

THE EDUCATIONAL SITUATION OF THE DRÁVA REGION IN THE LIGHT OF DAILY PHYSICAL EDUCATION

OBRAZOVNA SITUACIJA U PODRUČJU UZ DRAVU PO PITANJU SVAKODNEVNE NASTAVE TZK

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SUMMARY

The Dráva region is one of the poorest areas in Hungary, and is no exception when it comes to education, either. Its social, economic and infrastructural disadvantages are beyond dispute. The region has primary and secondary schools, but there is a complete lack of higher education institutions granting a diploma. In our research, we have assessed sport, including the delivery system for daily physical education. We were interested in whether adequate infrastructure, physical and human resources of schools existed in the region. We mapped the gaps and suggested programmes that could be implemented to obtain support for sports equipment with a small investment of time and effort. We asked one PE teacher from each school to complete our online questionnaire based on our own questions (Google Form), consisting mostly of Likert-type and closed questions (a total of 39 questions). We were able to reach 68% of all schools in the area, which means that a total of 24 people completed our questionnaire (8 women, 16 men). Currently, participation in public education is compulsory up to the age of 16 in Hungary, which means that obtaining a secondary school leaving certificate is not obligatory, and the educational attainment of people in this region differs significantly from the national average. The solution to this problem would be to rethink the system of daily physical education, which would also boost education in this area from a sporting point of view; also, additional financial supports would help to raise the quality of education.

Keywords: education, daily physical education, Dráva region, disadvantaged situation

Ključne riječi: obrazovanje, svakodnevna nastava TZK, područje uz Dravu, nepovoljna situacija

I. INTRODUCTION

The social problems of our time are leading to extreme disequilibria, which are also affecting different areas of Hungary. In the present research, we analyse the Dráva region as a peripheral, border area, one of the poorest regions of Hungary, which, together with the Ormánság area, is one of the most famous micro-regions of Hungary.

In his research conducted in 2012, Szűcs wrote about the educational and cultural situation in South Transdanubia, and about the fact that the region was an economically underdeveloped area of the European Union. If we look at the domestic factors, we do have to mention the region's specific, heterogeneous settlement structure, which clearly shows the presence of areas with dead-end villages and small villages. They are also underdeveloped in terms of infrastructure and transport. Some settlements have only a few bus lines a day, which makes it even more difficult to get to larger towns and cities and to commute. These are the reasons for the low number of population and the high unemployment rate, the scarcity of jobs and the lack of competitive wages. A more effective educational policy could help the region reach a level where it can be competitive at least by Hungarian standards.

In order to achieve this, we have prepared a research project in which we analyse the educational situation in the region, including the possibilities of implementing daily physical education, and the infrastructural and staffing conditions in schools, which have a major impact on the success or failure of the system. The area is dominated by primary schools, with only a negligible number of secondary schools, and there is no higher education institution in the research area at all.

With our research, we are focusing on how the area can improve both economically and socially. We are trying to find the potential break-out points that would push the area forward. Sport, as one of today's key sectors, and physical education offer a good chance for the municipalities and schools of the Dráva region to gain national attention (e.g. student Olympics).

II. PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH AREA

II. 1. A general introduction to the area

In our research, we targeted the area along the bank of the Dráva River, a border river between Hungary and Croatia. This area is located in the South Transdanubian Region, in the counties of Baranya and Somogy. It is a border region, and the oldest of Hungary's current borders, as the Dráva River had been an administrative border between the Hungarian and Croatian kingdoms (even though they were in a personal union) even before 1918, and it also functioned as a significant linguistic-cultural division line (Bali & Végh, 2011). Its outstanding natural values cannot be disputed: the floodplain areas, although the landscape has been extensively transformed by river regulation works and later by the construction of hydroelectric power plants, are a common treasure of the two countries (Csapó, J. – Marton, G, 2010). Another constant feature of the Dráva region is its underdevelopment: it is an area of multiple economic, social and sociological disadvantages. This is related to its border area character, as this border was considered a 'hard', hostile border during the socialist period, which made major industrialisation of the totally impossible. On the other hand, the reasons also include the Dráva River itself: as it is not navigable, it has not, with brief exceptions, functioned as a transport corridor, but has been a major waterway barrier, slowing down the development of connections (Végh et al., 2021; Kiss, 1986). Two of the railway bridges – that had been built rather delayed –, for example, were destroyed for good during the Second World War. In view of its natural features and protected areas, the Danube-Dráva National Park was created in 1996, but it has not solved the problems of the region, in fact, in some respects it may even contribute to the depopulation of settlements.

II. 2. Definition of the specific research area

As a specific study area, we have used Marton's definition made in 2014 of the region, which, based on the current administrative classification, identifies seven districts, three of which are complete and four of which are partial, comprising a total of 136 municipalities. This delimitation includes municipalities whose administrative territory is either touched by the Dráva River or micro-regions that are administratively contiguous, but only part of which can be considered as directly riverbank areas.

The area thus delimited, although it can be considered more or less homogeneous in terms of settlement and social development, is not only administratively but also geographically not uniform, at least the official national landscape classification (see the National Atlas of Hungary) classifies it into several larger regions, despite the uniformity, almost unanimity, that can be observed on the spot. This classification is based on previous studies (Aubert et al., 2007; Aubert et al., 2010; Marton 2014), which were based on the delimitation of a core tourism area belonging to the Dráva River. In this way, directly or indirectly, a kind of "Dráva-side location" prevails in all the municipalities of the study area.

