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Galician veterinarians in the second half of the 19th and early 20th centuries: a social and professional portrait

The article explores veterinarians as a professional group within the intelligentsia of late 19th and early 20th century Galicia. It highlights the increasing number of veterinary doctors, driven by the growth of animal husbandry in the region's agricultural sector, military needs of the Habsburg Empire, and rising demand for their services. Factors influencing the formation of this professional group are analyzed, including the specifics of their education, social perception, evolving stereotypes, workforce size, professional activities, and economic status, etc. The process of consolidation is also examined, evident in the establishment of a professional association.

Keywords: veterinary doctor, Veterinary Academy in Lviv, professional activities, disciplinary issues, Galicia

The spread of the industrial revolution, the modernization of social and political life in Europe in the second half of the 19th and early 20th centuries influenced the economic processes and social structuring in Galicia. The reorientation of agrarian sphere, which was dominant in Galicia, to the creation of multi-branch farms and a significant emphasis on the development of animal husbandry led to the need for qualified veterinary specialists.

In recent years, the growth of interest in the history of certain socio-professional groups of intelligentsia (teachers, lawyers, doctors, writers, journalists, artists, etc.) in scientific literature has not contributed to the deepening of interest in veterinary medicine specialists. Unfortunately, this professional group has been and continues to be understudied. Episodic references to Galician veterinarians can be found in research related to the history of veterinary education, in particular the founding and functioning of

Lviv Academy of Veterinary Medicine (LAVM),¹ the problems of consolidation of veterinarians,² as well as individual representatives of this socio-professional group.³

The purpose of the article is to find out the factors that influenced the process of formation of veterinarians as a separate professional group of intelligentsia in Galicia as well as to characterize the specifics of training veterinarians, public attitude and stereotypes formed around the profession, specifics of professional activity, financial situation, etc. and using the example of disciplinary cases, to compare how the working conditions of representatives of this professional group were correlated with responsibility for miscalculations during their work.

In the second half of the 19th century one of the factors that led to the increase in demand for veterinarians was the intensification of armed conflict in the world, hence the increase in the size of the Austro-Hungarian army, the basis of which was cavalry. Thus, in peacetime, military needs for horses amounted to more than 49.5 thousand heads and during the war – 174 thousand. In total, the number of horse livestock in the Habsburg Empire was 3.8 million horses and according to these indicators, it surpassed such states as Great Britain, France, Canada, etc.⁴ Therefore, quite quickly there was an urgent need for specialists in the field of maintenance and rehabilitation of animals.

Despite the growing demand for veterinary specialists, neither the government nor the regional administration paid due attention to their training. The history of veterinary studies in Galicia dates back to 1784, when a school of surgeons and obstetricians functioned at the medical faculty of Lviv University, where students

¹ В. Благий, *Львівська Академія Ветеринарної Медицини в 1897–1914 рр.: історія становлення*, Львів 2001; М.Ф. Падура, *Заснування цісарсько-королівської ветеринарної школи у Львові*, „Науковий вісник Львівського національного університету ветеринарної медицини та біотехнологій ім. Ґжицького” 2011, т. 13, no 4 (2), p. 316–331; J. Judek, *Historia szkolnictwa weterynaryjnego w Polsce do roku 1939*, „Życie Weterynaryjne” 2021, t. 96, nr. 5, p. 351–362; A. Perenc, *Historia lecznictwa zwierząt w Polsce*, Toruń 1936; S.-T. Sroka, *Nauki weterynaryjne we Lwowie do roku 1945*, Rzeszów 1999; Z. Wróblewski, A. Gamota, A. Vyniarska, T. Górski, *140 rocznica otwarcia szkoły weterynaryjnej we Lwowie*, „Życie Weterynaryjne” 2021, t. 96, no 11, p. 782–789; A. Dzikowski, *Political and scientific support for the establishment of the Veterinary School in Lwów*, „Culture – Society – Education” 2020, no 1(17), p. 117–126; A. Chrószcz, M. Janeczek, *Weterynaria na ziemiach polskich* [in:] *Historia weterynarii i deontologia*, ed. M. Janeczek, A. Chrószcz, T. Ożóg, N. Pospieszny, Warszawa 2012, p. 199–318.

² A. Bujko, S. Baran, „Przegląd Weterynaryjny” jako forma konsolidacji polskiego środowiska weterynaryjnego we Lwowie. Nie tylko o weterynarii, „Echa Przeszłości” 2019, vol. XX, no 2, p. 233–247.

³ K. Millak, *Polacy w nauce i służbie weterynaryjnej u obcych*, „Kwartalnik Historii Nauki i Techniki” 1957, vol. 2, no. 2, p. 293–328.

⁴ *Ilość koni potrzebnych dla armii ... [Wiadomości policyjno-weterynaryjne i statystyczne]*, „Przegląd Weterynaryjny” 1887, no 5, p. 108.

studied the basics of veterinary medicine. However, such studies did not exist for a long time: due to the lack of students and changes at the faculty, classes on the treatment of animals were stopped at the beginning of the 19th century.⁵ Until the beginning of the 1880s, there was no professional school for veterinarians in Galicia. And the two primary institutions that operated in the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the Imperial Royal Military Veterinary Institute in Vienna and the Royal Veterinary School (later the Academy) in Budapest, could not satisfy the need for specialized specialists in the region.⁶ This was caused, first of all, by the significant cost of education outside of Galicia, often unaffordable for people from poor families. Thus, in 1888 out of 11 veterinarians, whose work was paid for by communities, only 1 had a diploma of graduation from the Imperial Royal Military Veterinary Institute in Vienna.⁷ Normatively, there were no clear requirements for practicing veterinarians, except for completing veterinary courses and having a certificate of passing a mandatory qualification exam.

In Galicia examinations for the position of state veterinarian began in 1874. This was one of the stages of establishing regional health service.⁸ By order of the Minister of Internal Affairs dated August 3, 1874, an examination board was established for doctors and veterinarians who wanted to obtain a permanent position in the health service. It is worth noting that the exams took place at clearly defined times, for doctors – in Krakow and for veterinarians – in Lviv.⁹

The basic education of animal treatment specialists was also very varied. In the 1880s, it was limited to the senior classes of the gymnasium (incomplete education), graduation from a lower or higher real school.¹⁰

The growing need for highly qualified personnel led to the reform of veterinary education in Galicia. Back in 1871, the Diet of Galicia decided to open

⁵ L. Finkel, S. Starzyński, *Historia Uniwersytetu Lwowskiego*, Lwów 1894, p. 103–104.

