



Wisława Knapowska—Pioneer of Poznań's History Didactics

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ABSTRACT: The article presents the achievements of Wisława Knapowska in history didactics. A biographical outline precedes the presentation of her pioneering activities in this subdiscipline of history, associated with the development of history didactics in Poznań. An analysis of two key texts by Knapowska, concerning the shaping of historical memory in school education and the training of future teachers, reveals that her ideas were ahead of her time and that their certain elements remain relevant in contemporary history didactics.

KEYWORDS: Wisława Knapowska, history didactics, history teaching, historical memory, pioneering work.

Who was Wisława Knapowska and why is she considered a pioneer?

Wisława Knapowska was born on June 7, 1889, in Poznań as the fourth child of Maria Rzarzyńska and Stanisław.¹ Her father was well-known in the capital of Wielkopolska—he ran the newspaper *Postęp* [Progress] and was an active member of local committees (e.g. Towarzystwo Młodych Przemysłowców [the Society of Young Industrialists]).² Unfortunately, both parents died in 1905.³ The burden of supporting the family fell on the eldest sisters, Zofia and Kazimiera. This allowed Wisława to focus on her education

¹ Knapowski, Stanisław, "Kartoteka Ewidencji Ludności 1870–1931," [in:] www.e-kartoteka.net/pl—access date: 05.09.2024.

² E. Głowacka-Sobiech, *Knapowska Wisława*, [in:] *Luminarze nauki Uniwersytetu Poznańskiego w latach 1919–2019*, [ed.] Z. Piłarczyk, Wydawnictwo Naukowe UAM, Poznań 2019, p. 269.

³ Ibid., p. 270.



at Antonina Estkowska's girls' school and later at the Ludwika's High School. At the latter, she completed a teacher training seminar in 1909, which enabled her to work as a teacher in secondary schools. She immediately began her career in education, first working at Anastazja Warnkówna's private school (until the outbreak of World War I). During the war, she spent her time giving private lessons and working with the Poznań-based *Warta*⁴ association, which aimed to care for and teach children in Polish.

Despite working, she continued her studies and in 1918 she passed her high school exams at the Ludwika's High School; then she travelled to Munich, where she studied history, art history, and Romance languages for a year. However, when *Wszechnica Piastowska* (renamed Poznań University in 1920) was established, she returned to her hometown. She began working on her dissertation in history under Kazimierz Tymieniecki and Adam Skałkowski, earning a doctorate in 1923 with the thesis *Wielkie Księstwo Poznańskie przed wojną krymską* [*The Grand Duchy of Poznań before the Crimean War*]. Meanwhile, she took steps to qualify for teaching history, French, and German in secondary schools, eventually passing the exam in 1921.⁵ During her studies, she already became connected with the University, first serving as an assistant and then as a senior assistant in 1920–25. The year 1925 was pivotal for the Poznań's history didactics—it was then that Knapowska was assigned to teach classes and lectures on this subdiscipline of history. Apart from her university work, she was also an active teacher, working at the Państwowa Uczelnia im. Dąbrowski [State School of Dąbrowka]⁶ (1921–31) and at the Gimnazjum im. Generałowej Zamoyskiej [Generałowa Zamoyska's Gymnasium] (1931–39). Simultaneously, starting in 1931, she was in charge of Ognisko Metodyczne Nauczania Historii w okręgu poznańskim [Teachers' Methods Centre for History Teaching in the Poznań district].⁷ It was not the only institution in which she was active—a year later, she joined the work of the Sekcja Dydaktyczna Polskiego Towarzystwa Historycznego [Didactic Section of the Polish Historical Society] in Poznań and the Komisja Dydaktyki przy Zarządzie Głównym Polskiego Towarzystwa Historycznego [Didactics Committee at the Main Board of the Polish Historical Society].⁸

⁴ Polish Academy of Sciences, Archives in Warsaw, Poznań Branch, *Materiały Wisławy Knapowskiej*, ref. no. P III-2, archive unit 251.

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ Previous name: Ludwika's High School.

⁷ Polish Academy of Sciences, op. cit.

⁸ J. Maternicki, *Polska dydaktyka historii 1918–1939*, Wydawnictwa Szkolne i Pedagogiczne, Warszawa 1978, p. 213.

