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POLITICAL ASPECTS OF THE DEVELOPMENT
OF UKRAINIAN SCHOOLS IN GALICIA (1772–1918)

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The development of Ukrainian education in the years 1772–1918 can be divided into three periods: reforms of the 1770s and 1780s, schools in the first half of the nineteenth century and education in the era of autonomy. In 1787, by imperial decree, the Studium Rutenum was established in Lviv at the University, taught in the Rusyn (Ukrainian) language. During the Springtide of Nations, both Poles and Rusyns undertook efforts to spread the use of their national languages in public discourse throughout Galicia. Poles awaited the introduction of Polish into schools, while Rusyns spoke out in favor of Ukrainian.

In 1861 Rusyns managed to elect a significant number of their own deputies to the Diet of Galicia and Lodomeria, but before 1905 there existed only five state-funded traditional grammar schools where the language of instruction was Ukrainian (in Lviv, Przemyśl, Kolomyia, Ternopil and Ivano-Frankivsk [then Stanislaviv]). When in 1905 a Ukrainian grammar school was founded in Stanislaviv, two motions were presented in the Diet demanding the creation of additional grammar schools with Ukrainian instruction in Berezhany and Sambir. However, only in 1914 based on a decision of the Galician Diet was created several new Ukrainian schools (in Zbarazh, Horodenka, Yavoriv, and others).

Keywords: Galician schools, language of instruction, Ukrainian intelligentsia.

The creation of the Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria as a result of the first partition of the Polish Republic initiated a new stage in Polish-Ukrainian relations and had an effect on the state of the Galician education system. Significant changes took place in Ukrainian schools as a consequence of

Viennese policy based on a rejection of Polish aspirations toward independence. Fear of Polish irredentism led the Viennese authorities to provide significant support to the nascent national movement of the Rusyns; given that the movement contained almost no members of the aristocracy, a group already completely Polonized before the partition, and had a strong base in the clerical intelligentsia, giving it support meant supporting the Uniate Church, now a key institution with a strong national identity. The Viennese government saw that it could set the Ukrainian intelligentsia against Polish pro-independence tendencies through support for Church and educational institutions. Decisions made in the final decades of the eighteenth century showed that Vienna was engaged in an effort to strengthen the Uniate Church's intellectual culture so that its clergy could become an equal partner with the Roman Church's elite. The purpose of this policy, based on the principle of «divide and conquer», was to maintain the balance in Polish-Ukrainian relations, and thus, it was hoped, ensure effective government of the province of Galicia.

The Reforms of the 1770s. In 1774 Empress Maria Theresa changed the name of the Uniate Church to the Greek Catholic Church, likening it to the Roman Catholic Church and disseminating the belief that both churches were of equal importance. The change was followed by reforms to the system of educating the clergy, leading to the creation of separate Greek Catholic seminaries. The first one was established in Vienna at the Church of St. Barbara in 1774. Its graduates included university professors, rectors of seminaries, and writers. A second seminary was established in Przemyśl and was active in the years 1780–1783, until in

1784 a Greek Catholic General Seminary was established in Lviv. Further reforms had to do with university education. On March 9, 1787, by imperial decree, the Studium Rutenum was established in Lviv at the University, taught in the Rusyn (Ukrainian) language;¹ the organizer of the program was Fr. Mikhailo Shchavnytsky, a graduate of the Vienna seminary and also the rector of the Lviv seminary. The graduates of seminaries and the students of the Studium Rutenum were both recruited from the Lviv and Przemyśl dioceses, and after finishing their studies they played a prominent role in the Ukrainian national revival of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. The activities of young university students associated with the Rusyn Troika led by Fr. Markian Shashkevych, culminating in the introduction of the local vernacular into belles lettres and later school textbooks, represented a particularly visible manifestation of the Ukrainian clerical intelligentsia's activism in this period. Activists in the Ukrainian national movement placed an increasing emphasis on schools, treating them not only as institutions for the intellectual and ethical formation of young people, but also as a tool for creating a political elite.

Folk schools and middle schools in the first half of the nineteenth century.