⁶ H. Kadyj, *Rozwój i działalność c.k. Szkoły weterynaryi we Lwowie od jej założenia w r. 1881 aż do końca roku szkolnego 1893/4*, Lwów 1895, p. 1.

⁷ *Wiadomości statystyczne o stosunkach krajowych*, ed. T. Pilat, Lwów 1888, vol. XI, issue I, p. 31.

⁸ The health service was a service that provided medical and sanitary supervision in the districts of Galicia. It was founded and operated on the basis of the «Statute on the Organization of Public and Sanitary Health Services» dated from April 30, 1870. County services were subordinated to the Regional Council of Health in the city of Lviv (1871–1918). Its competence included issues of struggling against infectious diseases, building of medical institutions, compliance with sanitary instructions regarding the opening of cemeteries and burial of the dead, issuing permits for the opening of establishments for the manufacture of industrial and food products.

⁹ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1880*, Lwów 1880, p. 239; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1885*, Lwów 1885, p. 438.

¹⁰ *Wiadomości statystyczne ...*, p. 5, 10, 14, 19, 23, 29, 33.

a veterinary school in Lviv with the Polish language of teaching.¹¹ It was supposed to start training specialists from the 1875–1876 academic year. However, the unresolved nature of some organizational issues delayed the opening of the educational institution. In the following years, discussions about the nature of the future school (higher or secondary professional), the number of departments, volumes and sources of funding (regional or state budget) continued in the Diet.¹² At the same time, there was some skepticism from Vienna, in particular from the Minister of Religion and Education, Karl von Stremayr, about the feasibility of allocating funds to the school. The main concerns were related to the lack of applicants. However, thanks to the persistence and determination of some Galician politicians, it was possible to implement the decision to create an educational institution for the training of veterinarians in Vienna. On December 27, 1880, Emperor Franz Joseph I established the Veterinary School in Lviv by his decree, which officially began functioning on October 1, 1881.¹³ A blacksmith school and a veterinary clinic were also opened at the educational institution.

People aged 17 to 26 who have completed at least the 6th grade of a gymnasium or a real school, were accepted to study at the Veterinary School, provided they successfully pass the entrance exams (in Polish, German, chemistry, natural science, geography, history and mathematics). Students, who completed the 6th grade of secondary school with good grades were enrolled without exams. The training included theoretical and practical courses and lasted for 3 years. For certified doctors who wanted to retrain, a shortened course of study was provided – 2 years (4 semesters).¹⁴ Pupils studied various disciplines, in particular, animal feeding, anatomy taking into account topographical and surgical anatomy, general pathology and pathological anatomy, physiology with histological exercises, veterinary surgery, animal obstetrics, forensic veterinary medicine, etc. Practical classes in chemistry, anatomy and in the forge were mandatory.¹⁵ The training ended with qualifying exams for obtaining a veterinary doctor's diploma: theoretical and practical ones. In particular, during the practical exam graduates had to demonstrate surgical intervention on an animal

¹¹ A. Chrószcz, M. Janeczek, *Weterynaria na ziemiach polskich...*, p. 263.

¹² P. Seifmann, *Dzieje założenia Szkoły Weterynaryi we Lwowie*, Lwów 1886, p. 5–11.

¹³ A. Dzikowski, *Political and scientific support...*, p. 120–123.

¹⁴ P. Seifman, *Zdanie sprawy o Szkole weterynaryi we Lwowie za pięcioletni okres jej istnienia od roku szkolnego 1881/2 do 1885/6 włącznie z podaniem wiadomości dotyczących rokowań o założeniu tego zakładu*, Lwów 1886, p. 18; М.Ф. Падура, *Заснування цісарсько-королівської...*, p. 323.

¹⁵ P. Seifman, *Zdanie sprawy o...*, p. 18–22; H. Kadyj, *Rozwój i działalność...*, p. 14–16.

(living or dead). The exam was quite expensive – 57 golden ryn.¹⁶ However, the diploma issued by the Veterinary School in Lviv gave its graduates the right to work in any crown region of the Empire.¹⁷

Despite the need for such a school, its operation was accompanied by a lack of funding and qualified teachers. This affected the sanitary and hygienic conditions of study, which deterred rather than attracted entrants. As Volodymyr Kulchytskyi,¹⁸ one of the school graduates mentioned, practical classes took place in cramped, unsuitable premises. For example, only one room was designated for classes in histology and pathology. This led to an excessive concentration of carbon disulfide, which affected the well-being of students. In summer pathology classes sometimes took place in the yard next to the office wall. And the lack of water supply and electric lighting contributed to the spread of rats, especially in the doctor's office.¹⁹ Also, at the beginning of the school's existence, there was a lack of qualified personnel. Some positions, including assistants and support staff, were held by senior students or those who had just passed the vet exam. For example, during his studies at the Veterinary School, Eusebius Nestayko simultaneously worked first as a temporary (intern) (from January 1, 1884), and later as a permanent assistant (from October 1, 1885) with an annual salary of 500 golden ryn. In addition to him, two more veterinarians – Nartsys Sikorskyi and Ludvik Timotievych – held assistant positions as well.²⁰

Financial problems and the difficulty of education affected the number of students of the Veterinary School, which tended to decrease. So, in the first year,

¹⁶ Golden Rhine (golden ryn.) was the semi-official name of monetary units in Austria-Hungary. Since 1857, guildens (guilder florins) were in circulation in the Austrian Empire, which were divided into 100 kreutzers. The golden Rhine was used as a synonym for the gulden. In 1892, Austria-Hungary carried out a monetary reform, as a result of which crown was introduced into circulation. The ratio between the old and the new currency was as follows: 1 gulden = 2 crowns, 1 kreuzer = 2 hellers. The gulden was in circulation alongside the crown until 1899.

¹⁷ P. Seifman, *Zdanie sprawy o ...*, p. 23, 25.