For her dedication to education, she was awarded the Gold Cross of Merit in 1937.⁹ During World War II, Knapowska participated in underground teaching, which was confirmed by Komisja Weryfikacyjna przy Kuratorium Okręgu Szkolnego Poznańskiego [Verification Commission at the Education Office in Poznań] in 1946.¹⁰ A year earlier, she returned to her previous duties—teaching students and pupils. In that same year (1945), she earned her habilitation with the dissertation *Nawroty polskich ruchów zbrojnych 1830–1834. Z dziejów dyplomatycznych i rewolucyjnych Wolnego Miasta Krakowa* [*Recurrent Polish Armed Movements 1830–34. From the Diplomatic and Revolutionary History of the Free City of Cracow*]. In 1947, she became a docent, which required her to give up her teaching in schools. In December 1954, she received the title of associate professor.¹¹ She died suddenly on May 8, 1956, in Poznań.¹² Her pioneering role in the field of history didactics is indicated not only by her teaching at Poznań University but also by her scientific research. This is demonstrated by her two most important papers, presented at key historical science events—“Wyobrażenie czasu w kształtowaniu pamięci historycznej” [“The Concept of Time in Shaping Historical Memory”] at the VIIth International Congress of Historical Sciences in Warsaw in 1933, and “Przygotowanie pedagogiczne kandydatów na nauczycieli historii w szkole średniej” [“Pedagogical Preparation of Candidates for History Teachers in Secondary Schools”] at the VIth General Congress of Polish Historians in Vilnius in 1935. Her other writings on history didactics focus more on the practical dimension of teaching history in schools.

On the necessity of memory and learning time in history lessons —“The Concept of Time in Shaping Historical Memory”¹³

Knapowska described in German the research on the shaping of time in history lessons in her pre-congress work *Geschichtsunterricht und Gedächtnisbildung*.¹⁴ The paper was then presented at the most important conference for historians—the VIIth Congress of Historical Sciences in Warsaw in 1933. The following year, the analysis was expanded with experiences from her own

⁹ Z. Grot, *Wisława Knapowska 1889–1956*, “Studia i materiały do dziejów Wielkopolski i Pomorza,” vol. II, 1/1956, p. 544.

¹⁰ Polish Academy of Sciences, op. cit.

¹¹ E. Głowacka-Sobiech, op. cit., p. 273.

¹² J. Maternicki, op. cit.

¹³ W. Knapowska, *Wyobrażenie czasu w kształtowaniu pamięci historycznej*, “Wiadomości Historyczno-Dydaktyczne,” 1934, ann. 2, vol. 1-4, pp. 138-157.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 138.

teaching practice in secondary school and published in 1934 in “Wiadomości Historyczno-Dydaktyczne” [“Historical and Didactic News”].

The article was divided into three parts—the first two discuss theoretical issues related to the titular concept of time in shaping historical memory, while the third presents an empirical study along with guidance for teachers. The author begins the first part with the thesis: “Historical dates should not be treated as pieces of material externally linked together; historical dates are not isolated, they form the continuity of history, dates are seemingly static points in the fluid *continuum* of time.”¹⁵ To capture this *temporal continuum*, one must activate rational memory rather than mechanical memory, which suffices for recalling a specific point in time. However, the teaching of history in schools should not be about mindlessly memorizing selected dates but about grasping change and continuity in the past.¹⁶ One argument for teaching temporal continuity was human development, as she cited research from that time (e.g. T. Ziehen). The researchers pointed out that the concept of historical time develops between the ages of 10 and 11.¹⁷ She slightly disagreed with them on the basis of her own experiences and advocated moving this age down to 9 years old. However, she emphasized that history education at this stage should focus on concrete examples rather than abstract concepts. Naturally, not every child has the same predispositions, but the essence is to start developing the concept of time as early as possible. Without it, the study of history is entirely meaningless, and thus the shaping of historical time should not be delayed to later stages of education.¹⁸

To support her findings, she referenced the English educator M. Howard, who divided the teaching of history into three stages¹⁹—loose stories (described as series of isolated stories), continuous narration (as a continuous narrative, with attention to casual as well as to chronological sequence) and abstract, more problematic aspects of history, abandoning in it the emphasis on chronology. He criticized many education systems for devoting too much time to the first stage, which in some countries lasted until the age of 14. Knapowska disagreed with Howard in regard to the division of students into capable and incapable—she would introduce the teaching of historical continuity to all students.²⁰ The mechanisms described by Howard were confirmed by her own classroom observations in other countries (e.g., in

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ Ibid., pp. 138-139.

¹⁷ Ibid., p. 142.

