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Lesser Poland Department in the Commission of National Education's school system (1773—1794)

Summary: The Lesser Poland Department was created by the Commission of National Education (KEN) in 1783. That year, the territorial organisation of the school network was established, department school authorities were appointed, and teaching staff were employed. The Lesser Poland Department included the academic department school in Lublin, academic sub-department schools in Kraków, Pińczów and Sandomierz and the sub-department schools run by religious orders in Kielce, Krasnystaw and Stężyca. This article is an attempt at characterising the educational facilities operating in the Lesser Poland Department and their organisational and educational issues (structural transformations, material base, teaching plans and programmes, textbooks, educational process, school inspections). Considerable attention was paid to the principles of youth education, school authorities, teachers and the student community. Efforts were also made to show the role of the presented facilities in local communities.

Keywords: Commission of National Education, Lesser Poland Department, school, teachers

1. Economic and social conditions

This article explores the secondary education system in the Lesser Poland Department in the days of the Commission of National Education (KEN). It is worth specifying, however, that this department was founded as late as 1783, after the enactment of the Commission of National Education's Acts for the

academic estate and the schools of the Commonwealth, which introduced the new education system and the new management method. The department covered roughly the then Kraków Province [*województwo krakowskie*] with four counties [*powiaty*], the Sandomierz Province with nine counties and the Lublin Province with three counties.

First, the study focus should be put on the essential geographic and socio-economic conditions having an impact on the functioning of the education system in this period. Chapter 1 presents Lesser Poland's economic development and its societal, economic and cultural relations. In the geographic sense, the region can be divided into several physico-geographical entities with different geological and climatic structures. Its predominant geographical qualities were favourable for the development of agriculture, forestry, mining and steel industries. People worked as fishermen, grew grains and bred farm animals. In the region of the Kraków—Częstochowa Upland and the Świętokrzyskie Mountains, people were involved in lead, silver and copper mining. The development of the said mining and steel industries was supported by the rich deposits of metal ores and lush forests, allowing for extensive supply of charcoal. The base for salt mining was in the two towns of Bochnia and Wieliczka¹. In both cities, societal relations developed well with the mining community occupying the central stage, although it was diversified in terms of wealth. The weaving industry thrived in the areas of Andrychów, Biała, Biecz, Jasło, Gorlice, Krosno, Myślenice, Nowy Sącz, Tarnów and Wadowice.

There were two cities in this region, Kraków and Lublin, that stood out in terms of the development dynamics and the scope of economic impact. They played a crucial role in the development of culture and education. In terms of the population size, Kraków was much larger, with some 23,000 inhabitants, while Lublin was inhabited by more than 8,000 people. Lesser Poland's western part was the most developed economically, especially in two large regions, Kraków and Sandomierz. The following towns were situated in this area: Kraków, Sandomierz, Biecz, Chęciny, Nowy Targ, Nowy Sącz, Oświęcim, Radom, Siewierz, Zator and several others. In those days, they had a significant impact on the development of the entire economy. The region maintained very close economic relations with Silesia and the eastern part of the Commonwealth.

Within the towns, societal relations intertwined with ethnic relations. An ethnic and religious mosaic characterised both the urban and rural areas. Catholic, Armenian and Ruthenian communities existed here side by side. There were Jewish and Orthodox Christian communities. Large Jewish com-

¹ Z. Beiersdorf et al., *Bochnia*, Toruń—Kraków, 2016, 5; Z. Beiersdorf et al., *Wieliczka*, Toruń—Kraków, 2015, 5.

munes existed in Kraków, Sandomierz and Lublin. The appearance of towns continued changing, especially those newly founded. Next to the old burghers' and gothic houses were now secular structures, belonging to magnates and nobles, as well as religious buildings. Great care was taken of the design of the interior and the façades. Both public houses and burghers' houses were richly ornamented with paintings and sculptures and were no less fine than palaces of the magnates. The neo-classicist style, sometimes named *stanisławowski* (of King Stanislaus II Augustus), dominated the urban architecture and constituted the pattern according to which royal and magnates' palaces were reconstructed, also outside towns. As far as its cultural and educational contribution in the first half of the 18th century is concerned, this region, except for Kraków, played no major role. This situation began changing in the second half of the 18th century as a result of the civilisational transformation under the influence of the Enlightenment.

2. Takeover of the education system in Lesser Poland

To begin with, it must be noted that the development of the new organisational principles of the education system under the supervision of the Commission of National Education stemmed from the *Uniwersał* (Royal Act) of 24 October 1773, which provided that all academies, gymnasia, academic colonies and state schools were to be brought under the KEN's supervision². Therefore, under the new law, the KEN assumed authority over all the Jesuit, Piarist and Basilian colleges and academic colonies. The legal basis for the first administrative division of schools in the Crown and Lithuania was the *Instruction for school inspectors* [*Instrukcja dla wizytatorów*], adopted at the Commission of National Education's session on 20 June 1774, which specified the scope of school inspectors' responsibilities. The document also regulated the issues connected with control exercised over the schools by nominated commissioners³. Based on the school inspectors' reports and conclusions, in 1774, the Commission prepared a general scheme of locating province and county schools in the Crown. Kazimierz Lipiński presented the distribution of the school network and its administrative division at a Sejm session in 1776. Four departments were created in the Crown's territory: the Mazovian Department with four province and six county schools, the Greater Poland Department with five province and eight county schools, the Ruthenian Department with eight province and six

² "Komisja Edukacji Narodowej Korony Polskiej i W. Ks. Litewskiego. Uniwersał 24 X 1773", in *Ustawodawstwo szkolne za czasów Komisji Edukacji Narodowej. Rozporządzenia, ustawy pedagogiczne i organizacyjne (1773—1793)*, ed. J. Lewicki, Kraków, 1925, 1.

³ "Instrukcja dla wizytatorów. 20 VI 1774", in *Ustawodawstwo...*, 12—15.

county schools and the Lesser Poland Department with one province school in Lublin and four county schools in Krasnystaw, Łuków, Drohiczyn and Chełm. The Łuków, Drohiczyn and Chełm schools were run by the Piarist Order⁴. The organisation of the school network underwent major transformation in the years 1781—1783. The Commission introduced then a new administrative division by establishing school departments. Two departments were to operate in the Lesser Poland Province: Kraków and Lublin. The Kraków Department was to include the Kraków department school and the Pińczów i Radom (Piarist) sub-department schools. It was suggested that the Lublin Department include the Lublin department school and the sub-department schools in Sandomierz, Łuków (Piarist) and Chełm (Piarist). Meanwhile, the Piarist Order requested that their schools be organised in a separate organisational structure. In such a case, the Lublin Department would be left with all but one sub-department school in Sandomierz. Consequently, Szczepan Hołowczyc suggested that the Lublin Department be combined with the Kraków Department in one Lesser Poland Department. The Commission of National Education approved this proposal and established the Lesser Poland Department with the department school in Lublin, sub-department schools in Kraków, Pińczów and Sandomierz and monastic schools in Kielce and Krasnystaw. The two Piarist schools in Chełm and Radom situated in this region were to be included in the Piarist Department⁵. By creating the school departments, the Commission of National Education ultimately established the territorial distribution of the school network. It also provided for a definite separation between the teaching tiers of the secondary schools and the schools of higher education. A school hierarchy was created, with the Main Schools, which were subordinate only to the Commission, at the top. On its behalf, the Main Schools governed the departments they were allocated. Within the departments, the lower-ranked schools (sub-department and parochial) were made dependent on those ranked higher, i.e. department schools. This dependence also applied to teachers, who constituted a so-called department assembly in each department. Once the departments had been established in 1783, the Crown's Main School began systematically delegating school inspectors to the schools under its authority. This work of a supervisory nature towards the secondary education system did not only involve administering the schools under their authority but also conducting continual correspondence with them and resolving any administrative, financial, pedagogical or personal matters, such as scheduled and unscheduled repairs, staff replacements, resolving of disputes among the teaching staff, delivery of

⁴ T. Mizia, *Szkoły średnie Komisji Edukacji Narodowej na terenie Korony*, Warsaw, 1975, 28—36.