¹⁸ Volodymyr Kulchytskyi (1862–1936) – veterinarian, zoologist, professor and rector of the Veterinary Academy in Lviv. He was born in Przemyśl in a noble Ukrainian family of the Sas coat of arms. He studied at Kolomyia Gymnasium. He received his higher natural studies education in Vienna and Lviv. Doctor of Philosophy in Chemistry (1887). Subsequently, he studied at the Veterinary School in Lviv. He worked as an assistant at the Department of Domestic Animals, and simultaneously as a railway and city veterinarian (1891–1905). From 1894 he taught parasitology at the Veterinary School. Since 1906, he has been a regular professor of descriptive anatomy, histology and embryology at Lviv Academy of Veterinary Medicine. Rector of the Academy (1917–1919). He retired in 1934.

¹⁹ W. Kulczycki, *Wspomnienia z pierwszych lat Lwowskiej Uczelni Weterynaryjnej. Odczyt wygłoszony dnia 5 czerwca 1932 z okazji 50 letniego jubileuszu Akademji Medycyny Weterynaryjnej we Lwowie*. Lwów 1932, p. 6–7.

²⁰ P. Seifman, *Zdanie sprawy o ...*, p. 52.

as many as 92 applicants entered the educational institution. However, for various reasons, 42 dropped out during the year. Only 62% of students (31 out of 50) were transferred in the second year due to unsatisfactory grades. Subsequently, the recruitment situation worsened. In 1882/1883 69 students studied at the school, in 1883/1884 – 63, 1884/1885 – 34 and in 1885/1886 – as many as 26.²¹

Intensification of state requirements in the field of veterinary supervision, as well as an increase in the share of animal husbandry in agriculture, soon necessitated the reorganization of the veterinary school. By order of the Emperor of December 31, 1896 since 1897/1898 it was transformed into a higher educational institution – Lviv Academy of Veterinary Medicine. It became the second higher school of its kind in the Austro-Hungarian Empire, after Vienna Academy of Veterinary Medicine.²² But the conditions of study, especially the condition of classrooms and laboratories did not correspond to this status at all. It is worth noting that sewerage, water supply and kerosene lighting appeared in the Academy in 1904–1908 and electrification – only in 1924.²³

The status of the Academy led to changes in the educational process, in particular, the practical training of students deepened. Practical classes took place not only in classrooms and clinics. At the beginning of the 20th century educational and scientific excursions became an integral element of veterinarians training. They were organized for students of 3–4 year in order to visualize various aspects of future professional activity. As a rule, young people visited various livestock exhibitions, markets, stockyards, breeding farms, studied the peculiarities of feeding of domestic animals, the work of the state veterinary service, etc. For example, in February 1907, students went to the city of Busk, where they inspected Simmental cows.²⁴ Sometimes, during the outbreak of an epidemic, they went to its epicenter to practise inspecting sick animals and familiarize themselves with the organization of sanitary and police restrictions.²⁵

Graduates of the Veterinary Academy were allowed to practice independently after obtaining a veterinary doctor's diploma. At the end of the 19th century it was given after successful completion of three *rigorosa*.²⁶ Their organization resembled the exams for the title of “Doctor of Medical Sciences”. The exams

²¹ *Ibidem*, p. 61–63.

²² В. Благий, *Структура та викладацький склад вищих шкіл Львова на початку ХХ ст.*, „Вісник Львівського університету. Серія історична” 2000, issue 35–36, p. 212.

²³ W. Kulczycki, *Wspomnienia z pierwszych lat...*, p. 6–7.

²⁴ State archive of Lviv region (hereafter SALR), f. 46 Academy of Veterinary Medicine in Lviv, des. 1, ang. 51, 3.

²⁵ *Ibidem*, ang. 51, 1–2, 4–5, 8–8, 11.

²⁶ *Rigorosa* are final paid public exams in the higher schools of Austria-Hungary, which were a mandatory condition for obtaining a doctoral degree. In some educational institutions, it was allowed to take the first *rigorosum* after the end of the 4th semester.

were held in public and consisted of theoretical and practical parts. At each of the exams, candidates demonstrated their knowledge of a certain group of disciplines. During the first rigorosum they were examined on the following subjects: animal husbandry; anatomy, histology and embryology; physiology; pharmacology, toxicology and formulation; during the second one – on general pathology, pathological zootomy together with bacteriology; special pathology, therapy of internal diseases and epizootology. The subjects of the third exam were: surgery with ophthalmology and the science of operations, obstetrics, and the science of shoeing. In order to receive the degree of veterinary doctor, it was necessary to pass all the exams with at least “sufficient” level. In case of a negative result, it was allowed to retake the exams.²⁷

It should be noted that the functioning of the Veterinary Academy did not solve the problem of the lack of qualified personnel in the field of animal husbandry. The number of students at the educational institution and therefore the number of potential veterinarians, was small. This was caused by the unpopularity of the profession in society. The public opinion of the region was quite stereotypical towards the profession of a veterinarian. It was considered as lower “status” compared to a profession of a doctor, lawyer, public or private government official. This was vividly illustrated in the memoirs of Stepan Shukhevych, a well-known Galician lawyer and public figure. Reflecting on the (non)prestige of specialists, he compared the Veterinary Academy to a cadet school and a teacher’s seminary, which were not higher educational institutions at all. As well as the attitude of the general public towards the veterinary profession was somewhat inferior: “You could hear about veterinarians again: – What? Does my child have to look under the mare’s tail? No, that won’t happen!”²⁸ The choice of the Veterinary Academy as a place of study immediately branded the applicant / student as an unsuccessful, a jackass, someone who could not get an education in other, more prestigious schools, and this was a real shame for the family. In general, in Galician society there was an opinion that only those who did not study well in gymnasium and could not pass the matriculation exam entered this educational institution.²⁹ This was indirectly confirmed even by the conditions of admission – graduates of gymnasiums or real schools without matriculation were admitted to the Academy. The unpopularity of the veterinary profession was also illustrated by the statistics of the students of the Veterinary School, and later the students of the Academy. For example, the annual number of applicants to the

²⁷ SALR, f. 46, des. 1, ang. 29, 4–5.

²⁸ С. Шухевич, *Моє життя: Спогади*, Лондон 1991, р. 138.