¹⁸ Ibid., pp. 141-142.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Ibid.

Rome²¹). She was fascinated by the phenomenon that, regardless of location, isolated dates were remembered in the same way thanks to human memory. She divided memory into two types—lower-order (mechanical or primary) and organized, the opposite of the first. The first type peaked between the ages of 10 and 12, earlier for boys, later for girls.²² These observations were verified in secondary schools, when she checked the retention of knowledge from earlier educational stages. Repetition of information resulted in its quick assimilation due to previous exposure—mechanical memory was activated, but facts were mixed. This process was possible between the ages of 12 and 14. By the age of 15, mechanical memory was less plastic, and what had been learned earlier became useless. This could be prevented by using a *scaffold*, which she interpreted as chronology combined with the fluid *continuum* of time.²³ She suggested that the continuity of historical time could be represented graphically by using a timeline. The theoretical foundations of this method focused on developing early temporal perceptions alongside personal experiences. First, a child understands the length of a day, then a week, and this understanding is implemented into the weekly lesson plan. This abstract concept has a real-world equivalent—the wall calendar. Once the concept of *here and now* was grasped, the shaping of historical time could begin. Ideally, this practice should start with the child's life—locating their experiences in time, analogous to locating objects in space. Spatial imagery activated visual memory, with sight considered the dominant sense for learning and memorizing. Events in the mind are *seen* as a line, often moving. This phenomenon laid the foundation for using chronological tables/timelines.²⁴ By working with this method and dividing the timeline into specific time intervals, it was possible to show historical processes rather than isolated events. If the time intervals on the timeline were too large, they should be left blank or connected using a *link*—any material object. The purpose of this was to connect facts, not to memorize isolated dates. Associating and navigating historical time was a key skill developed in history lessons. The main flaw of horizontal lines was the inability to repeat many dates. Knapowska offered a solution to this drawback—vertical lines.²⁵ She described vertical lines and tables as the opposite symbolism of time. Their broad benefits were pointed out by other researchers, including Keating and James. They demonstrated that tables were clear and interspatial, representing an evolution from the

²¹ Ibid., pp. 142-143.

²² Ibid., pp. 141-143.

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Ibid., pp. 143-145.

²⁵ Ibid., pp. 148-149.

horizontal line to the vertical one. Knapowska herself believed that for shaping historical imagination, the timeline (horizontal line) was best, as one of the goals of history lessons was reviewing eras and verifying gaps in students' knowledge. She described associations as *memory supports*.²⁶ This concise theoretical description was complemented with concrete tips for teachers, based on her own experiences. She explicitly stated that the most appropriate way to teach students was when the same history teacher remained with them throughout a given educational stage, without being replaced at higher levels. If a change did occur, it was necessary to verify the state of knowledge, fill in any gaps, but with attention paid to the entire historical era, not individual details.²⁷ The Author herself was placed in such a situation and tasked her new students with organizing historical figures in chronological order. In subsequent lessons, they were asked to arrange monuments and locations. The same exercises were performed by girls who had previously been taught by the Docent. Comparing the results of both classes, she concluded that the students she had taught earlier achieved better results. Additionally, more correct answers were provided for tasks involving people than for locations and monuments.²⁸ She summarized her research, stating that the essence of teaching history in schools should be the development of the ability to reconstruct historical processes and associate facts rather than flawlessly memorizing selected dates. Human memory is fleeting and must be appropriately trained. Facts learned over time fade away, and she considered factography a burden: "... liberating the student from the burden of historical facts, thanks to mental *training*, which would allow the student to move freely, lightly, and flexibly in the infinite mass of historical material."²⁹ It must be admitted that Knapowska's proposal for teaching history and its methodological foundations align with contemporary approaches to teaching history in schools.³⁰ The emphasis on reconstructing historical processes rather than isolated, selected dates closely mirrors the current emphasis on developing the skills of historical thinking.³¹

²⁶ Ibid., pp. 149-151.

²⁷ Ibid., p. 152.

²⁸ Ibid., pp. 152-155.

²⁹ Ibid., p. 157.

³⁰ J. Nowocin, *Szkolna historia w dobie rewolucji cyfrowej*, [in:] "Wiadomości Historyczne," 2023, no. 1, pp. 82-88.

³¹ J. Wojdon, *Po co uczyć w szkole historii? I jak to robić?*, "Wszystko Co Najważniejsze," 2019, [in:] www.wszystkoconajwazniejsze.pl/prof-joanna-wojdon-po-co-uczyc-w-szkole-historii/ — access date: 20.09.2024.