From the beginning of the nineteenth century, the education statute *Politische Verfassung der deutschen Volksschulen für die k.k. österreichischen Provinzen mit Ausnahme von Ungarn, Lombardie, Venedig und Dalmatien*, passed on 11 August 1805 by Emperor Franz I, was binding. The statute regulated instruction in folk schools and pedagogical courses. The number of schools was growing, but the rate of illiteracy remained high in submontane areas. At first, folk schools were not a subject of Polish-Ukrainian disputes, considering the low level of instruction in the one- or two-year schools that did not enable students to con-

tinue into middle school. In that sense, such schools did not contribute to the formation of the intelligentsia, and furthermore, during the period before autonomy, the institutions with the lowest level of organization were mainly located in areas with homogeneous populations as far as national identity was concerned. The situation was different with four-year schools and more highly organized institutions, which over the course of several decades became a subject of political interest.

During the Springtide of Nations, both Poles and Rusyns undertook efforts to spread the use of their national languages in public discourse throughout Galicia. Poles awaited the introduction of Polish into schools, while Rusyns spoke out in favor of Ukrainian [1, pp. 181–185]. At the request of governor Wacław Zaleski, the ministry of education ordered teachers in provincial grammar schools to use Polish as the language of instruction, while teachers who did not know Polish were allowed to use German for the time being (29 IX 1848). In the first grammar school in Lviv (known as the academic school), German language was maintained, while the second (known as the German school) introduced Polish as the language of instruction. The political organization of the Rusyns, the *Holovna Rada Ruska* (Chief Rusyn Council), opposed Polish instruction in the middle schools of Eastern Galicia. A negative view of Polish language drove them to ask the Viennese authorities to provisionally introduce German as the language of instruction, with the stipulation that in the future it should be Ukrainian [2, p. 30].

A subsequent order from the Ministry of Education of 8 January 1849 introduced German as the language of instruction until teachers were trained in the Rusyn language. The argument for this order presented the Ukrainian perspective: «the national feelings of Rusyns recoil less from German

¹ The official language of instruction in the Studium Rutenum was Old Church Slavonic, but some teachers taught in the vernacular.

than from Polish language» [3, pp. 154–155; 4, p. 27]. In order to hasten the implementation of the order, Ukrainian language was introduced as a mandatory subject in all grammar schools of Eastern Galicia, for all pupils regardless of nationality.

Another decree was issued on 12 September 1850. As the Rusyns had hoped, the latest decisions by the authorities indicated that schools in Eastern and Western Galicia would be treated differently, in contradiction to the belief in Polish circles that Galicia was a unified country with one national identity. This division corresponded to the division of schools according to language of instruction – German in the East and Polish in the West. The Viennese authorities gradually increased the number of subjects taught in German in grammar schools in the West, while German was kept as the language of instruction in the East, with the teaching of Ukrainian also becoming obligatory. At the same time, Polish language had become less important in Eastern Galician schools, since Polish was used there only in religion classes for young Roman Catholics. The new decisions not only signaled a strengthening of the German language, but also paved the way for the gradual introduction of classes in Ukrainian in the future. In the part of the text dealing with grammar schools in Eastern Galicia, the decree announced: «... the Rusyn language will slowly enter into use, to the extent that capable teachers and usable textbooks can be found» [5, p. 243]. The regulations cited here presented Rusyns with the prospect of schools becoming Ukrainian in the West of the country, although no precise date was designated. Bronisław Łoziński, an opponent of Ukrainian schools, called this period the «Rusyn-Germanizing frenzy», perceiving in Vienna's decision a dagger pointed at the heart of Polish culture [6, p. 161].