²⁹ Matriculation exam or matura – a final exam in Galician secondary educational institutions (gymnasiums and real schools), which gave the opportunity to continue studying in higher education.

first during its existence (1881–1894) ranged from 10 to 59 people. At the same time, the number of high school graduates among them was on average 11.8%.³⁰

This trend continued in the Academy. An average of 30 graduates completed their studies annually. However, not everyone obtained a veterinary doctor's diploma (who successfully passed the qualifying exam). This is evidenced by the following data: out of 774 graduates of the Veterinary School and Academy in the period 1881–1906, only 294 (38%) received a veterinary doctor's diploma.³¹ The situation with veterinary personnel did not improve even before the outbreak of the First World War. During the 20 years of the Academy's functioning (1898–1918), 332 students graduated from it, only 17 received the degree of doctor of veterinary sciences.³²

One of the reasons for the lack of qualified veterinary personnel was the difficulty of training, the need to master a significant number of disciplines that were indirectly related to future activities. In 1900 the Ministry of Religion and Education tried to eliminate some shortcomings in the training of veterinary doctors. The changes concerned both the organization of the educational process and the procedure for passing final exams (*rigorosa*). In particular, entrance exams in natural sciences were canceled and attention to practical training was drawn during the studying process. The number of compulsory subjects and exams on them also decreased. Thus, zoology, botany and mineralogy disappeared from this list. Chemistry, pathological histology, psychiatry, neuropathology, pediatrics, dermatology, syphilidology, dentistry, otiatrics, and smallpox vaccination became mandatory for all students. The biggest changes concerned final exams. Firstly, their number was reduced from 6 to 3. Secondly, two-stage exams with a time gap between them were eliminated, instead a synthetic theoretical-practical exam was introduced. In general, the training of veterinarians consisted of two stages. During the first one, preparatory, which ended with a comprehensive exam, students studied 6 subjects (theoretical physics, biology, theoretical and practical chemistry, anatomy, physiology and hygiene). The second period covered the study of the actual medical sciences, which were the subject of II and III *rigorosa*. During the II exam, students had to demonstrate theoretical knowledge of pharmacology and hygiene, theoretical and practical knowledge of pathological anatomy and pathological histology. The III exam was the most difficult, consisting of the following subjects: internal medicine, surgery, obstetrics, ophthalmology, psychiatry and neuropathology,

³⁰ H. Kadyj, *Rozwój i działalność ...*, p. 92.

³¹ *Ibidem*, p. 92; „Діло” 1907, issue 153, p. 3.

³² J. Judek, *Historia szkolnictwa weterynaryjnego ...*, p. 360.

pediatrics, dermatology and syphilidology, forensic medicine.³³ In 1912 the academy approved a new curriculum.³⁴ At the same time the procedure for taking state exams was reorganized. The changes related to the chronology and content of the exams. The first could be taken at the end of the second or the beginning of the third semester. Candidates were admitted to the second exam only after mandatory two-year practical training. The veterinary training of specialists was extended: the general medical profile subjects (psychiatry and neuropathology, pediatrics, dermatology and syphilidology) disappeared from the list of examination subjects, instead highly specialized subjects like embryology, bacteriology, milk and meat hygiene, buiatrics (the science of propagation, pathogenesis, diagnosis) treatment and prevention of diseases of cattle and other ruminants) appeared.³⁵

The career of a veterinarian could develop in three directions: as a military specialist, state or private (freely practicing) employee.³⁶ Representatives of the first category were in military service, their educational level was limited to special courses and practical experience or Vienna Veterinary Institute. After service and retirement, some military vets graduated from Veterinary School/Academy, continued in private practice or entered government service. Sometimes it was a combination of both. For example, in 1888, out of 11 Galician communities that held the position of specialist in the treatment of animals, former military veterinarians worked in 4.³⁷ Those who practiced privately usually served large livestock farms or provided on-demand services. The size of their salary depended on demand. Most of the veterinarians were in the civil service, and their positions belonged to the VIII–XI rank officials.³⁸ The status of a civil servant guaranteed them a fixed salary (albeit a small one), as well as a state pension. The position of this category of specialists depended on the position (county, city veterinarian or veterinarian in a specific community) and funding. The salary of the first and second group was somewhat higher (especially in larger cities, such as Ternopil, Stanislaviv, Przemyśl, etc.) and of

³³ *Reorganizacja studiów i egzaminów lekarskich [Wiadomości bieżące]*, „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1900, no 2, p. 60–61.

³⁴ A. Chrószcz, M. Janeczek, *Weterynaria na ziemiach polskich...*, p. 270–271.

³⁵ SALR, f. 46, des. 1, ang. 74, 1–10.

³⁶ *Weterynarze wolnopraktykujący [Wiadomości bieżące]*, „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1900, no 4, p. 137.

³⁷ *Wiadomości statystyczne...*, p. 14, 19, 21, 35.

³⁸ Thus, the positions of regional veterinarians belonged to the VIII rank (in 1900 in the Austrian part of the empire there were only 16 of them), to the IX – veterinary inspectors (9 people), to the X – veterinary draftsmen (13), to the XI – district veterinarians (347). In total, in 1900, there were 385 veterinarians in Austria. *Liczba weterynarzy rządowych w Austrii [Wiadomości bieżące]*, „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1900, no 4, p. 139.

the third group was lower. The salary of veterinarians, whose positions were on the balance sheet of the community, depended on the size of its budget. For example, in 1888 it ranged from 150 golden ryn (in Zhovkva) up to 250 (in Kolomyia), 300 (in Snyatin and Sokal), 400 (in Drohobych and Tarnuv).³⁹ Until the beginning of the 20th century the situation in this area has not improved at all. So, in 1900 the city council of Novy Targ announced a competition to fill the vacant position of city veterinarian with an annual salary of 1,000 crowns.⁴⁰ The Galician governor personally appointed and transferred district veterinarians from one area to another. The approval of representatives of this profession in higher positions, in particular, of the provisional inspector for veterinary affairs at the Galicia Governorate, was carried out by the Minister of Internal Affairs.