⁵ T. Mizia, *Szkoły...*, 38—39.

textbooks, financial guarantess etc.⁶ The group of school inspectors supervising the schools of the Lesser Poland Department included Józef Bogucicki, Walerian Bogdanowicz, Marcin Fijałkowski, Bonifacy Garycki, Franciszek Kolendowicz, Jan Kanty Krusiński, Józef Muszyński and Antoni Popławski⁷.

With the above factors in mind, let us look at a description of the following educational facilities operating in the Lesser Poland Department:

- the Lublin academic and department school,
- the academic sub-department schools in Kraków, Pińczów and Sandomierz,
- the sub-department schools run by religious orders in Kielce, Krasnystaw and Stężycza.

The Lesser Poland Department was also home to Piarist schools in Chełm and Radom, but they remained under the exterritorial authority of the Piarist Department. Secondary schools were connected with parochial schools that were administratively subordinate to Civilian—Military Commissions. The secondary schools' responsibilities included visitations to and evaluation of parochial schools' work. The Commission also called on general school inspectors to conduct, as much as they could, inspections of the local schools and prepare proper reports on these visits⁸. According to the study conducted by Teodor Wierzbowski, after 20 years of KEN operations, 102 parochial schools operated in this area, including 17 in the Kraków County, 58 in the Sandomierz County and 27 in the Lublin County⁹. Tadeusz Mizia has verified these numbers, however, arguing that there were 129 parochial schools operating in 1790—1792 in the four counties that remained in the Kraków Province following the First Partition¹⁰.

3. Operations of particular schools

Lublin

In the 18th century, Lublin had the population of some 8,000 Polish inhabitants living alongside Jews, Ruthenians, Hungarians and Greeks. The period of the wars against Sweden and the Northern Wars led to an economic destruc-

⁶ *Ustawy Komisji Edukacji Narodowej dla Stanu Akademickiego i na szkoły w krajach Rzeczypospolitej przepisane*, ed. K. Bartnicka, Warsaw, 2015, 43—44.

⁷ H. Pohoska, *Wizytatorowie generalni Komisji Edukacji Narodowej. Monografia z dziejów administracji szkolnej Komisji Edukacji Narodowej*, Lublin, 1957, 343.

⁸ T. Mizia, "Funkcja rektora wydziałowego w systemie szkolnym Komisji Edukacyjnej", *Problemy Opiekuńczo-Wychowawcze* 13, 1973, 2—6.

⁹ T. Wierzbowski, *Szkoły parafialne w Polsce i na Litwie za czasów Komisji Edukacji Narodowej 1773—1794*, Kraków, 1921.

¹⁰ T. Mizia, "Komisje Porządkowe Cywilno-Wojskowe a szkolnictwo parafialne w okresie Sejmu Czteroletniego", *Rozprawy z Dziejów Oświaty* 6, 1963, 40—87.

tion of the town and its depopulation. It was not until the second half of the 18th century that reforms had been initiated by the Boni Ordinis Commission that undertook work to rebuild the town and provide for conditions necessary for economic development. It was particularly important given the Lublin's role as the seat of the Crown Tribunal that required the conditions to hold the tribunal sessions¹¹. Educational institutions play a significant role for any urban development. The traditions of Lublin's education system date back to the Middle Ages when in the second half of the 14th century a parochial school was established and maintained by the town's authorities. Further educational development took place in the Renaissance period. In 1567, the Orthodox Jewish community established a Talmud school by the synagogue they then erected in Lublin. It attracted a significant attendance, evidenced by the numbers of youths arriving even from outside the Commonwealth. The next educational achievement was the Jesuit secondary school which was reputed in the eyes of the public as the best education system for the nobility youth. The college was established in 1586, but it was not until the early 17th century that the construction began of the college edifice, the school and the church. The construction was completed as late as 1707. In 1722, further improvements were made with all the buildings being connected with the church by way of internal passages. However, in 1752, a fire destroyed the church and partially also the college buildings. They were restored immediately; consequently, education could resume in normal conditions in 1754¹². At first, the school (college) had four grades, and five grades later on, encompassing five years of study with five—six teachers. Parallely, theological studies were conducted with four teachers and philosophical studies with two teachers. At the end of the 17th century, the curriculum was modernised by inclusion of mathematics and physics; the 18th century saw the inclusion of the native language and history. Also, the traditional study of rhetoric was discarded and replaced by elements of law and knowledge of contemporary socio-political relations. This way, the Jesuits attempted to reform the education process in line with the ideas of the Enlightenment. The school possessed fairly good resources for its didactic and scientific work. Its facilities included a library, a spacious theatre room and a chapel. Moreover, the college had at its disposal a print shop, a dormitory for the poor, a folk band and a *convictus* dormitory for nobility youths¹³.

¹¹ W.K. Zieliński, *Monografia Lublina*, 1, Lublin, 1878.

¹² S. Załęski, *Jezuici w Polsce*, 4, Kraków, 1904, 327—378.

¹³ S. Bednarski, *Upadek i odrodzenie szkół jezuickich w Polsce. Studium z dziejów kultury i szkolnictwa polskiego*, Kraków, 1933; I. Strelnikowa, "Lubelska drukarnia jezuicka (1683—1773)", *Bibliotekarz Lubelski* 18, 1973, 7—18; L. Grzebień, *Organizacja bibliotek jezuickich w Polsce od XVI do XVIII wieku*, Kraków, 2013.

As a result of the suppression of the Jesuit Order in 1773, the Jesuit school in Lublin, like the other schools of this type in Poland, was closed down. The Lublin college and its entire property was taken over by the new school authority. Procedures connected with the takeover of the post-Jesuit estate did not comply with the law. Monks informed the Commission about abuses resulting from a lack of control over movable assets and those concerning payment of teacher salaries to former Jesuits. Meanwhile, Lublin's ex-Jesuits positively responded to the Commission's appeal calling on them to launch the 1773—1774 school year, which opened under the authority of the old rector, Maciej Szembek, with the involvement of all the monastic teachers working there before. The official takeover of the school by the KEN took place on 18 October 1774 in the presence of Ignacy Potocki, member of the Commission of National Education, and the invited guests¹⁴. This way, the province school began its operations, for which Potocki specified the organisational and financial principles and appointed the teaching staff. The college and school's property was handed over to the Trinitarian Order in return for repairing the school and furnishing the school's building, equipping the teachers' rooms and building a *convictus* dormitory for four poor students¹⁵. However, the Trinitarians did not perform their duties; as a result, the educational and housing base did not meet basic needs. The buildings were dilapidated. It was not until the early 19th century that Austrian authorities undertook major refurbishment works in the school and housing buildings¹⁶.

The new period in the school's history began in 1781 with the announcement of the Commission of National Education's Draft Acts for the academic estate and the schools of the Commonwealth [*Projekt ustaw Komisji Edukacji Narodowej dla stanu akademickiego na szkoły w krajach Rzeczypospolitej przepisane*]. The Acts introduced a new organisation and new principles of the education system. As a result of the ongoing debates, the KEN authorities decided to establish the Lesser Poland Department with the academic department school in Lublin and academic sub-department schools in Kraków, Pińczów and Sandomierz. Soon, the Lesser Poland Department was to also include the Bartholomite school in Kielce and the Piarist schools in Chełm

¹⁴ *Przemowa Ignacego Potockiego Pisarza W. Xięstwa Litt. Komisarza Edukacji Narodowej przy ustanowieniu y otwarciu w Lublinie Szkół Woiewódzkich Miana Dnia 18 Października Roku 1774*, Jagiellonian Library, Special Collections.