II. 3. Demographic and settlement geography features

The area under study has a very strong rural character. The 70,000 inhabitants surveyed in the 2022 census are spread over more than 2,500 km², i.e. the average population density is less than 30 inhabitants per km². It is also noteworthy that only 11 municipalities have a population density of more than 50 inhabitants per square kilometre and that even the three small towns in the area (Barcs, Csurgó and Sellye) have population densities lower than 100 inhabitants per square kilometre.

The very low population density is combined with a very fragmented settlement network. The study area has 136, administratively sovereign settlements (three urban ones, the rest are rural), with an average population of 500 and a median population of not more than 242. There are only 13 municipalities with a population of more than 1,000 inhabitants and only one with a population of more than 5,000, but even its population remains below 10,000. At the other end of the scale, 58 municipalities have populations less than 200, including 13 villages with less than 100 inhabitants. The network of municipalities is extremely scattered and fragmented, with all the negative consequences that this has for public services and supplies (Pirisi, 2009).

The population is shrinking rapidly. At the 2001 census, 85,000 people were recorded in the area, with the rate of decline reaching 1% per year. Perhaps even more telling is the fact that the 2022 census

found around 10% fewer permanent residents in these settlements than could have been calculated from the data from previous years, which is a clear sign of the significant emigration to – supposedly – foreign destinations, not always reflected in official statistics.

The average birth rate for the period 2017-2021 for the whole area was 9.3 thousand, c.f. a death rate of 15.3 thousand, combined with an inward migration balance of -4.5 thousand, resulting in an annual average effective depopulation rate of -10.5 per mille for the municipalities in the area. The three small towns (Barcs, Csurgó and Selye) are not exempt from this, each losing roughly 1% of their population per year, even excluding international emigration which is not featured in the statistics. The demographic situation is characterised above all by a particularly high mortality rate, which, in addition to the old age structure of the population, is also a sign of low life expectancy and, indirectly, poor health conditions. There are some settlements with a younger age structure and thus a less dramatic natural decrease in population, and some with migration data showing specific sub- (Hobol, near Szigetvár) or de-urbanisation trends (Csokonyavisonta, also known for its spa), but the overall situation is still rather unfavourable and rapidly deteriorating compared to the Hungarian average. In 1990, natural increase was still positive in a large part of the municipalities, including the three small towns, and the region as a whole lost only 2 per mills of its population. In other words, while in 1990 there were around 1,100 children born in the region each year, today the figure is around 700.

When discussing the demographic geography issues, it is important to note that the presence of the Roma community in the region is significantly higher than the national average. As regards their number, there is a professional consensus emphasising the inaccuracy of the census data (indicating less than the actual number). In 2011, 9.4% of the population of the study area declared themselves as being of Roma origin or identity (ethnic data for the 2022 census are not yet published), compared to 4.5% in 1990. The Roma population is in absolute majority in two municipalities of the study area (Alsószentmárton and Adorjás) and makes more than 20% of the population in 13 other municipalities. In addition to the Romas, the Croatian speaking population – who are often Croats only by origin – is worth a mention. In 2011, around 2,500 people indicated their Croatian identity in the census, the vast majority of them was concentrated in seven smaller or larger municipalities, where they make at least 15% of the population.

Low population density and very strong rurality are both a cause and a consequence of the lack of small towns with significant development potential in the region. None of its three municipalities with urban status can be considered as full-fledged secondary centres, for example, none of them has in-patient care facilities. Of the towns, Csurgó is a country town with historical roots, with secondary education functions dating back to the 18th century, but it has not been touched by industrialisation and saw its population decline almost continuously in the 20th century. Selye was the centre of the manors along the Dráva, and its role as a district seat is best explained by the chronic absence of more prosperous settlements. Barcs, the most important centre in the region, experienced a period of intensive growth thanks to railway construction and the temporary navigation of the Dráva River, but its remoteness and isolation prevented the establishment of any significant manufacturing industry (Bali, 2014). A second boom in the 1990s was linked to cross-border shopping tourism. Overall, all three small towns are unable to become major employment centres in the region and are characterised by a zero or at best slightly positive commuting balance (Pirisi et al., 2016).

In the region's network of settlements, some of the villages with a population of around one to two thousand function as lower level centres, some with a very large catchment area (Vajszló) or a specific ethnic character (Felsőszentmárton). These settlements are often the only providers of human services in the region, as the provision of basic services in the highly fragmented settlement structure is also a major challenge. The area is clearly an example of perforated rural space: transport isolation, age- and skill-selective emigration, which constantly "skims off" the relatively most dynamic part of the local population, very low mobility potential, which results in the disintegration of social structures and spatial structures, with the respective settlements, households and individuals becoming essentially isolated (Alpek et al., 2022). In this situation, the primary education network would be a very important tool for promoting social and spatial mobility.

II. 4. Opportunities for break-out, development plans

All districts in the study area are classified as more or less underdeveloped in Hungary. The government decree on the delimitation of beneficiary areas (290/2014) ranks the districts according to their level of underdevelopment, in which the administrative units of the study area rank position 2, 26, 30, 50, 54, 58, and 64 out of 175 (the lower number, the worse the position), meaning that even the best ranked district is only in the bottom third of the field. If we add to this the fact that only three district centres are included in the study area due to the specific delimitation, it can be said that this is one of the most backward areas in Hungary in this form.

Among the historical causes of underdevelopment, politically motivated discrimination related to border location and the fetishisation of industrial development ceased after 1989-90, and many actors hoped that the region would be able to catch up on some level on the basis of its natural capital (Bognár et al., 2010).

