Table 8. Form of recruitment and the willingness to serve on the border again

Willingness to perform such service again	Form of recruitment	Voluntary application	By order	Total
Yes		6	2	8
No		3	31	34
I don't know		1	7	8

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Another variable we decided to indicate in this analysis is the formation the respondents served. As a result, it appeared that a vast majority of police officers, 34, including 19 non-commissioned officers and 15 constables do not wish to serve on the border again. This confirms our previously expressed opinion that the goal and conditions of service on the border are more critically evaluated by police officers than by soldiers. Even the fact that 3 inspectors and 1 non-commissioned police officer, as well as 3 privates and 1 warrant officer of the Polish Armed Forces would gladly serve again, does not affect the result of the entire research.

Overall, the duty on the border is not highly appreciated neither by soldiers nor by police officers.

## Conclusions

The Polish-Belarusian border crisis requires the government to foresee, plan and take specific preventive actions including as well, or perhaps first and foremost, mental preparation of uniformed services to serve in various conditions. Such preparations should focus on providing positive motivation and a clear understanding of the significance of given tasks. Our research indicates a lack of specific procedures and recruitment regulations for service on the border. Just as we assumed, a vast majority of officers and soldiers were deployed to the border by order, which significantly affected the general evaluation of the duty. If service preparations were well implemented, with the use of motivational tools, both tangible and intangible, more people would volunteer for service.

It is obvious that to outsiders the representatives of uniformed services adapt to various conditions and situations very quickly and such a view results from the character of service. In our research we intended to receive a first-hand answer to the question if the character and challenges of this clearly unusual service have an impact on the adaptation process and related difficulties. As it appears, only a small number of participants had problems with adaptation, the others handled the conditions well. Separation from family turned out to be the biggest issue. The adopted hypothesis was confirmed by the study.

What seems crucial for job satisfaction, especially during deployment, are the social and living conditions. We had mistakenly assumed that the conditions on the border were not great and that the government did not ensure appropriate conditions of stay for the soldiers and police officers. Even though at the beginning of the crisis there were many critical remarks regarding accommodation and food, the situation kept improving from one week to the next. The respondents state that the social and living conditions were good, with critical remarks only towards the question of organised leisure. Nevertheless, the mandatory rest and service hours were guaranteed.

With regard to the fourth hypothesis, the research does not clearly determine if service on the border created positive feelings and impressions. On the one hand, the respondents indicated a good atmosphere among their colleagues and good relations with their superiors, on the other hand, though, they did not demonstrate particular contentment with the service. This reflects in the statement that they would not willingly perform such service again. Some of them felt nervous and lonely, while most believed this experience would have no impact on their future service and professional career.

What seems to be necessary is the following:

1. Recruitment and emergency training strategies for various future events should be established.
2. Various motivational tools, including tangible and intangible incentives, should be developed in cooperation with psychologists.
3. The Agency for Strategic Reserves should be in possession of resources for various emergencies in order not to take reactive measures.
4. A 'modus operandi' for the occurrence of the most adverse events and phenomena should be prepared, so that a quick and decisive reaction to a particular situation is possible.

In order to present a full picture of the situation on the border and related dilemmas, a more extensive qualitative research would be necessary, thus enabling to offer recommendations and tools for an effective implementation of knowledge, experience and engagement of police officers and soldiers in the performance of similar tasks.

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## *The service of police officers and soldiers at the Polish-Belarusian border during the 2021–2022 crisis*

### *Abstract*

In recent years, the question of population migration has become more present in the Polish social and political life. One of the examples of this phenomenon was the set of events at the turn of 2021 and 2022, when thousands of people tried to illegally cross the Polish-Belarusian border and enter the Republic of Poland. The state reacted by reinforcing border services, deploying soldiers and police officers to serve on the border. The circumstances of the deployment, conditions of service and related impressions of participants became the subject of research, the results of which are presented in this article. Most of our respondents were deployed to the border by order and were scarcely

or completely unprepared to the service. The social and living conditions during service are evaluated as rather good, although leisure activities were poorly organised. Among the feelings and impressions from service, the most highly appreciated were the team atmosphere and cooperation and the attitude of superiors. Nevertheless, what prevails is a moderate dissatisfaction with the job, with a vast majority of participants unwilling to repeat such service.

Key words: immigration, border, border service, Polish-Belarusian border, border crisis

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# Combat stress within the Polish Armed Forces

## Introduction

With a high degree of probability, one can claim that among the many unpleasant experiences of any human being, the most traumatic one is related to active participation in an armed conflict. Having said this, every war, apart from the human ordeal it causes, can still contribute to the development of humanity. Polish General Władysław Sikorski once said that “from the earliest days of human existence, and ever since the history of the humankind came to the fore, war has been regarded as one of the principles of human development.”<sup>1</sup>

The earliest references to mental disorders can be found in Homer’s *Odyssey*, in the poetic records dating back to the eighth century BC. This piece of literary art describes the experiences of Odysseus, a veteran of the Trojan War, who experiences the reminiscences of war trauma. In 1871, Jacob Mendes Da Costa described the “soldier’s heart” syndrome in his notes on the American Civil War.<sup>2</sup>

One of the chronicles by William Shakespeare, which dates back to around 1596, looks at the fate of Henry IV, the then king of England. The monarch, after

<sup>1</sup> W. Sikorski, *Przyszła wojna*, Wydawnictwo MON, Warszawa 1984, p. 29.

<sup>2</sup> A. Holiczer, M. Gałuszko, W.J. Cudała, *Zaburzenie stresowe pourazowe – opis ewolucji koncepcji zaburzenia i podejść terapeutycznych*, “Psychiatria” 2007, vol. 4, no. 1, p. 25.

coming back from the war, experienced nightmares and avoided everything that would remind him of any possible traumatic situation. A few decades after Shakespeare, Robert Burton, a seventeenth-century humanist, in his *Anatomy of Melancholy* (1621), looked at the psychological consequences of traumatic events. A witness to the plague epidemic of 1665 and the Great Fire of London a year later, Samuel Pepys, in his *Diary*, recorded his experiences related to bringing back a variety of traumatic events.<sup>3</sup>

During the American Civil War (1861–1865), the stress of fighting was called “the irritable heart”, or “the soldier’s heart syndrome”, or “Da Costa’s syndrome.” Its key symptoms were shortness of breath, heart palpitations, headaches, fatigue, sleep disorders, as well as a feeling of homesickness and nostalgia. It was accompanied by severe apathy, a loss of appetite, diarrhoea, and obsessive thoughts related to home. During the Civil War, about 2,500 cases of mental disorders – chiefly mental insanity – and almost 5,000 cases of nostalgia were diagnosed, which ended in hospital treatment. To this number, one should add about 200,000 deserters, and 160,000 cases of severe disorders of the human digestive system, referred to as the “precombat syndrome.”<sup>4</sup> Overall, about 3 million soldiers fought in the Civil War, of whom 970,000 were killed or seriously wounded. Those who survived reported serious physical or mental health problems later in life. The youngest soldiers from the sub-units that suffered the greatest losses on the battlefield were those most exposed to this kind of health issues.<sup>5</sup>

In their 1945 book *Men under Stress*, Roy R. Grinker and John P. Spiegel look at the symptoms revealed in American airmen fighting in World War II, the major ones being anxiety, irritability, aggression, sleep disturbances, nightmares, chronic fatigue, and attention deficit disorders.<sup>6</sup>

However, the crux of the actual and diagnosed issue related to symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) was found in US soldiers who fought in Vietnam, when in 1989 the US government decided to set up the National Center for PTSD within the Department of Veterans Affairs in response to a Congressional mandate to address the needs of Veterans and other trauma survivors with PTSD. The centre was developed with the ultimate purpose to enhance the well-being, status, and understanding of Veterans in American society.<sup>7</sup> Major

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<sup>3</sup> M. Makara-Studzińska, I. Partyka, P. Ziemecki, *Zespół stresu pourazowego – rys historyczny, terminologia, metody pomiaru*, “Current Problems of Psychiatry” 2012, vol. 13, no. 2, pp. 109–112.

<sup>4</sup> A. Korolczuk, A. Gołębiowski, M. Tomko-Gwoździwicz, *Od nostalgii do PTSD*, “Zeszyty Naukowe WSO WL” 2009, no. 3 (153), p. 116.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibidem*, pp. 116–117.

<sup>6</sup> A. Holiczer, M. Gałuszko, W.J. Cubała, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

<sup>7</sup> *VA History*, United States Department of Veterans Affairs, [https://www.va.gov/HISTORY/VA\\_History/Overview.asp](https://www.va.gov/HISTORY/VA_History/Overview.asp) [accessed: 19.08.2022].

emphasis was also placed on those serving in Iraq and Afghanistan. The data on the percentage of symptoms, both on the battlefield and after returning to the homeland, vary. For example, Henryk Skłodowski and Paweł Błaszczczyński, in their research paper entitled *Combat stress: history and present. The Polish perspective*, referring to the 2004 publication by Charles W. Hoge *et al.*,<sup>8</sup> argue that the veterans who underwent treatment following the subsequent wars were, for example, “1.2% in Vietnam (but as many as 16% sought treatment after returning home) and 2% in Iraq, while 17% of the US infantry serving in Iraq admitted to having significant stress symptoms 3–6 months after returning home.” Thus, it seems legitimate to claim that the majority of victims report their problems not in the war zone, but only after coming back home.<sup>9</sup>

At the same time, the already mentioned Department of Veterans Affairs, on its website, devotes a lot of space to both the problems related to the origins, diagnosis and assistance provided to victims of PTSD. On it, one can also find abundant statistical references that serve to select the appropriate way to tackle the problem. For example, the authors of the article *PTSD in Iraq and Afghanistan Veterans* estimate that during the Enduring Freedom and Iraqi Freedom operations, 15.7% of the veterans who took part directly in the mission area (i.e. deployed veterans) confirmed symptoms of PTSD, compared to 10.9% of the soldiers not involved in the warfare during those operations. At the same time, as a whole, in their research, representatives of the Department estimate that about 13.5% of all the surveyed soldiers were found positive for PTSD.<sup>10</sup>

French physiologist Claude Bernard (1813–1878) is commonly referred to as the forerunner of the theoretical insights into the notion of stress. In the nineteenth century, he argued that there are certain defence mechanisms within the human body the interaction of which allows it to combat a vast array of threats, and thus to stay alive. Decades later, these assumptions became the cornerstones for the work of American physiologist Walter Cannon (1871–1945), known as the creator of the theory of homeostasis, i.e. the ability to remain the same.<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>8</sup> Ch.W. Hoge *et al.*, *Combat duty in Iraq and Afghanistan, mental health problems, and barriers to care*, “New England Journal of Medicine” 2004, vol. 351, no. 1, pp. 13–22.

<sup>9</sup> H. Skłodowski, P. Błaszczczyński, *Stres bojowy: historia i współczesność. Perspektywa polska*, “Psychiatria i Psychologia Kliniczna” 2013, vol. 13, no. 2, p. 127.

<sup>10</sup> *PTSD in Iraq and Afghanistan Veterans*, United States Department of Veterans Affairs, <https://www.publichealth.va.gov/epidemiology/studies/new-generation/ptsd.asp> [accessed: 19.08.2022].

<sup>11</sup> A. Potocka, *Stres – natura zjawiska*, [in:] M. Waszkowska, A. Potocka, P. Wojtaszczyk, *Miejsce pracy na miarę oczekiwań: poradnik dla pracowników socjalnych*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Instytutu Medycyny Pracy im. prof. J. Nofera, Łódź 2010, p. 11.

## The nature and typology of stress

In the modern age, the notion of stress has become a separate field of research within the larger domain of psychology. Issues related to stress have been subjected to numerous theoretical models that explicate the aetiology, dynamics and mechanisms of burnout, as well as those that facilitate planning and a vast array of other actions geared towards counteracting this negative phenomenon.

Władysław Łosiak notes that the influence of the social environment is not always beneficial, especially in the context of social support. Often, the presence and actions of other people is a source of stress. The circumstances in which this interaction takes place revolve primarily around the workplace. The issue of stress in the workplace is of primary importance, given the role work and professional activity plays in the life of adults. The impact of the social environment at work is associated with such basic stressors as excessive demands, competition, poor management styles, role ambiguity, or mobbing.<sup>12</sup>

Stress is inextricably linked to the life and work of every human being. It affects all spheres of the functioning of the individual mind and body. “Good” stress, also known as eustress, mobilises and motivates people to take action and achieve their set goals. This said, excessive or chronic stress has a variety of negative consequences in the form of health disorders that significantly worsen human functioning and reduce the quality of one’s personal and professional life. Nowadays, the importance of stress and its effects are gaining momentum, as evidenced by numerous studies and publications that deal with the notion. The UN has called occupational stress “the global epidemic of the twentieth century.”<sup>13</sup>

The Dictionary of Psychology, in its definition of stress, distinguishes two types of stress. The former is physiological stress, which means that the body responds to it with various factors, such as cooling, overheating, or injury. The latter is psychological stress, which is caused by a stressor, i.e. an internal or an external stimulus, or by an increase in emotional tension, which leads to the mobilisation of forces, and this, in turn, leads to psychosomatic diseases and exhaustion.<sup>14</sup>

Stress is defined very broadly. There are many definitions of this concept in various fields of science. One can even call it a disease of the civilisation of the twenty-first century. In the media, primarily on the Internet or in the press, a lot of attention is drawn to long-term stress, which has a destructive effect on human physical and mental health.

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<sup>12</sup> W. Łosiak, *Psychologia stresu*, Wydawnictwa Akademickie i Profesjonalne, Warszawa 2008, p. 170.

<sup>13</sup> K. Jabłkowska, A. Borkowska, *Ocena nasilenia stresu w pracy a cechy zespołu wypalenia zawodowego u menadżerów*, “Medycyna Pracy” 2005, vol. 56, no. 6, p. 439.

<sup>14</sup> *Słownik Psychologiczny*, ed. W. Szewczuk, Wiedza Powszechna, Warszawa 1985, p. 297.



## PTSD: the essence of the problem

Traumatic stress is the cause of destructive changes that occur in the body. Psychological injuries differ from physical injuries only in that the former cannot be seen with the naked eye.

Since 1980, the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) classification of the American Psychiatric Association (APA), currently in the DSM-5 revision, has included PTSD. Maria Lis-Turlejska believes that PTSD, according to the DSM-IV class, is epitomised by the following factors:

- a) exposure to life-threatening experiences;
- b) re-enactment of trauma;
- c) persistent avoidance or decrease in overall reactivity, and
- d) persistent symptoms of increased agitation.<sup>15</sup>

Charles R. Figley and William P. Nash distinguish several groups of stressors that can be found on the battlefield. The five basic ones include:

- 1) physical stressors: heat and cold, dehydration and dampness, dirt and mud, sleep deprivation, noises and explosions, fumes and bad smell, bright light and darkness, poor nutrition, illness and injury;
- 2) cognitive stressors: lack of information or excess of information, ambiguous or changing task or role, ambiguous or changing rules of engagement, loyalty conflicts, boredom and monotony, experiences that seem meaningless;
- 3) emotional stressors: loss of friends caused by death or fatal injuries, fear, shame and guilt, helplessness, horror of massacre, killing;
- 4) social stressors: isolation from social support, lack of privacy and/or personal space, the media and public opinion;
- 5) spiritual stressors: loss of faith in God, inability to forgive or to experience the emotion of having been forgiven.<sup>16</sup>

The most common symptoms include isolation from the environment, excessive and inadequate responses to various stimuli, e.g. outbursts of anger, flashbacks: extremely vivid and intense memories of the course of a traumatic event that occur independently of one's free will, nightmares associated with a traumatic situation, anhedonia: inability to feel pleasure, avoiding situations that may evoke memories related to the situation that has caused the trauma, suicidal thoughts, sleep disorders, palpitations, headaches, rapid breathing, and lack of appetite.<sup>17</sup>

<sup>15</sup> M. Lis-Turlejska, *Stres traumatyczny. Występowanie, następstwa, terapia*, Wydawnictwo Akademickie "Żak", Warszawa 2002, p. 9.

<sup>16</sup> Ch.R. Figley, W.P. Nash, *Stres bojowy. Teorie, badania, profilaktyka i terapia*, transl. by J. Radzicki, M. Höffner, M. Dragan-Polak, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2010, pp. 23–35.

<sup>17</sup> M. Wysokińska, *PTSD (zespół stresu pourazowego) – objawy, leczenie, przyczyny*, Medicover, <https://www.medicover.pl/zdrowie/psychiczne/ptsd/> [accessed: 26.06.2022].

Diagnosis is carried out by psychologists, including psychotraumatologists, or psychiatrists. Structured interviews, scales and questionnaires are used in diagnostics, including Solomon's PTSD questionnaire, Goldstein's PTSD interview, Card's questionnaire, and Foy's questionnaire.

## The medical criteria of PTSD

The diagnostic criteria of ICD-10 and DSM IV-TR are similar. Both classifications assume the occurrence of common elements, such as a recurrent experience of trauma, avoidance of the stimuli associated with it, and excessive emotional arousal. Also, both classifications posit that the cause of the injury is known and it is (point A in ICD-10) an event or a situation that is extremely threatening or catastrophic which can cause suffering to almost everyone, and (also point A) in DSM IV, which refers to the confrontation with a threat (A1), also as a witness to a particular event, and in point A2 adds specific reactions, including fear, a sense of helplessness or horror. The criterion of recurrence – a recurrent trauma experience in ICD-10 is criterion B. It includes triggering of the stressor in the form of flashbacks, memories, dreams, or deteriorated well-being in a stress-like situation. These symptoms are also included in the DSM IV category. Both classifications in point C contain descriptions of avoiding trauma-related stimuli. The DSM IV classification emphasises the presence of blunting, a reduction in overall reactivity. The criterion of overstimulation, expressed in ICD-10 in point D2, is equivalent to point D in DSM IV and focuses on symptoms such as sleeping disorders, irritability, outbursts of anger, difficulty concentrating, hypervigilance, and increased reactions to surprises. The criterion of the time elapsed from the injury to the beginning of the disorder is important (point E, both classifications). In the case of DSM IV, this is the duration of symptoms that exceed one month. In ICD, this criterion refers to the duration of symptoms beyond 6 months, rarely longer. In the DSM IV, the criterion of patient disruption is still present, while it does not occur in the ICD-10.<sup>18</sup>

## Systemic solutions in Polish Armed Forces

In fact, the issue of battlefield stress in the Polish Armed Forces began to be noticed by commanders and on individual levels of command of the armed forces during the first shift of the stabilisation mission in Iraq. One cannot claim that the first cases were underestimated by the top-rank officers, but one could argue that they were neglected given the poor awareness of the seriousness of the problem. Soldiers with clear symptoms of the disorder were removed from direct duty and

<sup>18</sup> M. Makara-Studzińska, I. Partyka, P. Ziemecki, *op. cit.*, pp. 109–112.

rotated to the country with the entire shift, i.e. in the normal rotation mode. However, the number and further consequences forced the superiors to change their approach and strive to seek comprehensive solutions to the problem, starting from proper preparation of commanders and soldiers themselves during the training programmes through further changes implemented along the way and during the mission itself. Solutions were sought both in the formal and legal domains, by e.g. regulating these issues in relevant pieces of legislation and in the various decisions of the Polish Ministry of National Defence, as well as by launching a reporting system – by registering the reporting cases – and commencing the treatment of the injured.

Current systemic solutions in this scope concern several levels, starting with properly empowered full-time and non-permanent structures at individual levels of command and control, the entire area of care of veterans or soldiers diagnosed with symptoms of PTSD, monitoring and reporting those suspected of possible symptoms, and devising a training system for soldiers and commanders, in particular, before they set out on foreign missions.

Before moving on to a more detailed analysis of the provisions of formal and legal documents, which contain an outline of the tasks for the individual structures and those responsible for the above issues at all organisational levels, it is worth specifying the units and the people operating at the individual levels of the structure of the military forces.

Analysing the system at the level of the Ministry of National Defence, one will find the Department of Social Security of Soldiers and Veterans, which was located in the Department of Social Affairs. In general, the Department “is responsible for the functioning of the social security system, the military pension scheme and conversion assistance, and the formation of the employment and wage system of the staff.”<sup>19</sup> Within its competences, the Department of Social Security of Soldiers and Veterans is in charge of coordinating the issues that may arise from the Veterans’ Service Beyond the State Borders Act of 19 August 2011; thus, the issues related to PTSD have been featured in the Act.

Similarly, also at the level of the Ministry of Defence, one can come across various provisions regarding the responsibility in the care of veterans and soldiers who require psychological assistance in the Department of Military Health Service. The preamble of the scope of the tasks set for this Department contains a provision that reads: “[t]he Department of Military Health Service is responsible for setting the goals and directions of the development and functioning of the health care system and psychological care. The aim of the Department is to create proper conditions for the functioning of the health care system and psychological assistance in the

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<sup>19</sup> *Departament Spraw Socjalnych*, <https://www.gov.pl/web/obrona-narodowa/departament-spraw-socjalnych> [accessed: 1.08.2022].

ministry for those on duty, the staff, veterans and injured veterans.”<sup>20</sup> What follows is a more detailed list of the tasks set for this Department:

- “1) setting guidelines and goals for the development of the health care system and psychological assistance at the ministry;
- 2) defining standards of health protection and psychological care, production, storage and marketing of medicinal products and medical devices, as well as sanitary-hygienic and veterinary protection schemes at the ministry;
- 3) preparing bills at the ministry that regulate the organisation and functioning of health care and psychological assistance, and monitoring legislation in this area;
- 4) developing health, psychological and preventive schemes; implementing them, and monitoring their implementation;
- 5) organising health care and psychological assistance within the ministry.”<sup>21</sup>

The Director of the Department of Military Health Service reports directly to the Central Military Psychological Laboratory, five Regional Military Psychological Laboratories, and thirty Military Psychological Laboratories.

Below the level of the Ministry of National Defence within the Polish Armed Forces, there are specially designated representatives for veterans’ affairs. At the Armed Forces Branches General Command (Pol. Dowództwo Generalne Rodzajów Sił Zbrojnych, DG RSZ) and the Armed Forces Branches Operational Command (Pol. Dowództwo Operacyjne Rodzajów Sił Zbrojnych, DO RSZ), there are the only full-time positions; in other institutions one can find non-full-time positions. They are assisted by consultants of the commander for psychological prevention. In addition, the representative of the DO RSZ also performs his function for the veterans who have been injured in civilian life. At the military unit level, Veterans Assistance Coordinators work on a part-time basis.

Clearly, discussing the issue of post-traumatic stress or battlefield stress, one should primarily look at veterans (participants of foreign missions), but one should also take into account all the soldiers and staff of the Ministry of National Defence serving and working in the country. All the more so in the current era of technological development, or the experience of the last three years of the COVID-19 pandemic, stress can affect anyone who has been exposed to problems that they are unable to cope with on their own.

The salient role in the entire system of recognising the first symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder is played by the psychoprophylactic tier found in military units, psychologists in psychological clinics, and superiors or colleagues who are usually the first ones to notice any possible symptoms. Of course, we are looking at the same time at military units stationed in the country and those military units that have been sent

<sup>20</sup> *Departament Wojskowej Służby Zdrowia*, <https://www.gov.pl/web/obrona-narodowa/departament-wojskowej-sluzby-zdrowia> [accessed: 1.08.2022].

<sup>21</sup> *Ibidem*.

to serve in foreign operations. The only difference may be the fact that it is not always the case for psychologists of military units, who know their soldiers by working with them or spending time with them on a daily basis in their unit, to travel with their unit to the area of the foreign operations. In this case, however, they participate in the whole process of preparation – as a rule, from 6 to 12 months, depending on the nature of the mission – trying to get to know all the soldiers, while cooperating with various psychologists of the military units from which the soldiers originate.

## Rules for dealing with PTSD

Post-traumatic stress disorder is diagnosed on the basis of current diagnostic standards – DSM-5<sup>22</sup> and ICD-10.<sup>23</sup> PTSD can occur in the aftermath of the situations mentioned above and affect soldiers, police officers, rescuers or people experienced by such an event.

In the case of PTSD symptoms – i.e. recurring and persistent memories, dreams featuring a traumatic event, or a wide array of dissociative reactions – one begins to behave as if they were still experiencing the event: their mood can change dramatically, they try to avoid similar situations or do their best to keep those that may remind about the trauma at bay. People suffering from PTSD can manifest the following symptoms: hypervigilance, poor concentration, self-destructive behaviour, irritability, and sleep disorders.

As regards the above disturbing symptoms in a soldier, which can be observed by people who are not psychotraumatologists or psychiatrists, they first consult a psychologist employed in a given military unit. It is extremely important that the consultation takes place at the request of the person concerned or their immediate superior, who has been informed about the situation by other soldiers, or who has noticed the problem himself. The goal of such a consultation is to carry out a preliminary analysis of the reported problem and make an attempt at determining the next steps.

If a military psychologist confirms the symptoms that may be indicative of PTSD, an interview should take place with the immediate superior and/or commander of the unit in order to possibly remove the soldier from those duties in which the use of fire-arms is required.

Depending on the attitude – cooperative or resistant – of the soldier, the psychologist may try to undertake therapeutic work as part of a psychological consultation centre in the unit, or refer the soldier to external institutions, such as Mental Health Clinics, Psychotherapeutic Centres, or Psychiatric Hospitals with the simultaneous

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<sup>22</sup> *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders*, 5<sup>th</sup> ed., American Psychiatric Association, Arlington, VA 2013.