¹⁵ *Raporty generalnych wizytatorów z r. 1774*, ed. T. Wierzbowski, Warsaw, 1906, 53.

¹⁶ The fate of the Lublin Jesuit buildings was presented by Alicja Kurzątkowska in her article "Gmach szkół jezuickich — obecnie Archiwum Państwowe w Lublinie" (*Rocznik Lubelski* 9, 1966, 221—239) and "Architektura dawnych szkół jezuickich w Lublinie" (*Biuletyn Historii Sztuki* 29, 1967, 235—238).

and Radom. In 1791, the department was expanded by the Benedictine school in Stężyca.

The Lublin department school that is of particular interest to us was at the head of the Lesser Poland school region under the rector's authority. The following priests occupied the post of rector: Antoni de Camelin (1780—1781), Franciszek Jezierski (1781—1784)¹⁷, Wincenty Treffler (1784—1790) and Seweryn Wedykowski (1790—1794). The prefects responsible for educational matters were as follows: Priests Stanisław Kwiatkowski (1784—1788), ex-Jesuit Józef Skorupski (1788—1789) and Seweryn Wedykowski (1789—1790). All of the rectors were committed to the cause of school reform by providing evidence for this in their everyday pedagogical work. In accordance with the provisions of the Acts, they conducted visitations to sub-department and parochial schools. Treffler, who during his tenure as rector visited all the sub-department schools existing in the department, played a special role. Another group of staff of the department school included prefects responsible for disciplinary matters. The position of prefect was filled by the following priests: ex-Jesuit Stanisław Kwiatkowski (1785—1788), Józef Skorupski (1788—1789) and Seweryn Wedykowski (1789—1790). In the years 1783—1794, the teaching staff consisted of 24 teachers, including 22 secular teachers. The staff also included eight *metr* teachers¹⁸. The teachers with particular educational accomplishments included: Mikołaj Chruścielski, Jan Czech¹⁹, Józef Januszewicz²⁰, Józef Girtler, Marcin Kłossowicz²¹, Wincenty Ostrowski, Ksawery Refferowski, Józef Sołtykowicz²², Józef Saliger, Franciszek Scheidt²³, Andrzej Smolikowski²⁴ and Seweryn Wedykowski.

The personnel structure of the department school proves that the Commission's personnel policy towards the Lublin school was very clear. As a major

¹⁷ I. Homola, "Jezierski Franciszek", in *Polski słownik biograficzny*, ed. E. Rostworowski, 11, Wrocław—Warsaw—Kraków, 1965, 200—204.

¹⁸ Z. Kukulski, *Pierwsi nauczyciele świeccy w szkole wydziałowej lubelskiej w dobie Komisji Edukacji Narodowej*, Lublin, 1939.

¹⁹ L. Lepszy, "Czech Jan", in *Polski słownik biograficzny*, ed. W. Konopczyński, 4, Kraków, 1938, 305—306

²⁰ K. Mrozowska, "Januszewicz Józef", in *Polski słownik biograficzny*, ed. K. Lepszy et al., 10, Wrocław—Warsaw—Kraków, 1964, 588—589.

²¹ K. Mrozowska, "Kłossowicz Marcin", in *Polski słownik biograficzny*, ed. E. Rostworowski, 13, Wrocław—Warsaw—Kraków, 1968, 74—75.

²² H. Wereszycka, E. Orman-Michta, "Sołtykowicz Józef", in *Polski słownik biograficzny*, ed. A. Romanowski, 40, Warsaw—Kraków, 2001, 437—441.

²³ M. Czepe, H. Wereszycka, "Scheidt Franciszek", in *Polski słownik biograficzny*, ed. E. Rostworowski, 35, Warsaw—Kraków, 1994, 437—439.

²⁴ A. Winiarz, "Smolikowski Andrzej", in *Polski słownik biograficzny*, ed. H. Markiewicz et al., 39, Warsaw—Kraków, 2000, 292—293.

city on the Commonwealth's political map, Lublin was intended to serve as an example of an efficient secular school for other educational facilities to follow. This is why talented graduates of the Teacher Training Seminary, operating at the Crown's Main School in Kraków, were assigned to work in Lublin. They had good education, were keen to work and fully dedicated to the cause of national education. Their didactic work was usually rated well by the school inspectors. They shared the characteristics of outward-looking people, living a secular lifestyle. They opposed the practice of sharing the dwelling and the dining table, wore secular clothing and fashionable haircuts. They were usually critical of the mandatory religious practices, considering them private matters. As people of young age, they often had little sensitivity in moral questions, which appalled the public opinion and harmed the school. Regularly conducted school visitations from 1782 onwards present a generally positive picture of the didactic and educational work of the Lublin school. At the same time, they reveal a number of cases of imperfection and negligence regarding the premises and the educational resources, as well as the young people dwelling in private lodgings. School inspectors also paid attention to the low attendance, caused by the nobility's reluctant approach to the new education system and the ways of conduct of young teachers in the community. They listened to worrying statements by local nobles and parliamentarians who called on the Commission to be shut down and the education system to be handed over to religious orders.

In the period preceding the establishment of the KEN, the Jesuit college educated more than 1,000 students. Following the creation of the province school, it was gradually reduced, especially after the department school was established, and in some years, the number of students was about 200. The situation was partially improved by the governance of Treffler, who persuaded the local nobles that the education system reform was fully justified as it lay in the interest of the entire society. This led to some improvement in attendance, but no year would see the original attendance numbers.

The last period of the school's operations was full of tragic political events. The war against Russia, waged in defence of national values, ended in a disaster and the Second Partition of Poland that took place in early 1793. Lublin remained within the Commonwealth's territory. In the years 1793—1795, education proceeded in seemingly normal ways. The student attendance in older classes fell to the minimum, whereas the final class was depleted completely as some youths participated in the Kościuszko Uprising. In October 1794, Austrian troops came to capture Lublin. Military occupation had started, confirmed by the Partition Treaty of 3 January 1795.

Kraków

Kraków was one of Lesser Poland's major cities in terms of the political, economic and cultural development. It was home to elementary and secondary education, as well as university, which was the second oldest university in this part of Europe (after the Prague University). In the 18th century, its society still consisted of the patricians, the plebs and the mob. The richest patricians comprised about 25 families. There were also families of craftsmen, merchants and the poor. Enlightenment ideas began reaching Kraków at about this time, reinvigorating the city in the cultural and social sense after the lengthy period of stagnation. First attempts were made to create a theatre. The administrator of Wieliczka salt mines and an admirer of music and dramatic arts Jacek Kluszeński is believed to have been the creator of Kraków's theatre. Music was developing quite successfully, both in its secular form and religious form, which had a solid following. In the 1730s, Priest Artwiński, the canon of the Church of St Anne, bought a house at the Szewska street for the dwelling of the church musicians, which he subsequently converted into a music students' dormitory. Famous composers Waclaw of Szamotuły, Marcin Lwoczyk and Mikołaj Gomółka had started their careers in the royal orchestra of King Sigismund II Augustus. The city also had a rich educational tradition. Kraków was home to a university and one of the most successful academic colonies. Parochial schools were housed in the multiple churches. Schools of other types included the divinity school, elementary schools run by the Piarists and other monastic orders, schools for girls and Jewish schools, mainly in the borough of Kazimierz²⁵.