However, expectations in this regard have proved unfounded. The change of the political regime and social transformation have worsened rather than improved the situation in the region. The region has been left out of Hungary's re-industrialisation process and tourism has not proved to be a game changing factor, either (Marton et al., 2016). In the long term, the problems that hindered development have not been resolved: it is, first of all, the isolation from transportation aspect, as the expressway network has hardly approached the area (its end points are currently Pécs, Kaposvár, Nagykanizsa – 65-65-80 kilometres, respectively, from Barcs), and the development of the main and secondary road network has not improved, in fact, its condition has in all probabilities worsened. The Pécs-Gyékényes railway line No. 60, which connects the region to the main railway lines, has a theoretical running time of 75 minutes between Pécs and Barcs, and the railway branch lines adjoining it have been liquidated since the 1970s. The accessibility problems are particularly well symbolised by the fact that, despite years of planning and vowing, there are still as many bridges crossing the Dráva River as were before the regime change: one can cross the river at Barcs, and at Répás and Zákány, the former being a Croatian bridgehead, which also means that there are only two road and one rail border crossing points in the area.

Unsurprisingly, the interregional cooperations promoted by both sides, at both top and local levels, have not been able to catalyse the development of the region in any meaningful way. Although the asymmetric accession process on the two sides of the border and the different institutional frameworks also hamper cooperation (Pámer, 2019), the basic problem is that similar rural and rather underdeveloped areas lie also on the right – i.e. Croatian – bank of the Dráva River.

II. 5. Sport as a chance to break out and the introduction of daily physical education

Nowadays, it has become fashionable to strive for a healthy lifestyle, and one of the pillars of this is the role of sport in contributing to a better quality of life. Each public education establishment should, according to local possibilities, provide pupils with opportunities for regular physical activity throughout the year.

Sport, as a social subsystem, also performs very important, complex social functions (Laczkó – Rétsági, 2015), of which the aspects related to social integration are the most significant for this research (Tigyié Pusztafalvi, 2015). Related research findings have revealed the very multifaceted effects of sport. The three most important elements from an individual and community perspective are the contribution to health promotion and social wellbeing (Paár, 2011); social integration, identity formation and cohesion (Schailée et al., 2019); and, somewhat more controversially, social mobility (Schuller, 2015).

These potential impacts also apply to rural areas. Rural peripheries in almost all regions are affected by the outward migration of young, mobile social groups and the disintegration of traditional communities. In this situation, the group-building power of sport can be crucial for the sustainability of a community (Spaaij, 2009). Moreover, while there is evidence that, in the case of developed centre countries, participation in sports in rural areas undergoing transformation as a result of rural reconstruction is now comparable to that in urban areas (Hoekman et al., 2017), the European experience as a whole tends to point to lower levels of physical activity in the eastern and southern semi-peripheries of

the continent (which includes our study area), particularly among women, minority groups and older citizens (Tuycom –Scheerder, 2010).

Opportunities for organised sport are necessarily more limited in rural areas than in cities. In our study area, too, alternatives are mainly available in the small towns. In Barcs there is a choice of football, handball, basketball, swimming, triathlon, horse riding, judo and karate, while in Csurgó the options are handball, football and swimming. Furthermore, several municipalities in this area have a football team playing in county league.

In such an environment, which is essentially restricted and offers few opportunities, physical education at school is almost the only possible entry point to the world of sport. According to legislation made in 2011, all public education institutions in Hungary have introduced daily physical education in a progressive system since 1 September 2012. Under this regulation, students can play more sport in school settings. The law stipulates that five classes of physical education per week must be included in the daily timetables of full-time classes, and that if this is not feasible, schools may offer other options. The law also stipulates that 2 out of 5 classes (2x45 minutes) can be substituted for students who are involved in competitive sports activities and are members of a club or have an amateur sports contract (Act CXC of 2011 on National Public Education, § 27 (11)). This option opens the door for students who wish to continue their studies in secondary school and do their chosen sport at a higher level. Of course, this is not so easy for the population living in this area, as sport also has other financial implications, especially in the initial, non-professional years when parents have to pay the membership fees. Looking a little further ahead, only a small percentage of these people will be able to make a living from sport in the future.

Daily physical education itself has a health-promoting effect in the school setting, which includes promoting physical and mental development through the use of physical activity tools. This can integrate lifelong regular physical activity into pupils' lives, which can be a cornerstone of a better quality of life in adulthood.

An active, creative and well-prepared PE teacher can give his or her pupils the opportunity to take them to the Student Olympics in a number of sports. This is an excellent way out for those living in deprived areas. It is also essential for schools and teachers to develop good relations with parents who love and practice sport and with sports clubs.

Overall, the Dráva region is a disadvantaged area in the 21st century in all respects. In order to approach the acceptable category, they would need huge financial support, which could also bring about an improvement in the educational situation in the region.

OBJECTIVES AND METHODS

The primary aim of our research is to present the development and deficiencies of rural spaces along the Dráva River, with special attention to education. In this way, we will explore how sport as a breakout opportunity through everyday physical education is implemented and managed in these border and peripheral areas in terms of infrastructure and personnel conditions.

In our research we surveyed the schools in this area. We asked one PE teacher from each school to complete our online questionnaire based on our own questions (Google Form), which was mostly Likert-type and closed questions (a total of 39 questions). The survey was thus administered in a guided but voluntary and anonymous way. The survey was conducted between spring 2020 and spring 2022.

We were able to reach 68% of all schools in the area, more precisely one PE teacher from each of them, which means that a total of 24 people completed our questionnaire (8 women, 16 men). In terms of age, 25% were aged between 20 and 30, 25% between 31 and 40, 29.17% between 41 and 50, 16.67% between 51 and 60 and 4.17% over 60. 60% of respondents started their teaching career in the school where they are currently working. In terms of their qualifications, 50% have a university degree in physical education, 37.5% have a college degree in physical education, 8.33% have a teacher certificate and 4.17% have a sports coaching certificate.