The disputes over language of instruction in the 1850s. The governments of Aleksander Bach, who was Prime Minister beginning in 1852, saw a notable expansion of the bureaucracy. Heated disputes

over the language of instruction in schools flared up after the emperor's handwritten directive to grammar schools of 9 December 1854 in which he commanded that pupils be taught in a language they understood, and simultaneously made German a mandatory subject [7, pp. 6, 13; 8, p. 78]. Poles and Rusyns interpreted the content of the document in different ways. Euzebiusz Czerkowski, a close associate of governor Agenor Gołuchowski, stated that making concessions to national languages would give an advantage to Polish. He found the Rusyn language to be in very limited use in Galicia, and furthermore, similar to Russian. The vision of Rusyn identity gravitating toward Russia became one axis of the Galician authorities' policy on Ukrainian matters. Czerkowski compiled a report on linguistic and national relations, in which he called for abandoning the school program of 1849, which proposed transforming Eastern Galician grammar schools into Ukrainian schools. He wrote that the development of the Russian language had taken «a regrettable wrong turn, since through adopting words, forms, and expressions in part from Church Slavonic and in part from Russian language, it changed into a dialect [...]. It would be inadvisable to let the introduction of such a language lead to the official sanctioning of a process of Russification of the country through public behavior» [6, pp. 173, 176]. The governor's office maintained the position that in the years 1848–1849 the Viennese authorities had, for political reasons, allowed Ukrainian to be taught in schools, in order to create divisions between Poles and Rusyns, based on the principle of «divide and conquer», rather than from any consideration of the actual benefits of propagating that language in schools.

As the controversy grew around the schools, Vienna's role as arbiter in disputes between Poles and Rusyns became stronger. In a decree of 20 July 1859, the emperor allowed the elimination of German lessons from grammar school curricula, if they were located in areas where the majority of the

population spoke a language other than German [9, pp. 447–448]. He did not single out any particular local language, so that the imperial document opened the way for subsequent disputes as to its interpretation and was another example of the policy of divide et impera. On 20 October 1860 the emperor addressed a letter to minister of state Gołuchowski, ordering him to consult with representatives of both nationalities regarding the language of instruction to be used in schools. He expected the implementation of his decree of 9 December 1854, in which he had recommended consideration «of national languages when teaching in grammar schools» [7, pp. 4–5, 13].

Gołuchowski's successor as governor was the centralist Anton Schmerling; the change gave Rusyns hope for concessions on schools, but the Polish community also voiced demands for recognition of its needs. On 31 December 1860 in Kraków a memorial was drafted containing the statement that «Poles and Rusyns» constituted a unified nationality in Galicia. The authors of the memorial hoped for broad legislative competencies to be entrusted to an administratively homogeneous country, with Polish as the official language. The memorial allowed for the use of Ukrainian language in public life, but with the stipulation «in justified cases» [10, p. 36]. In the new political conditions that existed in Galicia with the accession of Schmerling, the struggle for Rusyn identity was entering a new stage in Polish-Ukrainian relations, in which both sides clung to their previously held convictions and prejudices.

Education legislation in the era of autonomy. At the threshold of Galician autonomy, the Rusyns had control over a strong political camp, consisting of not only the clerical intelligentsia but also representatives of the younger generation from secular professions. In 1861 they managed to elect a significant number of their own deputies to the Diet of Galicia and Lodomeria, a fact of particular significance given that the Diet's resolutions would decide the future of Galic-

ian schools. Both sides aimed to eliminate German language from public life, and this naturally encouraged them to form a unified front in conversations with the Viennese authorities. Polish politicians offered concessions in exchange for a Polish-Ukrainian union in the National Council, but the agreement concluded on 25 April 1861 was seen as a tactical move. Bishop Spyrydon Lytvynovych in the end took a centralist position, judging that cooperating with Vienna was more advantageous than the alternative. Jerzy Czartoryski, assessing the attitude of the Polish side, wrote that proponents of Polsko-Ukrainian rapprochement were too few, and «hard-line reactionaries too many» [11, p. 52]. The agreement was to be confirmed by a resolution in the Diet to replace German language in schools and government offices with Polish and Rusyn, but the resolution unfortunately stalled in the deliberations of the Diet commission.

At the beginning of 1866 Maurycy Kabat made a motion for the establishment of an educational institution in which German language would be replaced in teaching by the «language of the region». The concept of «the language of the region» (singular), used in the motion, signified a departure from the term previously used in both Viennese and Diet documents, «languages of the region» (plural). This seemingly unimportant difference concealed the seeds of a serious dispute between nationalities. Kabat tied the criterion of language to Galicia as a political and administrative entity, which he considered to lie within the sphere of influence of Polish culture. The unity of Galicia was to be reflected in the unity of the planned educational institution, whose sphere of activity would encompass the whole country. The motion he submitted postulated the construction of a new education system using Polish as the language of instruction [12, pp. 320–321].