The activities of veterinarians were regulated by the job description, as well as the “Statute on the Organization of Public and Sanitary Health Services” dated from April 30, 1870.⁴¹ The position of a veterinarian covered a wide range of duties: conducting a veterinary and sanitary inspection in a community or county, studying the epizootic situation, in particular at fairs, bazaars, during the slaughter of animals, especially at urban and spontaneous slaughterhouses, the issue of import / export of animals and livestock products, the struggle against epidemics of foot-and-mouth disease, tuberculosis, plague, etc. The lack of appropriate educational training and the unpopularity of the profession led to a shortage of veterinary personnel, often due to their low qualification level. This was reflected in the quality of the performance of professional duties. To the negative aspects of the veterinarian’s work, it is worth adding the large territorial districts that had to be served, the struggle against constant animal epidemics in Galicia, the population’s non-compliance with quarantine measures, fraud by animal owners, etc. Mistakes in professional activity that became the subject of disciplinary investigation were also common. Such investigations were conducted by the Vice-Chancellor (a specially created commission) and ended, as a rule, with reprimands or the transfer of the veterinarian to another area.

A number of disciplinary cases from the end of the 19th century, stored in the Central State Historical Archive in Lviv, vividly illustrate all aspects of the work of a Galician veterinarian. The first is about the official negligence of Ivan Pavlykevych (approx. 1850–1894). Unfortunately, there is very little information about the life and professional activity of this veterinarian. The son of a soldier, he spent his childhood and youth in Germany. He also received his education and

³⁹ *Wiadomości statystyczne...*, p. 10, 14, 23, 31, 35.

⁴⁰ *Konkurs*, „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1900, no 11, p. 351.

⁴¹ Central State Historical Archive of Ukraine in Lviv (thereafter: CSHAUL), f. 146 Galician Vicegerency, Lviv, des. 11, ang. 254, 3.

qualification as a veterinarian there. After graduation I. Pavlykevych returned to Galicia. At first he worked as a veterinarian in Yaroslav (now Subcarpathian Voivodeship, Republic of Poland).⁴² As early as 1870 he appeared in documents as a health service worker in Brody District.⁴³ Obviously, I. Pavlykevych's high educational and qualification level played a significant role in his appointment as a district veterinarian in Brody in 1873.⁴⁴ He held this position until 1876.⁴⁵ It is worth noting that he had to perform a significant amount of work and face certain difficulties, because in terms of territory – Brody District was one of the largest (it covered 3,238 square miles, in which 110 gminas (communities) were located). The reason for the disciplinary proceedings was an incident that happened in July 1875 in Penyaky village. Due to the of cases of anthrax in livestock in the filvark farm, the eldership delegated a veterinarian to study the situation and take all necessary quarantine and treatment measures to prevent the spread of the infection and stop the epidemic. However, after I. Pavlykevich visited the village on July 23, within a few hours, 33 heads of cattle, completely healthy before that, suddenly died. The next day, the same fate befell another cow. This episode immediately became the reason for a disciplinary investigation, which was conducted by Brody mayor and a special commission of the Galician viceroyalty. The investigation lasted until the beginning of October 1785. At first, the veterinarian was accused of the fact that the cause of the plague of animals was their consumption of an aqueous solution of saltpeter, prepared on his prescription. However, a detailed investigation and interview of witnesses formally confirmed the innocence of I. Pavlykevych. It turned out that the livestock ate freshly cut grass and died due to the negligence of the yard shepherd Stefan Kotyk, who violating the veterinarian's instructions, used a much larger dose of saltpeter to feed the sick animals. The same version was confirmed by regional veterinarian Joseph Werner. It is worth noting that, despite different opinions of the commission members (some did not see the veterinarian's fault in the events at all and believed that there were no grounds for an investigation), I. Pavlykevych was found guilty of neglect of official duties, violation of the service manual, "Statute on the organization of public and sanitary service of health" dated from April 30, 1870 and other regulatory documents. The main argument for the accusation was the testimony

⁴² Павликевичъ Иванъ ... [Посмертніу оповѣстки], „Дѣло” 1894, issue 7, p. 2; Павликевичъ Иванъ ... [Посмертныи вѣсти], „Галичанинъ” 1894, issue 9, p. 3.

⁴³ *Szematyzm królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z wielk. księstwem krakowskiem na rok 1870*, Lwów 1870, p. 493.

⁴⁴ *Szematyzm królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z wielkiem księstwem krakowskiem na rok 1873*, Lwów 1873, p. 16.

⁴⁵ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1876*, Lwów 1876, p. 15, 488.

of the veterinarian himself that he only gave instructions without detailing them, did not personally monitor the treatment of animals, but entrusted it to the yard service. The disciplinary commission issued a reprimand to I. Pavlykevych with a warning of harsher punishment in case of repeated violations.⁴⁶

After this episode, I. Pavlykevych still continued to hold the post of Brody district veterinarian for some time. In 1877, he was transferred to Zbarazh, where he worked until the beginning of the 1880s.⁴⁷ Unfortunately, it was not possible to determine the exact date of the place of transfer. It was only known that in 1885, I. Pavlykevych was already working in Berezhanskyi District, in Kozliv (now a town-type village of Kozliv, Koziv District, Ternopil Oblast), later – in the city of Turka.⁴⁸ Since 1891, he held the post of district veterinarian in Stanislaviv.⁴⁹ He died prematurely, on January 21, 1894, in Stanislaviv at the age of 44.⁵⁰

The second disciplinary case was related to official negligence of a veterinarian from Krosno, Peter Pavlykevych. The reasons for his accusation were three episodes. The first one – on September 29, 1889 plague was discovered in the town of Biała at the railway station during an inspection of a herd of pigs. It turned out that the pigs were on their way from Krosno, where veterinarian P. Pavlykevych certified that they were healthy on September 27. The second episode happened on September 28. The veterinarian allowed the transportation of 84 pigs to Prague. When the animals arrived at their destination, 46 were already sick with plague. The third episode took place on November 16, 1889, when P. Pavlykevych allowed the transportation of 46 oxen from the city of Jaslo, which was under quarantine at that time. The sanitary inspector inspecting the activities of the veterinarian also discovered 4.5 tons of meat loaded into the wagon at the railway station without any permits. During the investigation, as an excuse, P. Pavlykevych noted that in the first case, while examining the pigs, he did not notice any signs of the disease. He also emphasized that the incubation period of the disease was from 3 to 6 days. In the second case, P. Pavlykevych motivated his decision to grant permission by the fact that no

⁴⁶ CS SHAUL, f. 146, des. 11, ang. 254, 3–4, 6–10.