<sup>23</sup> International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems 10<sup>th</sup> Revision (ICD-10) Version 2019, <https://icd.who.int/browse10/2019/en> [accessed: 1.08.2022].

regular delivery of certificates from a specialist that prove the treatment undertaken and continued. At the same time, in the absence of cooperation on the part of the person affected by PTSD, it is possible to refer a medical commission for examination to assess the state of this individual's mental health. At this point, it should be remembered that each case is considered separately, as the overriding goal of the procedure is to improve the mental state of the person affected by the disorder.

While a whole system of support and management after the detection of symptoms has been organised, there are no normative guidelines that regulate actions in the event of PTSD symptoms. The actions taken by the psychologist is based primarily on his experience and expertise.

## Legal aspects

An extremely important problem that allows to monitor the scale of the problem and thus to provide an appropriate response at all levels of management, command and support for the victims is the reporting system that serves to keep a record of the cases identified. In accordance with Decision no. 155 of Minister of National Defence of 26 October 2021 regarding the organisation and functioning of psychological care and assistance at the ministry, introducing specific guidelines for the activities of psychologists and providing psychological assistance at the ministry, as well as the psychological assistance scheme for participants of foreign missions, and their families,<sup>24</sup> it deals with transferring this type of data "upwards", i.e. from the lowest levels of command to the Ministry of National Defence upwards through all the intermediary levels. This is carried out both in the cycle of ordinary reports about events, as well as the information contained in the so-called reports on people's moods, and ending with annual reports, carried out both in the country and in missions performed abroad.

Two paths are especially important. The first one rests on the information contained in quarterly reports on moods. It is true that there is no special point dedicated to PTSD, but part 1 point 3 makes explicit reference to "[s]ocial moods against the background of social and living and material-technical conditions of service and work", which covers, among other things, the problems related to PTSD and veterans.

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<sup>24</sup> Decyzja nr 155/MON Ministra Obrony Narodowej z dnia 26 października 2021 r. w sprawie organizacji i funkcjonowania opieki psychologicznej w resorcie obrony narodowej, wprowadzenia wytycznych do działalności psychologów i wykonywania opieki psychologicznej w resorcie obrony narodowej oraz programu opieki psychologicznej dla uczestników misji poza granicami państwa i ich rodzin, Dziennik Urzędowy Ministerstwa Obrony Narodowej [Official Journal of the Ministry of National Defence] 2021, item 235.

The second path is dedicated to this issue and has been set out in Decision no. 155 of Minister of National Defence. It concerns the aggregate numerical data for units that are provided by all units to the psychologist coordinator from the General Command as part of annual reports and further upwards to the Department of Military Health Service. Similarly, such a report is drawn up at the end of each shift in the framework of activities outside the country.

An important element of the support system or care for veterans, including the area of PTSD, is the Centre for Veterans of Activities Outside the State,<sup>25</sup> which reports to the Department of Social Affairs of the Ministry of National Defence. It offers help and the opportunity to get assistance, in particular with regard to the legal and psychological nature of the problem in question. In addition, the Centre for Veterans of Activities Outside the State has published a comprehensive booklet entitled *Veteran's guide: the rights of veterans who have served outside the state*.<sup>26</sup> The booklet is a guide to the areas that can significantly help every veteran and injured veteran: starting from obtaining the status of a veteran or injured veteran to the issues related to their honouring, their benefits and/or entitlements, and many more. Of primary importance are parts 5 and 6 of the guide, where those interested can find information on psychological assistance and health care benefits.

The system was complemented by the establishment of the Centre for the Treatment of Veterans Serving Outside the State (Pol.: Centrum Leczenia Weterana). The centre was set up in August 2021 at the Provincial Medical Institute and its key goal is to provide professional and comprehensive care and assistance to veterans, including veterans and soldiers affected by the symptoms referred to in this article. The very idea of launching the centre is not at all new, but it has rather finalised many years of experience in this area, dating back to 2009, regarding comprehensive care for injured veterans. There is no doubt that this place has in itself a huge therapeutic potential that will ensure proper diagnosis and comprehensive treatment, including PTSD.

The key goals of the Centre, based on its mission statements, are:

- “1) to provide professional and comprehensive care for injured veterans by improving access to health care for veterans injured in activities outside the state;
- 2) to run an information and coordination point to help to obtain proper support in the process of coordinating the acquisition, security, implementation of medical services;
- 3) to conduct activities related to health education related to the reduction of disability among injured veterans;

<sup>25</sup> *Centrum Weterana Działań poza Granicami Państwa*, <https://www.wojsko-polskie.pl/weterani/> [accessed: 3.08.2022].

<sup>26</sup> *Poradnik Weterana – uprawnienia weteranów działań poza granicami państwa*, Warszawa 2022, [https://www.wojsko-polskie.pl/weterani/u/de/cf/decf6234-cb0b-45b0-815e-2fab33885414/poradnik\\_weterana\\_luty\\_2022\\_-\\_interaktywny.pdf](https://www.wojsko-polskie.pl/weterani/u/de/cf/decf6234-cb0b-45b0-815e-2fab33885414/poradnik_weterana_luty_2022_-_interaktywny.pdf) [accessed: 3.08.2022].

- 4) to conduct activities related to health education, including in the area of psychology;
- 5) to provide psychological support for veterans and their families; as part of the Veteran's Treatment Centre, the implementation and development of an integrated model of psychiatric and psychological interactions shall be continued;
- 6) to monitor the availability of the types and ranges of services offered.<sup>27</sup>

The system of diagnosis, care and reporting presented above requires localisation in formal and legal documents, as well as the legislative process. The first legal basis in the above matter goes back to 2011, i.e. the Veterans Serving Outside the State Act of 19 August 2011,<sup>28</sup> which originally specified such issues as e.g. health care services and psychological assistance for veterans and their families. A particularly important provision was Section 23 of the Act, which unambiguously interpreted the principles of free psychological assistance:

In Section 23 (1), one can read that “[a] veteran-soldier or an injured veteran-soldier and the closest members of his/her family have the right out of turn to free psychological assistance provided by psychologists in military units and by military psychological laboratories, as well as to that provided in health care institutions established and supervised by the Minister of National Defence, if the soldier's health problems are related to his/her service outside the state.”<sup>29</sup> At the same time, Section 23 (4) of the Act states that “[t]he Prime Minister, the Minister of National Defence and the minister responsible for internal affairs, each within the scope of their competences, shall determine, by virtue of a relevant regulation: 1) the manner in which psychological assistance shall be provided, and its scope, and 2) the manner and procedure for monitoring the implementation of the right of injured veterans to get assistance referred to in paragraphs 1–3, and the competence of the authorities in this respect, with a view to ensuring efficient access to psychological assistance and its implementation adequate to the needs of veterans.”<sup>30</sup>

While the Act has sanctioned the issue of soldiers with symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder to a basic extent, after the stabilisation mission in Iraq, and in the extremely difficult period of the mission in Afghanistan, the year 2021 brought the latest well-established formal and legal foundations in the field of assistance and psychological care originating at the Ministry of National Defence. Here, particular focus ought to be placed on Decision no. 155 of Minister of National Defence.<sup>31</sup> The above decision has been discussed in more detail with regard to the area of post-traumatic

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<sup>27</sup> *Centrum Leczenia Weterana*, p. 3, <https://wckmed.wp.mil.pl/pl/pagescentrum-leczenia-weteranax/pdf/> [accessed: 3.08.2022].

<sup>28</sup> Ustawa z dnia 19 sierpnia 2011 r. o weteranach działań poza granicami państwa, Dz.U. [Journal of Laws of the Republic of Poland] 2011, no. 205, item 1203.

<sup>29</sup> *Ibidem*, Section 23 (1).

<sup>30</sup> *Ibidem*, Section 23 (4).

<sup>31</sup> Decyzja nr 155/MON Ministra Obrony Narodowej..., *op. cit.*



stress. For the sake of clarity, it is worth mentioning the tasks in the area of psychological care at the Ministry of National Defence are carried out by:

- 1) in the field of social psychology: psychologists of military units and psychologists-coordinators;
- 2) in the field of labour psychology: psychologists of military psychological laboratories;
- 3) in the field of clinical psychology: psychologists of a military medical institute, a military hospital, a military spa and rehabilitation hospital, or a specialist military medical clinic.

The above mentioned Decision of the Minister of National Defence lays down the responsibilities and tasks at all the individual levels of command in the Polish Armed Forces, and the tasks assigned to individual institutions and persons functioning within the overall system. A major guideline for the actions taken by psychologists working at military units is also the Polish Mental Health Act of 1994.<sup>32</sup>

## Conclusions

One does not need to wear a military uniform to get an idea of the vast array of stressors that modern war provides. The stressors themselves only partially explain the impact of war on people. It is equally important to understand the contemporary attitudes, beliefs and expectations that dominate military units as part of their common culture and traditions.

The specific stressors of combat and military operations are an area that has been largely neglected in empirical research conducted thus far. Most clinical work, of course, has focused on the experiences of those who have suffered from a negative reaction to combat and military operations, rather than on stressors affecting the entire population of soldiers fighting at the front.<sup>33</sup>

It is important to note that as part of the experience gained, both by serving in other armies and based on one's own experience from the first mission in Iraq, cases of PTSD have been diagnosed more and more often already in the mission area. This has allowed to reduce the number of such cases, but above all to mitigate their possible negative effects and facilitate the treatment itself after coming back home. At the same time, the awareness of how serious the situation is has led to the construction of a system that starts as early as during the preparation for each mission, and lasts throughout the mission until the soldiers and/or veterans return to their country of origin.

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<sup>32</sup> Ustawa z dnia 19 sierpnia 1994 r. o ochronie zdrowia psychicznego, Dz.U. 1994, no. 111, item 535, as amended; consolidated act: Dz.U. 2022, item 2205.

<sup>33</sup> Ch.R. Figley, W.P. Nash, *op. cit.*, pp. 15–16.

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*Combat stress within the Polish Armed Forces**Abstract*

The military forces usually conjure up the image of soldiers who serve in a given country, or those who carry out their duties in peacekeeping missions. They are frequently in the spotlight during their stay in the area of their operations and the performance of their duties. The memories of them and of any of the possible problems that they may encounter usually fade away once they have gone back to their country, or once they have returned to their parent unit. Interestingly, this rule also applies to other members of the military personnel. Service in the army, which frequently implies exposure to atrocities and ongoing hostilities, undoubtedly leaves its mark on people's physical and mental health, and it can also have a major impact on the lives of professional soldiers and their families. Paradoxically, the level of stress experienced increases as the sense of a real threat goes down. Being a soldier is one of those professions in which exposure to stress is high, and there is a major risk of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), especially in those members of the armed forces who have taken part in foreign missions. This paper looks at the historical background of the phenomenon, its symptoms, its methods of diagnosis, as well as the entire system of monitoring, supporting and treating post-traumatic stress in the Polish Armed Forces. Such a study has been possible thanks to a thorough analysis of the applicable pieces of legislation, backed by an insight into a series guidelines, orders and dispositions given at all levels of command and supervision in the army.

Key words: stress, PTSD, soldier, Polish Armed Forces

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# The phenomenon of job burnout on the example of police officers in the city of Krakow

## Introduction

Job burnout syndrome is most often defined in the literature as a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and a reduced sense of personal achievement that can occur in people who work with other people in a certain way.<sup>1</sup> American psychologist Herbert J. Freudenberger, a recognized authority on the diagnosis and treatment of job burnout syndrome, defines it as “[...] an extreme state of exhaustion caused by excessive demands on energy and all resources available to the individual.”<sup>2</sup>

Job burnout syndrome is a set of symptoms arising as a result of emotional and physical overload, which is caused directly by stress occurring in the workplace. Job burnout is a phenomenon whose effects are experienced by an increasing number of

<sup>1</sup> Ch. Maslach, *Wypalenie w perspektywie wielowymiarowej*, [in:] *Wypalenie zawodowe – przyczyny, mechanizmy, zapobieganie*, ed. H. Sęk, PWN, Warszawa 2000, p. 15.

<sup>2</sup> H.J. Freudenberger, *Staff burnout*, “Journal of Social Issues” 1974, vol. 30, p. 159, [as cited in:] *ibidem*, p. 19.

people during their careers. It is fostered by the tremendous pace of life and the increasing demands of employers and social pressures.

The literature talks about three groups of symptoms of job burnout syndrome, that should worry us. These include emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and negative evaluation of one's own abilities.

Emotional exhaustion involves the feeling that our emotional resources have been "used up" and drained of vitality. Increasingly, we feel that we have reached the limits of our endurance and capabilities. We feel chronic fatigue, and the previous standard way of dealing with stress is no longer sufficient.<sup>3</sup>

The second component of job burnout is depersonalization, i.e. the subjective treatment of the people we help and work with. Increasingly distancing ourselves from people only seemingly protects us from strong emotional arousal, but actually leads us to the lack of empathy and treat customers and partners in our work as "intruders" who disturb our apparent inner peace. Thus, excessive distancing from people, can negatively affect the quality of our work.<sup>4</sup>

The third dimension of job burnout is the negative assessment of our own abilities, which comes down to the fact that we are dissatisfied with our professional achievements and competences. This low assessment of one's competence and performance is often related to the previous two dimensions, although sometimes it is a factor more independent of them.

Job burnout usually occurs as a result of prolonged feelings of stress associated with a particular occupation. It is diagnosed both among employees with many years of work experience and among young employees who are just starting their professional career. The fast pace of life, a permanent lack of time, the inability to find a balance between private life and work, excessive work responsibilities and lack of satisfaction with one's profession can lead to the disease of job burnout.

Representatives of various professions are exposed every day to stressful situations that lead to monotony and fatigue, as well as lack of motivation to work. It is recognized that the uniformed services community is at the highest risk of both emotional and physical exhaustion, due to the mode and manner of work they perform each day. Previous studies have shown that among the high-risk occupations in the context of burnout is the police service.<sup>5</sup>

The police profession involves involvement in high-risk situations that require a willingness to take various risks. Police officers constantly deal with situations of violence and with aggressive and unlawful behavior that threaten their sense

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<sup>3</sup> A. Wielgus, J. Tomaszewski, *Wypalenie zawodowe*, Wydawnictwo M, Kraków 2013, p. 11.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibidem*, pp. 11–12.

<sup>5</sup> P. Stawiarska, *Wypalenie zawodowe w perspektywie wyzwań współczesnego świata*, Difin, Warszawa 2016, pp. 71.

of security, posing a threat to their health and life. It should also be noted that in relation to this profession, the demands and expectations of society are very high, while often the ability of police officers to take adequate and prompt action is very limited.<sup>6</sup>

The purpose of this article is to try to determine the scale and causes of job burnout of the group of police officers, serving in selected police departments in the city of Krakow, based on the conducted research. Therefore, the article poses the following question as the main research problem: What is the scale of the phenomenon of job burnout and what are the reasons for it among the surveyed group of police officers serving in selected police departments in the city of Krakow?

The research used the method of a diagnostic survey using the technique of an online survey, which was conducted in April 2022. The Polish adaptation of the questionnaire to measure job burnout – The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) – was used as the main tool to examine the scale of job burnout.

One hundred police officers participated in the research, 70% of whom were men and 30% women. Due to the nature of the research, an important parameter in this case was the length of the service of police officers. The largest group of respondents (40%) were officers whose length of service was in the range of 1–5 years. The participation of all groups of police officers according to years of service was as follows:

- 1–5 years of work – 40%,
- 6–10 years of work – 26%,
- 11–15 years of work – 17%,
- 16–20 years of work – 11%,
- 21–25 years of work – 5%,
- years of work over 26 years – 1%.

The police officers in the study group proportionally represented the following police services and departments (25% each):

- Investigation Department,
- Criminal Department,
- Prevention Department,
- Traffic Department.

As for education, 61% of the surveyed group had a university degree, including 33% with a master's degree and 28% with a bachelor's degree, while the remaining people (39%) had a high school education.

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<sup>6</sup> *Ibidem*, pp. 71–72.

## The scale of the phenomenon of job burnout among police officers in selected police departments in the city of Krakow: results of own research

Professional burnout is undoubtedly associated with permanent and excessive stress, which consequently leads to loss of interest in work. The employee becomes less and less active and has a sense of lack of satisfaction with the tasks performed. Thus, we are dealing with a situation where a person previously highly committed to their work, gradually loses motivation for it and, at the same time, is experiencing mental, emotional and physical exhaustion.

According to Christina Maslach, the core of job burnout syndrome is emotional overload and subsequent emotional exhaustion. The individual becomes overly emotionally involved, overtired, and then feels overwhelmed by the emotional demands of other people. Emotional over-involvement means that the person treats success at work as equivalent to personal success, and failure at work as personal failure.<sup>7</sup>

Previous research indicates that the phenomenon of job burnout is also often found in young people, especially those who entered the workforce with a very strong commitment and a deep conviction of the important role their work should play in society. The phenomenon of job burnout most often occurs two to three years after starting work and affects people who have professions that involve contact with people such as nurses, teachers, doctors, as well as police officers. Many psychologists conclude from their research that people who are currently affected by occupational burnout previously may have been workaholics.<sup>8</sup>

Based on years of research on the phenomenon of occupational burnout and repeated attempts to define the syndrome, psychologists have distinguished two types of occupational burnout: active and passive. Active burnout is usually associated with working conditions, which include prolonged stress, precariousness of the position, but also excessive demands from superiors. Passive burnout, on the other hand, is the body's reaction to stress factors that cause emotional upset.<sup>9</sup>

The Polish adaptation of the questionnaire to measure professional job burnout – The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory – was used to examine the level of job burnout in the group of police officers. The OLBI questionnaire (presented in Table 1) allows you to measure two dimensions of occupational burnout: exhaustion and lack

<sup>7</sup> A.M. Pines, *Wypalenie – w perspektywie egzystencjalnej*, transl. by J. Radzicki, [in:] *Wypalenie zawodowe. Przyczyny i zapobieganie*, ed. H. Sęk, PWN, Warszawa 2009, p. 35.

<sup>8</sup> M. Ostrowska, R. Woźniak, *Analiza ryzyka wystąpienia zjawiska stresu i wypalenia zawodowego wśród funkcjonariuszy Policji* (Bezpieczeństwo i Obronność Series, vol. 17), Oficyna Wydawnicza KAAFM, Kraków 2018, p. 40.

<sup>9</sup> E. Starostka, *Wypalenie zawodowe – przyczyny, objawy i konsekwencje dla funkcjonowania społecznego jednostki*, Psychologia.net.pl, [www.psychologia.net.pl/artukul.php?level=245](http://www.psychologia.net.pl/artukul.php?level=245) [accessed: 20.07.2022].



of commitment. The tool contains 16 test items, eight items to measure each dimension. Each subscale contains four positively worded items and four negatively worded items. Responses are marked on a 4-point scale, from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” In each subscale, half of the test items are worded negatively and half positively. To ensure the unidirectionality of the scale, test items formulated negatively are recalculated by inverting the scale. The sum of the test item scores divided by their number for the subscales of exhaustion and distancing from work gives a score on these subscales (range: 1–4). The higher the score, the correspondingly higher the two components of job burnout – exhaustion and distancing from work.<sup>10</sup>

Table 1. OLBI job burnout inventory with a score assigned to the answers

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. I always find new and interesting sides to my work * (LC)	1	2	3	4
2. There are days when I feel tired even before I leave for work (B)	4	3	2	1
3. It is becoming more and more common for me to speak negatively about my work (LC)	4	3	2	1
4. After work, I need more time to relax and feel better (B)	4	3	2	1
5. I can handle the demands of the job (work pressures) quite well * (B)	1	2	3	4
6. Recently, I've been thinking less and less in my work and starting to do my job almost automatically (LC)	4	3	2	1
7. I face positive challenges at work * (LC)	1	2	3	4
8. While working, I often feel emotionally exhausted (B)	4	3	2	1
9. As time goes by, a person begins to gain distance from what he does at work (LC)	4	3	2	1
10. After work, I have enough energy to engage in various activities that give me pleasure * (B)	1	2	3	4
11. Sometimes it makes me sick at the thought of work (LC)	4	3	2	1
12. After work, I usually feel exhausted and worn out (B)	4	3	2	1

<sup>10</sup> T. Chirkowska-Smolak, *Polska adaptacja kwestionariusza do pomiaru wypalenia zawodowego OLBI (The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory)*, “Studia Oeconomica Posnaniensia” 2018, vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 27–47, <http://docplayer.pl/115521880-Polska-adaptacja-kwestionariuszad-pomiaru-wypalenia-zawodowego-olbi-the-oldenburg-burnout-inventory.html> [accessed: 20.07.2022].

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
13. This is the only kind of work I imagine I could do * (LC)	1	2	3	4
14. I usually do well with the amount of work I have to do * (B)	1	2	3	4
15. I feel more and more involved in my work * (LC)	1	2	3	4
16. When I work, I usually feel full of energy * (B)	1	2	3	4

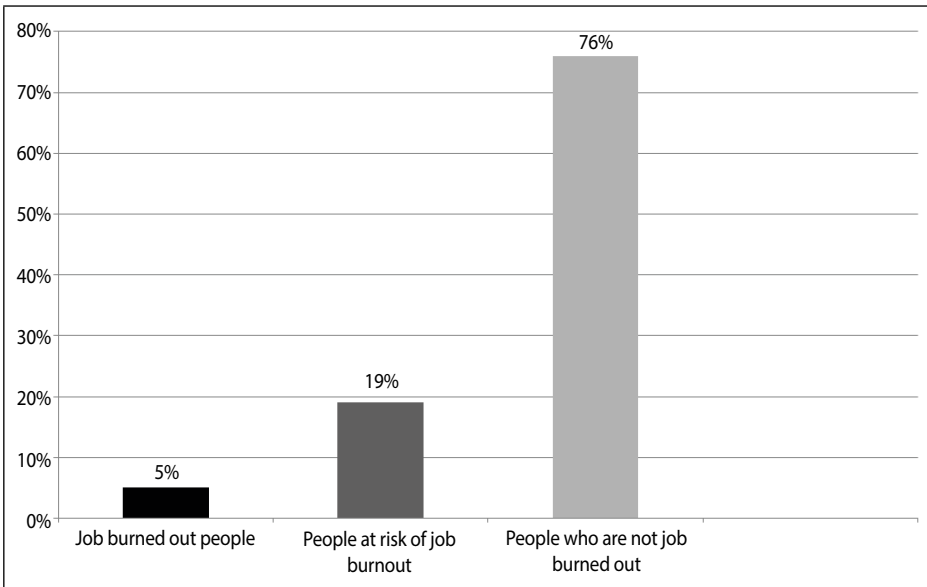
LC – lack of commitment; B – burnout; \* – positively worded items.

Source: authors' own compilation based on: Ł. Baka, B.A. Basińska, *Psychometryczne właściwości polskiej wersji Oldenburskiego Kwestionariusza Wypalenia Zawodowego (OLBI)*, "Medycyna Pracy" 2016, vol. 67, no. 1, pp. 29–41.

Keeping in mind the principles of calculating job burnout, according to the OLBI Inventory, the study group was divided into three groups according to the number of survey scores:

- individuals with job burnout (3.0–4.0 points),
- persons at risk of job burnout (2.0–2.99 points),
- individuals who are not job burned out (less than 1.99 points).

Figure 1. Level of job burnout of the surveyed group of respondents



Source: authors' own elaboration based on the conducted research.

The results of the survey are illustrated in Figure 1. The research showed that 5% of the respondents (4 men and 1 woman) can be definitely classified as job burned

out according to the methodology and the index of the OLBI. All of these people have a length of service in the range of 1–5 years and all are working in the Prevention Department.

On the other hand, 19% of respondents to the survey were classified as those at risk of job burnout. In this case, the largest group were officers who had length of service in the range of 16–20 years, and they accounted for 55% of this group. Ex aequo, in second place with a score of 40% in their groups, were officers who had length of service in the range of 1–5 years and 21–25 years. The lowest percentages (11.5% and 11.7%), in the context of those at risk of burnout were found in groups with length of service of 6–10 and 11–15 years.

Continuing the analysis of those at risk of job burnout, it should be noted that the largest number of people (42%) worked in the Prevention Department, while 26% worked in the Investigation Department, and 16 and 17% worked in the Criminal Division and the Traffic Department, respectively.

In the group of people at risk of job burnout – women constituted approx. 26%. Therefore, it can be argued that in this case, the percentage of women at risk of burnout was directly proportional to the overall share of women in the research, which was 30%.

## Causes of job burnout among the surveyed group of police officers: results of own research

Among the most frequently cited reasons, having a direct impact on the gradual feeling of lack of job satisfaction are tasks that are too difficult and responsible, which cause an employee to feel burdened by duties, as well as monotonous and exhausting work from which one does not derive satisfaction. The phenomenon of job burnout usually occurs when the task entrusted to us seems unfeasible or when our resources are too small to complete the task.<sup>11</sup>

The factors that lead to job burnout can be classified in different ways. Nina Ogińska-Bulik believes that the main stressors in the workplace include the following:<sup>12</sup>

- Poor physical working conditions (these include, but are not limited to: noise, excessive crowding or temperatures that are too low or too high);
- Stressors related to the way of work is performed (this includes, among others: time pressure, irrhythmic workflow, monotony, or working in shifts);

<sup>11</sup> A. Gembalska-Kwiecień, Z. Żurkowski, *Przyczyny i skutki wypalenia zawodowego*, “Zeszyty Naukowe Politechniki Śląskiej. Organizacja i Zarządzanie”, 2016, no. 97, p. 76.