Towards the end of 1866 the National Council (Wydział Krajowy) of Galicia put forward a proposal to the Diet for a statute creating a National School Council

(Rada Szkolna Krajowa, or RSK), which elicited protests among Rusyns. For their part, the Poles argued their case in part by invoking the need for fundamental reforms to the education system. The task of the RSK was to provide the Diet with «material for statutes», oversight over schools and public education, selection and appointment of teachers, and so on. The nationality question was linked with administrative criteria, postulating the equivalence of the concepts of nationality and nation. The authority of the school council was intended to rest on «national foundations», but Rusyn culture was treated as a component part of Polish culture [13, pp. 1228–1229]. The Ukrainian deputies, however, emphasized that the charter of the RSK minimized Rusyns' participation in the development of Galician schools, because Article IV not only did not accord equal stature to Rusyn representatives, but made it easier for them to be kept in the minority. The National School Council was given broad powers over the management and oversight of village and middle schools. The council prepared didactic materials and syllabi, reviewed and approved textbooks, prepared annual school budgets, referred candidates for the post of inspector to the emperor for appointment, and itself appointed and transferred teachers and school directors. It had broader authorization than local school authorities in other crown countries and became a *de facto* Polish educational institution. After its opening ceremonies in the Lviv Cathedral, the council passed a National Proclamation, in which the words «nationality», «fatherland», and «mother tongue» were used in the singular [14, pp. 136–138]. The biographer of one long-lived member of the council, Henryk Schmitt, wrote with pride that «he claimed a rightful place for the Polish element in Galician schools» [15, p. 111].

Another statute passed at the time dealt with the language of instruction in schools and was based on the plan of 18 November 1866 developed by the Galician National Council. The Council cited the position

taken by Rusyns favorably disposed toward Polish culture, expressing doubts as to the practical utility of Ukrainian language for pedagogic purposes: «Regarding the Rusyn language, opinions differ. While some maintain that this language is completely suitable for teaching all branches of knowledge, others, including Rusyns of various political tendencies, have the opposite opinion» [16, p. 77]. The Council's position revealed the need to disseminate throughout Galicia the idea that the Ukrainian language had not reached a high enough level to be able to function as a language of instruction in public schools.

A contentious debate on the planned statute took place on 31 December 1866, involving on one side Yakov Shvedychky and Stepan Kachala, who interpreted the proposals put forth by the Council and the Diet's education commission as violating the resolutions of 1849, and on the other Zygmunt Sawczyński and Euzebiusz Czerkawski, Rusyns who identified as Poles. The speeches of the first two deputies expressed suspicions about the authors of the draft statute, implying they had a low regard for Ukrainian education. Sawczyński and Czerkawski subsequently defended the supremacy of Polish language [12, pp. 516–517]. When it came to the vote, the Diet approved the plan for the commission *en bloc* in its second reading without discussion. The reaction of Ukrainian deputies was immediate. Amid the general hubbub they began to leave the hall of the Diet, threatening a loss of quorum. Kazimierz Grocholski hurriedly made a motion to approve the statute *en bloc* in its third reading. Before the motion could be voted on, deputies had begun jostling with each other in the doors of the Diet hall. Ukrainian politicians frequently described the incident, in commentaries both at the time and later, as a rape committed against the Rusyns, who were not allowed to leave the Diet hall [17, p. 529]. Ukrainian opinion journalists wrote that Prince Adam Potocki himself had stood in the door to keep the Diet from becoming incomplete. The most

critical account was given by the newspaper «Slovo» (The Word), where it was claimed that the resolution had been voted on without the required quorum, and that the Ukrainian deputies had been absent from the hall during the vote [18, pp. 1–2; 19, p. 1].