In terms of schools, responses were received from physical education teachers from 19 primary schools, 3 secondary grammar schools and 2 vocational grammar schools. This number also clearly indicates that most of the municipalities in the Dráva region have only primary schools.

Categorising the schools by size, 9 village schools have 1 to 100 pupils, while 10 village schools have between 101 and 300 pupils. For small town schools, one school has over 100 pupils and 4 schools have over 300 pupils.

When asked about the number of pupils in physical education classes, the following results were obtained: the physical education teachers who filled in the questionnaire reported numbers between 7 and 40, and in their answers, in several cases, they also reported combined classes/groups. Looking at the number of PE teachers, it can be said that there are schools with no PE teachers, in a few schools 4-5 of them work, but in most cases (10 schools) there is 1 PE teacher, and there are 8 schools with 2 and 3 schools with 3 such teachers.

Most responses were asked on a 4-point Likert scale (4 – always; 3 – often; 2 – seldom; 1 – not at all).

The data obtained were processed using Microsoft Excel using simple mathematical-statistical methods (percentage, mean, piecewise function, sum).

RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS

Our questionnaire covers the framework and operational conditions of daily physical education, the main results of which are detailed below. The system should work in the same way in all schools; we wanted to see how it works in practice. Out of 24 schools, 18 have 5 timetabled lessons of physical education per week, while 5 schools have a 3+2 system, i.e. several classes participate in a combined sports circle session in the afternoon, while one school incorporates 4 lessons into the timetable of its pupils and has an additional lesson of folk dance.

HUNGARY'S EDUCATIONAL MODEL

In Hungary, participation in public education is compulsory for children aged 3-16. After completing primary school, students can start secondary education in grammar schools, vocational training (specialised schools, vocational schools, technical schools, specialised secondary grammar schools). They also have the option of choosing between 4-, 6- and 8-year secondary grammar school education. After obtaining the school-leaving certificate, they can choose between two further options, one of which is to apply to higher education institutions and obtain a diploma at bachelor's or master's level, the other is to learn a profession in a technical training programme and vocational market training in the adult education system. This is how the lifelong learning model is implemented in Hungary, whereby we can expand our existing knowledge and develop our skills and abilities at any stage of our lives, so that we can compete and keep up with the changes and current situation of our times and the labour market, with the aim of adapting to the requirements and demands that are essential in the world of work (Act CXC of 2011 on National Public Education – Collection of Legislation in Force).

THE SITUATION OF EDUCATION IN THE DRÁVA REGION IN THE 21ST CENTURY

When we talk about the educational system in the research area, we should think first of all of primary education. Higher education is not present in the area at all, secondary education is provided in Barcs (by two institutions), with two units operating at Csurgó and Alsószentmárton (the latter is a very specialised institution for the local Roma community, run by a foundation).

In the study area in 2021, according to statistical data, primary education was provided in 43 facilities (so-called "locations of service provision"). In practice, this means slightly fewer units in institutional terms, but almost the same number of municipalities, as there are only two small towns (Barcs and Csurgó) with more than one school. It also means that there are currently 98 municipalities with no local primary school at all. The concentration of the institutional network has taken place in several

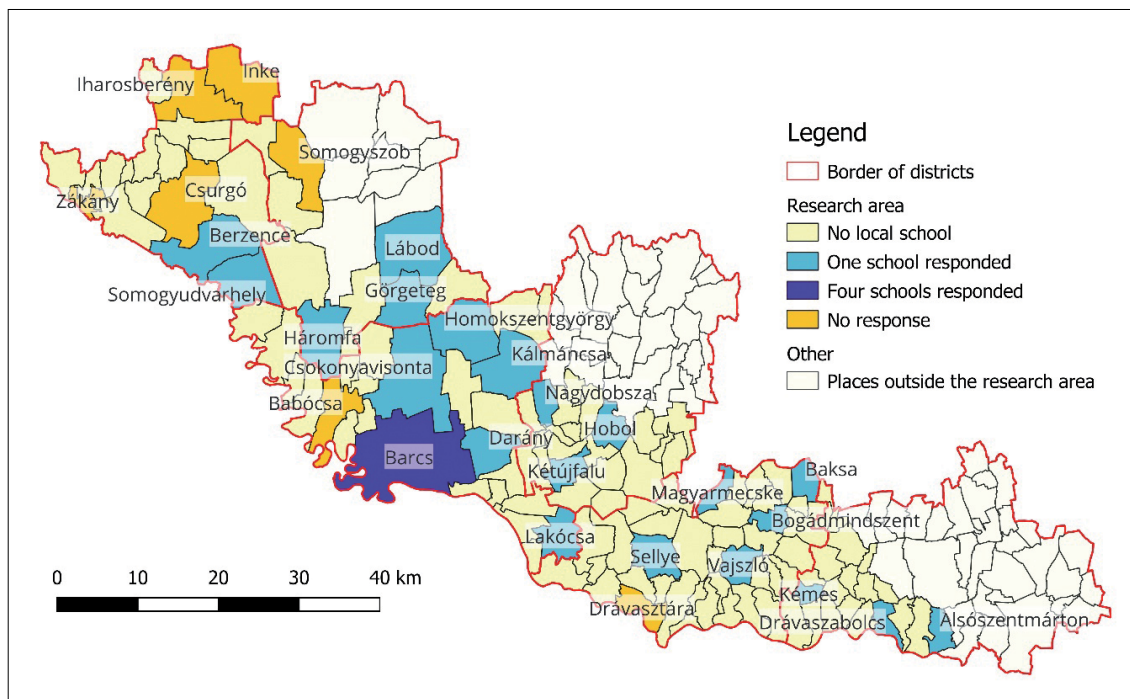


Figure 1: Schools in the research area (edited by the authors)

steps, the first of which began in the 1970s, already, partly for demographic and partly for pedagogical reasons, followed after 1990 by a slow erosion of the network of institutions, mainly in response to the decline in the number of inhabitants. In 1990, there were still 58 school sites in the same area, and 15 more municipalities with education available locally. Today, all municipalities in Hungary with a population of more than 13,000 have a school, but the service is only provided in 80% of municipalities with 500 to 1000 inhabitants and 16% of municipalities with 200 to 500 population. The smallest municipality with a primary school site has 295 inhabitants, while the median population of municipalities with a school is 765.