<sup>12</sup> N. Ogińska-Bulik, *Stres zawodowy u policjantów. Źródła – konsekwencje – zapobieganie*, Wydawnictwo Wyższej Szkoły Humanistyczno-Ekonomicznej w Łodzi, Łódź 2003, pp. 19–24.

- Stressors associated with fulfilling an organizational role (these include, among others: ambiguity of the role consisting in the lack of knowledge and unclear role in the organization, and sometimes limitation in access or flow of information; role conflict – consisting mainly in receiving contradictory tasks and expectations coming from different people; role overload – occurring when a given person is not able to meet the expectations addressed to him);
- Stressors related to interpersonal relationships (these include generally bad relationships in the work group, manifested by a lack of trust, reluctance to help each other and indifference to other people's problems);
- Stressors related to the functioning of the individual as part of the organization (includes among others: lack of influence on decisions, lack of opportunity to express opinions, or lack of recognition for reliable work and restriction of initiative);
- Stressors related to professional development (including primarily dissatisfaction with the course of the current career and lack of prospects for further professional development);
- Stressors related to the simultaneous functioning of the individual in and outside the organization (this primarily refers to the conflict of roles between work and personal life, related to the lack of time to act in one of these spheres or both at the same time).

In the conducted research, in order to determine the main causes of burnout, the surveyed group was asked questions about: the causes of burnout, self-assessment of their professional competences and the relationship between the subordinate and the superior at the workplace, as well as the opinions of the surveyed officers in the context of their assessment of work performance by their superiors.

For the first question on expressing an opinion on the main causes of job burnout, each interviewer could choose or write in a total of up to six causes from among the following possibilities:

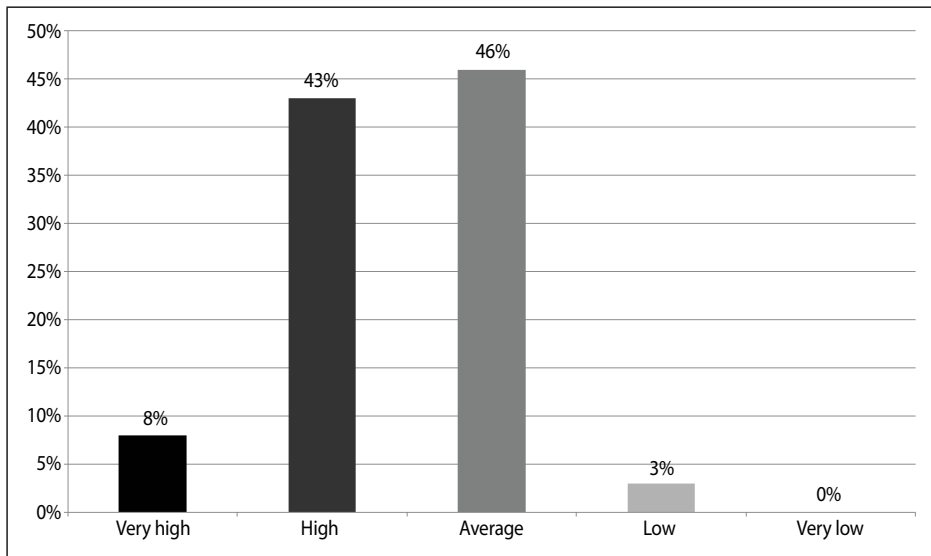
- low salaries,
- shift work and constant availability,
- working under intense time and performance pressure,
- chronic stress,
- excessive workload,
- lack of opportunity to influence the work performed,
- lack of support and competition in the workplace,
- frequent business trips,
- unfair evaluation of officers' work by superiors,
- monotony,
- lack of development and promotion prospects,
- other not mentioned above (write).

The results obtained may be a bit surprising. The largest number (82%) of officers indicated low salaries as one of the main causes of professional burnout. In second and third place, respectively, were the need to work under intense pressure of time and performance (72%) and shift work and constant availability (71%). This was followed by lack of development and promotion prospects (58%) and frequent business travel (54%), respectively. Surprisingly, only 45% of respondents cited long-term stress as one of the main reasons for police officers' burnout syndrome.

On the other hand, those who were classified as professionally burned out on the basis of the survey (they accounted for 5% of the surveyed group) indicated chronic stress, excessive workload, lack of support and competition in the workplace, and frequent business travel as the main reasons for this phenomenon. It should be noted that the choices of the occupational burnout group differ quite markedly from the main indications of the rest of the surveyed group.

As previous studies have shown, also lack of confidence in one's competence is one of the reasons for professional burnout. Therefore, the surveyed group was asked about the self-assessment of their competence in relation to the demands they face in their work. In this case, a five-point scale of self-assessment of their professional competence was used with the following possible answers: very high, high, average, low, very low (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Self-assessment of their professional competence by the surveyed group



Source: authors' own elaboration based on the conducted research.

In response to this question, 51% of respondents stated that they had high or very high professional competences. However, as many as 46% of respondents assess their knowledge and professional skills at an average level. In the opinion of the authors of the article, such a high percentage of those who assess their professional competence at an average level, may be due to the undermining of their competence by superiors or critical self-assessment by respondents resulting from their personal experience in this area. When asked about the relationship between supervisor and subordinate in the workplace, 89% of respondents described the relationship as definitely good or good. On the other hand, 11% of the respondents did not have a specific opinion on this subject – entering: “it is difficult to assess”. It is worth emphasizing that in the surveyed group, there were no negative indications in this area.

Another question in the survey concerned the appreciation by superiors of the work performed by each of the surveyed respondents. A positive answer in this regard (writing the answer: “definitely yes” or “yes”) was given by 51% of the respondents, while, as many as 47% of the respondents to such a question did not take a definite position in this regard, crossing out the answer “difficult to say”. Only 3% of responses to this question were negative, where the answer – “rather no” and “definitely no” were noted.

## Conclusions

In the opinion of the authors of this article, the assumed purpose of the research aimed at determining the scale and main causes of job burnout of a group of surveyed police officers serving in selected police departments in the city of Krakow was achieved. The selected techniques and research tools allowed to obtain appropriate answers of the respondents, which were analyzed in the context of the research problem. As a result of the research, the following general conclusions can be formulated:

- In the surveyed group of police officers, according to the OLBI Questionnaire, there were 5% of those found to be job burned out, and 19% of those at risk of job burnout;
- In the group of people burned out or at risk of job burnout – women accounted for about 25%, which was slightly lower than the share of women in the conducted research, which was 30%;
- All officers who were found to have job burnout had very little years of work (1–5 years) and all worked in the prevention service;
- As the main reasons for job burnout, the respondents pointed to low salaries, the need to work under intense pressure of time and performance, shift work and

constant availability, and the lack of prospects for development and promotion, as well as frequent business trips;

- On the same question of the causes of job burnout, those affected by the syndrome pointed to slightly different factors in this regard, which included chronic stress, excessive workload, lack of support and rivalry in the workplace, and frequent business travel;
- 51% of respondents said they had high or very high professional competence, while 46% of respondents rated their professional competence at an average level, which may suggest a lack of proper preparation for the profession and thus perhaps the need to verify training and courses;
- The vast majority of respondents (about 90%) gave a positive assessment of interpersonal relations occurring in the workplace.

Due to limited organizational and procedural possibilities, the research did not cover a larger number of police officers. Therefore, the results obtained should be regarded as a pilot research, which, in the opinion of the authors, at this stage fulfilled its role and thus allowed to solve the research problem. In order to obtain complete and reliable research in this area, it would be necessary to increase the number of people surveyed in accordance with the algorithm for determining the minimum research sample. Nevertheless, the results obtained can be used by interested institutions to expand the research in this area and to initially launch differentiated psychoprophylactic interventions aimed at interactions that minimize job burnout in its various dimensions.

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### *The phenomenon of job burnout on the example of police officers in the city of Krakow*

#### *Abstract*

Job burnout as a social phenomenon covers more and more groups of employees. The problem mainly affects professions of a social nature, which require constant contact with other people. Previous studies have shown that police service is classified as high-risk in the context of job burnout due to the mode and manner of work that police officers perform every day. In their work, policemen are faced with ever greater requirements regarding their competence, availability, high quality and appropriate pace of performed tasks. Therefore, in their service they are particularly vulnerable to being affected by job burnout syndrome. This article attempts to determine the extent of the phenomenon of job burnout syndrome and its causes in a group of police officers working and representing various police departments in the city of Krakow. The research was conducted on the basis of the Polish version of the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI).

Key words: job burnout, policemen, Oldenburg Burnout Inventory, exhaustion, disengagement





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# Changes in perception of gender stereotypes in the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic

## Introduction

People around the world are influenced by gender stereotypes. Standards, unwritten rules often predict what is appropriate for women and what is for men in society. Due to gender stereotypes, girls and women are often less valued and often given lower social status. Women are more likely to experience restrictions on their mobility, their lower status in society, more than men face harassment and are limited in their choices about how they should live their lives. Trends in some of the ratio characteristics have shown a gradual, continuous consolidation of the ratio of women to men in leadership positions. However, there are still differences between countries, which are influenced by social, religious, family, and economic conditions, culture, customs, and behaviour.<sup>1</sup> Women make up (slightly more than) 50% of the world's population, and it would be fair to implement the principle of equal opportunities for these women to be adequately represented in suitable job, operator, health, education, and management occupations. The necessary participation

<sup>1</sup> World Economic Forum, *Global Gender Gap Report 2020*, [https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF\\_GGGR\\_2020.pdf](https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2020.pdf) [accessed: 15.04.2022].

of women in the performance of functions in public administration (self-government), state administration as well as in the exercise of parliamentary mandates at all levels is fully legitimate, because women's life experience is fully relevant and competent for such representation.<sup>2</sup> Unfortunately, in many organizations and institutions it is still not possible to talk about an adequate state of gender equality between men and women, even in military organizations. EUROMIL together with MEP Hilde Vautmans (ALDE, Belgium) organized in the European Parliament an event on "Promoting the role of women in the military – breaking down gender stereotypes" on 6 March 2019. Vautmans stated that women make up only 3–18% of European armies. She underlined the change is urgently needed: gender stereotypes about men and women need to be reconsidered, women need to be allowed to join the armed forces and should be mentored during their service. In addition, a zero-tolerance policy on sexual harassment needs to be enforced.<sup>3</sup>

The number of women who are exclusively engaged in domestic work is not high today. Women perceive domestic work as monotonous, mechanical. In case they have a jobs, then they have too little chance to share properly their time between both the work and family. Of course, this is not a universally valid model, but it can be considered a majority one. The main gender stereotypes associated with work include those that divide occupations into strictly female and male. In most current opinions, the underestimation of the marital and paternal role of men and the condemnation of women who choose typically male occupations (such as military careers) prevail. Masculinity and femininity are incorrectly defined as opposites that force the assumption that all men are exclusively "masculine" and all women are exclusively "feminine."<sup>4</sup> The social situation does not yet favour the traditional role of women – mothers, and therefore women are looking for positions that society values more. The hidden barriers to women's entry into the army are gradually being eliminated, but there are still differences in the number of women, especially in command and staff positions.

According to Michelle Onello, the United States of America is obliged to ensure the meaningful participation of women in its armed forces to fulfil the "participatory" pillar of the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) Agenda adopted in 2000

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<sup>2</sup> K. Rubenstein, T. Bergin, P. Rowe, *Gender, Leadership and Representative Democracy. The Differential Impacts of the Global Pandemic*, "Democratic Theory" 2020, vol. 7, issue 2, pp. 94–103, <https://doi.org/10.3167/dt.2020.070212>.

<sup>3</sup> *Promoting the Role of Women in the Military – Breaking Gender Stereotypes*, EUROMIL, <http://euromil.org/promoting-the-role-of-women-in-the-military-breaking-gender-stereotypes/> [accessed: 18.04.2022].

<sup>4</sup> P. Hamaj, J. Matis, *Ženy v Ozbrojených silách Slovenskej republiky*, [in:] *Kobiety w grupach dyspozycyjnych społeczeństwa. Socjologiczna analiza udziału i roli kobiet w wojsku, policji oraz w innych grupach dyspozycyjnych*, eds. K. Dojwa, J. Maciejewski, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego, Wrocław 2007, p. 149.

by the UN Security Council Resolution No. 1325. But there exist barriers on the meaningful participation of women. These barriers undermine compliance with US obligations under international humanitarian law, codified in the Geneva Conventions. Women make up only 16.5% of military personnel. Participation varies considerably between types of armed forces, with the Marine Corps reporting a female participation rate below 10%. The numbers decrease at higher level positions. Only five women had reached the rank of general (four-star general rank). Even know the women occupy variety of jobs, specializations. They already have skills, including combat technics. Ministry of defence is issuing policies to increase women's participation in the armed forces. Policies set out the tasks for fulfilling the equality mandates.<sup>5</sup> The gradual updating of the model of the armed forces has led to changes in the organizational structures of the armed forces. As in the armies of other democratic countries, women are more prominent, which is in line with the conceptual materials of the Ministry of Defence of the Slovak Republic.

## The role of women and men in the army in the light of Russia's aggression against Ukraine

The current armies face new roles in international peacekeeping. The focus of their efforts is no longer just on fighting and victory, but especially on prevention, ending wars and keeping the peace. The 21<sup>st</sup> century military mission can be summed up in words to protect, help and rescue. Homeland defence is also understood more broadly as an aid in resolving internal and inter-state conflicts. After February 24, 2022, we are witnessing an unprecedented military aggression by the Russian Federation against Ukraine. The Armed Forces of the Russian Federation were preparing for this intervention by deploying combat units, logistical elements, including rear, technical, but also medical units of unprecedented proportions along the Ukrainian border and into Belarus. Russian President Vladimir Putin has signed decrees recognizing the independent republics of Luhansk and Donetsk on the eve of the aggression against Ukraine. He said the invasion was a peace operation to protect civilians in two Kremlin-backed breakaway regions. One of Putin's demands on Ukraine was for the country to give up joining NATO. Estimates of the total number of Russian forces involved in the invasion of Ukraine range from 100,000 to 200,000. It is estimated that about 150,000 troops were deployed at the beginning of the invasion, with the Russian deployment outnumbering Ukraine by three to one. Interim data on the course of military operations also contain the most unfortunate information

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<sup>5</sup> M. Onello, *U.S. Military's Male-Dominated Culture Harms More Than Just Women*, "Ms. Magazine", 26.10.2021, <https://msmagazine.com/2021/10/26/u-s-military-male-culture-women-sexual-assault-harassment-gender-stereotypes/> [accessed: 15.04.2022].

about the victims of human lives. The warring parties provide different numbers that cannot be immediately confirmed by independent sources. However, they are the highest since the end of World War II in Europe 77 years ago.

Russia has not yet decided whether to extend its participation in the agreement allowing the export of cereals from Ukraine. As part of the mobilization in the western Russian city of Oriol, the Uzbek employees of the waste processing factory also received summons orders. Therefore, they turned to Uzbek President Shavkat Mirziyoyev for help. According to TASR/TERAZ.sk the Russian military invasion of Ukraine will accelerate the world's transition from fossil fuels to "more sustainable and safer energy". Ukrainian troops are successfully repelling repeated attacks by Russian forces near the two key towns of Avdiivka and Bakhmut in the eastern Donbas region, President Volodymyr Zelenskyy said in a regular video address on 13 April 2022. He called the Russian battle tactics crazy.<sup>6</sup>

Although we acknowledge the participation of women in peace processes, we cannot predict the impact of this tragic event in Ukraine on the level of active physical involvement of women in future military defence operations, as armed conflicts have different impacts and effects on men and women. Extending the civilian principles and civil rights of military personnel in general, we can understand the expansion of women's military role as a deepening of civil rights and as an indicator of a broader historical movement from a status-oriented society to a performance-oriented society.<sup>7</sup> Despite the significant social but mainly economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and the current military aggression of the Russian Federation in Ukraine, which caused a drop in economic growth and inflation of almost 10%, rising energy media, food and other products, drugs, and services. We must keep in mind that society's value systems are affected by the need to maintain sustainable development and improve the quality of life. The Lisbon Strategy and the latest version of the Charter of Human Rights and Responsibilities Act 2006 contain calls for adequate consumption, tolerance, and a steady improvement in the quality of life and self-fulfilment of individuals and communities. Unfortunately, the incomes of working citizens are not growing even at half the rate of inflation. This means a significant decline in real incomes and subsequent consumption in the consumer market as well as in the industrial and commercial consumer markets. As a result, there may be a decline in GDP and problems with the allocation of limited defence resources.

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<sup>6</sup> TASR/TERAZ.sk, *Ruský útok na Ukrajinu trvá už 246 dní*, 27.10.2022, TERAZ.sk, [https://www.teraz.sk/zahranicie/online-rusky-utok-na-ukrajinu-trva-u/670136-clanok.html?utm\\_source=teraz&utm\\_medium=organic&utm\\_campaign=click&utm\\_content=.%253Bw%253BwIndex](https://www.teraz.sk/zahranicie/online-rusky-utok-na-ukrajinu-trva-u/670136-clanok.html?utm_source=teraz&utm_medium=organic&utm_campaign=click&utm_content=.%253Bw%253BwIndex) [accessed: 27.10.2022].

<sup>7</sup> *Report on the observance of human rights. Including the Principle of Equal Treatment in the Slovak Republic for the Year 2020*, Slovak National Centre for Human Rights, Bratislava 2021, p. 75.

The traditional role of men and women is based on gender stereotypes, which characterize a generally accepted belief in characteristics and activities that are appropriate for men and women. They are created and maintained according to mainly by means of:

1. social structures (such as: family, upbringing, education, and culture),
2. traditions,
3. ideas,
4. habits,
5. religions,
6. media, and finally,
7. language.<sup>8</sup>

Based on gender stereotypes, different cultures divide activities into suitable for men and suitable for women. Every company has certain principles according to which it divides these activities in this way. At the same time, these principles differ from one culture to another. Traditional society has divided the activities of men and women into two opposite spheres – public (work) and private (family).

The traditional notions about typical female and male characteristics are the cause of the division of human labour into female and male. It is generally assumed that it is the female qualities that are necessary for the functioning of the household and the upbringing of children, and conversely, the male qualities enable men to achieve performance and success in the public sphere, especially in employment. Horizontal gender segregation is the concentration of men and women in certain occupations. Women work mainly in sectors with lower average wages, in trade, education, health care, social care, men in areas related to the economy, politics, armed forces. Vertical gender segregation involves certain positions of men and women in one organization. There are minimal women in managerial positions, they are assigned lower positions.

## Gender equality in the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic

Since the 1990s, the traditional male organizational structure of the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic has been slowly but gradually changing from a purely male to a male-female structure. The professionalization of the army has brought for women soldiers, a shift from their traditional military support positions in administration, security, medicine, logistics, etc. to positions for women – non-traditional soldiers, which are associated with direct combat activities. At the same time, this process brought about the emergence of a new phenomenon – a mixed military unit

<sup>8</sup> M. Barošová, B. Perichtová, *Rodová rovnosť vo svete práce*, Inštitút pre výskum práce a rodiny, Bratislava 1997, [http://www.sspr.gov.sk/texty/File/bulletin/Bulletin\\_05\\_07.pdf](http://www.sspr.gov.sk/texty/File/bulletin/Bulletin_05_07.pdf) [accessed: 20.04.2022]; E. Farkašová, *Rodová spravodlivosť ako téma feministických diskusií*, “Aspekt“ 1997, no. 1, p. 211.

(a type of military unit in which at least one woman serves in a different social position, whether the unit commander or a member of the rank). This change certainly brings new challenges. The transformation of a military organization into a gender-integrated organization, where women and men have equal status, opportunities, and financial reward, must focus on:

- ascertaining the state of working conditions and job satisfaction of men and women in the armed forces,
- harmonization of work and family responsibilities,
- the possibility of conflict prevention in mixed military units and workplaces of the armed forces in terms of overcoming gender stereotypes.

Mária Martinská analysed the social positions of women in a military organization and concluded that the armed forces must address the issue of gender equality through changes in the organizational culture of the armed forces.<sup>9</sup> A social dialogue was needed to distinguish between two opposing approaches to women – the masculine and the positively discriminatory approach. Resolving this discrepancy contributed to the shift in the solution of the gender approach, denying not only the first but also the second approach by their integration (connection, merging), which contributed to tolerance towards different lifestyles. The Armed Forces is currently in the process of analysing the state of fulfilment of the current tasks of the issue of equality between women and men, arising from the *Plán uplatňovania rovnosti žien a mužov* [Plan for the Implementation of Equality between Women and Men]. If the traditional gender-stereotyped division of labour is not only an obstacle to progress for the individual, but especially for the organization, and we consider that equality between men and women gives the organization a competitive advantage, especially in recruiting staff and creating a better image, which ultimately supports its performance and quality, adopting a quality gender equality program is best way to achieve this.

According to Personnel Department of the Ministry of Defense more and more women are finding employment within the defense resort. A total of almost 5,000 women currently work within the resort. This number represents 22.9% of all employees of the Department of Defence and members of armed forces. It is interesting that the highest position among women in one of the international operations was held by an outstanding Slovak woman. It served as part of nine national military units in the operation named Forward Presence in Latvia (eFP). Female soldiers are increasingly performing tasks in international crisis management missions and operations. There are currently 36 female members of Slovakia armed forces deployed abroad. Captain Jana Pastorčáková spent the past twelve months there. “Although the military environment is generally associated with male soldiers, women in the

<sup>9</sup> M. Martinská, *Muži a ženy v ozbrojených silách Slovenskej republiky*, “Vojenská osвета” 2012, no. 1, pp. 82–97, <https://lest.mil.sk/22673/index.php?pg=7&page=1> [accessed: 15.04.2022].

defence sector are an invaluable asset. They hold various positions and perform tasks with the same determination and commitment as their colleagues – whether in civilian clothes or in uniform,”<sup>10</sup> commented Slovak Defence Minister Jaroslav Naď in an official report. He explained that the department includes a total of 3,020 civilian employees and 1,879 professional soldiers. Within the Slovak Armed Forces, female soldiers are currently represented at the level of 12%. They are mostly female officers, with the highest military rank currently held by a colonel, followed by dozens of lieutenant colonels, majors, captains, first lieutenants, and lieutenants. Among female non-commissioned officers, there are the most female company and company foremen. Within the Ministry of Defence of the Slovak Republic, more than half of the jobs are currently filled by women. Employees in the ministry’s structures also have a significant share in management, holding almost half (46.3%) of managerial positions. In the case of soldiers, they are mostly officers, with the highest military rank currently held by a colonel, followed by dozens of lieutenant colonels, majors, captains, and lieutenants. Among non-commissioned officers, there are the most companies and sergeants. According to the Chief of the General Staff of the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic, Daniel Zmeko, the soldiers are also performing an increasing number of tasks in missions and operations of international crisis management. There are currently 36 members of the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic deployed abroad. According to him, women have an irreplaceable place in the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic. At the same time, he stressed that there are functions that are more suitable for women, others less so, but women are an integral part of the structures of the armed forces with great benefits.<sup>11</sup>

The number of members of the Slovak armed forces is slated to swell from the current 14,100 to 17,000 by 2024, Defence Minister Jaroslav Naď confirmed on Monday. This year, the plan is to increase the number of soldiers by 880. “Interest in joining the military does exist. As we’re already carrying out steps to boost the numbers gradually, I believe that we’ll reach the target by the end of the year,” stated Naď. The planned increase has been welcomed by Chief of General Staff Daniel Zmeko. “The ball is in our court now; we need to maintain interest in joining the military and raise recruitment potential to the maximum, as only about 30 percent of Slovak citizens meet the requirements for military service,” he said.<sup>12</sup>

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<sup>10</sup> L. Cebrová, *V slovenskej armáde máme stále viac žien, dosahujú dokonca najvyššie pozície v medzinárodných operáciách*, STARTITUP, 15.12.2021, <https://www.startitup.sk/v-slovenskej-armade-mame-stale-viac-zien-dosahuju-dokonca-najvyssie-pozicie-v-medzinarodnych-operaciach/> [accessed: 20.10.2022]. Transl. M.P.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>12</sup> Z. Botiková, *Number of Slovak soldiers to grow to 17,000 by 2024*, RTVS. Rádio Slovakia International, 12.07.2022, <https://enrsi.rtvs.sk/articles/news/297473/number-of-slovak-soldiers-to-grow-to-17000-by-2024> [accessed: 12.07.2022].

## Bases for the success of gender equality in the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic

To determine the starting points and measures aimed at deepening gender equality in the armed forces, we used data and conclusions of documents containing important variables relevant to milestones in the armed forces. The first milestone was on 31 December 2005, when the compulsory military service in Slovakia ended for 137 years.

The task of recruitment is to arouse interest in joining the armed forces. This is ascertained through preferences for joining the army and ideas about the advantages and disadvantages of working in the army:

- For girls, the highest motive is interesting work, followed by better salary conditions than in civilian jobs and pension provision after the end of active service.
- For boys, better pay conditions in the army and pension provision are paramount, and only then interesting work and the opportunity to take part in a foreign mission follow.
- Both girls and boys consider good pay and early retirement and retirement benefits to be the two biggest benefits of working in the military, with differing views on the third advantage, where boys prefer job stability and girls prefer their country and state protection.
- Girls and boys consider the risk of death to be the biggest disadvantage of working in the military, and they pick dangerous work and foreign missions as other disadvantages of this profession.