However, contemporary achievements in psychology do not differentiate gender as a determinant in the process of memory formation.³² Additionally, classifications of memory processes vary depending on the characteristic feature being considered. Nevertheless, the Docent's description of primary and mechanical memory aligns more closely with modern descriptions of memory processes: primary memory—encoding information, and mechanical memory—retrieving that information.³³ However, her concluding statement, "... the ultimate result of many years of education should be orientation in time—the historical perspective, as it was the premise and fundamental element of this education,"³⁴ remains valid today.

On the education of future history teachers—"Pedagogical Preparation of Candidates for History Teachers in Secondary Schools"³⁵

After Poland regained its independence in 1918, school teaching was based on experiences from Galicia.³⁶ There was no nationwide document regarding the education of history teachers—the first law sanctioning the process of teacher preparation was established in 1924.³⁷ A significant reform was introduced in 1930s.³⁸ It is no surprise that there was keen interest from history didacticians in this issue. Throughout the entire period of the Second Polish Republic, many articles were published where authors often assessed the current state and proposed their own ideas for proper teacher preparation. Wiśława Knapowska also addressed this topic, presenting her paper at the 6th General Congress of Polish Historians. However, unlike others, she did not focus on history didactics itself but on the pedagogical aspect of preparing future teachers. Before proposing corrective measures to the existing system, she presented a historical synthesis of teacher training up to 1935.³⁹ She

³² J. Gąsowski, *Pamięć w nauczaniu—uczeniu się historii*, [in:] *Współczesna dydaktyka historii. Zarys encyklopedyczny dla nauczycieli i studentów*, [ed.] J. Maternicki, Juka, Warsaw 2004, pp. 256-257.

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ W. Knapowska, op. cit., p. 157.

³⁵ Ead., "Przygotowanie pedagogiczne kandydatów na nauczycieli historii w szkole średniej," [in:] *Pamiętnik VI Powszechnego Zjazdu Historyków Polskich w Wilnie 17–20 września 1935 r. Protokoły*, vol. 2, Lwów 1936, pp. 404-421.

³⁶ J. Maternicki, *Nauczanie historii w Polsce—dzieje do 1939 r.*, [in:] *Współczesna dydaktyka...*, p. 230.

³⁷ W. Knapowska, *Przygotowanie pedagogiczne...*, pp. 404-407.

³⁸ J. Maternicki, *Nauczanie historii...*, p. 230.

³⁹ W. Knapowska, *Przygotowanie pedagogiczne...*, p. 404.

pointed out that before 1924, there were significant shortcomings—there was a lack of standardization, and the focus was solely on general pedagogy and didactics. The primary flaw was the absence of any discussion of subject-specific didactics. The reform in 1924 was a response to this. It initiated the creation of institutions such as Państwowe Kursy Nauczycielskie [State Teacher Courses], where preparation for teaching in elementary schools took place.⁴⁰ For those already teaching in secondary schools, a series of training sessions and workshops were organized, lasting four weeks during vacations or taking the form of several-day courses. Over time, this movement became standardized and evolved into “ogniska metodyczne” [teachers’ methods centers]. The teachers who benefited most from these offerings were those who had obtained their qualifications before 1924.⁴¹ The year 1924 brought a change in professional preparation, introducing the requirement to take a subject-specific didactics course. Additionally, to obtain a teacher qualification certificate, it became necessary to complete at least one and a half years of theoretical and practical pedagogical preparation, either at newly established pedagogical studies or at universities (where Pedagogical Studies were created). These were set up at the Jagiellonian University, the University of Warsaw, the University of Poznań, and Jan Kazimierz University in Lviv. An alternative was to complete a two-year internship at an institution designated by the Ministry of Religious Affairs and Public Education.⁴²

Knapowska indicated that this subject-specific didactics course bore the full burden of preparing young individuals to become teachers. At the University of Poznań, the history didactics course was divided into lectures and exercises, with varying hours allocated in each trimester. The content of the lectures changed annually, but the practical exercises did not. At the Jagiellonian University and the University of Warsaw, there was no distinction between lectures and exercises in the course listings. Meanwhile, at Jan Kazimierz University in Lviv, class observations were emphasized, though there were no lectures on general pedagogy or didactics, with the focus being on psychology.⁴³ Over time, the mentioned alternative—school internships—became mandatory, despite not being fully formalized in law. These internships were typically unpaid, and depending on the region, their weekly duration and length varied. They had to be completed in schools collaborating with universities. In the case of the University of Poznań, these were schools where Knapowska herself taught. This ensured that

⁴⁰ Ibid., p. 405.