Figure 1 shows the schools in our research area from which the responses were received. With the exception of Barcs (where all four schools responded), this represents one response per municipality. In most cases, we received one response per municipality. The figure also shows that we did not receive data from all institutions in the study area, for the following reasons: there were no PE teachers, or they simply did not wish to participate in our research.

Figure 2 shows a comparison of the educational attainment of the local population with the national data, based on the 2011 census results of the Hungarian Central Statistical Office (HCSO). In Hungary, participation in public education is currently compulsory up to the age of 16, which does not require a school leaving certificate. As can be seen from the graph, the proportion of those who have not completed even the first year of primary school is higher in the study area than in the country as a whole, although the difference is only 1.16%. The primary school data show that the proportion of people living in this area who continue their education after 8 years of primary school is low and that few people reach the final secondary school leaving examination. In line with the general trends in the rural peripheries, participation in higher education is particularly low, even compared to the Hungarian figures that are rather modest in European comparison. This may be absolutely linked to the lifestyle and opportunities of the disadvantaged population living in the area. Our results should be interpreted in an age-appropriate way.

An important aspect of our study was the extent to which schools in the area are able to meet the challenges of everyday physical education. On the positive side (Figure 3), 83% of the schools have a gym, and in two of the schools the gym can be split into two additional sections, allowing several class-

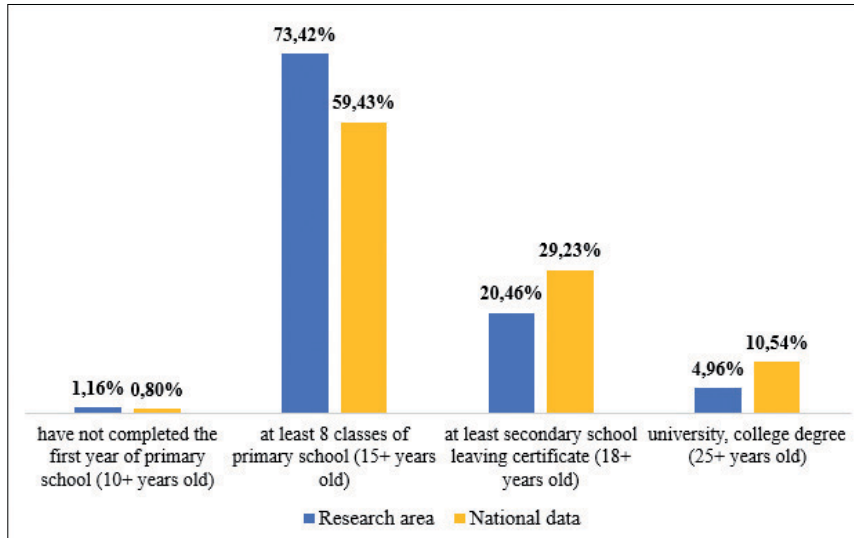


Figure 2: Comparison of educational attainment of the population in the study area to national data, adjusted for age (edited by the authors)

es to have a PE class at the same time. Both schools are located in a town, one is a secondary grammar school and the other is the only school in the region with a sports section. It is clear that 4 out of the 24 schools surveyed do not have gymnasiums, which is likely to make it difficult to implement the teaching and meet the regulations. Asphalt-covered outdoor pitches are available at most of the schools, as are corridors. It is also worth mentioning that some schools are now equipped with infrastructure facilities that help to improve the quality of education. Examples include fitness rooms, synthetic grass pitches, swimming pools, gymnastics rooms, halls with mirrors, dance halls and theatres. However, the vast majority of schools do not have an auditorium, a clay track, athletics throwing and jumping facilities, a gymnasium, a fitness room, a grass or synthetic grass pitch or a swimming pool. For the regulation to be implemented effectively in practice, it is essential that all schools have the basic infrastructure facilities to optimise the delivery of education.

“What are the infrastructure facilities that you miss the most in the school where you teach?” was the question that respondents had to answer. Figure 4 clearly shows that the largest number of responses was for the larger gymnasium, which was selected by 8 of our respondents. Four schools do not have any gyms at all, so the PE teachers working in these schools only ticked this one option. In addition, there were also four nominations for the lack of a running track and three for the swimming pool, and a rekortan (rubber) surfaced running track. Other spaces that physical education teachers miss the most in their school were also mentioned occasionally. Our results clearly show that schools in the region lack both the basic infrastructure necessary for physical education and the infrastructure required for teaching, with 12 out of 24 schools either not having a