⁴⁷ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1877*, Lwów 1877, p. 41, 470; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1880*, Lwów 1880, p. 37, 459.

⁴⁸ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1885*, Lwów 1885, p. 440, 449; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1890*, Lwów 1890, p. 521.

⁴⁹ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1891*, Lwów, 1891, p. 33, 521; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1893*, Lwów, 1893, p. 33.

⁵⁰ Павликевичъ Иванъ ... [Посмертні оповѣстки], „Дѣло” 1894, issue 7, p. 2.

quarantine was announced in Krosno and the animals fell ill in only one farm on the outskirts of the city. According to the third episode, the veterinarian noted that he examined the oxen at night on November 15. Having found no signs of illness, the next day he informed the eldership about the possibility of transporting them. During the investigation of the first case, the disciplinary commission found P. Pavlykevych guilty and issued him a severe reprimand. The investigation of the other two episodes caused considerable confusion with the regulations and procedure for the implementation of the quarantine related to the epidemic of domestic animals. Despite this, the responsibility was still placed on the veterinarian. Since P. Pavlykevych already had one disciplinary penalty, the commission, by its decision of March 30, 1890, found him guilty of official negligence and punished him with a transfer at his own expense to another area.⁵¹ It is worth noting that P. Pavlykevych could appeal this decision to the Ministry of Internal Affairs within 14 days.⁵² There was no evidence about his using this possibility. However, already in 1890, P. Pavlykevych worked as a district veterinarian in Turka.⁵³ Subsequently, he changed his place of work several more times. From 1895 to 1900 he was a veterinarian in Krakow,⁵⁴ in 1901 in Brody,⁵⁵ in 1902 in Grybów⁵⁶ and since 1903 in Horodok.⁵⁷ Before the outbreak of the First World War (in 1911–1914) P. Pavlykevich worked in the city of Głębikowa.⁵⁸

The negative aspects of the veterinarian's work are illustrated by two more disciplinary cases in which the accused was Eusebius Nestayko. He combined teaching at the Veterinary School in Lviv (as an assistant) with the duties of

⁵¹ Transfer at one's own expense was one of the forms of material "punishment": it meant that the state did not reimburse the costs associated with moving to a new place of work, everything was paid exclusively by the veterinarian himself.

⁵² CSHAUL, f. 146, des. 11, ang. 257, 2–12.

⁵³ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1890*, Lwów 1890, p. 521.

⁵⁴ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1895*, Lwów 1895, p. 521; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1900*, Lwów 1900, p. 636.

⁵⁵ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1901*, Lwów 1901, p. 636.

⁵⁶ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1902*, Lwów 1902, p. 704.

⁵⁷ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1903*, Lwów 1903, p. 704; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1905*, Lwów 1905, p. 764; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1910*, Lwów 1910, p. 842.

⁵⁸ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1911*, Lwów 1911, p. 917; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1914*, Lwów 1914, p. 952.

a district veterinarian in Melets (now Podkarpackie Voivodeship, Republic of Poland). The reason for the first disciplinary investigation was the events of February-March 1888 in the village of Hohenbach (Hohenbach, Polish: Czermin, now a village in the Čermin commune of Melecki County, Podkarpackie Voivodeship). Local settler Henryk Stamm appealed to the eldership to send a commission to investigate the incident with the local veterinarian regarding the epidemic of glanders⁵⁹ in horses. In H. Stamm's complaint it was noted that E. Nestayko, during the spread of the disease in the village, allegedly issued health certificates to 6 of his horses with suspicion of infection. On the basis of this document the horses were sold in Krakow.

In general, the case turned out to be extremely confusing. During the investigation, the fraud of the animals owner and his son and their desire to avoid responsibility were revealed. As early as February 1888, H. Stamm sold 5 horses to Ulans from Dembitsa. One animal soon became ill and was killed. In response to this, the eldership appointed E. Nestayko to inspect H. Stamm's horses. The veterinarian found 8 sick animals that were kept in 3 different stables. According to his instructions the stables were disinfected and the animals were placed in quarantine for two months. However, the owner concealed information about the horses that were in the same stable with the "patients", and later some of them were sold at the fair. Those who remained (6) were transferred to another stable. At the same time, H. Stamm informed the veterinarian that he allegedly bought the animals from sellers from Russia. E. Nestayko, after examining the horses, confirmed the absence of infection in them. During the investigation, the fraud of the owner of the animals and his attempt to transfer the responsibility for the violation of sanitary regulations to the veterinarian were revealed. Thanks to the reasoned excuses of E. Nestayko, the disciplinary commission was unable to prove the fact of abuse of power. However, it still accused him of negligence in the performance of his duties. Most of all, the veterinarian was criticized for the fact that he believed the owner of the animals, did not check their origin and certified that they did not have an infection. In the end, the disciplinary commission, by its decision of August 6, 1888, issued a severe reprimand to E. Nestayko.⁶⁰

The next investigation against the veterinarian was started in 1890. He was accused of falsely diagnosing animals in his own interest. During the pig plague epidemic in Meletsk County, E. Nestayko ascertained the spread of animal

⁵⁹ Glanders (in Latin: malleus) – an infectious disease in animals and humans of a zoonotic nature with a contact mechanism of infection transmission, which is manifested by fever, the formation of ulcers, numerous abscesses in various tissues and organs. The source of infection are sick horses, mules, donkeys, camels.

⁶⁰ CSHAUL, f. 146, des. 11, ang. 225, 22–36.

disease in three villages. However, a few days after re-inspecting the pigs, he recorded only two cases of infection in one shed.⁶¹ At the same time, the animals were examined by a veterinarian from Krakow, who did not notice any signs of illness in them. Such ambiguity of conclusions prompted the eldership to turn for help to the regional veterinarian. He examined the animals on May 19 (11 days after E. Nestayko did) and confirmed that the animals were healthy. In the course of further investigation, it became clear that the district veterinarian abused his authority for selfish purposes – he ordered not to issue health certificates to animals without his personal examination. Sometimes such visits cost the owners of animals significant sums, even 100 golden ryn.⁶² The testimony of Szymon Aszhein, who used the services of E. Nestayko in 1888, was added to the case. He noted that the veterinarian often prevented owners from selling their cattle. In order not to use the services of E. Nestayko in the future, he sold animals one by one (this did not require a health certificate).⁶³ The fact that the veterinarian received an inflated fee for his services was also confirmed by the eldership in the city of Melets.⁶⁴ Despite E. Nestayko's appeal to the Ministry of Internal Affairs, the disciplinary commission recognized the fact that he had exceeded his official duties.⁶⁵

The considered cases were a vivid testimony of the negative aspects of the work of state veterinarians in Galicia. Despite the complexity of the profession, the significant amount of duties that a veterinarian had to perform, any miscalculation, actions that did not comply with the job description, conflicts with the owners of animals became a reason for disciplinary investigation. And the low salary sometimes even gave rise to cases of corruption and abuse of official duties among state veterinarians.