Article II of the resolution that passed, assigning responsibility for the choice of language of instruction in folk schools to the local municipality, gave equal chances to both nationalities, but in practice the municipal councils were often subject to various kinds of external pressure, causing a decline in the number of Rusyn folk schools, particularly multi-year schools in cities. These changes occurred due either to the creation of Utraquist schools or to decisions by municipal councils to change the local language of instruction to Polish. Article II was accused of not taking into account the principle of instruction based on the mother tongue, introducing whatever language the municipality chose. Article V in its general premises eliminated the Ukrainian language from middle schools maintained through state support. Article VII let the Diet majority decide whether to expand the area of Ukrainian instruction in grammar schools and Realschulen after determining the views of county councils, whose membership was predominantly Polish. Finally, Article VIII, invoking «freedom of school choice», brought on an avalanche of criticism. It opened the way for Greek Catholic youth to attend Polish schools, and the reverse: pupils of Polish nationality could study in Rusyn schools. Considering the relative importance that the resolution gave to the Polish and Ukrainian languages at advanced grade levels, however, the reverse was hardly ever met with in practice. The drafters of the resolution arranged its content in such a way that all decisions having to do with introducing classes in Ukrainian fell to the Diet, in which the numerical supremacy of Polish deputies was assured by electoral law. The Ukrainian press concluded that the language resolution had «handed the Rusyns over for Polonization», while

Polish circles saw it as a restitution of Poles' legitimate national rights, previously taken away from them by invaders [19, p. 1; 20, p. 22].

The structure of Ukrainian middle school education. While Ukrainians had a majority in terms of the number of one- and two-year folk schools in Eastern Galicia, there was an enormous disparity in favor of the Poles in terms of grammar schools and Realschulen. Before 1905 there existed only five state-funded traditional grammar schools where the language of instruction was Ukrainian (in Lviv, Przemyśl, Kolomyia, Ternopil and Ivano-Frankivsk [then Stanislaviv]). When in 1905 after long disputes a Ukrainian grammar school was founded in Stanislaviv, two motions were presented in the Diet demanding the creation of additional grammar schools with Ukrainian instruction in Berezhany and Sambir. The motions were accompanied by a series of petitions sent to the Diet by the residents of local municipalities [21, p. 1875; p. 2102; p. 2337].

In 1908 the total number of middle schools in Galicia was 80, while in 1913 it had already risen to 134, not counting teachers' training colleges. At the beginning of 1914 the number of state schools alone was 70, including 50 grammar schools and 14 Realschulen with Polish as the language of instruction. The remaining schools were a mere 5 Ukrainian grammar schools and one German grammar school. The distribution of schools in the eastern and western parts of Galicia indicates greater interest from authorities in creating educational institutions with Polish language in the eastern part than in the west. The eastern part had a smaller Polish population than the western, but in proportion to the population, the East had more Polish middle schools. Roughly speaking, in Eastern Galicia the number of Polish speakers was over two million, with 36 middle schools at their disposal, while the larger Polish population in Western Galicia had 28 such schools, so that the Polish minority in the East had a greater number of schools than the Polish majority in the culturally

dominant West. Meanwhile, the Ukrainian minority in the western part did not have a single school with Ukrainian as language of instruction, though there were 107,578 Greek Catholics living in the West and a local structure, the Ukrainian Pedagogical Society had been established [22, p. 1265; 23, p. 1]. According to estimates given by the Ukrainian deputies, the total Polish population in Galicia of over 4.5 million was served by 71 state-funded middle schools, whereas the total Ukrainian population of over 3 million was served by a mere 5 separate institutions and one affiliate. Based on the 1910 data, there was one Ukrainian state-funded middle school in Eastern Galicia for every 655,889 Ukrainian speakers, and one Polish state school for every 48,332 Polish speakers [19, p. 4; 22 p. 1265]. The disproportion was clear, though the representatives of the majority in the Diet rejected the criterion of population numbers, instead using the number of pupils in a school as their reference point. This argument was demolished by the Ukrainians, who claimed that the number of pupils depended on the number of schools.