In the days of the Commission of National Education, the former academic colony named *Szkoła Nowodworska* or *Szkoła Władysławsko-Nowodworska* was converted into a province school first and a sub-department school later on. In the old Commonwealth, it was reputed to be the best one and possessed the teaching staff of nearly university-level quality²⁶. Many teachers would go on to become reputable university professors. Hugo Kołłątaj played an important role in the process of reform of Kraków's secondary education system and university. He possessed comprehensive education which he had gained in Poland and abroad (a doctor's degree in law and theology). At a very young age, Kołłątaj became a Kraków canon. As regards the curriculum introduced in the Kraków secondary school, he maintained a certain degree of compromise. He believed that the basics of Latin should be taught in the parochial school, and its teaching at the secondary level ought to be limited to the first class. The Kraków province school was established in 1777 as a seven-tier school with six teachers. On this

²⁵ *Encyklopedia Krakowa*, ed. A.H. Stachowski, Warsaw—Kraków, 2000, 953—954, passim.

²⁶ J. Muczkowski, *Wiadomość o założeniu Uniwersytetu i Kolegium Władysławsko-Nowodworskiego w Krakowie*, Kraków, 1851, 115—155.

occasion, Kołłątaj issued a special instruction for the school, titled *Wyłożenie nauk dla Szkół Nowodworskich Krakowskich podług Przeświętney Komissyi nad Edukacją Narodową* [The Commission of National Education's instruction for the Kraków schools]²⁷. Until the school year of 1780—1781, the Nowodworski school had run the traditional teaching system, where one teacher taught all the subjects in a given class. The new period in the school's history began in 1783 when the province school was converted into a sub-department school, which followed the provisions set out in the Acts issued by the KEN. This coincided with the KEN publication prescribing the selection of subjects and the number of hours to be taught in Kraków schools (*Rozłożenia nauk i godzin w Szkołach Krakowskich na sześciu nauczycieli, z których na każdego przypada na tydzień godzin 20, podług ustaw Przeświętnej Komissji Edukacji Narodowej*). An important element of the teaching process was the students' presentations which was testament to the teaching levels and played the role in examinations. In the days of the sub-department school's operations, its prorectors included Priest Franciszek Marciszewski (1783—1799) and Priest Antoni Himonowski (1791—1801). 34 teachers belonging to the teachers' estate cooperated with the province and sub-department schools. During this time, the school employed 10 teachers, many of whom belonged to the academic community.

The Kraków sub-department school was housed in its own building which was located next to the Kraków Academy, by the Church of St Anne. For many years, it was referred to as the Nowodworski College. It was created thanks to the involvement of Gabriel Prewancjusz Władysławski, of rather unknown townsman origin. Its shape was made up by two parallel buildings, the front and rear ones. They were connected by a spacious courtyard surrounded by deambulatories and arcades. The rear pavilion, located at the back, housed classrooms, poetics on the left and grammar on the right. The upper floor housed in a nearly identical setup the classrooms of rhetoric and grammar. Next to the school was Church of St Anne, where the Kraków school students participated in holy services. It had been erected in the 14th century and had acted as an academic church for years. From the 15th to the 18th centuries, Church of St Anne had close ties with the university and its academic colony. It constituted an important place for them, where the majority of school ceremonies were held²⁸.

The secondary school was connected with parochial schools. At the time, there were 11 such schools in Kraków, housed at the following churches: St Anne's, Corpus Christi, the Holy Spirit, St Florian's, St James', Virgin Mary's,

²⁷ On this occasion, Hugo Kołłątaj issued a special instruction for the school, titled *Wyłożenie Nauk dla Szkół Nowodworskich Krakowskich podług Przeświętney Komissyi nad Edukacją Narodową w Tabeli (na Szkoły Woiewódzkie) ułożonego*.

²⁸ H. Barycz, *Z dziejów Kościoła św. Anny w Krakowie*, Kraków, 1935, 6.

St Nicholas', St Peter's, St Stephen's, All Saints' and the Castle's. Not all of them survived the period of the Commission of National Education. In 1788, the Church of the Holy Spirit parochial school was closed down, as its students were transferred to the St Mary's school, and its building was converted into a crafts facility. During the same period, because a teacher was transferred to work at the St Florian's school, the St Peter's school and a branch of St Stephen's school were closed down. Private schools were an unresolved problem for the KEN. In 1785, court officer Paszyński ran such a school in Kraków, accepting as students both boys and girls. Priests Biernacki, Łapsiński i Synowczyński ran such schools at the cathedral. Post-visitation minutes mention the St Anne's school headed by university administrative official Wojciech Zastawski. The above-mentioned schools were testament to the negative attitudes of parts of the public and clergy towards the reforms implemented by the Commission of National Education²⁹.

A great number of academics and teachers of the Kraków secondary school were connected with operation of the Kraków Nowodworski school, who later went on to join the professorial estate of the Kraków Academy, i.e. the Jagiellonian University. One of them was Jan Śniadecki, professor of advanced mathematics and astronomy, who acted as a secretary of the Kraków Main School and the rector of the Vilnius University (1806—1815). As a young teacher, with the help of Żołądziowski and Kollątaj, he set off on foreign studies in Göttingen and Paris³⁰, where he made friends with a distinguished mathematician and thinker, Jacques Antoine Cousin. He also had an opportunity to listen to astronomy lectures by Joseph-Jérôme Lalande. In Vienna, he established relations with the world's greatest and with representatives of science, not only Polish science (Ignacy Aleksander Cetner, Ignacy Poku-biatto, Seweryn Rzewuski and others). His personal contribution helped in the creation of an astronomical observatory in Kraków. In the field of astronomy, Śniadecki cooperated with Jan Czech, another teacher and professor of the Nowodworski school³¹. He supported the foundation of a botanic garden, chemical laboratory, physical and mineralogical studies and a hospital of medicine, surgery and midwifery³². The circle of his associates on the way to university reform included Józef Bogucki, Jan Jaśkiewicz, Feliks Radwański,

²⁹ J. Krukowski, "Szkolnictwo parafialne Krakowa w dobie Komisji Edukacji Narodowej (1777—1794)", *Rozprawy z Dziejów Oświaty* 16, 1973, 24.

³⁰ Śniadecki left Göttingen in November 1779. Before arriving in Paris, he visited Utrecht and Leiden.

³¹ K. Mrozowska, *By Polaków zrobić obywatelami*, Kraków, 1993, 21.

³² K. Bartnicka, *Działalność edukacyjna Jana Śniadeckiego*, Wrocław—Warsaw—Kraków, 1980, 87.

Antoni Popławski, Krzysztof Idatte, Rafał Czerniakowski, Jan Jaśkiewicz and Wincenty Szaster³³.

There were many teachers at the school who remained in close contact with the Kraków Academy, studied or pursued their scientific career there. The list of professors of the Academy includes such names as: Jan Czech — professor of elementary mathematics, Sebastian Czochron — professor of canon law, Marcin Fiałkowski — professor of Polish and Latin literature, Józef Girtler — professor of forensic medicine and medical police, Jan Kanty Krusiński — professor of elementary mathematics, Jacek Idzi Przybylski — professor of ancient Greek, Franciszek Scheidt — professor of natural history, chemistry and botany, Józef Sołtykiewicz — professor of law, and Andrzej Trzciński — professor of experimental physics.

For instruction in optional subjects, teachers of French, German and drawings were employed³⁴. They were referred to as *metr* teachers. There were many of them, but two stood out exceptionally. Aside from teaching French, Emanuel Mikołaj de Murrai or Murray was also an editor of several periodicals and a historian of literature and theatre. He arrived in Poland from Paris, where he was born and had spent the first years of his life. His roots were English, but he tied his adult life with Poland. He arrived in Poland along with the troops of Colonel Charles François Dumouriez or a group of soldiers under the command of Charles du Houx de Vioménil. De Murrai joined the Bar Confederation troops and took part in the defence of the Kraków Wawel Castle. He was also kept in Russian captivity in Siberia. On his return, he took up work in the KEN education system. In the years 1782—1787, he lectured in literature and the French language at the Kraków teacher training academy of the Kraków Main School and the Kraków secondary school. In 1786 or 1789, he was sent by the Commission of National Education to Paris and London in order to visit handicraft workshops in agriculture and commerce. In July 1792, he became an editor first, and a publisher later on, of *Gazette de Varsovie*. In 1800, he established for a short period a finishing school for girls. When it was closed down, he opened an educational institute for young bachelors. On the creation of the Warsaw Principality, he resumed his journalist profession in the editing of *Gazette de Varsovie* and *Journal de Varsovie*, where he published accounts of political events, complemented by news about theatre events. In these periodicals, de Murrai attempted to publish information about old and recent developments in Polish literature and intended to expand the section on literature, science

³³ K. Bartnicka, *Działalność...*, 61.