The mission of military basic and social professional training is to create the basic conditions for the creation of a social structure of a military organization, including from a gender perspective. A comparison of the numbers of graduates of The Armed Forces Academy of General Milan Rastislav Štefánik for the period 2008–2010 showed that out of the total number of 268 graduates, 30% were women. Over the next 10 years, the number of women declined. The declining trend in the number of women joining the armed forces by graduating from the Armed Forces Academy is not being addressed either by increasing the number of recruiters among public university graduates, as the representation of women has also decreased in this form of recruitment.

The dismissal of a professional soldier from the civil service ends his immediate involvement in the armed forces. It is an act of departure of a professional soldier from a military organization or an act of termination of the military profession based on one's own decision or based on a decision of a military organization, in both cases before and after the termination of the commitment. The provisions of the generally binding regulations in this case do not differentiate between men and women, which is an important prerequisite for achieving gender equality at this



stage. Nevertheless, the unequal position of women will only result from an analysis focusing not only on the number of departures, but also on the rank achieved and the resulting amount of pension.

## Possible consequences of the war in Ukraine on gender equality in the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic

According to a press release by Michaela Lukovičová from Seesame, concerns about the economic consequences of the war in Ukraine, especially the rise in prices and the economic crisis, are growing slightly in Slovakia. Concerns about the ongoing war in Ukraine also remain high. This follows from the survey “Ako sa máte, Slovensko” [How are you, Slovakia], which was conducted on a sample of thousands of respondents by Mnforce in cooperation with the Seesame agency and the Institute for Research in Social Communication of the Slovak Academy of Sciences (SAS). The survey was conducted from March 31 to April 7, 2022. Respondents are most concerned about rising energy prices and inflation. 88.7% of respondents are afraid of them, in the previous survey 85.7% of respondents were afraid of price growth and inflation. Concerns about the economic crisis caused by the war also increased slightly (from 77.5 to 83.6%), but concerns about the war in Ukraine itself declined. 74% of respondents fear this. A large proportion of respondents also feel concerned about the state of the Slovak healthcare system (81.2%) and the popularity of extremist and anti-system groups in Slovakia (65.8%). Concerns have also been raised about the arrival of refugees from war-torn countries (68.8%) and coronavirus pandemics (49.2%), but these are the lowest compared to other facts.<sup>13</sup>

The result of the low willingness to fight for the country is significant for the armed forces. The survey also revealed that if a war broke out in Slovakia, only 27.5% of respondents would be willing to fight for their own country. More than 37% of respondents (37.1%) would not be able to fight for Slovakia at all, 35.4% of Slovaks are undecided. Men (33.5%) would go to fight for Slovakia more often than women (21.7%). According to the survey, men over the age of 60 are more willing to fight for Slovakia than men over the age of 40. The authors of the survey emphasized: “The willingness to fight for Slovakia is related to trust in institutions such as the government, parliament or president, but also to trust in the media or employers. Respondents who think that Slovakia should be geopolitically on the side of the West would also be more willing to fight for Slovakia,”<sup>14</sup> the survey states.

<sup>13</sup> *Slováci sa obávajú zdražovania či konfliktu na Ukrajine, trápi ich aj popularita extrémistov*, ParlamentnéListy.sk, 18.04.2022, <https://www.parlamentnelisty.sk/spravy/486448/slovaci-sa-obavaju-zdrazovania-ci-konfliktu-na-ukrajine-trapi-ich-aj-popularita-extremistov/> [accessed: 18.04.2022].

<sup>14</sup> *Ibidem*. Transl. M.P.

Respondents who think that Slovakia should side with Russia are willing to fight less for their country.

Most Slovaks would refuse to fight for their country in a war if Slovakia ever found itself in an armed conflict.

In fact, just about a quarter of people, 27.5 percent, would be willing to pick up a gun, the latest “How Are You Slovakia?” poll has found. Conversely, 37.1 percent said they would not engage in any fight, and 35.4 percent did not know how to respond to the question.

Researchers asked Slovaks whether they would be willing to fight for their own country if Slovakia were on the brink of a war. “The very low willingness to fight for Slovakia can be linked not only to low trust in some institutions and the state but also to a certain geopolitical split,” sociologist Robert Klobucký said. [...] As the poll shows, men would be more determined to join battle compared to women. A total of 33.5 percent of men said they would be willing to fight Slovakia’s enemy. In the case of women, the number is lower, at 21.7 percent. At the same time, men more often than women answered this question in the negative.<sup>15</sup>

## Results and conclusions

The professionalisation of the military has led to a shift in women from holding support positions to more combat-related positions. From this point of view, it is necessary to focus on:

- status of working conditions and job satisfaction,
- harmonization of work and family responsibilities,
- options for preventing conflicts arising from gender stereotypes.

At present, it is necessary to address the recruitment of women into the armed forces in the labour market and the equal financial security of women with men. To perform the civil service well, it is desirable to reconcile the family and professional lives of soldiers. As in advanced armies, it is necessary to assess the conditions and prepare a gender audit in the armed forces. In promoting gender equality between men and women, the armed forces should focus on:

- fair division of labour and tasks between women and men,
- fair and objective recruitment of new people without prejudice,
- non-discriminatory career advancement – equal financial evaluation of comparable work,
- prevention and punishment of sexual harassment,
- prevention of discrimination.

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<sup>15</sup> *Despite a war across the border, most Slovaks refuse to fight for their country*, “Slovak Specator“, 14.04.2022, <https://spectator.sme.sk/c/22885338/despite-a-war-across-the-border-most-slovaks-refuse-to-fight-for-their-country.html> [accessed: 14.04.2022].

## Acknowledgment

The article is gaining knowledge from research in the field of gender stereotypes within both the participation and role of women in the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic and it is part of outputs from the project VEGA No.: 1/0363/2020 “Economic context of the share of women in managerial positions in companies in the Slovak Republic” financed by Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sports of the Slovak Republic.

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TASR/TERAZ.sk, *Ruský útok na Ukrajinu trvá už 246 dní*, 27.10.2022, TERAZ.sk, [https://www.teraz.sk/zahranicie/online-rusky-utok-na-ukrajinu-trva-u/670136-clanok.html?utm\\_source=teraz&utm\\_medium=organic&utm\\_campaign=click&utm\\_content=%253Bw%253BwIndex](https://www.teraz.sk/zahranicie/online-rusky-utok-na-ukrajinu-trva-u/670136-clanok.html?utm_source=teraz&utm_medium=organic&utm_campaign=click&utm_content=%253Bw%253BwIndex) [accessed: 27.10.2022].

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## *Changes in perception of gender stereotypes in the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic*

### *Abstract*

Women's participation in an ever-widening range of occupations is related to growing emancipation, their physical and mental fitness, their ability to solve complex problems based on acquired scientific knowledge, skills, and a strong specific disposition in leading teams. With their natural empathy, inherent to women – mothers, feelings, responsibility, and rational thinking, they show that they are rightly given the same opportunities as their male co-workers. They occupy a wide range of manual work, they are irreplaceable in services, health care, education, science, parliament, but also the police or the armed forces. They do business, run multinational companies, fly aircrafts etc. Less than a century ago, it was rare to see women in the military, and yet women now fight in ground combat, command air combat, pilot combat aircraft, and oversee medical operations. The aim of the paper is to evaluate the participation of women in the tasks of the Armed Forces of the Slovak Republic in terms of gender stereotypes and to identify the possibilities of full employment of women in the civil service in the reflection of the current military aggression of the Russian Federation against Ukraine.

Key words: military, gender stereotypes, women in the armed forces, military skills, women's preferred skills, equal opportunities



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# Apolitical reality of Polish Police

## Introduction

According to *Nowy słownik języka polskiego* (the Polish language dictionary), “apolitical” means “not taking part in political life, not interested in politics.”<sup>1</sup> On the other hand, apoliticality is a “legal principle that obliges persons who perform certain functions in the state not to engage in any political activity, also related to membership in a political party and trade unions. The principle of apoliticality results from the norms adopted in democratic countries, which are based on the constitution and relevant laws.”<sup>2</sup>

At the same time, it is a position of indifference to current political issues, and it is also based on the withdrawal of one’s direct involvement towards a specific party force. Undoubtedly, apolitical are those citizens who completely exclude themselves from following political events and changes, are not eager for current news from the world of politics, analyses, comments or forecasts. Paradoxically apolitical are also those who follow media-political duels, at the viewer’s level, without taking sides, and

<sup>1</sup> *Apolityczny*, [in:] *Nowy słownik języka polskiego*, ed. E. Sobol, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2002, p. 19.

<sup>2</sup> *Apolityczność*, <https://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Apolityczno%C5%9B%C4%87> [accessed: 2.03.2021].

at the same time do not realize that the division of the roles of vanquished and losers can have a significant impact on their further life. Such an attitude does not mean that they are not participants in politics, because indifference, passivity, and consent are a kind of perpetration. At this point, it should be indicated that misunderstandings with the word “apoliticality” consist in confusing the intention to exclude from politics and the illusion of one’s own political indifference. Nothing could be more wrong. In this matter, the analysis of Mirosław Karwat deserves special attention. He pointed out that the “political ignorant, undeclared consumer of various promises, calls, provocations, and propaganda campaigns does not cease to be an accomplice of politics,” although he plays a special role as a cog in the machine.<sup>3</sup>

Moreover, apolitical nature can be considered in terms of legal enforcement directed at a person performing a specific function in the state. In this case, it is about the prohibition of engaging in political activity, which also constitutes membership of a political party or trade unions. The principle of clerical apoliticality is the result of norms adopted in democratic countries. In Poland, with regard to certain persons holding certain offices, the ban on membership of political parties is laid down directly in the Constitution.<sup>4</sup> Also, the ban on membership in a party was included in 18 basic laws concerning persons performing public functions. They prohibit other categories of public officials from belonging to political parties, and include: professional soldiers; prosecutors and officers of the Police, Special Services, Border Guard, Prison Service, firefighters of the State Fire Service, guards of municipal guards; presidents and full-time members of local government appeals boards; vice presidents and general director of the Supreme Audit Office; customs officials and officers of the Customs Inspection; the general inspector of personal data protection; public interest spokesman; the head and employees of the National Electoral Office, as well as civil servants.<sup>5</sup> In 2002, the Ombudsman spoke on this issue, pointing out that the prohibition in question is extended on an unprecedented scale. He stated that “in the European Union countries the ban on membership of political parties applies only in France, solely in relation to professional soldiers [...]. However, basically, government officials have the same political rights as other citizens.”<sup>6</sup>

<sup>3</sup> M. Karwat, *Polityka, apolityczność i metapolityka*, Strajk.eu, 30.07.2017, <https://strajk.eu/polityka-apolitycznosc-i-metapolityka/> [accessed: 2.03.2021].

<sup>4</sup> Konstytucja Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej z dnia 2 kwietnia 1997 r., Dz.U. [Journal of Laws of the Republic of Poland], 1997, no. 78, item 483, as amended. This applies to: judges of common courts, judges of the Constitutional Tribunal, the president of the Supreme Audit Office, the Ombudsman, members of the National Broadcasting Council and the president of the National Bank of Poland.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibidem*, Article 153: “In order to ensure professional, reliable, impartial and politically neutral performance of state tasks, the civil service corps operates in government administration of offices. The Prime Minister is the head of the civil service corps.”

<sup>6</sup> Wyrok Trybunału Konstytucyjnego [The judgment of the Constitutional Tribunal] z dnia 10 kwietnia 2002 r., sygn. akt [file ref.] K 26/00, Dz.U. 2002, no. 56 item 517, p. 6.

Karwat, mentioned earlier, rightly noticed that when talking about offices, public institutions as well as state bodies and their functionaries, an adequate term is “political neutrality”<sup>7</sup> of officials, judges, prosecutors, policemen, and the Ombudsman.

Focusing on the apolitical nature of the Police, or more rightly, when describing its nonpartisan nature, we refer to a narrow scope of its understanding. Therefore, the question is whether the institution mentioned in the title of the study has a real impact on the attitudes and behaviour of police officers towards apoliticality, having both the objective and subjective dimension. The subject regulation covers the behaviour and attitudes of Police officers, characterized by apolitical nature, while the subjective approach is included in Article 115 of the Penal Code,<sup>8</sup> according to which a policeman is a state official (an officer) of a body appointed to protect public security. At the statutory level, the principle of apoliticality was implemented in relation to policemen. Specifically, under Article 63 of the Police Act, the civic rights of a policeman were narrowed.<sup>9</sup> The norm maker stated that a police officer cannot be a passive as well as an active member of a political party, thus excluding the possibility of suspending the membership of a political organization for the period of service. Thus, “once a policeman is accepted into service, his membership in the political party ceases.”<sup>10</sup> This fact occurs *ipso iure*, that is with the force of law, and not through the manifestation of the individual action of the subject of law. Moreover, it must not appear in the registers of political parties. Wojciech Kotowski is of the opinion that political neutrality is an obligatory element.<sup>11</sup> However, an official belonging to an association may act as a member of the editorial board or an editor of legal journals.

The termination of membership in political parties was also expressed in Article 152 of the Police Act, which indicates that “upon the entry into force of this Act, the membership in political parties of those policemen who previously belonged to such organizations shall cease to exist.”<sup>12</sup> In this case, the termination of membership may not be suspended, but obligatorily terminated. Apoliticality as a legal principle resulting from the provisions of the Police Act was limited to the prohibition of belonging to a political party. At the same time, this scope of regulation was extended by Order No. 805 of the Police Commander in Chief of December 31, 2003 on the “Principles of Professional Ethics of a Policeman.”<sup>13</sup> § 6 of the appendix states that the

<sup>7</sup> M. Karwat, *Polityczność i upolitycznienie. Metodologiczne ramy analizy*, “Studia Politologiczne” 2010, vol. 17, p. 79.

<sup>8</sup> Ustawa z dnia 6 czerwca 1997 r. – Kodeks karny, Dz.U., 1997, no. 88, item 553, as amended.

<sup>9</sup> Ustawa z dnia 6 kwietnia 1990 r. o Policji, Dz.U., 1990, no. 30, item 179, as amended, Article 63.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibidem*, Article 63 sec. 2.

<sup>11</sup> W. Kotowski, *Ustawa o Policji. Komentarz*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition, Wolters Kluwer Polska, Warszawa 2012, p. 656.

<sup>12</sup> Ustawa z dnia 6 kwietnia..., *op. cit.*, Article 152.

<sup>13</sup> Zarządzenie nr 805 Komendanta Głównego Policji z dnia 31 grudnia 2003 r. w sprawie “Zasady etyki zawodowej policjanta”, Dz.Ur. KGP [Official Journal of the Police Headquarters], 2004, no. 1, item 3.

demeanour of a police officer should be based on impartiality that excludes political prejudices.<sup>14</sup> Also indirectly, at the international level, Resolution 690, known as the “Declaration on the Police”, drew attention to this aspect by expressing the position that “a Police officer shall act with integrity, impartiality and dignity.”<sup>15</sup>

## Apoliticality and its concept

Eugeniusz Młyniec in his reflections, emphasises that apoliticality is “an attitude or behaviour of separation, fighting or negation of politics.”<sup>16</sup> He also points out that apoliticality is wrongly “equated with nonpartisan – non-partyism or anti-partyism.” This results in erroneous reasoning “that it is possible to have an apolitical judiciary, prosecutor’s office, army, police or state administration.”<sup>17</sup>

The discussed issue is multidimensional and can be analysed, *inter alia*, in the political science context. Delving into the legal determinants of apoliticality, it is necessary to explain the definition of politics which, in short, means the art of governing the state. Max Weber maintains that politics is a multifaceted issue, constituting at the same time “the desire to participate in authority or to exert influence on the division of power, whether between states or within the state, between the groups of people it comprises.”<sup>18</sup> Undoubtedly, “belonging to a particular party is an expression of political views and thus a denial of apoliticality.”<sup>19</sup> A separate position in this respect was presented by the Ombudsman. He drew attention to the necessity of distinguishing between apoliticality and non-partyism, at the same time conveying that “in European legislation, the principle of public officials is apoliticality and impartiality, and not nonpartisan.”<sup>20</sup> Therefore, in the opinion of the Ombudsman, apoliticality in itself means a prohibition of public manifestation of political views, and thus an absolute prohibition of using this criterion in the performance of the duties of a police officer. Unfortunately, the cited position in the current social reality raises a lot of controversy and, according to Michał Kruk, may constitute a threat to unacceptable public perception, leading to the labelling of officials who are members of

<sup>14</sup> *Ibidem*, Appendix § 6.

<sup>15</sup> *Declaration on the Police*, Resolution 690 (1979) of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, 8 May 1979, Appendix Declaration on the Police: Ethics, No. 2.

<sup>16</sup> E. Młyniec, *Apolityczność*, [in:] *Leksykon politologii: wraz z aneksem o reformie samorządowej, wyborach do sejmu, prezydenckich oraz gabinetach rządowych*, eds. A. Antoszewski, R. Herbut, 6<sup>th</sup> edition, Alta 2, Wrocław 2003, p. 26.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 27.

<sup>18</sup> M. Weber, *Polityka jako zawód i powołanie*, foreword, introduction and compilation Z. Krasnodębski, transl. A. Kopacki, P. Dybel, Znak – Fundacja im. Stefana Batorego, Kraków–Warszawa 1998, p. 56.

<sup>19</sup> Wyrok Trybunału Konstytucyjnego z dnia 10 kwietnia 2002..., *op. cit.*, p. 8.

<sup>20</sup> *Ibidem*, pp. 6–7.



political parties.<sup>21</sup> Also a little earlier, in the judgment of 1998, the Constitutional Tribunal referred to the issue under consideration, stating that “an integral component of the concept of impartiality is apoliticality, which means not the lack of political views, but not manifesting them at work.”<sup>22</sup> One should agree that belonging to a political party is a declaration of political sympathy, thus contradicting apoliticality. This doubt would, to a large extent, undermine public confidence in the proper functioning of individual institutions or bodies.<sup>23</sup>

## Apoliticality of the Police

According to Michał Brzeziński, being apolitical means a lack of involvement in political activity, a ban on membership in a political party and its termination upon admission to service in the Police. It also results in the obligation to inform the supervisor about membership in associations operating outside of official activities. In this regard, the approval of the Commander in Chief must be obtained for membership in an organization. In addition, the concept of apoliticality should also be associated with the inability to perform the mandate of a deputy or senator while serving in the Police.<sup>24</sup> The legislator rightly takes the position that the purpose of limiting civil freedom in this respect is reliable and impartial performance of official duties.<sup>25</sup>

Therefore, it is reasonable to try to define the scope of meaning apoliticality in relation to the Police, which as an important state organ performs tasks for the benefit of safety. In Article 1 of the Police Act the legislator indicated the role played by the Police in the society, stressing that “[...] it is a uniformed and armed formation serving the society and intended to protect human safety and to maintain public safety and order.”<sup>26</sup> Undoubtedly, as it has already been emphasized, the Police are a participant in political life, and therefore they are not indifferent to current social or socio-political issues. Most often, the “apolitical nature of the police” is synonymous with resistance to all influences from politicians, serving them and the goals related to creating a game for power.<sup>27</sup> However, the illusion of apoliticality is

<sup>21</sup> M. Kruk, *Prawne aspekty apolityczności Policji*, “Studia nad Bezpieczeństwem” 2018, no. 3, p. 148.

<sup>22</sup> Wyrok Trybunału Konstytucyjnego z dnia 17 listopada 1998 r. sygn. akt K 42/97, Dz.U., 1998, no. 143, item 928.

<sup>23</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>24</sup> M. Brzeziński, *Apolityczność policjantów*, [in:] *Słownik wiedzy o Policji*, eds. P. Bogdalski, M. Świdorski, K.A. Wojtaszczyk, Oficyna Wydawnicza Aspra-JR, Warszawa 2015, p. 35.

<sup>25</sup> *Apolityczność*, [in:] *Leksykon policyjny*, eds. W. Pływaczewski, G. Kędzierska, Wydawnictwo Wyższej Szkoły Policji, Szczytno 2001, p. 23.

<sup>26</sup> Ustawa z dnia 6 kwietnia 1990 r. o Policji..., *op. cit.*, Article 1, sec. 1.

<sup>27</sup> M. Otrębski, *Apolityczność policji. Nakaz prawny czy zobowiązanie moralne władzy państwowej?*, “Bezpieczeństwo. Teoria i Praktyka” 2008, special number, p. 9.

extremely vivid and as naive as the misunderstanding of the word. As Karwat points out, some proponents of other professions with public trust do not want to adopt this principle. He further argues that their private obsessions with the claims of conversion constitute an abuse of their professional role.<sup>28</sup> It is similar with articulating the terms that the Police is an apolitical institution. In this case, we are not truthful, because the matter of their actions is ultimately political, related to the enforcement of the law against citizens. At this point, another question can be asked – is the state an “apolitical” formation? So how can state authorities and agencies be “apolitical”? One should express the belief that they are meta-political. It can be indicated that an attribute of such an attitude is the representation of interests and particular aspirations in connection with the propaganda bias.

Nevertheless, a fundamental obligation of a policeman is impartiality, including political neutrality, broadly understood as not being influenced by parties, political clubs or other social and professional organizations. A police officer must be fully guided by the law and the public interest. Political neutrality also means the inability to influence politics and politicians on the professional and non-official activity of a policeman.<sup>29</sup>

The problem of the apolitical nature of the Police as a significant threat to sovereignty and good name was noticed by the community of Polish policemen associated in the Independent Self-governing Trade Union of Police Officers. They have repeatedly pointed out that the apolitical nature of the police formation is necessary, which seemed to be an obvious element assigned to this formation. At the same time, they point out that the reality is different. An example is the procedure for appointing the Provincial and Municipal (County) Police Commanders, who should formally begin their office after receiving an opinion respectively from the Voivode, President and Starost. According to trade unionists, it is a process of unauthorized politicization of the Police. It is especially noticeable when appointing the provincial police commander. In this case, the Voivode, being a representative of the government, issues an opinion, which is in principle consent or not, for the appointment of the person to this position. The solution in question indicates that politicians *de facto* influence the appointment of managerial positions in the Police. In this case, the topical question is whether the Police Commander in Chief, when appointed by the Prime Minister at the request of the Minister of Interior and Administration, can be independent of politics and politicians. Other examples of politicization include the lack of appropriate state budgetary resources for the efficient functioning of the Police. Governments, due to the lack of funds to cover all the needs of the Police, allow it to be supported by local government units,

<sup>28</sup> M. Karwat, *Polityka, apolityczność...*, *op. cit.*

<sup>29</sup> A. Zdybała, *Państwo transformacyjne. Politycy i urzędnicy*, “Służba Cywilna” 2006, no. 14, pp. 41–42.

state organizational units, associations, foundations, banks or insurance institutions as well as monetary donations from other entities, made only by the Police Commander in Chief. However, there is a departure from the principle. If the amount of the donation does not exceed half of the lowest remuneration for work, the acceptance of the support may be materialized by the heads of units that are administrators of budgetary funds. One should wonder what this may lead to, it is certainly an invitation to create agreements and commitments for support, threatening the formation of pathological arrangements at the interface between the authorities, business and the Police.

The politicization of the Police is also clearly visible during election campaigns, when policemen (police commanders) undertake actions aimed at “seeking favour” of political leaders. This form of real politicization of the Police is gaining more and more proportions, as the representatives of political parties that gain power implement their own scenarios of “police control.” According to Józef Penc, the behaviour of politicians may raise objections, as it gets people used to underestimating honesty, and thus trust. By making a synthetic description, he indicated that the behaviour of the elites is characterized by moral relativism and the fabrication of illusions.<sup>30</sup>

Based on the experience of the past years, it seems quite simple. As before, or as always, with the accession to power of a certain political force, there is a change in the position of the Police Commander in Chief, who appoints new provincial Police commanders, justifying it with the need to “choose a team” with which he will implement another “police reform” outlined by politics – the minister responsible for internal affairs. The commandants, who are unable to present a logical and coherent concept of action to politicians, are to some extent responsible for this state of affairs. Therefore, every 4 years they become victims of political changes, preceded by camouflaged races to take up high management positions. These dependencies, in consequence, result in the creation of mechanisms of personal dependencies, influencing the service in the police, and thus its effectiveness. With such a solution, leadership, which should be neutral in making decisions and expressing concern for the public interest, may be of an uncertain nature. This important problem was pointed out by Janusz Gierszewski, who indicated that deep and recurrent staff changes in managerial positions in the police do not affect the effectiveness of the entire formation. He also pointed out that the process itself is questionable without taking into account the social, financial and legal consequences.<sup>31</sup>

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<sup>30</sup> J. Penc, *Zachowania organizacyjne w przedsiębiorstwie. Kreowanie twórczego nastawienia i aspiracji*, Wolters Kluwer Polska, Warszawa 2011, pp. 194–195.

<sup>31</sup> J. Gierszewski, *Polityka zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi i jej wpływ na funkcjonowanie policji*, [in:] *225 lat policji w Polsce*, vol. 2: *Policja współczesna*, eds. P. Majer, M. Seroka, Wydział Prawa i Administracji Uniwersytetu Warmińsko-Mazurskiego, Olsztyn 2017, p. 100.