The Polish majority in the Diet feared the growth of the Ukrainian intelligentsia's numbers not only in cities, but also in the province of Eastern Galicia; this had to do with rivalry for cultural influence and was closely linked to the escalation of the nationalist struggle. The nature of the developing situation is illustrated by Ukrainian efforts to increase the number of four-year pre-grammar schools and grammar schools, finally culminating in a Polish-Ukrainian compromise in 1914. Before things reached that point, the Ukrainians made a widespread effort to raise the number of private middle-level schools, mainly teacher training colleges and grammar schools. The Ukrainian Pedagogical Society was at the forefront of this effort, though Church organizations could also claim considerable accomplishments in that direction. However, even in the domain of private schools, the Ukrainians were outdone by the Poles. At the beginning of 1914 there were 26 pri-

vate Polish grammar schools and 9 private Ukrainian grammar schools. Practically every county in Galicia sought to have a traditional private grammar school, in the hope that it would be offered state funding.

Significant changes in the structure of Ukrainian schools were announced by the Polish-Ukrainian agreement prepared in early 1914. The preparations led to numerous motions presented in the Diet by Ukrainian deputies. The highest number of motions was made on 14 February 1914, the same day an electoral compromise was reached. The motions concerned the places where Polish private or state grammar schools existed (Berezhany, Sambir, Sokal, Zhovkva) and where private Ukrainian grammar schools existed (Chortkiv, Horodenka, Yavoriv, Kopichintsy, Rohatyn, Zbarazh) or in which Ukrainian courses at the grammar school level had been introduced (Belz, Komarno, Nadvirna), as well as those places in which there was no middle school of any kind, neither Polish, nor Ukrainian. Polish newspapers referred to this day as «Ruthenian Day», because motions were presented for the creation of 19 Ukrainian middle schools [25, p. 1].

The school commission prepared a report on this issue, in which it resolved to consider taking the «exceptional» measure of giving some of them state funding. The commission did not commit to the establishment of a Ukrainian grammar school in a city where there was no Polish institution. It decided to give parallel state support to Ukrainian and Polish grammar schools in Chortkiv, Yavoriv, and Rohatyn, and in addition to three other private Polish grammar schools. It further proposed to open an affiliate of the Ukrainian grammar school in Przemyśl, but made no mention of any grammar school in Berezhany, Stryi or Drohobych, an idea to which the Polish side had tentatively agreed in talks in 1907.

Deputy Yevhen Petrushevych criticized the report of the commission, charging that the binding statute on languages of instruction of 22 June 1867 violated the Ukrainian

nation's constitutional right to «development in freedom and culture» in Galicia. A principle that had been applied by the majority in the Diet for decades, holding that Ukrainian grammar schools would be established only in towns and cities where there were already Polish grammar schools, came under heavy criticism. The principle of Polish schools' primacy over Ukrainians was virulently denounced as a harmful injustice. The creation of Polish schools was undoubtedly driven by the aspiration to meet the cultural needs of the Polish community, but the principle of not allowing a Ukrainian school to be built without the simultaneous establishment of a Polish one was based on a program developed in nationalist circles. On this particular occasion, Petrushevych was being critical of private Polish grammar schools being founded in Eastern Galician towns where the Polish population was low in number [22, p. 1259].

On the basis of one resolution in the Diet, 5 new Ukrainian grammar schools were to be established (in Chortkiv, Yavoriv, Rohatyn, Lviv II, an affiliate in Przemysl), i.e., the same number that the Ukrainians had struggled successfully to create during nearly 50 years of autonomy. However, the only real consequence of the February 1914 agreement was the renewal of the annual recognition of Ukrainians' right to public funding for Ukrainian-language schools: for the year 1913/1914, it was allotted to a dozen-odd private Ukrainian schools, mostly grammar schools and teacher training colleges (Zbarazh, Horodenka, Yavoriv, and others) [24, p. 171], which did not do much to improve the overall schooling situation, but mobilized people toward organized activism. The RSK's decree of 25 May and the Ministry of Education's decree of 10 July 1914, giving state funding to private grammar schools in Yavoriv and Rohatyn beginning with the 1914/1915 school year, was a more meaningful step, but the outbreak of World War I made its implementation impossible [23, p. 11].