³⁴ Archives of Science of the Polish Academy of Sciences and the Polish Academy of Arts and Sciences, *Education Nationale*, 5: *Materiały dotyczące nauczania języków obcych. Wypisy i ćwiczenia języków*, 143, 150—151.

and art. He was the author of multiple literary and historical texts. In the opinion of his contemporaries, de Murrai was considered an expert in the history of the Bar Confederation³⁵.

Dominik Estreicher was a drawing teacher. His proper name was Dominik Franciszek de Paula Oesterreicher. He worked at the sub-department school, but he was also a painter and professor of the Kraków Academy. He arrived in Poland from Moravia, where he was born to an insignificant townsman family. He received his education in local schools and took up his studies at the Academy of Fine Arts in Vienna. At that time, he was also visiting Venice, Naples, and St Luke's Academy, where he met Hugo Kołłątaj, Sebastian Sierakowski and Franciszek Smuglewicz. He was encouraged to return to Poland by Kołłątaj, who developed very friendly terms with him. It was with Kołłątaj's support that he succeeded in settling in a house located in the Szczepański Square, owned by the Kraków University. In this way, he found himself in Kraków, which added to the city's scientific and intellectual glitter. He made plans to reform the existing art education system. Professionally, he worked as a painter creating classical pictures of religious and historical subjects (e.g. St Jerome and St Augustine in a desert). He left behind a priceless legacy, consisting of folders of drawings and sketches of an unspecified nature. Considered unmatched was the skill he had mastered in Rome from missionary Fra Paoli of laying down a decorative mosaic. Using it, he made a table which he gave as a gift to King Stanislaus II Augustus. The scope of his interest also encompassed pyrotechnics and entomology. The collection of butterflies that he left behind was also a priceless one³⁶.

Most of the above-mentioned teachers created a unique atmosphere that was conducive for the shaping of the Commonwealth's elites. The students receiving education there included sons of the most gallant noble families. For example, King John III Sobieski received his education there. Of the Czartoryski family, Jan Samuel, Antoni Dominik and Stanisław attended the school. The Lubomirskis also did not keep away, sending there Jerzy, Józef Franciszek and Michał Kazimierz (of the Sącz branch) and Stanisław and Józef (of the Sandomierz branch)³⁷. The multitude of preserved sources reveal that also sons of townsman families and less wealthy nobles were educated there. There was no shortage of sons of county governors, castellans, deputy chancellors or cup-bearers.

³⁵ J. Szczepaniec, "Murrai Emanuel Mikołaj de", in *Polski słownik biograficzny*, ed. E. Rostworowski, 22, Wrocław—Warsaw—Kraków, 1977, 274—278.

³⁶ A. Bochnak, "Oesterreicher Dominik Franciszek de Paula", in *Polski słownik biograficzny*, ed. W. Konopczyński, 6, Kraków, 1948, 307—309.

³⁷ The list of names was much longer. Other families included the Myszkowskis, the Tarłos and the Zamoyskis.

Pińczów

Three famous magnate families governed Pińczów: the Oleśnickis, Myszkowskis and Wielopolskis. The town owed its initial development to Zbigniew Oleśnicki, the Kraków bishop, who purchased the following villages: Pińczów (along with its Gothic castle), Kopernia, Wierciszów and Parszywka, with a view to creating a landed property for himself and his family³⁸. Until the Renaissance, the town had attracted people with its religious tolerance, the magnate court and its exquisite seat, opportunities for business, as well as the affluence in perfect quality of stone for buildings. It resulted in the extraordinary development of Pińczów in the days of the Reformation and the development of stonework and sculpture workshops with a big group of artists and incoming foreigners. That was also the time that saw the settlement of the Jewish population who would play a fundamental role in the town's progress. The local monasteries of the Pauline Fathers and Reformatted Franciscans played a significant part in Pińczów's history. The Pauline Fathers took care of the parochial schools and accommodated theology studies in their rooms³⁹. In the second part of the 18th century, Pińczów was the second largest town in the then Kraków Province. According to the 1787 data, 621 houses were located in Pińczów, 616 in Sandomierz and 351 in Kielce. The town was inhabited by 3,105, including 1,208 Catholics and 1,897 Jews⁴⁰.

Pińczów is renowned for being the seat of the Calvinist gymnasium of humanities, existing in the years 1551—1565. In the subsequent years, an academic colony existed that had been funded by Józef Władysław Gonzaga-Myszkowski. The ceremonious opening of Colonia Pinczoviensis, a three-year school of humanities with a rhetorical, classicist profile intended to serve as a stage towards studying philosophy, was held in the autumn 1701. The school was under the authority of the Kraków University that possessed extensive powers with regard to the school's management and teaching staff, as well as in the didactic, scientific and financial sense. The newly founded school was housed in an edifice that had been reconstructed especially for this purpose; it comprised two neighbouring houses on the northern side of the market square, on the corner of Kielecka Street. Three classes were created: grammar, rhetoric and poetics; therefore, the linguistic study was the prevalent direction⁴¹. With time, the school began deteriorating. The decreasing funds and the necessity to

³⁸ S. Gawęda, *Możnowładztwo małopolskie w XIV wieku i w pierwszej połowie XV wieku. Studium z dziejów rozwoju wielkiej własności ziemskiej*, Kraków, 1966, 95—96.

³⁹ J.M. Małecki, "Zarys dziejów Pińczowa do końca XVIII w.", in *Pińczów i jego szkoły w dziejach*, ed. J. Wyzorowski, Warsaw—Kraków, 1979, 23—29.

⁴⁰ J.M. Małecki, "Zarys...", 40.

⁴¹ L. Hajdukiewicz, "Szkoly pińczowskie w latach 1586—1914", in *Pińczów...*, 95—115.

restore the school building posed serious problems as did the continuous staff turnover, which significantly impacted the level of teaching. Hugo Kołłątaj stepped forward with his projects of reforming the school. Thanks to his efforts, the school's material existence was secured, and the Commission of National Education decided that the Pińczów school would obtain the status of a sub-department school, subordinate to the Lublin department school. The school was organised, as were other sub-department schools, as a six-year school with two or three classes, the prorektor and three teachers⁴². However, the school's poor material situation decisively impacted the school's didactic performance. In the first years of the Commission of National Education's work, the Pińczów school employed mainly clerical teachers who had already taught at the school in the period of the academic colony. Priest Sebastian Czaputowicz was the school's prorektor until 1784 and Antoni Stawiński and Antoni Muszyński were the teachers of Classes 1—3. School inspectors rated their work highly, emphasising the fact the teaching levels had risen and the respect that they enjoyed. In 1784, Andrzej Cyankiewicz (Cyjankiewicz) obtained the position of prorektor which he filled until 1790 when he was replaced by Maciej Brachucki; in 1791, Dominik Markiewicz took over. Michał (Hieronim) Juszyński was the Pińczów school's last prorektor. In the years 1784—1793, the total of 14 teachers worked at the Pińczów school: Andrzej Cyankiewicz (Cyjankiewicz), Maciej Brachucki, Branwicki (Bronwicki, Bramwicki), Łukasz Gorkowski, Andrzej (Jędrzej) Husarowski (Hussarowski), Franciszek Jaskulski (Jaskólski), Michał (Hieronim) Juszyński, Gabriel Karpiński, Walenty Kłosowski, Adam Kopijewski (Kopijowski), Feliks Kurkowski, Dominik Markiewicz, Roman Markiewicz and Tomasz Wysocki⁴³. School inspectors generally evaluated their work positively. In the years 1784—1793, the school obtained four good, two average, one poor and one bad grade⁴⁴. However, the poor working conditions and the school's financial problems meant that the teachers did not intend to stay in Pińczów for long. In this situation, opinions were voiced that the school should be closed down or converted into a parochial school. Such opinions were expressed by Franciszek Jezierski and Antoni Popławski⁴⁵. The low student attendance was an additional argument in favour of the school closing down. In the years 1782—1784, the attendance levels were as low as 50 students and continued falling. In the years 1786—1793, the number of students hovered from 24 to 38⁴⁶.