As a proof of the above, it is worth quoting here an important part of the research carried out in 2016,<sup>32</sup> the purpose of which was to examine the perception of political neutrality of the Polish police in the context of personnel changes.<sup>33</sup> The quantitative research was carried out using the questionnaire method with the use of a standardized paper questionnaire. The study was attended by students of three universities: the Pomeranian University in Słupsk, University of Humanities "Pomerania" in Chojnice and the University of Business and Administration in Gdynia. A total of 173 first- and second-cycle students took part in the study. Women constitute 124 respondents (59.9% of the respondents), 83 are men (40.1%). 34 respondents are policemen. Therefore, the analysis of the answers was made with division into two groups: student, policeman. The basic research tool in the study was a questionnaire consisting of two parts: respondent's particulars and questions. The basic part of the questionnaire contained 8 closed-ended questions (marking the answer on a 5-point Likert-numeric scale from "definitely yes" to "strongly disagree"). In the questionnaire, the questions were additionally supplemented with a disjunctive cafeteria-style checklist and a conjunctive cafeteria-style checklist in the nature of a semi-closed question. The remaining questions were open-ended. Closed questions related to the perception of the impact of staff changes in the positions of commanders, the impact of politics on the functioning of the police, the implementation of the principle of apoliticity, the need for the opinion of commanders by local government units, corruption, financing the police by other institutions, standing in elections, impartiality in appointing commanders. The age of the students was in the range of 21 and less – at the level of 61%; between 21 and 26 years old – 27% and 12% for the age of 26 and more. The age situation of police officers is a little different, as approximately 9% of respondents were 28 years or less, while between 28 and 35 years old were slightly more than 44%; 35 years and more were about 47%.<sup>34</sup>

When asked about party preferences, 43% of students did not declare sympathy for any political party, while the remaining percentage distribution – for Platforma Obywatelska (PO, the Civic Platform), Kukiz'15, Prawo i Sprawiedliwość (PiS, Law and Justice), Nowoczesna (Modern) was hover around 10% each; other parties (6%): Sojusz Lewicy Demokratycznej (SLD, Democratic Left Alliance) 4% and Polskie Stronnictwo Ludowe (PSL, Polish People's Party) 2%. The results are distributed somewhat differently among the police officers. The analysis of the polls shows 82% of the respondents do not sympathize with any political party and the parties that the police sympathize with are Nowoczesna (11%), PO (5%), Kukiz'15 (2%).<sup>35</sup>

<sup>32</sup> Only a significant part of the studies carried out are discussed as being representative and relevant to the theme of the article.

<sup>33</sup> J. Gierszewski, J. Piwowarski, J. Pruchniak, *Perception of Apoliticism of the Police*, "Security Dimensions. International and National Studies" 2016, no. 19, pp. 30–54.

<sup>34</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 41.

<sup>35</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 41–42.

When asked about the impact of politics on the functioning of the Police, 37% of the students answered “definitely yes”, “rather yes” – 54%, “probably not” – 4%. About 5% of students did not have an opinion on this matter.<sup>36</sup> On the other hand, policemen mostly confirmed the influence of the policy on the functioning of the Police: 60% of the respondents answered “definitely yes” and “rather yes” – 35%. Only about 2,5% of the policemen answered “rather no” and the same percentage of respondents did not express an opinion.<sup>37</sup>

The principle of apoliticality and its impact on the work of the police is noted by 71% of students, answering “definitely yes” (29%) and “rather yes” (42%). It can also be noticed that 18% of students did not have an opinion on this matter and 11% of respondents decided that this rule did not affect work: “rather not” (10%) and “definitely not” (1%). Police officers also confirmed that the principle of apoliticality influences the work of the police, 34% of the respondents supported the answer “definitely yes”, while the answer “rather yes” was chosen by 23% of the officers. In this case, 28% of policemen did not express their opinion. The lack of influence of the policy on the work of the Police is noted by 15% of respondents: “rather not” (9%) and “definitely not” (6%).<sup>38</sup>

When the students were to finish the sentence: “Recent changes in important positions in the Police (commanders) are the result of...,” they indicated at the level of 40% that they are the result of a change of government, while in 13% that it is the result of their failure to perform in these positions, and in 12% they motivated it with a lack of competence. Also, 10% of the opinion-forming bodies stated that the reason for this are contacts and relationships, while for 5% of the respondents it is nepotism and corruption. 20% of the surveyed students did not answer this question. 40% of police officers indicated that this is the result of a political choice, and in 20% of friendships and ties between politicians and the police, and in 14% of government failure. Also at the level of 6%, it was indicated that this was a part of a bashing and competitions. 14% of the surveyed policemen did not answer this question.<sup>39</sup>

With regard to the selection criteria for managerial positions in the police, 22% of the students indicated that this is a process subject to substantive criteria. On the other hand, students believed that it is a political (39%) or social effect (39%). The responses of police officers were slightly different, as 14% of them indicated that it results from the substantive criteria, 26% supported the political effect, while as many as 57% of the surveyed policemen were of the opinion that it is a part of the social criterion. Other criteria were indicated by 3% of policemen.<sup>40</sup>

<sup>36</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 44.

<sup>37</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 43.

<sup>38</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 44–45.

<sup>39</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 46–47.

<sup>40</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 48.

In the case of a descriptive question, the respondents were to refer to the problem, what actions should politicians take to ensure the apolitical nature of the Police? The solutions proposed by the students were as follows. Isolation of politicians from the police (35%), elimination of nepotism (12%), systematic control of the Police (7%), selection of competent persons (5%), selection of police officers by commanders (4%) and terms of office of management (2%). In this case, 18% of the students did not answer. On the other hand, referring to the policemen, 40% of them did not answer, and 23% indicated not to change managerial positions after the elections. 17% of officers are of the opinion that the police should finance themselves, and 11% indicated that election to senior police positions should take place through competitions conducted by impartial entities. Moreover, 9% of the surveyed policemen take the position that the Police Commander in Chief should not be appointed by the Minister of the Interior and Administration.<sup>41</sup>

These statements indicate that apoliticality is a highly abstract phenomenon. Undoubtedly, the established practice for decades has insufficiently protected this institution from the influence of politics, contributing in consequence to lowering its effectiveness and thus reducing social trust.

The decline in public confidence in this formation was also confirmed in a study by IBRIS Market and Social Research Institute commissioned by Interia. They were carried out on a representative group of 1,100 respondents on 20–21 November 2020. The respondents answered the question: “What is your attitude towards various public institutions: the police”. The survey showed that nearly one-third of Poles do not trust the police (33.1%), of which 16.5% “definitely do not trust” and “rather does not trust” 16.6%.<sup>42</sup>

Therefore, the decline in trust in the institution of the Police may be influenced by the events that have recently dominated Poland (2020–2021), as well as the fight against the COVID-19 pandemic, together with social concerns related to it. In addition, the women’s strike, the actions of the police during the Independence Day on November 11, 2021, are situations where the majority of society considers the police to be repressive, indicating that it has become a tool in the hands of the authorities.

The acceptance of the thesis that the institution in question has *de facto* become a tool in the hands of the authorities may also be inferred from the contents of the bulletin “Information on the activities of the Ombudsman in 2021”. The Ombudsman pointed out explicitly that in 2020, “as a result of the introduction of the state of epidemics, there has been a restriction of fundamental freedoms or human

<sup>41</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 49–50.

<sup>42</sup> *Sondaż dla Interii: Co trzeci Polak nie ufa policji*, Interia, 24.11.2020, <https://wydarzenia.interia.pl/polska/news-sondaz-dla-interii-co-trzeci-polak-nie-ufa-policji,nId,4874689> [accessed: 4.02.2021].

rights. [...] but the formal condition for the permissibility of a restriction of freedoms or rights is that it must be done by law.”<sup>43</sup>

The established case law of the Supreme Court in this respect Supreme Court jurisprudence indicates that the police, without sufficient legal grounds for doing so, in a performed in a mass manner, in the state of epidemics, legitimisation, arrests, imposed criminal fines and as a public prosecutor, sent to the court unjustified, in the light of the applicable law, motions for punishment. As a consequence, the police thus violated personal freedom, the right to privacy [...].<sup>44</sup>

Also, the evaluation of police interventions carried out in the second half of 2020 against participants of social protests (from the point of view of respecting their rights and freedoms) shows that in cases pending before the District Court for Warsaw-City Centre, “331 detentions were unjustified, in 136 cases, they were conducted in an improper manner, while 83 detentions were deemed illegal by the court.”<sup>45</sup> This means that there were numerous violations of the sphere of constitutionally protected personal freedom during police operations.<sup>46</sup> The circumstances may indicate the existence of a problem in the Police of the unjustified use of a coercive measure such as detention. Such excesses of police officers also lead to their failure to fulfil their duty to respect human dignity and to respect and protect human rights.<sup>47</sup> At the same time, the justified conclusion that disciplinary superiors protect subordinate officers from disciplinary liability for violations of the law confirmed by valid court decisions raises deep concern.

Highlighting the importance of the problem raised, a debate was organised in January 2021 on the police response to citizens’ demonstrations. The pretext for this remained the report of experts and staff of the National Mechanism for the Prevention of Torture at the Office of the Ombudsman, who, during the autumn demonstrations in 2020, visited places of detention, interviewed people, reviewed documentation and surveillance recordings.<sup>48</sup> This description shows that the police were brutal during the intervention and during the transport of detainees. At the police stations, these persons were not well informed of their rights and often spent long hours waiting for further action or legal assistance. Undoubtedly, police officers in Poland are aware that “peaceful demonstrations are a legally protected

<sup>43</sup> *Informacja o działalności Rzecznika Praw Obywatelskich oraz o stanie przestrzegania wolności i praw człowieka i obywatela w roku 2021*, compilation I. Kumidor, Biuro Rzecznika Praw Obywatelskich, Warszawa 2022, p. 12.

<sup>44</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>45</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 63.

<sup>46</sup> Konstytucja Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej..., *op. cit.*, Article 41 sec. 1.

<sup>47</sup> Ustawa z dnia 6 kwietnia 1990 r..., *op. cit.*, Article 14 sec. 3.

<sup>48</sup> *Informacja o działalności Rzecznika Praw Obywatelskich...*, *op. cit.*, p. 358. “The Ombudsman’s Office and «Gazeta Wyborcza» organised a debate on 15 January 2021 on the police response to citizens’ demonstrations”.

form of public assembly, also under the laws related to the current epidemic state. For these reasons, state authorities are not only obliged to refrain from unjustified interference with the freedom of assembly, but are also bound by the duty to ensure the safety of all demonstrators.”<sup>49</sup> Police officers should use the provisions on detention and official actions with great caution and, as a rule, apply them only in cases where the assembly loses its peaceful character.

## Conclusions

Referring to the analysis of the problem, which brings closer the answer to the question of whether the Polish Police nowadays is adequately protected against the influence of political pressure. It should be noted that such protection is an illusory value. Undoubtedly, no changes have been made in this respect for two decades. There is no need to justify that properly understood trust as a decision-making criterion in police personnel processes should be based on values such as knowledge, competence, honesty, rule of law, and responsibility for its actions. However, a necessary condition to meet these expectations should be resistance to being pressured by specific interest groups, including the political class. The problem in question was already described in 2006, where every fourth policeman pointed to the involvement of this institution in politics as the cause of dissatisfaction with work.<sup>50</sup> It is also worth recalling in the summary the study by Gierszewski from the turn of 2015/2016, in which the officers of this service indicated that social (57%) and political (26%) criteria decide about the election to a managerial position in the Police.<sup>51</sup>

Undoubtedly, in the recent history of the Police, all personnel decisions of key importance for the process of managing it, apart from appointing municipal / district commanders, are made by persons holding offices from the granting of political parties. In the absence of legal mechanisms restricting the freedom of persons authorized to make these decisions, the phenomenon of a “staff comet” will persist and deepen at the same time. The more so because politicians or people closely related to this social group do not have to justify their decisions, because their substantive content is not subject to assessment, for example, in appeal proceedings. In 2000, when designing the country’s administrative reform, an attempt was made to make the process of appointing Police bodies less authoritarian. However, as it turns out, it was a purely formal process.

<sup>49</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 144.

<sup>50</sup> *Wyniki badania na temat satysfakcji policjantów z pracy w policji – opinie o sytuacji i warunkach pracy oraz kondycji materialnej gospodarstw*, compilation I. Czerniec, cooperation M. Fuhrmann, A. Kowalczyk, Biuro Komunikacji Społecznej KGP, Warszawa, November 2006.

<sup>51</sup> J. Gierszewski, *op. cit.*, pp. 116–117.



These considerations indicate that in the Polish system of governing and in the established practice, the Police are not adequately protected against interference by the political class. At the same time, it is done through a system of connections and dependencies, which are a consequence of the freedom in the implementation of personnel policy by those in power. This situation may cause negative consequences in the sphere of management of the formation in question, as pointed out by Otrębski, and others. Undoubtedly, in an optimal situation, politics should not play a role in the police administration. However, it is the fact that the appointed police officer cannot be separated from the political environment that has “endowed” him with the key position, awaiting the support of their program.

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## *Apolitical reality of Polish Police*

### *Abstract*

The aim of the study is not only an attempt to define the concept of “apoliticality of the police” and its meaning, but above all, to draw attention to the increasingly emerging problem of interference by the participants of the political scene in the work of the Polish Police. For the purposes of this study, the notions of “political neutrality” and “apoliticality” are equivalent and synonymous. The main problem is the search for an answer to the question of whether the Polish Police nowadays are adequately protected against the influence of political pressure? The text uses theoretical research methods, including literature analysis and statistical data analysis. It was assumed that the apolitical nature of the police means the lack of involvement of police officers in political activities and the scrupulous and impartial performance of official duties, regardless of what is happening on the Polish political scene. The results of the conducted analyses allow the conclusion that the apolitical nature of the Polish Police is a mystification because it is insufficiently protected against the influence of politics, which as a consequence leads to a reduction in its effectiveness and social trust.

Key words: apoliticality, non-partyism, the police, politics, politicians, political neutrality, uniformed groups



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# **Burnout in the police officers serving at Krakow Constabulary**

## **Introduction**

The notion of burnout was first introduced into psychological literature by Herbert J. Freudenberger (1974) and Christina Maslach (1976) as an attempt to respond to the problems of people working in social professions, which, by nature, carry a heavy physical and emotional burden. The concept of burnout was launched into the language of psychology by Freudenberger to describe the exhaustion of strength due to excessive demands of the workplace. Maslach and her colleagues from the University of Berkeley contributed the most to the development of further insights into burnout. The model of burnout syndrome devised by her was based on the results of empirical research of people working in social service professions. Some of these people, after a long period of time spent assisting others, manifested

emotional exhaustion, felt overloaded with their work, and developed a set of negative attitudes towards themselves and others.<sup>1</sup>

Burnout has, therefore, not been derived from some psychological theory or academic inquiry, but has actually emerged as a social issue resulting from the difficult and stressful working conditions experienced by a specific group of people. The pragmatic core of the burnout issue weighed on its development to some extent. This was expressed, among others, by the lack of a universally acknowledged definition of the phenomenon and a clear theoretical approach that could be used to explicate its nature. Maslach and Wilmar B. Schaufeli – pursuing a retrospective approach to the development of research on the burnout syndrome, distinguished two periods: a pioneering one, and an empirical one.<sup>2</sup>

Admittedly, stress can be triggered by a variety of factors. The very way of managing a particular organisation can be a stressor itself. The division of tasks in an organisational unit, a specific management style, interpersonal communication appropriate for the implementation of specific tasks, the recruitment and selection of staff capable of fulfilling specific roles and tasks – these are just some of the factors that can generate stress.<sup>3</sup>

Following Maslach, professional burnout is understood as a psychological syndrome epitomised by emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and a reduced sense of personal achievement. Emotional exhaustion is understood as the feeling of being emotionally empty, deprived of emotional and physical resources, a kind of feeling that makes it no longer possible to handle daily endeavours, enhanced by a sense of fatigue. The police officers who are intensely experiencing this aspect of burnout feel insignificant, and they do not see the possibility of recovering their energy. Depersonalisation is understood as a reaction of excessive distance and negativity towards customers, which often also includes a loss of idealism. Depersonalisation usually develops as an attempt to face excessive emotional exhaustion and is something of a defence mechanism that can lead to the dehumanisation of the other person. A decrease in the sense of personal achievement in the professional field indicates a decrease in the sense of competence and productivity at work. This conspicuous feeling of insufficient self-efficacy is combined with symptoms of inability to face problems at work. It can be reinforced by poor professional development opportunities, or a lack of social support.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> A. Piotrowski, *Stres i wypalenie zawodowe funkcjonariuszy Służby Więziennej*, Difin, Warszawa 2010, p. 9.

<sup>2</sup> S. Tucholska, *Christiny Maslach koncepcja rozwoju wypalenia zawodowego: etapy rozwoju*, "Przełęcz Psychologiczny" 2001, vol. 44, no. 3, p. 301.

<sup>3</sup> J.F. Terelak, *Psychologia organizacji i zarządzania*, Difin, Warszawa 2005, p. 225.

<sup>4</sup> M. Santinello, *LBQ Kwestionariusz wypalenia zawodowego: podręcznik*, transl. by A. Jaworowska, Pracownia Testów Psychologicznych Polskiego Towarzystwa Psychologicznego, Warszawa 2014, p. 12.

So far, several scholars have looked into the factors that underlie stress at work. Workplace stressors can be classified in different ways. Of the most popular are the subdivisions of stressors put forward by Lennart Levi and Marianne Frankenhauser, Michael T. Matteson and John M. Ivancevich, and Cary L. Cooper & Judi Marshall. For Levi and Frankenhauser, based on their categorisation of sources of stress, they ought to be looked at from the physical and social angle. In fact, they divided stressors into six groups:<sup>5</sup>

- factors inherent in the work performed: qualitative and quantitative overload, time pressure and absolute punctuality, working conditions, shift work, the need to keep up with rapid technological change;
- social relations with superiors, subordinates and colleagues: inability to comply, lack of social support, defective social policy;
- organisational structure and emotional atmosphere: lack of co-responsibility, a sense of loneliness, poor interpersonal communication;
- place in the organisation: role ambiguity and its conflictogenic potential, inadequate responsibility for things and people, too much dependence on middle management;
- extra-organisational sources: family problems, life crises, financial difficulties, conflicts related to the low credibility of institutions, conflicts at work and at home, lack of institutional support;
- professional career: current professional status, incompatible with one's qualifications and aspirations, lack of promotion or other prospects for growth.

Stress at work results from the employees' subjective mismatch with their social work environment. It includes two types of unit and environmental matching. The former is the degree to which human capabilities correspond to the requirements and needs of work. The latter is the degree to which a specific work environment provides gratification value to an employee, i.e. to what extent it motivates him/her to make an effort. Maladjustment of any of these factors is the cause of various stress tensions. According to the theory known as the "person-environment fit" (the P-E fit), discussed here by the author, it reveals the ineffectiveness of all institutional schemes that should address work stress, in which all people are treated equally, i.e. without taking into account the system of needs and values of each member of staff. Therefore, in work environments, so-called social support groups are launched spontaneously, or under the influence of psychologists.<sup>6</sup>

Severe stress intensifies in connection with participation in difficult and traumatic situations, of which many occur during the performance of official duties by

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<sup>5</sup> N. Ogińska-Bulik, M. Kaflik-Pieróg, *Stres zawodowy w służbach ratowniczych*, Wydawnictwo Wyższej Szkoły Humanistyczno-Ekonomicznej w Łodzi, Łódź 2006, p. 34, [quoted after:] J.F. Terelak, *Psychologia stresu*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Branta, Bydgoszcz 2001.

<sup>6</sup> J.F. Terelak, *Stres psychologiczny*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Branta, Bydgoszcz 1995, p. 333.

police officers, which can cause the accumulation of stress and the tendency to relieve it, often during the performance of their duties, as well as towards family members in their private life.

Chronic stress and experiencing a long-term mental tension can lead to an increase in morbidity. Common diseases include elevated hypertension, stomach ulcers, diabetes, and many other ailments. As a result of lack of concentration, distraction, the risk of causing an accident at work goes up. The basis of one's deteriorating physical and mental health are those stressors that keep occurring in the workplace and are related to the conditions performed at work, frequently along with repetitive activities that cause monotony, whereby work is perceived as dull and uninteresting. Another important factor is excessive workload, i.e. an overload of an employee's task and roles. Dissatisfaction can be caused by work shifts, lack of promotion opportunities and dissatisfaction with the gratuities in the team. These negative effects can provoke ailments and various somatic diseases.<sup>7</sup>

## Research methodology

The goal of the article is to discuss professional burnout among police officers on the example of the Krakow Constabulary. The main research problem has been posed in the question concerning the scale of the phenomenon of burnout among police officers, and the level of emotional exhaustion, lack of self-achievement, and depersonalisation found on the force.

The research relies on the ANOVA method of analysis of variance, which is a statistical method devised in the 1920s by Ronald Fisher. A univariate analysis of variance checks whether one independent variable affects the performance of one dependent variable. It consists in comparing the intergroup variance against the intragroup variance. The impact of several intra-group factors on the dependent variable was assessed, i.e. the tables show how the independent variable can cause changes in the dependent variable. The paper uses a standardised research tool – an MBI (Maslach Burnout Inventory) questionnaire, which consists of 22 items and 3 scales: emotional exhaustion, consisting of 9 items; depersonalisation, consisting of 5 positions; personal achievements, consisting of 8 items. The level of burnout corresponds to a high score on these scales. The cut-off points used in the categorisation of the subjects have been obtained empirically: the high level of burnout corresponds to the highest tercile of the distribution of points in the normalisation sample.

The high level of burnout is evidenced by high scores on the “emotional exhaustion”, “lack of a sense of achievement” subscales; in the case of this scale, a high score

<sup>7</sup> N. Ogińska-Bulik, *Stres zawodowy u policjantów. Źródła – konsekwencje – zapobieganie*, Wydawnictwo Wyższej Szkoły Humanistyczno-Ekonomicznej w Łodzi, Łódź 2003, pp. 25–26.

indicates commitment to work, while a low score on the scale of “lack of a sense of achievement” can significantly contribute to the occurrence of the burnout syndrome, and the last element called “scale of depersonalisation”. Below are the three constituent elements of burnout and the question numbers according to the key describing a given subscale:

1. Emotional exhaustion scale:  
Questions 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 13, 14, 16, and 20.
2. Lack of a sense of accomplishment scale:  
Questions 4, 7, 9, 12, 17, 18, and 21.
3. Depersonalisation scale:  
Questions 5, 10, 11, 15, and 22.

## Characteristics of the respondents

The survey involved 110 respondents, including 68 men and 42 women, of which 34.5% have secondary education, 15.5% have a bachelor’s degree, and 50% have a master’s degree. The survey included quite a diverse length of service, the largest number of police officers serving for 5–10 years – 33.6%, followed by 11–20 years – 31.8%, and the respondents with the lowest seniority (0–5 years) represented 27.3% of the entire group. When it comes to the age of the surveyed police officers, the largest number of respondents were in the age range of 30–40 years (47.3%) and 20–30 years (30%). Therefore, one can claim that looking at the employment record/seniority and age of respondents, they constitute a relatively young group.

Table 1. Respondents’ gender

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of valid responses	Cumulative percentage
Man	68	61.8	61.8	61.8
Woman	42	38.2	38.2	100.0
Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Source: authors’ own elaboration.

Table 2. Respondents’ education

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of valid responses	Cumulative percentage
Secondary	38	34.5	34.5	34.5
University degree (BA)	17	15.5	15.5	50.0
University degree (MA)	55	50.0	50.0	100.0
Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Source: authors’ own elaboration.

Figure 3. Respondents' employment record/seniority

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of valid responses	Cumulative percentage
0–5 years	30	27.3	27.3	27.3
5–10 years	37	33.6	33.6	60.9
11–20 years	35	31.8	31.8	92.7
21–30 years	7	6.4	6.4	99.1
Over 30 years	1	0.9	0.9	100.0
Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Table 4. Respondents' age

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of valid responses	Cumulative percentage
20–30 years	33	30.0	30.0	30.0
30–40 years	52	47.3	47.3	77.3
40–50 years	22	20.0	20.0	97.3
50–60 years	3	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Source: authors' own elaboration.

### Analysis of the research findings

The findings of the study have been illustrated from three perspectives: exhaustion, the value of work, and depersonalisation.

Table 5. Relationship between exhaustion, gender, and education

Education		Exhaustion																Total				
		12	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28		29	30	32	
1	Gender	1	0	1	1	2	3	1	2	2	2	4	1	2	0	1	2		0		24	
		2	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	0		1		14	
	Total		1	1	1	2	3	1	4	4	3	5	2	4	2	2	2		1		38	
2	Gender	1	0		1	1	1	3	0			0		0		0	0	0			6	
		2	1		0	0	1	1	2			1		2		1	1	1			11	
	Total		1		1	1	2	4	2			1		2		1	1	1			17	
3	Gender	1	1			3	2	3	3	0	7	3	3	2	4	2	2	1		1	1	38
		2	0			1	1	1	3	2	2	0	0	1	4	0	2	0		0	0	17
	Total		1			4	3	4	6	2	9	3	3	3	8	2	4	1		1	1	55
Total	Gender	1	1	0	1	5	5	7	7	2	9	5	7	3	6	2	3	3	0	1	1	68
		2	0	2	0	1	1	2	4	6	4	1	2	2	8	2	4	1	1	1	0	42
	Total		1	2	1	6	6	9	11	8	13	6	9	5	14	4	7	4	1	2	1	110

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Gender: 1 – male, 2 – female; Education: 1 – secondary, 2 – university degree (BA level), 3 – university degree (MA level).



Looking in more detail at the table 5, it is clear to see that the largest number of respondents has shown a level of occupational exhaustion at the average level. Of these, men predominate among the people with secondary education, women prevail in the group of those with undergraduate (BA level) education, while the men who hold a master's degree are almost twice as likely to manifest symptoms of professional exhaustion. A more careful analysis of the collected material based on cross-tables proves that the most numerous group with a low exhaustion index are the women (12 respondents) with the highest level of education.