⁴¹ W. Knapowska, *Przygotowanie pedagogiczne...*, pp. 405–406.

⁴² Ibid., pp. 407–409.

⁴³ Ibid., pp. 410–412.

the theoretical content was used in actual lessons taught during lectures.⁴⁴ Drawing from her own experience, she highlighted significant deficiencies in the pedagogical-didactic preparation because of the combination of master's studies with teacher preparation. Universities tried to address this dilemma in different ways—the University of Warsaw separated pedagogical preparation from regular studies, allowing students to attend teaching preparation courses in their second or third year, depending on their major. This solution aligned with her recommendation to eliminate the sense of wasted time in teacher preparation. The common approach of spreading the courses over the entire study cycle made the theoretical effort seem worthless when students, upon entering a school environment, felt completely unfit for teaching.⁴⁵ “This disappointment is very unpleasant and has dire consequences, both for the candidate and for their future students, if a late withdrawal from a mistakenly chosen path does not occur in time.”⁴⁶ Therefore, she emphasized that class observations were one of the most crucial elements of preparation.⁴⁷ At the University of Poznań, efforts were made to spread the courses over the entire period of study in order to prevent superficial learning in both major and teaching preparations. Nevertheless, Knapowska often had to refer students in her history didactics courses to the Pedagogical Seminar or the general didactics lectures because their preparation in this area was inadequate. Without theoretical pedagogical knowledge, it was impossible to participate effectively in exercises or class observations. Similarly, students found it difficult to grasp the lecture topics. To address these issues, she created a gradation system for her subject—students had to complete a cycle of lectures on the fundamentals of history teaching before participating in practical exercises, and class observations were required before they could teach lessons. However, despite these efforts, student performance remained unsatisfactory due to the large class sizes (sometimes as many as 60 people), especially during practical exercises. Class observations had to be conducted in small groups, but this reduced the number of observations possible.⁴⁸ Knapowska advocated for two-year pedagogical studies, where the first year would acquaint candidates with basic pedagogical knowledge and practical teaching in elementary schools, while the second year would focus on secondary school teaching. This separation of continuous vocational preparation from academic studies would prevent a superficial treatment

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 413-414.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 410-411.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 414.

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 411-412.

of both fields.⁴⁹ The second part of her paper addressed the changes introduced in the school system reform from 1932. The new law altered the pathways for obtaining teaching qualifications, introducing three-year pedagogical lyceums or two-year pedagogical courses to prepare elementary school teachers. Graduates of both programs had an unrestricted access to higher education. For those training to become secondary school teachers, pedagogical courses, lasting at least one year, were introduced, but only after the completion of higher education. These courses could be organized either at universities or outside of them.⁵⁰ Despite the formal separation, which the Docent supported, the reality did not change significantly. She pointed out that these courses were essentially identical to the already existing Pedagogical Studies at universities. A striking disparity existed between the length of training for elementary and secondary school teachers. According to her, without prior theoretical pedagogical training, a one-year course for secondary school teacher candidates was entirely insufficient. The law specified that internships were a mandatory requirement, but the duration was not clearly defined. Additionally, these could be carried out in institutions not directly associated with the training program. The head of the apprenticeship was the school principal; they appointed a supervising teacher, who did not receive reduced responsibilities or additional compensation.⁵¹ "... the internship was and is often limited to excessively long observations of the supervising teacher's lessons, which sometimes were exceptional and educational, but sometimes trivial and of little value. The apprentice practical lessons were not and are not ... a pedagogical school but rather attempts at one's practice, often conducted without proper oversight."⁵² Genuine feedback from the supervising teacher was often not truly provided.⁵³ In conclusion, Knapowska proposed two possible paths to obtaining teaching qualifications: a thorough reorganization of the existing preparatory courses, conducted by education authorities along with teachers' methods centers, or through universities. She based this recommendation on observations of the situation in Germany.⁵⁴ The reflection on teacher training is still relevant today. Often driven by changes happening globally, national legal documents mandate that institutions responsible for teacher

⁴⁹ Ibid., pp. 414-415.

⁵⁰ Ibid., p. 415.

⁵¹ W. Knapowska, *Przygotowanie pedagogiczne...*, p. 417.