⁴² "Tabela zgromadzeń akademickich i szkół w Koronie 1783 r." in *Ustawodawstwo...*, 175—177.

⁴³ L. Hajdukiewicz, "Szkoly...", passim.

⁴⁴ *Raporty Szkoły Głównej Koronnej o generalnych wizytach szkół Komisji Edukacji Narodowej 1787—1793*, ed. K. Mrozowska, Wrocław—Warsaw—Kraków, 1981, passim.

⁴⁵ L. Hajdukiewicz, "Szkoly...", 123.

⁴⁶ *Raporty Szkoły...*, passim.

Despite the difficulties, the Pińczów school fulfilled its basic duties, including those of exercising the authority over the region's parochial schools, i.e. in Korczyn, Busko, Wiślica, Krzyżanowice, Stawiany, Pińczów, Jędrzejów and Książ Wielki⁴⁷. The last year (1794) of operation of the Pińczów sub-department school coincided with the tragic developments for Poland. They were preceded by the collapse of the town which turned into a deserted and impoverished settlement after the Wielopolskis transferred their estate to Szaniec. Negative effects resulted from the capture of the town by a Russian garrison in the spring 1794, which seized townsman houses and imposed a high levy on the town. Moreover, a lot of destruction occurred in the town's architecture. In such a situation, teachers, deprived of any income, all left the school, apart from Michał Juszyński, and probably found refuge in Kraków. After Pińczów was incorporated into the Austrian Partition, the Pińczów school was one of the first ones to be reactivated in 1796 owing to the efforts by Prorector Tomasz Wysocki and teachers Teodor Orłowski and Adam Kopijewski. The school year 1796—1797 was the first year of the school's operation in new historical conditions⁴⁸.

Sandomierz

Sandomierz is one of Poland's oldest towns, with a very rich history. Beautifully located on the shore of the Vistula River, near a ford allowing passage on the other side and near commercial routes, it had all conditions necessary for intensive development. In the 18th century, Sandomierz occupied a limited area of 16 hectares within the town walls. In 1775, there were 616 houses inside town, which allows calculating the total number of its inhabitants to be around 3,700 (along with people dwelling in villages and at church and nobles' agricultural farms). According to the 1777 data, Sandomierz was inhabited by 2,060 people, including 1,777 Christians and 283 Jews⁴⁹. The history of Sandomierz as an educational centre dates back to the Middle Ages, but Sandomierz did not become a significant educational centre until the Jesuits settled down there⁵⁰. The history of the Sandomierz sub-department school is linked to the history of the Jesuit college that belonged to the most developed schools of the Order before the Partitions of Poland. The college was funded in 1602 by Poznań Province Governor and Sandomierz Castellan Hieronim Gostomski. It was the funder's name that gave the school its name of Collegium Gostomianum. The college ran a well-developed secondary school, university studies in philosophy

⁴⁷ *Raporty Szkoły...*, 221—223.

⁴⁸ L. Hajdukiewicz, "Szkoły...", 129.

⁴⁹ F. Kiryk, "Stosunki kościelne, oświata i opieka społeczna", in *Dzieje Sandomierza (XVI—XVIII w.)*, ed. F. Kiryk, Warsaw—Toruń, 1993, 89.

⁵⁰ W. Białousz, *Dzieje szkoły jezuickiej w latach 1602—1773*, Sandomierz, 2002, 5.

and theology and a divinity school, but it also involved a school theatre, its own print shop and a library⁵¹. After it was acquired by the KEN in 1774, the Sandomierz school continued working according to its old rules. The act of the closing down of the college was conducted by the bishop's delegate in the presence of two land inspectors. The secondary school was preserved, but the theology and philosophy classes were terminated⁵². The school was housed in an illustrious edifice that had the shape of the letter L, whereas St Peter and Paul's Church was situated in the courtyard. One wing was located along the Vistula valley and diagonally to Długosz Street. The other wing was squeezed between the cliff edge and the church's wall. The first wing had five storeys, including two storeys of the basement. Facing the courtyard was a hallway, and its other side housed classrooms whose windows looked out on the Vistula River. In the period following 1773, the Sandomierz school's material state substantially deteriorated. Most of the classrooms, teachers' flats, the roof and the basements required repair. Szczepan Hołowczyc made a visitation to the school in 1774 and organised a province school in place of the college. The school employed six teachers, a prefect, a school preacher and a *metr*. Most of the former Jesuits remained at the school after the closing down of the college⁵³. From 1776, the Sandomierz school employed eight teachers and was qualified as a county school with six classes. The school's first period of operation was extremely unfavourable. Its main problem concerned the finances depleted by the property losses approved by the land inspector who exercised authority over the school. The lack of sources does not allow assessing the Sandomierz school's didactic process. The reports of general school inspectors have retained only individual pieces of information concerning the realisation of the particular subjects. It follows from the reports that the curricula introduced by the Commission of National Education were not always implemented⁵⁴. From 1773, the following teachers provided instruction at the school: Józef Potoczyński, Józef Lisikiewicz, Józef Prutzan, Wojciech Franciszek Sosnowski, Ignacy Łempicki, Ignacy Praczyński and Piotr Strasz⁵⁵. Further change of the schools organisation took place in 1783 when the school network achieved its final shape. The county school was transformed into an academic sub-department school. The school

⁵¹ W. Białousz, "Kulturotwórcza rola Kolegium Jezuickiego w Sandomierzu (XVII—XVIII w.)", *Zeszyty Sandomierskie* 9, 2002, 9—15.

⁵² J. Poplatek, *Komisja Edukacji Narodowej. Udział byłych jezuitów w pracach Komisji Edukacji Narodowej*, ed. J. Paszenda, Kraków, 1974, 219.

⁵³ *Pamiętnik Koła Sandomierzan 1925—1935*, ed. A. Patkowski, W. Burek, A. Ojrzyński, Warsaw—Sandomierz, 1936, 11—18.

⁵⁴ A. Massalski, *Szkoła średnia w Sandomierzu w latach 1773—1914*, Sandomierz, 2002, 13.

⁵⁵ J. Poplatek, *Komisja...*, 219.

was headed by the prorector, it employed six teachers, a school preacher and two *metr* teachers of French and German⁵⁶. In the years 1783—1794, it employed 31 teachers. They all dwelled in the post-monastery building and were obligated to wear uniformed clothing and dine at the same table as members of “academic assemblies”. In the said period, the school was headed by Priests Józef Potoczyński, Wiktor Gostyński and Michał Kubieszowski. All the ex-Jesuits were graduates of monastic studies. In the days of the KEN, there were 13 of them. Among them, Priests Bączalski, Lachowski and Janiszewski were awarded in 1783 the title of Doctor of Philosophy by the Crown's Main School. The other group included eight secular teachers who had graduated from the Crown's Main School. Two of them had graduated from the school before the reform and possessed the certificate of graduation from the Kraków Academy, and three (Domaradzki, Kubieszowski and Skorupski) had obtained the degree of doctor from the Crown's Main School. Franciszek Kolendowicz, Józef Bogucicki, Walerian Bogdanowicz, Jan Kanty Krusiński and Marcin Fiałkowski made visitations to the school after 1783. The available reports from that period shed a light on the prevalent relations within the teaching staff that were characterised by conflicts between former Jesuits and secular teachers⁵⁷. The preserved reports, prepared by school inspectors, reveal that the levels teaching, students' accomplishments and teachers' work varied, but it was emphasised that the provisions and laws prescribed by the Commission were generally complied with⁵⁸. In terms of the numbers of students, the Sandomierz school was quite populous. In the years 1781—1793, the number of students hovered between 138 and 371⁵⁹. Like other schools, the Sandomierz school awarded its best students with medals for diligence. In the years 1788—1793, the students were awarded 5 gold and 10 silver medals. Since most of the student community came from distant locations, they were forced to rent private lodgings because the school did not possess its own *convictus* dormitory⁶⁰.