The development of animal husbandry in Galicia at the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th centuries influenced the growth of demand for specialists in the veterinary industry. For 40 years, from 1874⁶⁶ to 1914, the number of specialists in the treatment of animals in the region increased more than 16 times (Table 1). In order to prevent the outflow of veterinarians, the authorities did not pay attention to their combination of public service and private practice/teaching

⁶¹ Later, all the pigs from this stable were killed to prevent the spread of the disease. CSHAUL, f. 146, des. 11, ang. 235, 7–23.

⁶² CSHAUL, f. 146, des. 11, ang. 235, 61.

⁶³ *Ibidem*, ang. 235, 43.

⁶⁴ *Ibidem*, ang. 235, 26–27.

⁶⁵ *Ibidem*, ang. 235, 62–65.

⁶⁶ In the article, 1874 is used as the starting date. This year the examination commission for veterinarians in Galicia was established. That prompted the state to carry out a statistical record of veterinarians. Unfortunately, it was not possible to find information about the number of representatives of this professional group in the region for the previous period.

activity. Even disciplinary sanctions against veterinarians were not harsh: they were limited to a strict reprimand or transfer to another area for a similar position.⁶⁷ The board of the Veterinary School in Lviv, and later the Academy, was just as loyal. Statistics show that low academic performance was not a reason for expulsion. Most students repeated their studies in the first and even second years. Thus, according to the calculations of Heinrich Kadyi, more than 24% of students of the Veterinary School had to once again master the program of the first year of study.⁶⁸ According to statistical data, for the entire period of existence of this educational institution, only 119 graduates (23.8%) received a veterinary doctor's diploma, and as many as 218 (47.6%) people stopped their studies after the first year.⁶⁹ A similar trend was observed later in Lviv Veterinary Academy. In total during the 25 years of existence of the Veterinary School and Academy 774 students studied in these institutions, but only 294 people (38%) obtained a diploma of a veterinary doctor.⁷⁰ Under such circumstances, the authorities tried in every possible way to increase the number of veterinarians, subsidizing the functioning of the Academy and providing scholarships for students. They even encouraged doctors to retrain to become veterinarians. In particular, in 1901, the Ministry of Religion and Education awarded three-year scholarships in the amount of 1,600 crowns for those doctors who will study veterinary medicine in one of the specialized higher schools of Austria-Hungary.⁷¹

Among integral elements of the socio-professional portrait of veterinarians were their ethno-national and religious characteristics. However, Austro-Hungarian official statistics were extremely sparse on such information. Unlike lawyers, doctors, teachers or artists, veterinarians were not considered as a separate professional group at all. In statistical reports, they were equated to midwives in the category "Sanitary service". We can judge the ethno-national affiliation and religious beliefs of veterinarians by the quantitative characteristics

⁶⁷ At the same time, it should be noted that the punishments for disciplinary violations for specialists in other fields related to intellectual activity, for example, school teachers or teachers of gymnasiums, judges, notaries, were much more severe – from transfer to a lower position to deprivation of the right to work in a specific field in general. More about this: Н. Мисак, *Українські народні вчителі та вчительки в Галичині наприкінці XIX – на початку XX століття: професіонали, громадяни, особистості* [in:] *Освіта національних меншин в Україні: історичні традиції, правові засади, сучасні виклики (XX – початок XXI століть): монографія* / відп. ред. І. Соляр; упоряд. М. Романюк, Львів 2018, кн. 1, р. 170–196; Н. Мисак, *Українські судді в Галичині наприкінці XIX – початку XX ст.: соціально-професійний портрет*, "З історії західноукраїнських земель" 2020, вип. 16, р. 17–52.

⁶⁸ Н. Kadyj, *Rozwój i działalność...*, p. 94.

⁶⁹ *Ibidem*, p. 95.

⁷⁰ „Діло” 1907, issue 153, p. 3.

⁷¹ *Austryackie Ministerstwo oświaty ...[Wiadomości bieżące]*, „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1901, no 4, p. 148–149.

of Lviv Veterinary School students. During the entire period of its existence, 74.8% of Poles, 18.5% of Ukrainians and 6.7% of representatives of other nationalities (Bulgarians, Czechs, Slovaks, etc.) received their education there. However, these data could not objectively reflect the ethno-national “face” of the professional group. After all, in the Habsburg Empire Jews were not considered a separate ethnic group, but only a religious community. Therefore, the characteristics of students by religion differ significantly from the data by nationality. Among those who acquired the profession of veterinarian there were 56.5% Roman Catholics, 20.5% Greek Catholics, 19.6% Jews, 3.4% representatives of other religions (Orthodox, Armenian Catholics, Protestants).⁷² Summarizing these data, we could state that more than half of the veterinarians in Galicia were Poles; the share of Ukrainians and Jews was equal, approximately 19–20%.

Table 1. The number of veterinarians in Galicia in 1874–1914⁷³

Years	Number of veterinarians in Galicia	Number of veterinarians with a PhD degree	Share of veterinarians with a PhD degree %
1874	16	0	0
1880	27	2	7,4
1890	92	10	10,9
1900	234	7	2,99
1910	224	7	3,13
1914	258	17	6,59

The numerical growth of veterinarians led to the need for their consolidation in order to solve the issues of qualification improvement, social and material support, protection of legal and professional rights, communication to exchange experience with specialists from other provinces of the Habsburg Empire,

⁷² H. Kadyj, *Rozwój i działalność...*, p. 94–95.