Table 6. Relationship between exhaustion, gender, and seniority

Seniority		Exhaustion																																Total	
		12	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	32															
1	Gender	1					2	1	2		2	1	3	2	2	0				0												1		15	
		2					0	0	0		3	1	2	2	4	2																		1	15
	Total					2	1	2		5	2	5	4	6	2																	1		30	
2	Gender	1		0	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	1	3		2	1	0																19
		2		1	0	1	0	1	2	4	0	0	0	0	4		3	1	1																18
	Total		1	1	2	1	2	4	5	1	1	3	1	7		5	2	1																37	
3	Gender	1	1			4	1	4	3	1	4	1	1			2	1	2		1	1										1	1		27	
		2	0			0	1	1	2	2	1	0	0			0	1	0		0	0									0	0		8		
	Total	1			4	2	5	5	3	5	1	1			2	2	2													1	1		35		
4	Gender	1		0				1			2	2			1																			6	
		2		1				0			0	0			0																			1	
	Total		1				1			2	2			1																				7	
5	Gender	1					1																											1	
		2																																1	
	Total						1																											1	
Total	Gender	1	1	0	1	5	5	7	7	2	9	5	7	3	6	2	3	3	0	1	1													68	
		2	0	2	0	1	1	2	4	6	4	1	2	2	8	2	4	1	1	1	1	0												42	
	Total	1	2	1	6	6	9	11	8	13	6	9	5	14	4	7	4	1	2	1	2	1												110	

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Gender: 1 – male, 2 – female; Employment record/seniority: 1 – 0–5 years, 2 – 5–10 years, 3 – 11–20 years, 4 – 21–30 years; 5 – over 30 years.

Table 6 shows that the police officers with 0–5 years of experience reveal an average level of burnout, a finding that applies to 50% of the men and in 50% of the women subjected to the study. When it comes to the employment record that ranges from 5 to 10 years, the largest number of respondents were found to manifest an average level of professional burnout, and here too there are no significant differences that can be discerned between the sexes. The seniority of 11–20 years of experience in most cases corresponds to the average level of burnout, but here there are certain major gender-related differences (27 men, and 8 women); the same feature was identified in respondents with 21–30 years of service. From the analysis of the collected material based on cross-tables, the largest group with a low exhaustion rate are women (12 respondents) with the highest seniority, i.e. from 21 to over 30 years of job experience.

Table 7. Relationship between exhaustion, gender, and age

Age		Exhaustion																																Total	
		12	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	32															
1	Gender	1				1	1	2	0	2	1	3	2	2	0		1		0																15
		2				0	0	0	2	2	1	1	2	6	2		1		1		1														18
	Total				1	1	2	2	4	2	4	4	8	2		2		1		1															33
2	Gender	1	1	0	1	5	2	4	3	1	3	2	3	1	1	1	1	2	0																31
		2	0	1	0	1	0	2	4	4	2	0	1	0	2	0	3	0	1																21
	Total	1	1	1	6	2	6	7	5	5	2	4	1	3	1	4	2	1																	52
3	Gender	1		0		1	1	2	1	3	2	1		3	1	2				1	1													19	
		2		1		1	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	1				0	0													3	
	Total		1		2	1	2	1	3	2	1		3	1	3				1	1														22	
4	Gender	1				1	1			1																								3	
	Total					1	1			1																									3
Total	Gender	1	1	0	1	5	5	7	7	2	9	5	7	3	6	2	3	3	0	1	1														68
		2	0	2	0	1	1	2	4	6	4	1	2	2	8	2	4	1	1	1	0														42
	Total	1	2	1	6	6	9	11	8	13	6	9	5	14	4	7	4	1	2	1															110

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Gender: 1 – male, 2 – female; Age: 1 – 20–30 years, 2 – 31–40 years, 3 – 41–50 years, 4 – 51–60 years.

Looking at the data contained in table 7, it can be seen that women aged 20–30 are slightly more likely to be professionally exhausted than men. The officers aged 31–40 who reported lower levels of exhaustion are mostly men, just as those at the medium level (22 men, and 19 women). However, a big difference can be noticed in the age range of 41–50: here, men clearly prevail (19 men, and 3 women). Within the age range of 51–60, interestingly, the phenomenon in question practically does not occur. Officers over the age of 60 have not been included in the study.

Table 8. Relationship between the value of work, gender, and education

Education		Value of work																Total																
		12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	27																		
1	Gender	1				1	1	1	4	4	6	3	2		2		0																	24
		2				2	0	0	1	1	4	3	1		1		1																	14
	Total				3	1	1	5	5	10	6	3		3		1																		38
2	Gender	1			0		1	2	0	0	2	1		0																				6
		2			1		1	0	3	2	2	0		2																				11
	Total			1		2	2	3	2	4	1		2																					17
3	Gender	1	0	0	1	5	1	4	5	5	4	6	2	3	1	1																		38
		2	1	1	1	0	0	3	3	2	2	1	2	0	1	0																		17
	Total	1	1	2	5	1	7	8	7	6	7	4	3	2	1																			55
Total	Gender	1	0	0	1	6	3	7	9	9	12	10	4	3	3	1	0																	68
		2	1	1	2	2	1	3	7	5	8	4	3	2	2	0	1																	42
	Total	1	1	3	8	4	10	16	14	20	14	7	5	5	1	1																		110

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Gender: 1 – male, 2 – female; Education: 1 – secondary, 2 – university degree (BA), 3 – university degree (MA).

According to the figures shown in table 8, the feeling of lack of personal accomplishment of the surveyed police officers is at a low level (i.e. one that does not exceed 33), which should be considered a positive thing. The largest number of positive responses was found within the group of respondents with a master's degree, and here this relationship can be seen occurring to a minor extent. When it comes to gender, the largest number of respondents showing a decrease in professional self-esteem were men (68 people), while in the case of women it stood at 42.

Table 9. Relationship between the value of work, gender and seniority

Seniority		Value of work															Total	
		12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	27		
1	Gender	1				2	1		2	3	3	1	3		0		0	15
		2				1	0		1	2	5	1	2		2		1	15
	Total				3	1		3	5	8	2	5		2		1	30	
2	Gender	1	0	0	0		1	3	3	3	4	3	0	0	2			19
		2	1	1	2		1	0	5	2	2	1	1	2	0			18
	Total	1	1	2		2	3	8	5	6	4	1	2	2				37
3	Gender	1			1	3		3	3	3	4	6	1	1	1	1		27
		2			0	1		3	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0		8
	Total			1	4		6	4	4	5	7	1	1	1	1			35
4	Gender	1				1	1	1	1			0		2				6
		2				0	0	0	0			1		0				1
	Total				1	1	1	1			1		2					7
5	Gender	1									1							1
	Total										1							1
Total	Gender	1	0	0	1	6	3	7	9	9	12	10	4	3	3	1	0	68
		2	1	1	2	2	1	3	7	5	8	4	3	2	2	0	1	42
	Total	1	1	3	8	4	10	16	14	20	14	7	5	5	1	1		110

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Gender: 1 – male, 2 – female; Employment record/seniority: 1 – 0–5 years, 2 – 5–10 years, 3 – 11–20 years, 4 – 21–30 years, 5 – over 30 years.

Looking at the findings in table 9, it is clear to see that the decrease in satisfaction with one's professional achievements also occurs at a lower level, most often in respondents with 5–10 and 11–20 years of service, and these are most often men.

Table 10. Relationship between the value of work, gender and age

Age			Value of work														Total	
			12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25		27
1	Gender	1				1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3		1		0	15
		2				1	0	0	3	3	4	2	3		1		1	18
	Total					2	1	1	5	5	6	4	6		2		1	33
2	Gender	1	0	0	1	3	0	2	5	2	7	7	1	1	2			31
		2	1	1	2	0	1	3	4	2	4	0	0	2	1			21
	Total		1	1	3	3	1	5	9	4	11	7	1	3	3			52
3	Gender	1				2	1	4	2	5	2	1		1		1		19
		2				1	0	0	0	0	0	2		0		0		3
	Total					3	1	4	2	5	2	3		1		1		22
4	Gender	1					1				1			1				3
	Total						1				1			1				3
Total	Gender	1	0	0	1	6	3	7	9	9	12	10	4	3	3	1	0	68
		2	1	1	2	2	1	3	7	5	8	4	3	2	2	0	1	42
	Total		1	1	3	8	4	10	16	14	20	14	7	5	5	1	1	110

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Gender: 1 – male, 2 – female; Age: 1 – 20–30 years, 2 – 31–40 years, 3 – 41–50 years, 4 – 51–60 years.

When it comes to the relationship between the value of work, gender and age, it should be noted that this is still at the lowest level. It is surprising to note that the phenomenon, although at a low level, is already most commonly found in people aged 31–40 and 20–30. In general, it is most common in men.

Table 11. Relationship between depersonalisation, gender, and education

Education			Depersonalisation											Total			
			7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17		19		
1	M1_Gender	1		1	1	1	3	5	8	1	2	1		1			24
		2		1	1	0	0	3	0	5	3	1		0			14
	Total			2	2	1	3	8	8	6	5	2		1			38
2	Gender	1		0	1	1	1	0	2	1	0						6
		2		1	1	0	2	3	0	2	2						11
	Total			1	2	1	3	3	2	3	2						17
3	Gender	1	1	2	4	1	7	2	9	7	4		1				38
		2	0	0	2	0	4	6	3	1	1		0				17
	Total		1	2	6	1	11	8	12	8	5		1				55
Total	Gender	1	1	3	6	3	11	7	19	9	6	1	1	1			68
		2	0	2	4	0	6	12	3	8	6	1	0	0			42
	Total		1	5	10	3	17	19	22	17	12	2	1	1			110

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Gender: 1 – male, 2 – female; Education: 1 – secondary, 2 – university degree (BA), 3 – university degree (MA).

Looking at the research findings shown in the table 11, it is clear to see that depersonalisation, i.e. a negative and distanced treatment of other people in daily interpersonal contacts, occurs at the medium and high level, and has been most often found in men who hold a master's degree. On the other hand, at the highest level, this was the case for the respondents with a master's degree (55 people), secondary education (38 people) and a bachelor's degree (17 people). Here, in particular, it is the men who prevail.

Table 12. The relationship between depersonalisation, gender and seniority

Seniority		Depersonalisation											Total		
		7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17		19	
1	Gender	1			1	2	1	2	7	1	1	0			15
		2			0	0	0	5	2	4	3	1			15
	Total			1	2	1	7	9	5	4	1			30	
2	Gender	1		0	2		3	3	5	2	3	1			19
		2		1	3		5	2	1	4	2	0			18
	Total		1	5		8	5	6	6	5	1			37	
3	Gender	1	1	2	3		4	2	7	4	2		1	1	27
		2	0	1	0		1	5	0	0	1		0	0	8
	Total	1	3	3		5	7	7	4	3		1	1	35	
4	Gender	1		1	0	1	2			2					6
		2		0	1	0	0			0					1
	Total		1	1	1	2			2						7
5	Gender	1					1								1
	Total					1									1
Total	Gender	1	1	3	6	3	11	7	19	9	6	1	1	1	68
		2	0	2	4	0	6	12	3	8	6	1	0	0	42
	Total	1	5	10	3	17	19	22	17	12	2	1	1	110	

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Gender: 1 – male, 2 – female; Employment record/seniority: 1 – 0–5 years, 2 – 5–10 years, 3 – 11–20 years, 4 – 21–30 years, 5 – above 30 years.

Table 12 shows that the situation is similar: depersonalisation occurs at high and medium levels. Worryingly, the phenomenon has been noted already in people with little work experience (0–5 years) (30 respondents), 5–10 years (37 people), or 11–20 (35 people). Such findings should be a cause for concern.

Table 13. Relationship between depersonalisation, gender and age

Age			Depersonalisation											Total	
			7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17		19
1	Gender	1			1	1	1	2	7	1	1	1			15
		2			1	0	0	5	1	6	4	1			18
	Total			2	1	1	7	8	7	5	2			33	
2	Gender	1		2	4	1	5	3	8	3	3		1	1	31
		2		1	2	0	5	7	2	2	2		0	0	21
	Total		3	6	1	10	10	10	5	5		1	1	52	
3	Gender	1	1	0	1		4	2	4	5	2				19
		2	0	1	1		1	0	0	0	0				3
	Total	1	1	2		5	2	4	5	2					22
4	Gender	1		1		1	1								3
	Total		1		1	1									3
Total	Gender	1	1	3	6	3	11	7	19	9	6	1	1	1	68
		2	0	2	4	0	6	12	3	8	6	1	0	0	42
	Total	1	5	10	3	17	19	22	17	12	2	1	1	110	

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Gender: 1 – male; 2 – female; Age: 1 – 20–30 years, 2 – 31–40 years, 3 – 41–50 years, 4 – 51–60 years.

The correlation between the lowering of one’s job satisfaction, gender and age is at the high and medium levels. It has been identified most commonly in men aged 31–40 (52 people, including 31 men), and in the 20–30 age group (33 people, including 15 men and 18 women). The phenomenon practically does not occur in people representing the 51–60 age group.

### Conclusions

The research findings featured above indicate that the rates of burnout revealed in police officers are similar to those in professional groups that are traditionally associated with this phenomenon, i.e. professions that are related to the sphere of social services, such as teachers, physicians, nurses or social workers, where close interpersonal contacts, a sense of engagement and emotional exchange play a major role.

The studies that have been conducted have not revealed statistically significant differences in the analysed variables between police officers representing different police divisions, as well as those that depend heavily on gender, age or education, which has entitled the researchers of this paper to make relevant calculations for the entire group of 110 police officers that have been scrutinised. The calculations were made using the ANOVA variance analysis methodology.

The studied group differs in terms of gender, age and seniority, as can be seen in the example given, the oldest of the respondents boasting almost as many years of

service as the age of the youngest respondent, thanks to which young people in the profession can benefit from the experience of older ones. In many similar works, it can be noted that the greater the experience, the greater the burnout, no such relationship was found in the studied group. This result may be influenced by factors such as integration with the group, satisfaction with the service performed, or support of one's relatives and family.

To conclude, the police force is a uniformed unit in which specific rules apply, a group in which the superiors are often younger people with higher ranks, but sometimes younger and with less experience. As can be deduced from the examined group, this fact does not cause a problem in professional or private relations.

The service of a police officer implies a high risk of burnout due to the type of tasks performed, as well as to regular contact with people, their problems and misfortunes that affect them. Often, when providing help to people in need, one can see their dramatic condition, and people often react in a specific way to problems or conflicts, looking for comfort or help – not only physical, but also psychological – which to a large extent can affect the risk of professional burnout of police officers.

To sum up, it is worth highlighting the fact that the well-being and health of an individual is the result of several factors. Workload and one's resources are of primary significance, but they are not the only factors that lie behind one's physical and emotional health; nor are they the only elements that can lead to burnout. Therefore, they are insufficient to provide a comprehensive explanation of the mechanisms that trigger the variety of disorders that are associated with it.

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*Burnout in the police officers serving at Krakow Constabulary**Abstract*

Undoubtedly, serving as a police officer is associated with a high level of occupational stress. The stressfulness of this profession, which keeps increasing every year, results from several reasons, of which the most important ones include frequent participation in difficult and sometimes dramatic situations, endangering one's own life and the lives of others, making quick decisions, bearing the burden of a potentially unjustified use of weapons, and exposure to trauma and other traumatic experiences of other people. The high level of stress related to the profession of a police officer is also associated with other factors, such as low wages, shifts, or paperwork. This paper looks at the notion and consequences of burnout among police officers on the example of the Krakow Constabulary. The study rests on a detailed survey of 110 officers based on the application of the ANOVA method of analysis of variance.

Key words: stress, burnout, the Police, Krakow Constabulary

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# Managing the culture of fear in shaping the behavior and attitudes of the members of the organization

## Introduction

The aim of this study is to show the culture-forming role of fear as a tool of cynical managerial pragmatism, which can be used in a planned and coordinated way.

For this purpose, a critical analysis of the literature on the subject was made, and basing on existing written sources, an original theoretical models were proposed that can become the basis for conceptualization for further empirical research.

## Fear in a psychological perspective

The feeling of anxiety and fear by a person is accompanied by spiritual, mental and somatic symptoms. Depression, which is normally a derivative of anxiety pushes the sufferer towards loneliness and alienation. Antoni Kępiński wrote about it when he made a forecast of the mental condition of a man at the turn of the millennium,<sup>1</sup> who must submit to the absolute requirements of the technocracy

<sup>1</sup> A. Kępiński, *Rytm życia*, 7<sup>th</sup> edn, Wydawnictwo Literackie, Kraków 2001.

world. Phenomena commonly recognized as symptoms of psychopathology (e.g. some neuroses), Kazimierz Dąbrowski considers as symptoms of the breakdown of the “old” mental structure, which is at a lower level of development, preceding its secondary integration at a higher level.<sup>2</sup>

Fear in traumatic forms is the result of anxiety and depression, as well as their stimulator.<sup>3</sup> It manifests itself mainly in the sense of chaos, helplessness, hostility to the world, experiencing the meaninglessness of one’s own life, etc.<sup>4</sup> that an employee of a hierarchical corporate system may experience.<sup>5</sup> The consequence of extreme fear can be violent, uncontrollable, extremely strong, irrational reactions and behaviors. According to Longin Klichowski, the equivalent of this kind of sudden, paroxysmal reactions of heightened fear is panic,<sup>6</sup> which causes the individual to become impulsive, make instinctive decisions, or freeze in psychomotor paralysis. The concept of panic is generally used to describe anxiety reactions that occur within social groups on the scale of collective behavior, in the form of crowd actions.<sup>7</sup>

Because man is a social being,<sup>8</sup> his life remains dependent on the presence of other people and social structures.<sup>9</sup> In the human world, anxiety and fear are expressed in many forms, real events, concepts, meanings, symbols and ideas, transforming physical and biological laws into a world of ideas, values and culture. “In the process of sublimation, the instinctive and atavistic features of human nature and its biophysical orientation are transformed into romantic, lofty, and noble goals and motivations of human behavior.”<sup>10</sup>

The concepts of anxiety and fear exemplify the elementary reaction of man to the danger infecting him, in the sense of fear visible and objective, in the experience of fear latent and subjective. Anxiety touches the core of the personality, the very

<sup>2</sup> K. Dąbrowski, *Dezintegracja pozytywna*, Państwowy Instytut Wydawniczy, Warszawa 1979.

<sup>3</sup> A. Kępiński, *Lęk*, 8<sup>th</sup> edn, Wydawnictwo Literackie, Warszawa 2012.

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<sup>6</sup> L. Klichowski, *Lęk, strach, panika. Przyczyny i zapobieganie*, Wydawnictwo Printer, Poznań 1994.

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<sup>8</sup> E. Aronson, T.D. Wilson, R.M. Akert, *Psychologia społeczna*, tłum. J. Gilewicz, Wydawnictwo Zys i S-ka, Poznań 2006.

<sup>9</sup> E. Aronson, *Człowiek istota społeczna: wybór tekstów*, transl. by J. Radzicki, Biblioteka Psychologii Współczesnej, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2005.

<sup>10</sup> K. Nagody-Mrozowicz, *Strach i przywództwo. Człowiek. Kultura. Adiutyzm*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Wojsk Lądowych im. gen. T. Kościuszki, Wrocław 2020, p. 65.

center of the „Me”, while fear moves the individual externally, causing consequences in the somatic, expressive and pantomime spheres.<sup>11</sup>

Karen Horney points to culture as a source of fear, and in particular to one of the most important factors that make up culture, the imagination. Thanks to it, one comes into contact with religion, art and science. Primitive man felt fear of nature, he explained unknown elements of the world with his imagination, transforming irrational fear into rational fear.<sup>12</sup>

## Fear in a sociological perspective

Fear is also a collective process whose heterogeneity transforms it into communal mechanisms. Importantly, the nature of the interactions remains the same, but the mechanism takes on a more extensive dimension, because the individual entity is replaced by a collective entity. Fear becomes a social process in this respect, such as fear of war, round-up during occupation, collective dismissal, psychopathic superior. Fear is still real, but no longer felt only individually, it is felt by the community, which, figuratively speaking, infects it, distributes it throughout the organism of the organization, causing an epidemic of fear.<sup>13</sup>

In understanding group processes, the Le Bon-Park-Blumer hypothesis<sup>14</sup> may be useful, which assumes that the crowd shapes and transforms the individual, limiting or even eliminating his ability to rationally control his behavior.<sup>15</sup> A crowd can be understood by a common goal or the emotions that drive it, such as at a political rally, sporting event, or during a looting (as a psychological crowd), or it can simply consist of an incalculable number of people in a crowded space.<sup>16</sup>

In Gustave Le Bon's classic work<sup>17</sup> the individual, under the pressure of the crowd, acts irrationally, not guided by ethical considerations, intellect, knowledge and education. The action of the individual is devoid of rational sense, and the finality is based on the influence of the collective, which in the given circumstances is the reference point of his decisions and actions. Le Bon emphasizes the role of ideas, especially those that are pictorial and simple, in the process of transformation of individuals.

<sup>11</sup> K. Horney, *Neurotyczna osobowość naszych czasów*, transl. by H. Grzegółowska, Wydawnictwo Rebis, Poznań 1999, p. 42.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibidem*, s. 80; K. Nagody-Mrozowicz, *Strach i przywództwo...*, *op. cit.*

<sup>13</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>14</sup> See K. Łobos, A. Dejnaka, K. Nagody-Mrozowicz, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

<sup>15</sup> C. McPhail, *Blumer's Theory of Collective Behavior: The Development of a Non-Symbolic Interaction Explanation*, "Sociological Quarterly" 1989, vol. 30, no. 3, pp. 401–423.

<sup>16</sup> R. Challenger, C.W. Clegg, M.A. Robinson, *Understanding crowd behaviours. Multi-volume report for the UK Government's Cabinet Office*, London 2009.

<sup>17</sup> G. Le Bon, *Psychologia tłumy*, transl. by B. Kaprocki, Wydawnictwo Marek Derewiecki, Kęty 2013.

They have the best chance of capturing the minds of entire social groups. Important from the point of view of the area of discussion of this publication seems to be the remark formulated by Le Bon that the crowd always „bends the knee” before a strong authority and is inclined to contest a weak power.

## The cultural orientation of fear

Culture is a communal interpretation of the world, events, phenomena, understanding, giving meaning, conventions, a sense of convergent perception of meanings that constitute reality, it is the process of its establishment through collective (including individual) reading of principles, values, rules and their evaluation.<sup>18</sup> It is inculcating in the process of socialization, common rules, principles and forms of behavior in the young generation, which they will pass on to their descendants, and they to theirs. It is an active, living phenomenon through which people create and recreate the realities of the world in which they live, i.e. the reality that surrounds them.

In the spectrum of considerations, it is necessary to indicate such elements of culture that vividly emphasize its programming character. Geert Hofstede believes that it is “a collective programming of the mind which, in addition to universal and individual programming, distinguishes one group from another. A group can be nations, organizations, professions”.<sup>19</sup> Cognitive processes, interpersonal and social communication, mechanisms of social influence, groupthink syndrome, crowd psychology and pressure play an important role in this process.<sup>20</sup>

James A.F. Stoner, R. Edward Freeman, and Daniel R. Gilbert argue that it is a collection of important concepts, such as norms, values, attitudes, and beliefs, that members of the organization have in common.<sup>21</sup> For Edgar H. Schein, organizational culture is a set of dominant values and norms of conduct characteristic of a given organization,<sup>22</sup> underpinned by assumptions about the nature of reality and manifested through artifacts,<sup>23</sup> external, artificial creations of a given culture.<sup>24</sup> It is

<sup>18</sup> P.J. Frost *et al.*, *Organizational Culture*, Sage Publications, Beverly Hills–London–New Delhi 1986; M. Alvesson, *Understanding Organizational Culture*, Sage Publications, London–Thousand Oaks–New Delhi 2012.

<sup>19</sup> G. Hofstede, G.J. Hofstede, *Kultury i organizacje. Zaprogramowanie umysłu*, transl. by M. Durka, Polskie Wydawnictwo Ekonomiczne, Warszawa 2007, p. 12.

<sup>20</sup> K. Łobos, A. Dejnaka, K. Nagody-Mrozowicz, *op. cit.*

<sup>21</sup> J.A.F. Stoner, R.E. Freeman, D.R. Gilbert, *Kierowanie*, transl. by A. Ehrlich, Polskie Wydawnictwo Ekonomiczne, Warszawa 1997, p. 20.

<sup>22</sup> E.H. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey-Bass, A Wiley Imprint, San Francisco, CA 2010.

<sup>23</sup> Idem, *Organizational Culture: A Dynamic Model*, Creative Media Partners, LLC, 2018.