Kielce

Kielce, whose origins date back to the 10th—11th centuries, was part of the Sandomierz Province, existing in the late 11th century, which was one of the seven major administrative regions of the state. In the 12th century, Kielce was granted to the Kraków bishops and was an administrative centre of a castellan estate. In the 18th century, the town developed very dynamically. In 1746, Kielce

⁵⁶ “Tabele zgromadzeń akademickich”, in *Ustawodawstwo...*, 175.

⁵⁷ A. Massalski, *Szkoła...*, passim.

⁵⁸ *Raporty Szkoły...*, passim.

⁵⁹ T. Mizia, *Szkoły...*, 263.

⁶⁰ A. Massalski, *Szkoła...*, 40—41.

accommodated 199 houses, including five farm buildings, as well as 27 castle and religious buildings⁶¹. In 1790, the number of houses was estimated at 323. The population was rising as well. In 1746, the number of inhabitants was estimated at 1,130, whereas in 1790 that number had grown to 1,750. The Kielce population traded in commerce, agriculture, blacksmithery, barkeeping and liquor making⁶². In terms of the national diversity, the town was of a strictly Polish character, as the law, reenacted by Bishop Kajetan Sołtyk, forbade the Jewish population from settling there⁶³. Kielce's cultural and educational activity in that period is closely tied to the clergy. The central point of that impact was the collegiate church, as well as St Adalbert's Church, St Trinity's Church, St Leonard's Church and St Borromeo's Church in Karczówka. Aside from the churches, there were also other institutions operating in town: the townhall, the mayor's office, the county governor's office and a mining office, as well as craftsmen's trade organisations and religious brotherhoods. Public utility facilities included a shelter for the poor, a hospital, a public bathhouse and a low-interest fund for peasants. Kielce was home to a parochial school, a secondary school and a priest seminary⁶⁴.

Kielce's first secondary school was established thanks to the foundation of Kraków Bishop Konstanty Felicjan Szaniawski. The secondary school's establishment was tightly linked to the creation of the divinity school as the secondary school was intended to supply the properly prepared candidates for seminary studies. Bishop Szaniawski entrusted the management of the Kielce secondary and divinity schools to the priests of the Apostolic Union of Secular Priests (*Congregatio Clericorum Saecularium in Communi Viventium*). This was a union of secular priests founded in Bavaria by Priest Bartholomew Holzhauser in 1640. The union's objective was to maintain among the priests the spirit of piety and perfectionism through communitarian life, hence the name "Communitarian Priests" (Bartholomites or *bartoszkowie* in Poland)⁶⁵. Szaniawski had begun his efforts to bring the Communitarian Priests to Kielce as early as in 1723, setting off in person for this purpose to Warsaw. The chairman of the institute, Priest Michał Józef Gass, sent his representative, Priest Andrzej Józef Karaś, to Kielce. On 25 August 1723, Priest Karaś obtained from the bishop the post of vicar at the collegiate church in Kielce, which allowed

⁶¹ J. Pazdur, *Dzieje Kielc do 1863 roku*, Wrocław—Warsaw—Kraków, 1967, 32—130, 154.

⁶² J. Pazdur, *Dzieje...*, 163—164.

⁶³ J. Pazdur, "Dzieje Kielc od XVI do XVIII w.," in *Pamiętnik kielecki. Przeszłość kulturalna regionu*, ed. J. Nowak-Dłużewski, Kielce, 1947, 108.

⁶⁴ J. Pazdur, "Dzieje...", 96.

⁶⁵ T. Wróbel, "Dzieje Seminarium Duchownego w Kielcach na przestrzeni 250 lat", in *Księga jubileuszowa — 250 lat Seminarium Duchownego w Kielcach (1727—1977)*, Kielce, 1977, 56—57.

him to launch the divinity and secondary schools. Construction works in Krakowskie Przedmieście, on the southern slope of the cathedral hill, were commenced on 25 April 1724. The newly created schools received good endowment, mainly in the form of revenue from the landed property⁶⁶. The divinity and secondary school's organisation was specified by the bishop's decree of June 1726. Pursuant to the decree, the divinity and secondary school were to employ four teachers and a *regens*. The school was organised according to the Kraków Academy's programme as a five-class school teaching grammar, poetics and rhetoric. The official launch of the grammar class was held on 4 September 1727, with the attendance of the school's funder, Bishop Szaniawski, and two representatives of the Kraków University⁶⁷. The establishment of the Commission of National Education on 14 October 1773 signalled a new chapter in the Kielce secondary school's history. However, the Commission did not immediately acquire all the schools. Academic colonies, including the Kielce school, remained outside of the KEN's school network. The first mention of the Kielce sub-department school of the Bartholomites dates back to 1783. It was then subordinate to the Lublin department school. The school was maintained with the financial support of the Bartholomites. The school was headed by the prefect and employed three priest teachers⁶⁸. It follows from the available post-visitation reports that the curriculum objectives and the method of their implementation did not comply with the applicable regulations. In most cases, the school received negative evaluation. Although the first school inspector described the school as "quite good", the two subsequent visitations gave the school definitely negative evaluation⁶⁹. As many as five persons filled the post of prefect, in the following order: Priests Feliks Anchyngierski, Andrzej Tułowiecki, Bartłomiej Jałoszyński, Franciszek Wieliczko and Franciszek Caderer. In total, the Kielce school employed 17 Bartholomite teachers, of whom a part were not sufficiently prepared to realise the syllabus. Of the entire teaching staff, only five teachers continued their studies at the Crown's Main School: Bernard Bzinkowski, Franciszek Caderer, Józef Czekajowicz, Ksawery Szaniawski and Franciszek Wieliczko. It must be stressed that Bzinkowski obtained the degree of Doctor of Theology, while Szaniawski gained the degree of Doctor of Laws⁷⁰. The Kielce sub-department school was quite populous in comparison

⁶⁶ F. Puchalski, *Seminaryum Kieleckie. Rys historyczny i dokumenty*, Kielce, 1901, 8—10.

⁶⁷ J. Zdanowski, *Seminarium Duchowne w Kielcach. Szkic historyczny w dwóchsetną rocznicę założenia*, Kielce, 1927, 14—15.

⁶⁸ A. Massalski, *Dzieje najstarszej szkoły średniej w Kielcach 1727—1945. I Liceum Ogólnokształcące im. S. Żeromskiego*, Kielce, 2010, 28—29.

⁶⁹ *Raporty Szkoły...*, passim.

⁷⁰ A. Massalski, *Dzieje...*, passim.

to other schools as it educated some 200 students on a yearly basis. In the years 1781—1793, the number of students was between 170 and 250. The best students received medals for achievements in education. In the years 1786—1793, 10 students received silver medals. There was no *convictus* dormitory in Kielce. Students usually rented their lodgings from Kielce townspeople or lived at the seminary and remained under the guardianship of the teachers⁷¹. The Kielce school's prefects exercised control over the parochial schools in Kielce, Bodzentyn, Słupia, Łagów and Chęciny⁷².