⁷³ Calculated by: *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1874*, Lwów 1874, p. 471; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1880*, Lwów 1880, p. 458–459; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1890*, Lwów 1890, p. 520–521; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1900*, Lwów 1900, p. 635; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1910*, Lwów 1910, p. 840–842; *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1914*, Lwów 1914, p. 950–953.

countries of Europe, America, etc. For that purpose in 1886 the Galician Veterinary Society was founded in Lviv, which existed until the beginning of the First World War. Its declared goals were: encouragement of veterinarians to scientific studies with the aim of popularizing and developing veterinary medicine as a scientific field; solving current problems of veterinarians; financial support for needy members of society, their widows and orphans. The society was headed by a board consisting of the chairman, his deputy, scientific and administrative secretaries, a controller, a member of the board and three deputies. The term of office of the board lasted for 1 year. Members of the society were divided into 4 categories: valid, correspondence, auxiliary and honorary. Only the valid ones took an active part in the activity of the organization. A mandatory condition for valid membership was annual payment of the so-called "registration fee" in the amount of 18 crowns. The number of the society members gradually increased, and before the First World War there were about 200 members.⁷⁴

At the same time, in 1886, the organization started publishing the professional magazine "Veterinary Review", which was published regularly every month until July 1914. The editorial committee was headed by A. Baranskyi.⁷⁵ The purpose of the magazine was to inform specialists and all interested parties about new technologies, techniques and methods of treatment and feeding of animals, the specifics of their diseases, the spread of epidemics and how to struggle against them. Also, current information about the peculiarities of the organization of veterinary issues in Galicia and abroad, problems of social, legal and material support of various categories of veterinary workers, the functioning of special educational institutions, vacant positions, novelties of scientific literature on veterinary medicine, changes in the field of state and regional legislation on the protection, sale, transportation of animals, trade in livestock products, organization of veterinary supervision, etc. was published.

Alongside the Galician Veterinary Society district veterinarians also began to consolidate since the end of the 19th century. They met before or shortly after the general meeting of the society, discussed various aspects and difficulties of their work, new information about the treatment of animals, organization of sanitary issues.⁷⁶ Having negotiated with the authorities, they

⁷⁴ *Szematyzm Królestwa Galicyi i Lodomeryi z Wielkiem Księstwem Krakowskiem na rok 1914*, Lwów 1914, p. 1065–1066.

⁷⁵ *Od Redakcyi*, „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1886, no 1, p. 1.

⁷⁶ *XV Walne Zgromadzenie galic. Towarzystwa Weterynarskiego*. [Wiadomości bieżące], „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1900, no 4, p. 136; *Protokół z XVI Walnego Zgromadzenia członków galic. Towarzystwa Weterynarskiego* [Wiadomości bieżące], „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1901, no 5, p. 182–184; *Doroczne zgromadzenie galicyjskich weterynarzy powiatowych* [Wiadomości bieżące], „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1901, no 4, p. 143.

managed to organize retraining courses for state veterinarians. In particular, in November – December 1909, such a course took place at Lviv Veterinary Academy. During this course, state veterinarians could get acquainted with new methods of animal treatment, sanitary control requirements, peculiarities of processing livestock products (milk, cheese), etc.⁷⁷ The issue of financial support for their widows and orphans was especially relevant for civil servants. In March 1900, just before the parliament's adoption of changes in the system of regulating the salaries of government officials, state veterinarians in Galicia at their general meeting decided to create a special fund to help widows and orphans, supplementing it with 10% of the planned annual salary supplement.⁷⁸

At the end of the 19th – at the beginning of the 20th century Galician veterinarians were rather active in establishing contacts with colleagues from other states. One of the forms of coordination of activities and exchange of experience were international meetings of specialists in this field (for example, the VII International Veterinary Congress in Baden-Baden in 1899, the IX International Veterinary Congress in The Hague in September 1909).⁷⁹

So, in the second half of the 19th – at the beginning of the 20th century a professional group of veterinarians was formed in Galicia. This process was slowed down by various obstacles: negative stereotypes formed in society around the profession, problems with the educational training of future specialists, difficult working conditions, in particular the need to serve large territories with a significant number of filvarks and home farms, small and sometimes meager funding, etc. Therefore, various official violations and disciplinary cases were not an exception in the career of veterinarians. The growing demand for specialists in this sphere caused the reform of veterinary education, the creation of the Veterinary School, and later the Academy in Lviv. And this to some extent influenced the numerical increase (by 16 times) of veterinarians in the region. The further consolidation of representatives of this professional group, the foundation of the Galician Veterinary Society, a specialized journal, the struggle to improve social, legal and financial situation, the exchange of experience with colleagues from other countries contributed to the professionalization of veterinarians and popularization of their profession.

⁷⁷ *Kurs uzupełniający dla weterynarzy rządowych [Wiadomości bieżące]*, „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1910, no 1, p. 30–31.

⁷⁸ *Weterynarze rządowi [Wiadomości bieżące]*, „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1900, no 4, p. 136.

⁷⁹ T. Sochaniewicz, *VII międzynarodowy kongres weterynaryjny w Baden-Baden*, „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1900, no 2, p. 64–70; *IX międzynarodowy kongres weterynaryjny w Hadze*, „Przegląd Weterynarski” 1910, no 1, p. 31–36.

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Weterynarze galicyjscy w drugiej połowie XIX i na początku XX wieku: portret społeczny i zawodowy

Streszczenie

W artykule przedstawiono weterynarzy jako grupę zawodową w strukturze inteligencji galicyjskiej drugiej połowy XIX i początku XX wieku. Uwagę zwrócono na wzrost liczby lekarzy weterynarii, który był spowodowany zarówno wzrostem udziału hodowli zwierząt w sferze agrarnej regionu, jak i potrzebami militarnymi imperium Habsburgów, a także wzrostem zapotrzebowania na ich usługi. Przeanalizowano czynniki warunkujące proces kształtowania się tej grupy zawodowej inteligencji, scharakteryzowano specyfikę edukacji, percepcję społeczną oraz stereotypy narastające wokół zawodu, liczebność, specyfikę działalności zawodowej, sytuację materialną itp. Zajęto się też procesem konsolidacji przejawiającym się w utworzeniu stowarzyszenia zawodowego.

Słowa kluczowe: lekarz weterynarii, Akademia Weterynaryjna we Lwowie, działalność zawodowa, sprawa dyscyplinarna, Galicja