<sup>24</sup> M. Dąbrowski, *Kultura organizacyjna oraz zasady dobrych praktyk w korporacjach a etos akademicki*, “E-mentor” 2006, no. 2, p. 16; L. Zbiegień-Maciąg, *Kultura w organizacji: identyfikacja kultur znanych firm*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 1999, p. 15.

thus “a system of patterns of thought and action that are fixed in the social environment of the organization and are relevant to the realization of its formal goals”.<sup>25</sup>

Culture is “a model of basic assumptions that a group has discovered, invented, or developed when confronted with the group’s internal problems or environmental problems. These assumptions have proven themselves and are therefore considered valid and are being passed on to new members of the group as an appropriate way of perception”.<sup>26</sup>

Kim S. Cameron and Robert E. Quinn write of culture as “the totality of fundamental assumptions that a group has invented, discovered, or created while learning to adapt to the environment and integrate internally. Unwritten, often subconsciously followed rules that bridge the gap between what is written and what actually happens. Culture is about shared views, ideologies, values, beliefs, expectations and norms”.<sup>27</sup>

Organizations and cultures are basically real socially constructed beings, they arise and exist in minds as much as they exist in the form of ideas and norms. Visions become reality, and the organization becomes what it was in its own opinion (self-realizing forecast).<sup>28</sup> The most important for an organization is the human-cultural subsystem,<sup>29</sup> which is the source of its intellectual and ethical-moral potential. The human factor<sup>30</sup> shapes the culture of the organization, which is expressed in the atmosphere and organizational climate.<sup>31</sup>

In culture, man is in a sense deprived of part of his freedom and subjected to the pressure of social expectations (e.g. in social or team roles). The community in this view is anonymous, impersonal, and also as if alien and somewhat hostile to the individual.

<sup>25</sup> C. Sikorski, *Zachowania ludzi w organizacji*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2002, p. 4.

<sup>26</sup> K. Piwowar-Sulej, *Kultura organizacyjna i jej wpływ na działalność projektową – studium przypadku*, “Marketing i Rynek” 2014, no. 5, p. 143; see K. Mrozowicz, *Kultura organizacyjna w świetle badań postaw pracowniczych wobec klimatu organizacyjnego*, “Nauka i Gospodarka” 2010, no. 3(6), pp. 12–26.

<sup>27</sup> K.S. Cameron, R.E. Quinn, *Kultura organizacyjna – diagnoza i zmiana: model wartości konkurujących*, transl. by B. Nawrot, Wolters Kluwer, Warszawa 2015, pp. 28–59.

<sup>28</sup> H.J. Leavitt, *Applied organizational change in industry: Structural, technological and humanistic approaches*, [in:] *Handbook of Organizations*, ed. by J.G. March, Rand McNally, Chicago, Ill. 1965, p. 160, [as cited in:] C. Sikorski, *Zachowania ludzi w organizacji*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 1990, pp. 17–18.

<sup>29</sup> F.E. Kast, J.E. Rosenzweig, *Organization and Management: a Systems Approach*, McGraw-Hill, New York 1970.

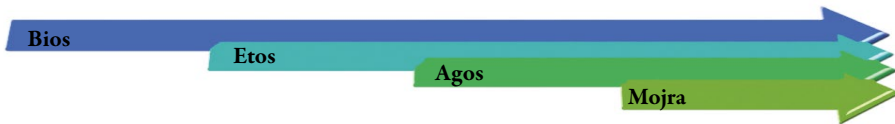
<sup>30</sup> See K. Mrozowicz, *Czynnik ludzki w górskim pogotowiu ratunkowym: analiza osobowościowych uwarunkowań i zachowań organizacyjnych ratowników górskich*, Wydawnictwo Państwowej Wyższej Szkoły Techniczno-Ekonomicznej im. ks. Bronisława Markiewicza, Jarosław 2013.

<sup>31</sup> K. Mrozowicz, *Kultura organizacyjna w świetle badań...*, *op. cit.*, pp. 12–26.

## The genesis of the culture of fear

The most characteristic feature of culture is its supra-individual continuity, which is based on four pillars of pedagogy: *bios – ethos – agos – moira*. The sustainability of culture is achieved and preserved through the educational process, in which the content of teaching is passed on to the next generations through the so-called social inheritance of social behavior<sup>32</sup> (figure 1).

Figure 1. Pedagogy of fear in the process of education and upbringing in culture



Source: K. Nagody-Mrozowicz, *Strach i przywództwo. Człowiek. Kultura. Adiutyzm*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Wojsk Lądowych im. gen. T. Kościuszki, Wrocław 2020, p. 147.

Fear, which becomes a so-called social fact,<sup>33</sup> i.e., a generally known, common and colloquial experience, as well as a feeling of a certain human community, acquires the following characteristics:

- 1) is generated and perceived by members of the community as a collective experience, common and remaining their collective property;
- 2) it is external to each member, because they did not create it itself, but rather found it, encountered it, or collided with it;
- 3) exerts a generalized influence on the thinking and behavior of members of the community: recommending, prohibiting, commanding.<sup>34</sup>

The organization begins to express fear in a wide repertoire of behaviors, e.g. in cognitive processes, learning, attitudes, motivation, cooperation, communication,<sup>35</sup> managing, or leadership. People do not want to learn new skills because they are afraid of failure, punishment, without motivation. They do not engage in work because they feel used, unappreciated, avoid cooperation because they are convinced that their colleagues and superiors take over their ideas and promote them at their expense. They limit themselves to formal and official meetings and gatherings, because they feel threatened by nepotism in informal relations. All of their potential is imbued with anxiety, fear and negative emotions.

<sup>32</sup> K. Nagody-Mrozowicz, *Strach i przywództwo...*, *op. cit.*, p. 147.

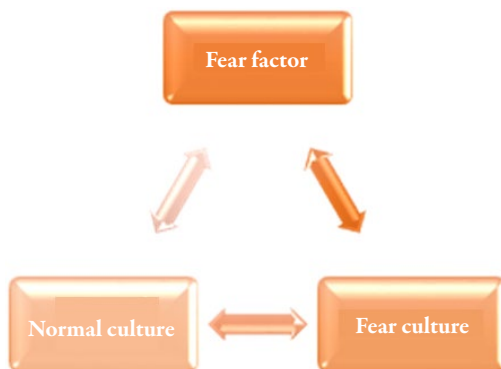
<sup>33</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 232.

<sup>34</sup> P. Sztompka, *Socjologia: analiza społeczeństwa*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2002.

<sup>35</sup> J. Keyton, *Communication and Organizational Culture: A Key to Understanding Work Experiences*, Sage Publications, Los Angeles–London–New Delhi–Singapore–Washington DC 2006, p. 56.

The transformation of “normal” culture into “fear” culture (figure 2), contains the four aspects of supra-individual continuity of culture (figure 1) described earlier.

Figure 2. Denomination of the axionormative system under the influence of fear



Source: K. Nagody-Mrozowicz, *Strach i przywództwo. Człowiek. Kultura. Adiutyzm*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Wojsk Lądowych im. gen. T. Kościuszki, Wrocław 2020, p. 149.

Fear is also one of the limitations imposed on natural human behavior by culture, thus constituting – next to shame – a kind of necessary regulators of behavior and attitudes.

With the emergence of the state of antagonized social groups, when man began to define himself as *homo politicus*, fear became the main mechanism of culture. Shame regulated what was common to all people (moral norms, human prohibitions, transformation of physiology into culture), and fear determined their attitude to the state (religion, formal values, prevailing customs, legal norms).<sup>36</sup>

## Theoretical model of the culture of fear

Analysis of the most popular classifications of organizational cultures: by Roger Harrison, Charles Handy, Hofstede, and Cameron and Quinn,<sup>37</sup> shows that in each of the above typological models, the authors illustrated them through dimensions.

Due to the fact that the subject of fear is most closely expressed in the typology by Cameron and Quinn, it was decided to use this classification to describe the model of culture in terms of fear.

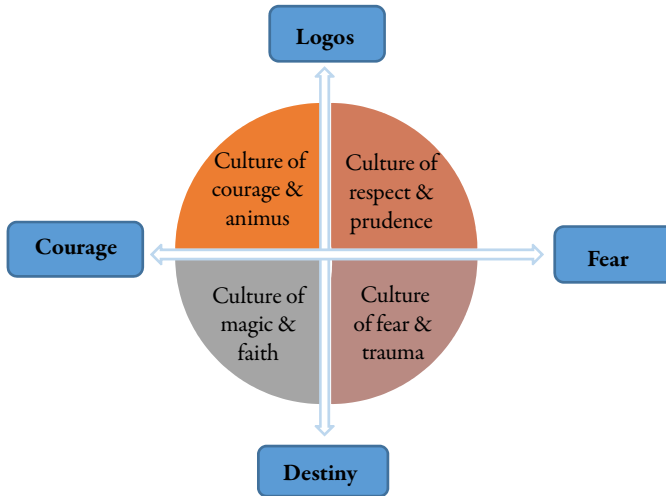
These models took into account the issues of knowledge and emotions as cardinal determinants of social processes in organizational cultures.

<sup>36</sup> J. Łotman, *O semiotyce pojęć “wstyd” i “strach” w mechanizmach kultury*, [in:] *Antropologia ciała. Zagadnienia i wybór tekstów*, ed. by M. Szpakowska, Wydawnictwa Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, Warszawa 2008, p. 36.

<sup>37</sup> See K. Nagody-Mrozowicz, *Strach i przywództwo...*, *op. cit.*, p. 157.

The concept of the so-called *orthogonal-antinomic model of organizational cultures in terms of fear* was based on the assumptions discussed above (figure 3).<sup>38</sup>

Figure 3. Orthogonal-antinomic model of organizational cultures in terms of fear



Source: K. Nagody-Mrozowicz, *Strach i przywództwo. Człowiek. Kultura. Adiutuizm*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Wojsk Lądowych im. gen. T. Kościuszki, Wrocław 2020, p. 167.

In the concept of the fear culture model, two orthogonal dimensions: the Dimension of Reason (Logos: rationality, cognition, science, knowledge vs. Fate: irrationality, gnosis, magic, faith) and the Dimension of Emotions (Courage vs. Fear) are represented by intersecting coordinate axes. The horizontal axis of the abscisses (X-axis) represents two antinomic emotional areas (courage vs. fear), while the vertical axis of the ordinates (Y-axis) represents two opposing cognitive approaches (reason vs. intuition). They have their origin at the zero point of the intersection of coordinate axes, contain a conventional scale on which subsequent points in ascending order mark the intensity of the studied process on a scale from zero (min. value) to the assumed polar value (max. value).

#### *Typology of organizational cultures in the context of fear*

The *culture of courage and animus*<sup>39</sup> is dominated by rational cognition and thinking aimed at identifying and exploring the problems of fear. It is a real phenomenon that is taken seriously. It occupies an important position in strategy and operational activities. It becomes the object of study and counteraction. People do not avoid fear, but learn to assimilate its conditioning, adapt to the accompanying processes, and as

<sup>38</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 167.

<sup>39</sup> *Ibidem*, pp. 166–171.



a result, reduce its effects. In the *culture of courage and animus*, attitudes towards fear are proactive, people do not avoid fear, but try to understand it, contain it and tame it to the extent possible. Fear is treated as an activator, stimulator of motivation and a source of improvement (eupraxia) of the organization's culture, therefore it is constantly present in the system of values and norms, strategies and plans, training and operational activities. Activities have a rectilinear form, i.e. they are limited only to the necessary and minimal number of preparatory activities (e.g. checking the sound system several times before the beginning of the lecture, repeatedly correcting clothing before an important conversation).

In the field of communication, its horizontal forms dominate, and the content consists of identified threats, dangers and stressors, as well as strategies and operations to minimize them.

The characteristics and intensity of fear do not exceed the criteria and adaptive norms of the average member of the organizational community. The motivational motto is "I want".

In the *culture of respect and prudence*, the dominant attitudes are: fighting, defending, learning, attention, concern, caution towards fear and its designations. Fear is real, but also necessary, it is a reason for interest and a cause of anxiety, it causes forecasts about itself, management and subordinates predict about the factors of its potential appearance.

The organization thoughtfully implements planned change processes that are a response to identified and diagnosed threats in a timely manner. Adaptation activities are adequate to the significance of the problem, although their performance is accompanied by a number of preparatory activities, and their implementation takes place in conditions of concentration and concentration.

The characteristics and intensity of fear in the analyzed type of culture exceed to some extent the adaptive potential of the average member of a given organizational community. Therefore, attitudes include a component of passivity and avoidance, defense and struggle. The adaptive activity undertaken is caused by the need to adapt to the forced state of affairs, fear is a necessary activator.

Superiors take the problem seriously and talk about it with their subordinates in this tone. The problem arouses fear and in a negative way stimulates to find a method to solve it (e.g. adapting the university's scientific activity to changes in the law on higher education).

Adaptability is within the limits of feasibility, but the time delay significantly deepens the effectiveness of changes. The motivational motto is "I should".

In the culture of *fear and traumas*, threat and danger are perceived with seriousness and great caution, this is not accompanied by an increase in professionalism and qualifications in the reduction of fear and its sources. Superiors delegate tasks to lower levels of management for fear of lack of competence on their part to

perform them, fearing failure, thus protecting themselves against the expected punishment from their superiors. In this system, there are usually a large number of levels whose decision-making power is focused on controlling and imposing penalties. In the event of a mistake and failure, they can punish and avoid it themselves, and at the moment of success, it is the higher level of management that takes credit for success. Such a system of power paralyzes the commitment and creativity of both managers and employees. Members of the organization believe that the higher levels of the organization have due competences, they attribute almost supernatural prerogatives to the authorities to exercise it. Power is centered around the strategic top and the closest collaborators of top management.

Communication processes are dominated by high proceduralization of courses, hampering innovation through formalized principles of structural and information relations. Admittedly, the structure of formal power includes informal leaders whose leadership influence depends on random conditions (e.g. emerging networks of gossip, interest groups, information leaks). The legitimate management applies unannounced structural changes (change of management of organizational units, changes in regulations, changes in the staffing of units and departments), the aim of which is to deform the current state of staff, which is perceived as unfavorable to the government.

The implemented changes are of a necessary nature, they are caused by coercion in the state of technological, economic and human resources, which are on the verge of adaptability. The motivational motto is "I have to".

In the *culture of magic and belief*, organizational phenomena and processes are attributed to the impracticability of changes without the need for the participation of a supernatural factor. The system is characterized by stratification (social stratification) and casteism. Elites occupy the highest levels of power and monopolize the availability of unique resources (e.g. knowledge, information). An important role here is played by the symbolic depiction of the content of normative and ideal culture, as well as an extremely rich repertoire of linguistic, physical and behavioral artifacts. The ideologization of thought and action is entwined with a complex system of rituals and ceremonies that are aimed at reducing anxiety and fear of "fate". The dominant form of communication is vertical flow along a large number of lines of subordination, which becomes possible under conditions of a high degree of formalization and ritualization. Contact with superiors, an alienated caste of the chosen ones, has the characteristics of an extraordinary situation in which "a profane" (subordinate member) received the grace of communing with a manager – "a representative of the sacred".

Sustaining fear, expressed in intimidation strategies, is a value and a goal for management. It happens that the object of worship is also a source of fear (e.g. in primitive peoples fear of nature and its deification). Paradoxically, fear becomes a valued value, a principle for the ruling caste. For lower levels of management, fear

is a persuasive factor that modifies the behavior of subordinates according to the intentions of superiors.

In place of reliable and rational knowledge, dogmas, beliefs and organizational superstitions are applied, which can occur in the form of: ceremonies, rituals, group thinking, proclaimed truths (common views), stereotypes, superstitions (e.g. “respect your boss, because you may have a worse one”), superstitions (e.g. Friday the thirteenth, black cat), or schematic, automated thinking (e.g. “this is how it must be here”, “everyone went through it”).

People are afraid to think about fear, talk about it and act in its reduction, because the fate that accompanies it can cause much greater damage than the bad and uncomfortable situation, and “better the lesser evil”. Fatalism replaces logical thinking, logos is supplanted by magical, wishful thinking. Cause-and-effect relationships are supplanted by the influence of deterministic, mysterious and hermetic forces. Their influence can only be minimized by the managing caste of magicians, using esoteric ritualizations (e.g. clothing, myths, generating the power distance through closed communication forms, speech, interior arrangements, external architecture, etc.).

The strategy of change consists in abandoning it, resigning from change, maintaining the status quo, which confirms the existing systems of power in the system. The motivational motto is “I can’t”.

## Conclusions

First, fear is an extremely complex phenomenon, which makes it difficult to study in isolation, caused by the theoretical framework of one scientific discipline. Therefore, it may be beneficial to use interdisciplinary approaches, theories and scientific methodologies that allow generalized syntheses of fear theories.

Secondly, fear is an ambivalent phenomenon that is generally interpreted negatively, and the degree of this assessment depends on the intensity of the negative content contained in the factor causing fear. According to the author, this paradigm should be verified, because fear has educational potential: it teaches, tames and adapts people to cross the boundaries of their weaknesses, achieve higher levels of development and improve their competences. Therefore, innovative and rational management of fear and other negative emotions makes it possible to convert the negative into a positive, turn weakness into strength, transform failure into success.

Third, fear is an element of an organization’s value system, and is therefore a component of organizational culture. Having a potential character, it can become the substrate of a strong culture of courage or a weak culture of fear, stabilizing attitudes of courage or fear, among the members who make up a given community. The structure and channels of internal communication in an organization disseminate the dominant values and attitudes through the current of their influence, petrifying, consolidating

and perpetuating the preferred state of affairs. Therefore, the identification and interpretation of fear as a strategic factor of development and an important element of competitive advantage, can become the basis for the formation of an optimal organizational culture. Such a version of courage culture is dominated by social attitudes that not only tolerate, but prefer active coping with fear and recommend the continuous development of courage. Fear as the antinomy of courage becomes the imperative of its genesis and development, and the sine qua non for the development of an ambitious and courageous organizational culture.

A culture of courage is a culture of brave people who rationally assess threats, but are not afraid to take on challenges and overcome difficulties, and at the same time see fear as something completely natural and constantly accompanying their actions and the organization. Pathological cultures of fear raise neurotic people, full of fear for their fate and striving for power at all costs, wanting to elitize their environment and emphasize their role to their subordinates.

It is becoming obvious that implementing fear-inducing factors into the management of an organization can become the norm, in the same way that human thinking can become dominated by prejudice and stereotypes. This usually takes place unnoticed, as a long, slow process of getting people used to and accustomed to fear. However, this is not so that they acquire immunity to fear, but to reduce immunity in them and increase sensitivity. A person who is susceptible to fear becomes a slave to his phobias and fears, is susceptible to suggestion, and is easily manipulated, because in order to protect himself and his loved ones from danger he will do much against himself and his well-being. Unethical management takes advantage of this fact, using fear as an invasive instrument of persuasion, turning people into passive, apathetic, submissive and frightened slaves.

The permanence of such a style of governance is determined by the likelihood of the stability of the social system in which it is exercised. That is, it is extraterritorial, i.e., dependent on the intertwining of external influences (e.g., the power arrangement in the party, family colligations) and potentially subject to change at the time of political, economic, or social change.

Ethical leadership of people enjoys a high degree of permanence and is a viable management, independent of potential conditions and processes, giving satisfaction from the relationship with superiors and satisfying the need for respect and recognition. Employee attitudes formed under the influence of forbearance and goodness do not easily degenerate, and the motivation to act is characterized by incredible durability and strength. Work is done honestly, reliably and with commitment, even in situations of financial underinvestment. This is because, the dominant factors of motivation are activated social needs, including: belonging to a group, interpersonal relations, perceived recognition and respect. Realistically, then the costs of labor and business decrease, absenteeism decreases, productivity increases, human capital develops, stimulating the growth of the organization's income.

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### *Managing the culture of fear in shaping the behavior and attitudes of the members of the organization*

#### *Abstract*

The aim of this study is to show the culture-forming role of fear as a tool of cynical managerial pragmatism, which can be used in a planned and coordinated way.

For this purpose, a critical analysis of the literature on the subject was made, and basing on existing written sources, an original theoretical models were proposed that can become the basis for conceptualization for further empirical research.

Key words: fear, anxiety, organisational culture, behaviours, attitudes

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From the History







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# Participation of youth from Lesser Poland and Cieszyn Silesia in the fight for the Cieszyn Region and in Silesian Uprisings in the years 1919–1921

## Introduction

Participation of youth and even children in the fight for Lviv and Eastern Lesser Poland is commonly known. Somewhat in its shadow is the struggle of Galician youth for Cieszyn Silesia and their active support in the battles fought in subsequent Silesian Uprisings. This article aims to gather the preserved information and accounts in order to revive the memory of these distressing, but also glorious moments.

## Conflict over Cieszyn Silesia

In Cieszyn Silesia, as early as November 1918, after the disarmament of the Austrians, units of Polish and Czech troops began to form. A significant number of students from the Pedagogical Secondary School in Cieszyn volunteered for the guard service to replace non-Polish soldiers who had left the ranks of the army. Also, in the Polish State Gymnasium teaching and learning in grades 6–8 continued with a small number of youths.<sup>1</sup> The first Polish troop created in Dąbrowa

<sup>1</sup> E. Sznajka, *Rozwój seminarium*, [in:] *Pamiętnik jubileuszu Państwowego Liceum Pedagogicznego w Cieszynie*, [s.n.], Cieszyn 1948, p. 10; *XXIV. Sprawozdanie dyrekcji Państwowego*

consisted of scouts.<sup>2</sup> They formed a 36-person platoon under the command of Józef Berger, the leader of the 1<sup>st</sup> Scout Unit from Orłowa. This troop performed tasks associated with military intelligence on the entire territory of Cieszyn Silesia. Due to the growing danger, the intelligence operation was intensified, which could not have gone unnoticed by the Czechs. On 24 January 1919, the entering Czech army arrested two scouts, A. Kosiec and E. Kaleta from Berger's platoon. Feliks Hajduk, a former unit leader of the 1<sup>st</sup> Scout Unit in Cieszyn, was also arrested and imprisoned in an internment camp.<sup>3</sup>

A large number of students of Polish schools participated in military operations which continued for three weeks. Due to the absence of students, in the Polish State Gymnasium in Cieszyn classes in grades 3–8 were suspended.<sup>4</sup> Older scouts from local scout units took part in the fights with the Czech army as volunteers. Many younger boy scouts and girl guides – including the ones from the Emilia Plater Unit from Cieszyn – performed auxiliary and guard duty assisting improvised Polish troops. The scouts from Cieszyn Silesia joined the Frysztak Company of the Infantry Regiment of the Cieszyn Region voluntarily and participated in the fighting in the area of Skoczów. In Karwina, members of the 1<sup>st</sup> Scout Unit from Orłowa, who fought in the local woods, participated in the defence of the town. The scouts from the unit from Karwina took part in the fights at the 'Franciszka' mine shaft and at the train station, where the scout Rudolf Mąka was captured and taken prisoner by the Czechs. While leaving the mining basin, the scouts blew up the railway track on the route from Koszyce to Bogumin. Facing the threat of being encircled by the overwhelming enemy forces, they retreated to Cieszyn. Scouts also fought in Dąbrowa and at the 'Eleonora' mine shaft.<sup>5</sup>

During the Czech invasion younger scouts served at the National Council as liaisons and orderlies. When the troops withdrew, they joined the militia which guarded barracks, warehouses, bridges and railway crossings, maintained order. They also escorted Czech prisoners of war to Krakow.<sup>6</sup>

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*Gimnazjum Polskiego w Cieszynie za rok szkolny 1918/19*, publ. by Fundusz Naukowy, Cieszyn 1919, p. 16.

<sup>2</sup> At that time on the territory of Cieszyn Silesia there were in operation boy scout units in Cieszyn, Orłowa, Dąbrowa and Karwina and a girl guide unit in Cieszyn. M. Haykowski, *Materiały do chronologii historii i tradycji ZHP*, part 2, "Harcerstwo" 1982, no. 2, p. 18 (22).

<sup>3</sup> W. Nekrasz, *Harcerze w bojach. Przyczynek do udziału młodzieży polskiej w walkach o niepodległość Ojczyzny w latach 1914–1921, część 2*, Księgarnia Wojskowa, Warszawa 1931, p. 278.

<sup>4</sup> *XXIV. Sprawozdanie dyrekcji...*, op. cit., p. 17; K. Szczurek, *Zarys dziejów szkoły*, [in:] *Księga pamiątkowa Polskiego Gimnazjum Macierzy Szkolnej w Cieszynie obecnie Szkoły Podstawowej i Liceum Ogólnokształcącego im. Antoniego Osuchowskiego w Cieszynie: wydana z okazji 65. rocznicy założenia szkoły*, [ed. board F. Bogocz et al.], "Śląsk", Katowice 1960, p. 38.

<sup>5</sup> Z. Syrokowski, *Z harcerek służby Polsce na Śląsku Cieszyńskim*, "Na Tropie harcerstwa polskiego za granicą," a supplement to "Na Tropie" 1938, no. 19, p. 2.

<sup>6</sup> W. Nekrasz, op. cit., pp. 275–280; T. Katafiasz, *Harcerze w walkach o niepodległość i granice Polski 1914–1921. Zarys problematyki (z uwzględnieniem środowiska łowickiego)*, [in:]

On 26 January 1919, under pressure from the Czech army, the Polish troops, including scout units, left Cieszyn. After the fighting had ended, the units behind the cordon were disbanded. Some of their members returned home, some stayed in Krakow and Wadowice, the rest stayed in the army and at the beginning of March 1919 they left for the Ukrainian front near Lviv and participated in the liberation of Lviv and Eastern Lesser Poland. By the end of the 1918/1919 school year, students of the gymnasium had collected 4,835 korunas 2 hellers, which were sent to Lviv.<sup>7</sup> Out of the students of the gymnasium, two died fighting in the Cieszyn Region, two others died in the fight for Lviv, and one died after contracting a disease. One student of the Pedagogical School in Bobrek also died near Lviv. Four students of the gymnasium who were also scouts suffered wounds in these fights.<sup>8</sup>

The patriotism of the Polish youth fighting for Cieszyn Silesia, not weaker than that of the Lviv youth, fostered by parents and teachers, is manifest in the letter from an injured hospitalised student sent to the ceremony of unveiling the plaque in honour of the fallen students of the Polish Gymnasium in Cieszyn: 'I have no regrets about my leg because I know that I have given it for the holy cause, for my homeland. And I would let myself be cut into pieces if, thanks to my martyrdom, once and for all, we Poles were united. I do not regret this leg because I have lost it as a Silesian whose dream was to shed blood for Poland's Freedom and Independence at least once at the long-awaited opportunity. At the same time I would also like to thank my dear professor for enabling me to develop a patriotic streak in my character in the last institution in the West.'<sup>9</sup>

In the autumn of 1919, Tajna Organizacja Wojskowa (TOW, the Secret Military Organisation) whose task was to protect the Polish population against Czech harassment and terrorist attacks was established in Cieszyn Silesia. It could be also used to provoke an anti-Czech uprising. The scouts A. Danel and A. Kopeć<sup>10</sup> were its members, as well as Ludwik Kochutek, arrested by the Czechs on 24 December 1919 and imprisoned in the Moravian Ostrava prison.<sup>11</sup>

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*Łowickie harcerstwo (na podstawie referatów wygłoszonych na sesji historycznej w dniu 7 września 1997 roku)*, SSS, Łowicz 1997, p. 16.