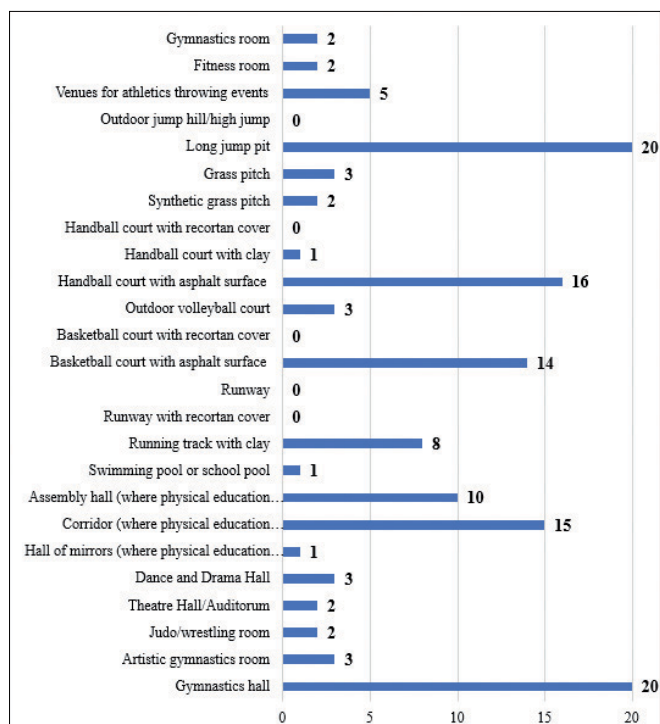


Figure 3: Existence of infrastructure facilities (edited by the authors)

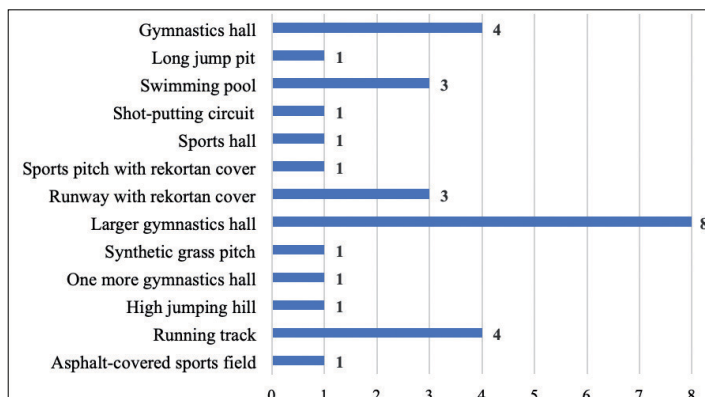


Figure 4: Lack of infrastructure facilities (edited by the authors)

gym or the respondents criticising the size of the gym. And if we look at the other halls and sports grounds, we find a complete lack of facilities.

We were interested in the views of PE teachers on the number and condition of indoor and outdoor facilities (Figure 5). 54.17% of our respondents were satisfied with the number of outdoor facilities in their schools, while only 33.33% were satisfied with their condition, which is a rather negative figure. For indoor facilities, 45.83% were rather

satisfied with the number of facilities, while 53.16% were rather positive about their condition on a 4-point Likert-type scale. It can be concluded that there should definitely be more emphasis on the condition and number of infrastructure facilities. It would be worthwhile to assess at national level in which schools facilities need to be renovated and in which they need to be built, and to take the first steps towards a better quality of education.

Figure 6 shows whether and in what condition the schools have the necessary equipment for the thematic units identified in the physical education curriculum. The averaged Likert-type scale clearly shows that all scores are above 2, so schools are more likely to have these facilities. Outstanding values are the number of balls (3.25) and their condition (3.08), the equipment for alternative and recreational sports (3.08) and their condition (3). However, it is important to mention that there are 4 sports games and in the field of recreational equipment, there are a myriad of sports and their equipment. Our lowest score was obtained for gymnastics equipment (2.08). Compared

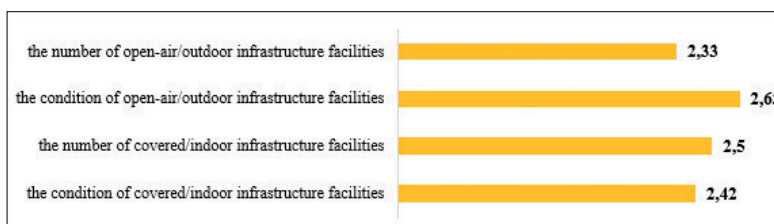


Figure 5: Physical education teachers' satisfaction with the condition and number of infrastructure facilities (edited by the authors)

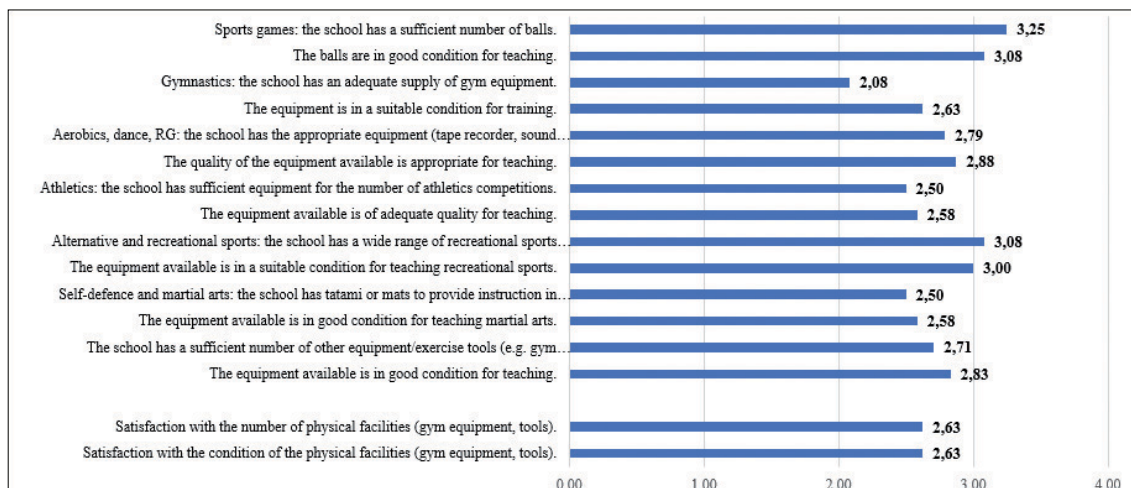


Figure 6: Availability of sports equipment for education (edited by the authors)