After the Third Partition, Kielce was incorporated into the Austrian Partition, the so-called West Galicia, and was appointed to be a county town. The Kielce school had followed the syllabus which had been implemented by the Commission of National Education until 1801. The school was headed by prefect; aside from him, there were two other teachers employed in the school. It was not until 1802 that the school was converted into a gymnasium with five classes. It remained under the management of the Bartholomites⁷³.

Krasnystaw

In the Lesser Poland Department, the KEN acquired four post-Jesuit colleges in Kraków, Lublin, Sandomierz and Krasnystaw. The Lublin and Sandomierz schools were converted into academic schools. The Kraków college was closed down on account of the fact that Kraków was home to the Nowodworski secondary school. As regards the Krasnystaw college, the Commission had no clear view of what action it should take. In October 1774, in line with the law, the school received the visitation of Grzegorz Piramowicz and was subjected to the authority of the Commission as a county school. Meanwhile, the school inspector approved the appointment of three-member teaching staff, consisting of the friars who had already been employed there, and set down the rules of remunerating them. The inspector informed the teachers of which subjects they were assigned with and who was to supervise which class of students. In his assessment, the buildings were in good repair and required only minor restoration works. The teaching staff consisted solely of ex-Jesuits possessing solid professional background and many years of teaching experience. We have no information about this school until 1780 when the Commission decided to close it down. Part of the chattels and the students were transferred to the Piarist county school in Chełm. It is beyond doubt that this decision was based on economic grounds. The Commission did not intend to maintain the school

⁷¹ A. Massalski, *Dzieje...*, 39—42.

⁷² *Raporty Szkoły...*, 220.

⁷³ A. Massalski, *Dzieje...*, 44—45.

at its own expense, especially that the Chełm school was situated only 30 km away, while the Lublin academic school — 50 km away⁷⁴.

Stężyca

In 1791, a sub-department school was established in Stężyca, a small town on the fringes of the Lesser Poland Department. It had once been a wealthy town, the seat of landed courts and nobles' local parliaments, which had owed a lot to the protection of and aid from the Benedictines. Into the 17th century, Stężyca had grown to become an insignificant town with destitute population that was deprived of educational opportunities⁷⁵. Henryk Kowalski, the Sieciechów Benedictines' monastery superior, deserves credit for obtaining the permit to open the school. The Benedictines committed themselves to covering any costs connected with the organisation and functioning of the school and to opening a school building within four years⁷⁶. Jowin Fryderyk Bończa Bystrzycki, former Jesuit and then local parish priest and royal astronomer, offered his material support for the school by making available his house as the dwelling for the teachers until the school building was completed and by granting the square for the school construction. The Civilian—Military Commission, whose then member was Bończa Bystrzycki, also agreed to make available six chambers in the townhall. The school opened officially on 3 May 1791 in the presence of Prorector Jan Nepomucen Adrian Dębski, appointed by the KEN, teachers and representatives of the local community⁷⁷. During this ceremony, Dębski delivered a speech on the role of education in public life⁷⁸. In the period of the school's operation, in the years 1792—1793, the post of prorector was filled by Jan Nepomucen Adrian Dębski (1791—1792 and Justus Szeliński (1792—1793). The school employed the total of five teachers from the Bene-

⁷⁴ S. Bednarski, *Upadek...*, 31; J. Łukaszewicz, *Historia szkół w Koronie i w Wielkiem Księstwie Litewkiem od najdawniejszych czasów aż do roku 1794*, 3, Poznań, 1851, 96; *Raporty Szkoły...*, 23, 55, 151; J. Poplatek, *Komisja...*, 134—138; T. Wierzbowski, *Raporty generalnych...*, 54—55; *Z dziejów szkolnictwa jezuickiego w Polsce*, ed. J. Paszenda, Kraków, 1994.

⁷⁵ *Słownik geograficzny Królestwa Polskiego i innych krajów słowiańskich*, ed. F. Sulimierski, B. Chlebowski, W. Walewski, 11, Warsaw, 1890, 339.

⁷⁶ J. Gacki, *Benedyktynski klasztor w Sieciechowie według pism i podań miejscowych*, Radom, 1872, 256.

⁷⁷ S. Szczotka, "Dębski Jan Nepomucen Adrian", in *Polski słownik biograficzny*, ed. W. Konopczyński, 5, Kraków, 1946, 149—150. The only publication so far on Jan Nepomucen Adrian Dębski has been published by Irena Szybiak ("Ksiądz Adrian Dębski — benedyktyn w kręgu idei Komisji Edukacji Narodowej", in *Historia i polityka*, ed. J.R. Szaflik, Pułtusk, 2004, 417—427).

⁷⁸ A. Dębski, *Mowa przy otwarciu szkół XX. Benedyktynów Klasztoru Sieciechowskiego w mieście Stężyca*, Lublin, 1791. Reprinted in: *Komisja Edukacji Narodowej. Pisma Komisji i o Komisji*, ed. S. Tync, Wrocław—Warsaw—Kraków, 1954, 420.

dictine Order. The figure of Dębski (1750—1800) deserves particular attention, as he proved complete dedication to the cause of national education during his short life. In the years 1783—1788, Dębski filled the position of speech professor in Pułtusk, where he was accoladed by subsequent school inspectors. In 1791, he was appointed prorector in Stężyca, where he lent himself to organisational work with full zeal, masterminded the opening of the school, strove to ensure the requisite level of teaching and undertook to attract new students, which he did while making visitations to parochial schools. After one year, Dębski was transferred to the Pułtusk sub-department school. In the opinion of the school inspector, Priest Popławski, who was making a visitation to the school in 1792, the prorector's transfer was completely unjustified and stemmed from the critical approach of the authorities of the Benedictine Order towards his professional and social involvement. The prorector's transfer led to the closing down of the school, which took place at the beginning of the school year 1793—1794.

4. Conclusion

The above article is an attempt at exploring the education system of the Lesser Poland Department as an administrative unit established in 1783. It is done by demonstrating in a specific order the development of particular schools (academic department school in Lublin, academic sub-department schools in Kraków, Pińczów and Sandomierz, religious schools in Kielce, Krasnystaw and Stężyca). This study attempts at complementing the knowledge collected to date by additional knowledge gained through domestic and foreign studies conducted in Kyiv, Vilnius and at the Russian State Archive of Ancient Documents in Moscow. The point of examination in this archived material was to discern relations between organisational and didactic issues and the functioning of particular schools against the background of social realities of that period. One of the main objectives of this study was to demonstrate mutual relations between schools and the Crown's Main School, which exercised full supervision over them. The said department played an important part in Poland, as it was in its territory that one of the Main Schools was located, as well as the oldest secondary school of Poland, i.e. the Nowodworski School. It was a school providing education to the most distinguished Poles, such as King John III Sobieski. Polish aristocrats, e.g. the Czartoryskis and the Lubomirskis, were very fond of sending its children to that school. Lviv Archbishop Wacław Sierakowski and Chełm and Płock Bishop Józef Szembek also had a history at the Nowodworski school. The circle of its graduates includes: Jan Szembek, Jan Małachowski, Stanisław Trembecki, Jacek Przybylski, Józef Bogucicki and many others.

This text presented to a broad audience is intended, apart from its scholarly objectives, to refresh the public memory about the Commission of National Education's achievements. It is important, as we are going to celebrate the 250th anniversary of its establishment in the near future. Now, as much as in those days, an attitude to new education should bear in mind above all the need to shape a democratic and civic society and a state of the rule of law, preparing the young person for the role of a citizen of a united Europe and the world. It is crucial, as we are seeing with our own eyes another reform of the elementary, secondary and tertiary education system, as well as reform of the science policy. It would be good if successive educational developments could bring us closer to contemporary Europe rather than take us further and further away from it.

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