<sup>7</sup> *XXIV. Sprawozdanie dyrekcyi...*, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

<sup>8</sup> This data is incomplete. *Ibidem*; F. Hajduk, *Organizacja harcerska i jej wpływ na młodzież*, [in:] *XXV. XXVI. XXVII. Sprawozdanie jubileuszowe (1895–1920) Państwowego gimnazjum im. A. Osuchowskiego w Cieszynie*, [s.n.], Cieszyn 1922, p. 41.

<sup>9</sup> K. Matusiak, *Walki o Ziemię Cieszyńską w latach 1914–1920*, [own printing], [Cieszyn] 1930, pp. 260–261.

<sup>10</sup> S. Gajdzica, W. Koutny, E. Woźniak, *Pamiętnik legionisty. Czyn legionowy mieszkańców Czechowic-Dziedzic i sąsiednich miejscowości Śląska Cieszyńskiego*, Towarzystwo Przyjaciół Czechowic-Dziedzic, publ. by Urząd Miejski, Czechowice-Dziedzice 1997, pp. 32, 45.

<sup>11</sup> K. Oślisłok, *Ludwik Kohutek. Studium biobibliograficzne*, [s.n.], [Cieszyn] 1997, pp. 13–14.

## First Silesian Uprising

Several scouts from the area of Zagłębie Dąbrowskie (the Dąbrowa Coal Basin) took part in the First Silesian Uprising, but we do not have any information about the participation of young people from Galicia in it. In January 1919, the Society for Support for Upper Silesia was established in Krakow, soon renamed the Association for Defence of the Western Borderlands of Poland. The Association developed a dynamic activity, issuing posters and leaflets, collecting money, medicines, clothes and food. The central figure of the Association was Prof. Henryk Pachowski, and his son Jan, a scout who acted as a liaison.<sup>12</sup> The Board of the Association had a seat in the Hotel Krakowski located on the corner of Dunajewskiego street and Łobzowska street. Jan Pachowski writes that the Association used the help of the unit called Czarna Trzynastka Krakowska (the Krakow's Black Thirteen) which sent over a dozen scouts to help in the office and in the communications service. He mentions Kazimierz Zimmer whom he remembers as the most involved scout who was a liaison between the Association and the army staff of General Józef Haller. Together with other scouts, he later belonged to convoys directed to Silesia carrying food, weapons and ammunition, at the same time collecting the wounded from Mysłowice (Silesia) and Sosnowiec (the Dąbrowa Coal Basin).<sup>13</sup>

Scouts, including the ones from Krakow and Lviv, acted as liaisons of the Polish Military Organisation of Upper Silesia. In August scouting units cooperated with the Committee for Defence of the Western Borders of Poland on conducting transports and transfers of weapons to Silesia. With regard to this, the participation of scouts from Krakow was of particular importance.<sup>14</sup>

In May 1920 in Cieszyn, the Headquarters of the Scouting and Guiding Association of the Duchy of Cieszyn were established. Commanded by Stanisław Frąckiewicz,<sup>15</sup> the organisation affiliated scouting units mainly from Cieszyn. In summer after the division of Cieszyn Silesia with a demarcation line, scouts provided border guard services on the Polish side.

## Second Silesian Uprising

The participants in the Second Uprising included: instructors of the instructor course taking place at that time in the village of Czarny Las and units from Knurów

<sup>12</sup> J. Pachowski, *Kraków wobec powstań śląskich i plebiscytu*, PWN, Warszawa–Kraków 1981, p. 5.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 15.

<sup>14</sup> M. Haykowski, *op. cit.*, part 2, "Harcerstwo" 1982, no. 2, p. 20 (24); J. Januszewska-Jurkiewicz, *Harcerze zagłębiowscy w dobie I powstania śląskiego*, [in:] *Zagłębie Dąbrowskie wobec Powstań Śląskich*, ed. D. Nawrot, Instytut Zagłębia Dąbrowskiego: Pałac Schoena Muzeum w Sosnowcu – Polskie Towarzystwo Historyczne, Sosnowiec–Warszawa 2020, pp. 43–56.

<sup>15</sup> Rozkaz Miesięczny N.Z.H.P. V 1920 r. L. 28 [The Scout Chief's Monthly Order, May 1920 no. 28], "Okólniki i Rozkazy Naczelnictwa Z.H.P." 1920, no. 7, p. 3.

and Wójtowa Wola. The scouts delivered insurgent orders, got through the front line to Gliwice, performed tasks in the intelligence service, fought with weapons in their hands, girl guides organised a makeshift hospital in Bytom.<sup>16</sup> The above refers to scouts' and guides' units from Upper Silesia. The Krakow scouts organised the transfer of weapons, ammunition, food, supplies and volunteers for the uprising, they also prepared quarters for the wounded and sick insurgents and performed courier service.<sup>17</sup> Only a few Cracovians, mainly students of universities and gymnasiums, were fast enough to take part in the uprising.<sup>18</sup>

In the spring of 1920, the Lviv youth community came up with the idea of organising plebiscite units to direct young people to the plebiscite area. The appointed Plebiscite Executive agreed on the actions with the presiding body of the Polish Plebiscite Committee and on 21 June 1920, the first group appeared in Upper Silesia. In total, about 50 people were sent to work. They were used for work in various departments: the ones responsible for culture, the press, propaganda and organisation of military action. They worked in various cities, staying there for about a year. On the initiative of the citizens of Lviv, the weekly 'Strzecha Śląska' ('The Silesian Thatch') and the daily 'Goniec Śląski' ('The Silesian Courier') were created, as well as a memorandum to the Polish government on the need to strengthen the plebiscite work. A number of Lvivians took part in self-defence activities. Despite the opening of Polish universities, young people decided to stay until the end of the Plebiscite and asked university students to support the campaign.<sup>19</sup>

At the beginning of the summer holidays of 1920, Prof. Bronisław Piątkiewicz, lieutenant colonel of the Polish Army, one of the founders of the Scouting and Guiding Association in Krakow and its former local commander, in the barracks located in Rajska street in Krakow, formed a volunteer half-battalion consisting of scouts, university and secondary school students and took command of it. Almost all senior scouts, scout unit leaders and instructors joined the company.<sup>20</sup> High-intensity training took place in Wola Justowska and Pasternik. From the end of July, a state of high emergency was in effect. Then one of the companies of this battalion,<sup>21</sup> which included scouts from Dębica, Krakow, Mielec, Nowy Sącz and Tarnów, after

<sup>16</sup> *Harcerstwo w powstaniach śląskich*, [in:] *Leksykon harcerstwa*, ed. O. Fietkiewicz, Młodzieżowa Agencja Wydawnicza, Warszawa 1988, p. 147.

<sup>17</sup> B. Leonhard, *Kalendarium z dziejów harcerstwa krakowskiego 1910–1950*, Towarzystwo Sympatyków Historii, Kraków 2001, p. 55.

<sup>18</sup> J. Pachonński, *op. cit.*, pp. 18–19.

<sup>19</sup> E. Rumun, *Młodzież lwowska w walce o Góry Śląsk*, [in:] *U zachodnich granic Polski 1918–1922*, ed. R. Horoszkiewicz, Koło Lwowskie Zw. b. Powstańców Górnośląskich, [Lwów 1922], pp. 14–15.

<sup>20</sup> Simultaneously, the Krakow District Command began the recruitment of volunteers who formed a march battalion and participated in the battles in the area of Warsaw as part of the Vilnius Infantry Regiment Battalion no. 201.

<sup>21</sup> Another company of approx. 100 scouts was sent to Cieszyn. B. Leonhard, *op. cit.*, p. 59.

a formal farewell ceremony, set off to Jaworzno via Oświęcim. The scouts from the 5<sup>th</sup> Battalion of the 201<sup>st</sup> Infantry Regiment manned posts along the Czarna Przemsza River on the northern section of the border of the Krakow Voivodeship with Upper Silesia from Jęzor (the northern end) to Dąb (the southern end), providing service until the beginning of November. They helped the insurgents in transporting insurgent activists, volunteers, ammunition, food and supplies under the cover of night, and receiving refugees and even the wounded. Some also took part in the fight.<sup>22</sup> Antoni Roczmierowski writes in his memoirs: 'Our Commander Lieutenant Colonel Piątkiewicz was aware of the importance for the Polish state of the determination of the border in the west in a just way. It seems, however, that he tried to implement such a concept of helping the Silesian insurgents as to protect a valuable combat unit of scout youth from getting involved in some reckless undertaking.'<sup>23</sup>

On 7 September 1920 Bronisław Piątkiewicz's Scout Guard Half-Battalion set off from Krakow. The first company of 100 scouts commanded by Piątkiewicz went to Cieszyn, whereas the other company of 96 scouts under the command of the officer of the Polish Army was sent to Oświęcim to provide guard service on the border with Upper Silesia.<sup>24</sup>

Both sides were preparing for the plebiscite. Propaganda activities for Poland were supported by the Association for Defence of the Western Borderlands of Poland, sending both financial resources and speakers to Silesia, mainly from the group of professors of the Jagiellonian University. The lectures were held in an atmosphere of threat and clashes with German militias. At the same time, on the initiative of Tadeusz Dzieduszycki, the Chairman of the Academic Plebiscite Executive and Horse Artillery Reserve Captain, *Drużyny Bartoszowe* (the Bartosz Brigades) were formed, which used the space assigned to them on the premises of the headquarters of the Association for Defence of the Western Borderlands. The unit soon reached the number of over 100 members. They were divided into three groups, the first of which declared that, if necessary, they would immediately go to Upper Silesia to serve the cause.<sup>25</sup>

### Third Silesian Uprising

After the plebiscite conducted on 20 March 1921, after which the Inter-Allied Commission intended to allocate the vast majority of the plebiscite territory to the

<sup>22</sup> W. Nekrasz, *op. cit.*, p. 214; B. Leonhard, *op. cit.*, p. 59.

<sup>23</sup> A. Roczmierowski, *Krzyżackie widmo. Wspomnienia z lat 1910–1945*, comp. A. Kozanecki, Wydawnictwo Literackie, Kraków 1974, p. 16.

<sup>24</sup> *Sprawozdanie Okręgowego Inspektoratu Armji Ochotniczej przy D.O. Gen. Kraków*, [in] *Obrona Państwa w 1920 roku. Księga sprawozdawczo-pamiątkowa Generalnego Inspektoratu Armji Ochotniczej i Obywatelskich Komitetów Obrony Państwa*, ed. W. Ścibor-Rylski, Obywatelski Komitet Wykonawczy Obrony Państwa, Warszawa 1923, p. 114; B. Leonhard, *op. cit.*, p. 59.

<sup>25</sup> J. Pachoński, *op. cit.*, pp. 35–36.

Germans, on the night of 2 May of that year the Third Silesian Uprising broke out. What made the situation different from the previous ones was the fact that this time not only Silesians themselves but also their leaders and the Polish government agreed that it was necessary to take up arms, even though the latter would rather see only an armed demonstration, not a decisive battle. Upon hearing the news about the outbreak of the uprising, the Bartosz Brigades announced mobilisation. On 4 May 1921 academic youth of the Jagiellonian University passed a resolution in which they opposed the intention of inflicting harm on the Silesian population by the countries of the Coalition, expressed their readiness to fight and established the Academic Committee for Defence of Upper Silesia. A similar assembly was held in the building of the Faculty of Agriculture of the Jagiellonian University. As a result of these actions, as early as 5 May, 27 university students and five secondary school students led by students: Captain Zygmunt Döllinger and Captain Tadeusz Dzieduszycki left for Silesia.<sup>26</sup> Many members of the Bartosz Brigades did not manage to arrive in time for the first transport. The following day a group of students of the Faculty of Agriculture and the Academy of Mining under the command of Tadeusz Michejda, 2<sup>nd</sup> Lieutenant, of 3<sup>rd</sup> Legions Infantry Regiment and a student of the Academy of Mining, set off. In the next days, more groups from the Jagiellonian University and the Academy of Mining followed.<sup>27</sup> On the same day on the street called aleja Krasińskiego there was a rally of junior high school youth, during which they adopted a resolution on their readiness to actively support the insurgent effort.<sup>28</sup>

When the news of the outbreak of the uprising reached Krakow, an assembly was held in the seat of Sokół (Falcon) and on the walls first posters summoning the population to join the ranks. The registration of volunteers was conducted on the premises of the Riflemen's Association and Union, where dozens of volunteers came, mainly university and secondary school students, young workers, both from the city or the area of the voivodeship and other locations in Lesser Poland. Groups of 60–80 or even 100 persons were transferred through the border and joined the insurgent troops. The number of volunteers from Krakow was estimated to be above 1000, including 700 scouts (the number of Silesian scouts was similar).<sup>29</sup> The scouts were members of such units from Krakow as the Tadeusz Kościuszko 1<sup>st</sup> Krakow Scout Unit, the Kazimierz Pułaski 3<sup>rd</sup> Krakow Scout Unit, the Romuald Traugutt 6<sup>th</sup> Krakow Scout Unit. Among the volunteers was also Eugeniusz Fik, a scoutmaster of the Krakow Division

<sup>26</sup> Jan Pachonński presents a list of volunteers and the information of their schools and roles in the uprising, *ibidem*, pp. 114–115.

<sup>27</sup> A. Pilch, *Studenci Krakowa na przełomie wojny i pokoju (1917–1921)*, [in:] *Studia z historii Polski XIX i XX wieku ofiarowane Profesorowi Józefowi Buszce w pięćdziesięciolecie doktoratu*, ed. I. Paczyńska, Kraków 1999, p. 163. Also Cf. J. Pachonński, *op. cit.*, pp. 110–127.

<sup>28</sup> Cz. Brzoza, *Kraków między wojnami. Kalendarium 28 X 1918 – 6 IX 1939*, Towarzystwo Sympatyków Historii, Kraków 1998, p. 72.

<sup>29</sup> B. Leonhard, *op. cit.*, p. 63.

of Szare Szeregi (the Grey Ranks) during the occupation. Apart from large groups, smaller ones formed – they consisted of a few scouts from different Krakow scout units, who went to Silesia on their own account. The scouts from the area of Zagłębie helped them to get to Upper Silesia.

In this group, it is worth mentioning 2<sup>nd</sup> Lieutenant Jan Surzycki, a student of the Faculty of Agriculture and the son of a professor of this Faculty. He was a scout-master assistant, a scout unit instructor, an instructor of the Krakow Scouts Division, who, while serving in the army, ‘deserted’ with several colleagues-artillerymen, a 37 mm cannon and ammunition. He rendered significant services to the insurgent army, contributing to the success of the attack and the capture of Stary Koźle. During this action, on 9 May 1921, he died. He was posthumously awarded the Cross of the Order of Virtuti Militari. Lieutenant Włodzimierz Ablamowicz, a law student and participant in the fights for Lviv and the Cieszyn Region, hijacked a half-armoured train which later supported the insurgents’ attack on Stare Koźle. The commander of one of the armoured trains, fighting under the command of Ablamowicz, the appointed Captain, was Edmund Kabcz, a scout-student of the Lviv Polytechnic and a participant in the Second Uprising.<sup>30</sup>

Maciej Mielżyński mentions seven university students from Krakow who volunteered to join the fight. ‘They were given weapons, no one asked either for records, or for names. An hour later not one of them was alive, their weapons were taken back, but there was no time to bury them. The insurgents had to retreat. The Germans buried these seven students in a common grave.’<sup>31</sup> Among the rescued was Julian Szymański, a student from Krakow, who, as a soldier of the 2<sup>nd</sup> Infantry Regiment of the insurgent army near Bierawa, was wounded in both legs by a machine-gun fire. The colleagues pulled him from the battlefield and transported him to the hospital, and then to Krakow.<sup>32</sup> Władysław Nieć, a student of the 4<sup>th</sup> Junior High School, and Tadeusz Piwnicki, a student of the Faculty of Agriculture, were also wounded.

In addition to numerous university students participating in the fights, secondary school youths were represented too. Students of the Junior High School no. 1 (under the guidance of their teacher, Dr. Ludwik Ręgorowicz), the King Jan Sobieski Junior High School no. 3, the Henryk Sienkiewicz Junior High School no. 4 and vocational schools also showed great involvement. Many senior scouts and instructors took part in the fights individually. In addition, 1<sup>st</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> units volunteered for auxiliary service. Many members of these groups were assigned to line units, especially to the Stefan Batory Gliwice Uprising Regiment under the

<sup>30</sup> M. Haykowski, *op. cit.*, part 3, “Harcerstwo” 1982, no. 3, p. 26 (18).

<sup>31</sup> M. Mielżyński, *Wspomnienia i przyczynki do historii III powstania górnośląskiego*, Katowice 1931, as cited in: J. Pachoński, *op. cit.*, pp. 128–129.

<sup>32</sup> A. Roczmierowski, *op. cit.*, p. 17.



command of Stanisław Mastalerz, and it was quite common to give the Recruitment Committee an overstated age. One of those who note this is Jan Bugajski, a participant in the uprising who later became the commander of the Scout Division.<sup>33</sup>

## Conclusions

Out of Lvivians who came to Silesia in June 1920, Stanisław Oleksin and Jerzy Grzybowski were the ones who died in battle. The cadets from Lviv left school to take part in the fights. Some of them lost their lives. Among them were Henryk Czekaliński (aged 17), Zygmunt Toczyłowski (aged 17), Zbigniew Zaszczyński (aged 18), Zygmunt Pszczółkowski (aged 19), Zygmunt Zakrzewski (aged 18) and Karol Chodkiewicz (aged 16), a distant relative of the famous namesake. This is not a full list of Lvivians who were killed. The data concerning those that could be identified is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Scouts from Lesser Poland and cadets from Lviv killed in the Third Silesian Uprising

	Name and surname	Date of death	Place	Circumstances	Assignment	Awarded with
1.	Karol Chodkiewicz from Lviv	21 May	while seeking medical help	seriously wounded between Oleszka and Czerwona Górka	the Cadet Corps no. 1 in Lviv	Silver Cross of the Order of Virtuti Military, Cross of Independence, Silesian Ribbon of Valour and Merit
2.	Henryk Czekaliński from Łęczyce	10 June	at Zębowice		the Cadet Corps no. 1 in Lviv	Cross of Independence, Silesian Ribbon of Valour and Merit
3.	Marian Michalik, Adjutant in the group of the Toszek battalions in the "Bogdan" subgroup	25 May	in the field hospital in Toszek	fatally wounded on 23 May during the counter attack on Kamień Śląski	the 1 <sup>st</sup> Józef Piłsudski Scout Unit in Rzeszów	Cross of Independence with Swords
4.	Stanisław Oleksin from Rzeszów, Commander of the 2 <sup>nd</sup> Battalion of the 2 <sup>nd</sup> Tadeusz Kosciuszko Zabrze Uprising Regiment of Paweł Cymś	4 June	at Ujazd		scout, student of Lviv Polytechnic	Silver Cross of the Order of Virtuti Militari, Medal of Independence

<sup>33</sup> J. Pachonński, *op. cit.*, pp. 122–123.

	Name and surname	Date of death	Place	Circumstances	Assignment	Awarded with
5.	Zbigniew Pszczółkowski from Machnatka	10 June	at Zębowice		the Cadet Corps no. 1 in Lviv	Cross of Independence, Silesian Ribbon of Valour and Merit
6.	Sub-scoutmaster 2 <sup>nd</sup> Lieutenant Jan Surzycki, Commander of the artillery unit 'Ordon' 12 <sup>th</sup>	9 May	the village of Brzeźce, in the territorial unit of <i>powiat</i> kozielski*		the Krakow Scout Command, 12 <sup>th</sup> Field Artillery Regiment	Silver Cross of the Order of Virtuti Military, Cross of Independence, Silesian Ribbon of Valour and Merit
7.	Zygmunt Toczyłowski from Jędrzejowa	21 May	in the German captivity	wounded at Lichynia	the Cadet Corps no. 1 in Lviv, 1st Scout Unit in Kielce	Cross of Independence, Silesian Ribbon of Valour and Merit
8.	Zygmunt Zakrzewski from Warszawa	20 June	at Zębowice		the Cadet Corps in Lviv	Cross of Independence, Silesian Ribbon of Valour and Merit
9.	Zbigniew Zaszczynski from Warszawa	21 May	in the German captivity	wounded at Lichynia	the Cadet Corps in Lviv	Cross of Independence, Silesian Ribbon of Valour and Merit

\*A *powiat* – often translated as ‘county’ – is the second level of territorial division in Poland, usually subdivided into *gminas*.

Sources: *Encyklopedia Powstań Śląskich*, ed. F. Hawranek [et al.], Wydawnictwo Instytutu Śląskiego, Opole 1982, pp. 72, 82, 297, 353, 459, 558, 640, 645; W. Nekrasz, *Harcerze w bojach. Przyczynę do udziału młodzieży polskiej w walkach o niepodległość Ojczyzny w latach 1914–1921, część 2*, Księgarnia Wojskowa, Warszawa 1931, pp. 345, 348, 398, 416, 420, 424; W. Niederliński, *Początki ruchu harcerskiego na Górnym Śląsku oraz okres Plebiscytu i Powstań Śląskich*, [in:] *Z dziejów harcerstwa śląskiego. Rozwój i działalność harcerstwa na Górnym Śląsku w latach 1920–1945*, ed. W. Janota, “Śląsk”, Katowice 1985, p. 21; *W 25 rocznicę Harcerstwa Ziemi Częstochowskiej 1912–1937*, [ed. J. Niemierko, J. Steczko], Komitet Obchodu 25-cio lecia Harcerstwa Ziemi Częstochowskiej, Częstochowa 1937, p. 4; *Wykaz drużyn męskich*, [in:] *Harcerstwo śląskie 1920–1930*, Zarząd Śląskiego Oddziału ZHP, Katowice 1931, p. 43; *Lista kadetów uczestników III. powstania górnośląskiego*, “Orleńca. Czasopismo młodzieży Korpusu Kadetów nr 1 we Lwowie” 1931, no. 2, p. [iii]; M. Haykowski, *Materiały do chronologii historii i tradycji ZHP*, part 1, “Harcerstwo” 1982, no. 3, p. 26 (18); “Monitor Polski” [the Official Gazette of the Republic of Poland] no. 167 of 23 July 1932, item 198; no. 292 of 21 December 1933, item 318; no. 27 of 3 February 1934, item 41; no. 64 of 19 March 1938, item 72; no. 93 of 23 April 1938, item 143. The data compiled and shared by Eugeniusz Loska from the Historical Committee of the Silesian Division of the ZHP (the Polish Scouting and Guiding Association).

After the termination of fighting 12 members of the Riflemen’s Union were awarded the Silesian Ribbon of Valour and Merit assigned by the Supreme Command of the Insurgent Army. Also, the city of Krakow received this award on 13 October 1935 – in the form of the Cross on the Silesian Ribbon of Valour and Merit.<sup>34</sup>

As presented, Galician university and school youth, boy scouts and girl guides faithful to the idea of fight for independence not only participated in the transfer

<sup>34</sup> Cz. Brzoza, *Kraków wobec walk o granice (1918–1921)*, [in:] *Studia z historii...*, op. cit., p. 148.

of power on the Polish land, but also rushed to the ranks in large numbers to join defenders of this land and contributed to the determination of the borders of the Second Polish Republic.

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*Participation of youth from Lesser Poland and Cieszyn Silesia in the fight for the Cieszyn Region and in Silesian Uprisings in the years 1919–1921*  
**Abstract**

The article describes the participation of youth from Lesser Poland and Cieszyn Silesia in the fight for the Cieszyn Region and in Silesian Uprisings in the years 1919–1921. Already in November 1918, Polish youth joined Polish military formations in Cieszyn Silesia, and then in January 1919 they took part in the fights with the Czechs for these lands. Later, together with young people from other regions of Lesser Poland, they took part in the fight for Lviv. Subsequent Silesian uprisings were supported by young inhabitants of the whole of Lesser Poland, both through participation in the propaganda campaign, as well as in bloody fights and guard duty at the border. A number of them died, and their heroic deeds are evidenced by the battle decorations awarded to them. Faithful to the idea of fighting for independence, they took part in taking over power in the Polish lands, and then joined the ranks of defenders of these lands in large numbers and contributed to shaping the borders of the Second Polish Republic.

Key words: youth, Galicia, Cieszyn Silesia, Upper Silesia, Silesian uprisings

Translation: Agnieszka Jakubiec



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