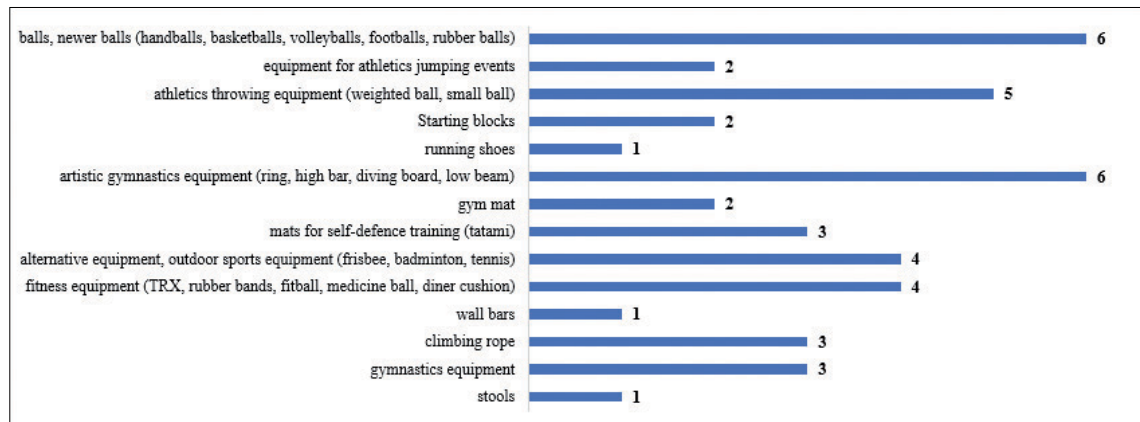


Figure 7: Lack of sports equipment for education (edited by the authors)

to the highest scores mentioned above, it is important to point out that a ball costs a few thousand forints (1.000 Ft = 2,58 EUR), while a gymnastic equipment can cost up to 100 thousand forints (100.000 Ft = 258,04 EUR). These latter costs may not be within the school budget of the area concerned, so it is not surprising that old equipment is no longer in a suitable and/or safe condition and that the purchase of new equipment may be financially problematic. The satisfaction of the PE teachers who completed the questionnaire with the material conditions and their state of repair is 2.63, which is rather positive.

Figure 7 shows the lack of sports equipment, where it is clear that in most cases our respondents indicated balls. Compared to the results in Figure 6, it is important to note that an aggregated diagram is shown, i.e. balls may be available for some sports games but not for others (e.g. they may have basketballs but not volleyballs, or they criticise their quality and usability). Other highest scores are for equipment for gymnastics and athletics throwing. This result may be complete feedback to the previous figure, where the lack of exactly these devices is the highest. Furthermore, the absence of alternative sports equipment, which may have a similar reason to balls, and the absence of fitness devices, which can also be attributed to the previously mentioned facts, are also shown here.

We then sought the views of physical education teachers (Figure 8) on the daily physical education (DPE). The system should operate uniformly in all public education establishments, but in many cases there are factors that may override this regulation (e.g. the existence or lack of infrastructure, equipment and staff). On an averaged Likert-type scale of four points, respondents were more satisfied (2.5) with the school's infrastructure. The teachers' opinions are also positive (2.79) regarding the availability of sports equipment and facilities. Furthermore, 75% of our respondents consider the number of physical education teachers to be sufficient to carry out DPE, and it is also positive that in 83.34% of these schools, it is more likely to be implemented in accordance with the curricular requirements. The related legislation allows for the possibility of substituting 2x45 minutes with sports in a sports club, about which only 45.83% of the surveyed PE teachers were positive. This is also supported by the fact that "It is difficult to keep track of students playing sports in clubs, as they submit their certificates at the beginning of the semester (September and February), and there is no way to check their attendance afterwards, so it is possible that students do not play sports where their PE teacher think they do." (Vargáné Szalai et al, 2021) For physical education teachers teaching in communities, it requires even more creativity to provide pupils with a stimulus-rich environment. When asked if there is a difference in DPE between an urban and a village school, 87.5% of our respondents marked the positive side of the scale. This is not a coincidence, as urban schools are generally better equipped and the town itself offers more opportunities for pupils and PE teachers alike. Given the lack of infrastructure facilities, we considered the inclusion of theory classes as an alternative solution and asked our respondents for their views about it. Only 45.83% of them consider that it is necessary to hold these types of classes. It is not typical to teach theory as a physical education subject in public education, but as a matter of interest and to support the practical part with theory it would be increasingly essential, and also for the increase

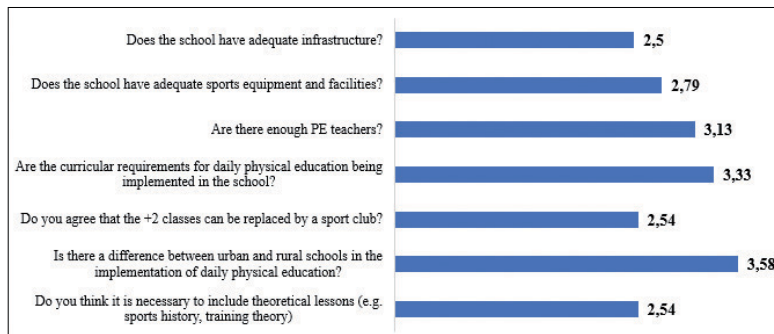


Figure 8: Opinions of PE teachers on the implementation of daily physical education (edited by the authors)

of general literacy. In conclusion, although the results obtained show positive figures for the most part, a revision of the system is needed.