⁵² Ibid., p. 418.

⁵³ Ibid.

⁵⁴ Ibid., pp. 419-421.

preparation focus on theoretical knowledge in pedagogy and psychology.⁵⁵ However, practical training in schools typically amounts to only fifteen lessons at both the primary and secondary school levels, and it is often reduced to conducting a single homeroom lesson or general discussions with a school counselor or psychologist. Hence, the call for greater attention to pedagogical and psychological practice in teachers preparations remains relevant.⁵⁶

Summary: why a pioneer?

Wisława Knapowska was not only a theoretician of history didactics but, more importantly, a practitioner. It was due to her teaching experience in schools that she was entrusted as a lecturer of history didactics courses, which made her the first teacher of this subdiscipline of history in Poznań. This priority role led to her being recognized as a trailblazer. However, it was primarily her two significant articles that secured her status as a pioneer.

Her paper “The Concept of Time in Shaping Historical Memory” addresses issues still relevant in Polish education today—specifically, the reasons of history teaching in schools. The skill of managing and understanding time through the use of chronological tables, which she advocated, contrasts with the current fact-based approach to teaching. The overloading of today’s curriculum,⁵⁷ which teachers are obliged to follow, is largely to blame for this situation, rather than the educators themselves.

Similarly, her article “Pedagogical Preparation of Candidates for History Teachers in Secondary Schools,” which focuses on the training of future teachers, remains a significant issue for contemporary history didactics. This

⁵⁵ *Obwieszczenie Ministra Nauki z dnia 9 lutego 2024 r. w sprawie ogłoszenia jednolitego tekstu rozporządzenia Ministra Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego w sprawie standardu kształcenia przygotowującego do wykonywania zawodu nauczyciela*, [in:] DzU 2024, poz. 453, pp. 8-10.

⁵⁶ M. Klimorowska, *Między profesjonalizmem a służbą społeczną. Kształcenie nauczycieli historii w Polsce (1989–2019). Teoria—Praktyka—Zmiana*, Poznań 2023, p. 6 [PhD dissertation].

⁵⁷ *Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji z dnia 28 czerwca 2024 r. zmieniające rozporządzenie w sprawie podstawy programowej wychowania przedszkolnego oraz podstawy programowej kształcenia ogólnego dla szkoły podstawowej, w tym dla uczniów z niepełnosprawnością intelektualną w stopniu umiarkowanym lub znacznym, kształcenia ogólnego dla branżowej szkoły I stopnia, kształcenia ogólnego dla szkoły specjalnej przysposabiającej do pracy oraz kształcenia ogólnego dla szkoły policealnej*, [in:] DzU 2024, poz. 996 pp. 104-117; *Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji z dnia 28 czerwca 2024 r. zmieniające rozporządzenie w sprawie podstawy programowej kształcenia ogólnego dla liceum ogólnokształcącego, technikum oraz branżowej szkoły II stopnia*, [in:] DzU 2024, poz. 1019, pp. 147-171.

was evident at the most recent XXIth General Congress of Polish Historians in Białystok in 2024, where similar topics were discussed.⁵⁸ Despite the existing legal frameworks for teacher training, universities interpret these regulations differently, which results in subtle variations. Students themselves, during the *World Café* discussion summarizing the Ist Student and Doctoral Congress on History Didactics,⁵⁹ called for greater attention and a more thorough psychological-pedagogical preparation by universities. It seems that Wiśława Knapowska's postulates continue to resonate today and have yet to be fully realized, even though 89 years have passed since their first appearance.

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⁵⁸ A. Chłosta-Sikorska, *Model kształcenia akademickiego a katalog kompetencji nauczycieli historii*, [in:] *Człowiek twórcą historii. Miejsce historii w edukacji humanistycznej w XXI w., część 2*, [ed.] C. Kukło, W. Walczak, vol. 8, Uniwersytet w Białymstoku, Białystok 2024, pp. 249-270.

⁵⁹ The Congress took place at Adam Mickiewicz University's Faculty of History on May 9–10, 2024; v. J. Nowocin, *Sprawozdanie z ogólnopolskiej konferencji naukowej pt. „Studencko-Doktorancki Kongres Dydaktyki Historii ‘Współczesne wyzwania edukacji historycznej,’ Poznań 9–10 V 2024 r.*, "Historia Slavorum Occidentis" 2024, ann. 14, vol. 4(43), pp. 247-252.

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