During the entire Galician period, issues relating to education became a crucial part of the Polish-Ukrainian rivalry. In the final decades of the eighteenth century and the first half of the nineteenth, the government in Vienna gave its support to Ukrainian education, fostering a Ukrainian national identity and accelerating the formation of the Ukrainian political elite. The results of these actions were particularly visible in the revolutionary period of 1848–1849, when the Ukrainian language became the language of instruction on the strength of decrees by the Ministry of Education. The particularly acute struggle for influence over education in Eastern Galicia took place during the era of autonomy. The battle for cultural domination frequently obscured other essential educational values as it guided the behavior of both nations' political elites. Notwithstanding Vienna's policy of divide et impera, the Polish elite had more favorable political conditions in the second half of the nineteenth and the early twentieth century as it expanded the system of Polish education. The actions of Ukrainian politicians met during the same period with legislative obstacles that hindered them from establishing multi-year folk schools and grammar schools. As a result, the education system in the era of autonomy favored the inculcation of Polish culture, which was accomplished through the subsequently growing disproportion in the number of Polish and Ukrainian grammar schools and the composition of the bodies responsible for education administration and oversight.

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25. Kurier Lwowski. – 1914. – 23.II. – № 65. – S. 1.

Мокляк Я. ПОЛІТИЧНІ АСПЕКТИ РОЗВИТКУ УКРАЇНСЬКОГО ШКІЛЬНИЦТВА В ГАЛИЧИНІ (1772–1918).

Розвиток української освіти в Галичині 1772–1918 років можна розділити на три періоди: реформи 1770-х і 1780-х років, шкільництво в першій половині дев'ятнадцятого століття і освіта в епоху автономії. У 1787 році, за царським указом, при Львівському університеті було створено Studium Rutenum де викладалася руська (українська) мова. Під час Весни Народів як поляки так і русини робили зусилля, щоб поширити використання своїх національних мов, зокрема в середніх школах Галичини. Поляки очікували запровадження польської мови, в той час як русини намагалися запровадити українську.

У 1861 році русинам вдалося обрати значне число своїх депутатів до Сейму Галичини і Лодомерії, але до 1905 року вони досягли заснування тільки п'ятих фінансованих державою класичних гімназій, де мовою навчання була українська (у Львові, Перемишлі, Коломиї, Тернополі та Івано-Франківську [тоді Станиславів]). Коли в 1905 році було відкрито українську гімназію в Станиславові, в Сеймі було представлено нові внесення з вимогою створення додаткових українських гімназій в Бережанах та Самборі. Однак лише в 1914 році на підставі рішення Галицького Сейму формально було засновано ряд нових українських середніх шкіл (у

Збаражжі, Городенці, Яворові та ін.).

Ключові слова: шкільництво в Галичині, мова викладання, українська інтелігенція.

Мокляк Я. ПОЛИТИЧЕСКИЕ АСПЕКТЫ РАЗВИТИЯ УКРАИНСКИХ ШКОЛ В ГАЛИЧИНЕ (1772-1918). *Развитие украинского образования в Галичине 1772-1918 годов можно разделить на три периода: реформы 1770-х и 1780-х годов, школьное в первой половине девятнадцатого века и образование в эпоху автономии. В 1787 году, по цисарскому указом, при Львовском университете было создано Studium Rutenum, где преподавался русский (украинский) язык. Во время Весны Народов как поляки так и русины предпринимали усилия, чтобы распространить использование своих национальных языков, в частности в средних школах Галичины. Поляки ожидали введения польского языка, в то время как русины пытались ввести украинский.*

В 1861 году русинам удалось выбрать значительное число своих депутатов в Сейм Галиции и Лодомерии, но до 1905 года они добились основания только пяти финансируемых государством классических гимназий, где языком обучения был украинский (во Львове, Перемышле, Коломые, Тернополе и Ивано-Франковске [тогда Станиславов]). Когда в 1905 году было открыто украинскую гимназию в Станиславе, в Сейме были представлены новые внесения с требованием создания дополнительных украинских гимназий в Бережанах и Самборе. Однако только в 1914 году на основании решения Галицкого Сейма формально было основано ряд новых украинских средних школ (в Збараже, Городенке, Яворове и др.).

Ключевые слова: школы в Галичине, язык преподавания, украинская интеллигенция.