We were also curious to know if there are, or what are, financial resources and revenues that schools receive primarily for the development and support of sport, or even just as a small contribution. Our results show that the school budget tends to contribute by 41.66%, while the municipal subsidy is only 37.5%. In addition, 54.17% of schools are able to obtain some form of support through tenderable resources. The share of sports association membership fees and sponsors/supporters is below 30%, while 12.5% is also made up of parental support and the amount received from hall rental.

In the spring of 2023, the latest programme to offer schools the chance to receive money was the MILLION STEPS FOR SCHOOLS competition, organised jointly by the Hungarian Association of Organ Transplant Patients and the Active Hungary Programme. The challenge involved downloading the Milliólépés (MillionSteps) mobile app, which, in addition to the steps, had 60 other forms of movement that could be converted into steps. In the competition, 100 schools could be awarded a sports equipment grant of HUF 1 million, which corresponds to approximately 2600 euro (<https://milliolepes.hu/>).

In addition, the Active School programme of the Hungarian Association of Student Sports, which is based on the concept of small municipalities and villages, helps to raise the sporting life of the given settlement. Schools have to collect points, for which they receive continuous support (Pignitzkyné Lugos – Paic, 2021).

Participation in this type of tenders would help the region's position in terms of physical education and sport. This would require the support of the physical education teachers working there, as well as the support of the schools' management, which could lead to the mapping and implementation of programmes.

The Dráva Region has an outstanding natural environment, which also shapes the daily lives of the students and teachers who attend school there. What is meant by this is the possibility of including cycling or even rowing in their curriculum, which can, of course, also be expensive.

SUMMARY

In the 11 years since the introduction of daily physical education in the curriculum in Hungary, there is little evidence that the programme has made a significant difference in schools in the Dráva Region. The complex geographic, social and economic disadvantages of the area are undeniable and permanent.

In the area under study, the infrastructure, material and staffing conditions for education are minimal and schools face serious challenges. Sport, as a potential for the breakout of the marginalised social groups in the periphery, can only develop its positive effects on mobility if conscious territorial and sectoral policies are implemented to create the conditions. Only schools can play the role of community organisers through sport in a region with a fragmented network of small villages, because the local communities concerned, which are suffering from emigration and depopulation, are incapable of the development of the NGO-based association system. It is therefore up to the schools, and not least the

teachers who work there, to convert the compulsory daily physical education created by law into a genuine, motivated need for daily physical activity for the younger generations.

Our research shows that practical implementation at school level is currently difficult. The system should work uniformly in all public education institutions, which implies that it should meet the requirements in terms of infrastructure, staff and material conditions. In those establishments where there is not even a gym, it is clear that even the minimum conditions are not met and that there is a sharp contrast between central planning and local realities. In terms of sports equipment, the institutions we have assessed are also typically in the category 'acceptable', with very few places where either the equipment or the facilities are able to cater for individual pupils' needs. We cannot talk about the establishment of new and more modern schools, nor are there any promises of such, as the region is characterised by complete depopulation and emigration, so in the coming years we can expect school closures and integrations, which could also cause new difficulties, for example, in terms of transport. The generally poor transport links and low spatial mobility in the area do not make it any easier to reach urban centres or integrated schools, and afternoon sports activities combined with commuting are much less likely.

A more effective education policy could help to raise the region to a level where it can compete at least within Hungary. The schools in this region need to find programmes that would help to improve the educational situation in a positive way.

The Dráva region is a disadvantaged area in every respect for the 21st century. In order to approach the acceptable category, they would need huge financial support, which could bring about an improvement in the educational situation in the region.

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SAŽETAK

Regija *Dráva* tj. područje uz rijeku Dravu spada među najsiromašnija područja u Mađarskoj, a nije iznimka ni kada je riječ o obrazovanju. Njegove socijalne, ekonomske i infrastrukturne poteškoće su neosporne. Unutar područja postoje osnovne i srednje škole, ali potpuno nedostaju visokoškolske ustanove koje dodjeljuju diplome. U našem istraživanju fokusirali smo se na sport, uključujući sustav provedbe svakodnevne nastave tjelesne i zdravstvene kulture. Zanimalo nas je postoji li odgovarajuća infrastruktura te tjelesni i ljudski resursi u školama u tom području. Analizirali smo nedostatke i predložili programe koji bi se mogli provesti kako bi se dobila podrška za sportsku opremu uz malo uložnog vremena i truda. Zamolili smo po jednog profesora TZK iz svake škole da ispuni upitnik putem interneta na temelju naših vlastitih pitanja (obrazac Google Forms), koji se sastojao uglavnom od

Likertovih i zatvorenih pitanja (ukupno 39 pitanja). Uspjeli smo obuhvatiti 68% škola u području, što znači da su ukupno 24 osobe ispunile naš upitnik (8 žena i 16 muškaraca). Trenutačno je u Mađarskoj pohađanje škole obavezno do 16. godine, što znači da dobivanje svjedodžbe srednje škole nije obavezno. Uz to, obrazovna postignuća ljudi u ovom području znatno se razlikuju od nacionalnog prosjeka. Rješenje spomenutog problema bilo bi ponovno razmotriti sustav svakodnevne nastave TZK, što bi uvelike poboljšalo obrazovanje na ovom području sa sportskoga gledišta, a dodatna financijska podrška također bi pomogla podizanju kvalitete obrazovanja.