

POLISH PRESS IN THE XX CENTURY

Islambek Abiev* ; Bakhytbay Paluanov**

*Master of Karakalpak State University,
UZBEKISTAN
Email id: islambek.abiev@gmail.com

**Scientific Tutor,
Ph.D,
Karakalpak State University,
UZBEKISTAN
Email id: bpaluanov@gmail.com

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ABSTRACT

This article is devoted to some detailed information about the condition of the Polish Press market and its state during the USSR until 1989. In addition, it mentions several leading Polish Newspapers at that time and the emergence of Polish schools of journalism.

KEYWORDS: *Polish United Workers' Party, Polish Press, Censorship, Polish Newspapers, The Round Table, Central Committee Of The Communist Party, The Emergence Of Polish Schools Of Journalism, The Press-Book-Movement Workers' Publishing Cooperative.*

INTRODUCTION

Briefly, suffering and oppression by more powerful neighbors and a constant struggle for freedom characterized the last 200 years of Polish history. Russia, Prussia, and Austria divided Poland in 1772, and Poland lost its autonomy for nearly 150 years, during which Poles unsuccessfully fought for their freedom in a series of uprisings. After World War I, Poland finally gained its independence, and about 20 years of freedom followed. World War II began with the German invasion of Poland on September 1, 1939, immediately followed by the Soviet-Russian invasion of Poland on the 17th of the same month. The Poles contributed significantly to the Allied effort throughout the war. After the war, however, Poland became part of the Soviet bloc due to the Yalta Agreement, which was a bitter disappointment and reinforced the national victim syndrome that already existed. Poland's national identity, pride, and mythology have their roots in this long, often heroic, and highly tragic struggle for freedom.

As a result of the decisions of the Great Powers after the World War II, Poland, as part of the Eastern Bloc, came under the influence of the Soviet Union and became the Peoples Republic of Poland (PRL) - one of the countries of the communist bloc modeled on the communist political system and media doctrine of USSR, known as the "Leninist concept of the press." This provided for the complete subordination of the mass media to political power, which in the People's Republic of Poland was vested in the Polish United Workers' Party (the Polish Communist Party). The media became a tool of the Communist Party, which held actual, absolute power and used it to put an ideological stamp on society, hoping to use the media to shape people's beliefs, attitudes, and even behavior according to its ideas. The PRL's media system was characterized by features typical of all totalitarian systems, such as absolute control of power over the media market through control of licensing in publishing (the publication of any press title required the authorities' approval) and the introduction of censorship. A specially established authority, the Central Office for the Control of Press, Publications and Performances (Główny Urząd Kontroli Prasy, Publikacji

i Widowisk), took over the initial control of media content.

MAIN BODY:

Press Which Was Controlled By the Government

In July 1946, the Central Office for the Control of Press, Publications and Performances (abbreviated GUKPiW, after this referred to as the audit office) was established, whose main task was to supervise publications and inspections within limits provided for by law, in particular in terms of compliance with the introduced restrictions on the content of publications. All kinds of transmission and works published were subject to inspection.

Detailed rules for the functioning of GUKPiW were to be regulated in the statute, which the Council of Ministers was obliged to issue. However, the 1952 decree, which was intended to specify the exercise of control, did not entail any specific regulations other than the inspection of all types of printing and reproduction devices. The 1970 Regulations also did not bring anything new regarding the interpretation of the conditions relating to the publication ban; it merely repeated the decree's provisions, including the possibility of censorship based on specific provisions.

In the PRL, the press was open only to "collective" publishers (there was no private press, so only institutions and organizations could publish press). Market mechanisms did not function because the press market, like the entire economy, was centrally planned and controlled. The Party determined the number of press titles published (by granting or denying permission) and their market position (by deciding how much paper to make available for printing). The development of the press was limited by the paper shortage, which meant that throughout the PRL period, there were not enough publications compared to demand, and their nature and content were less reflective of readers' interests and expectations than the Party's current information policy. This press deficit mainly concerned magazines (color press) from the entertainment sector or non-political sector: women's magazines, newspapers for children, hobbies, travel. There was no shortage of daily newspapers, especially those published by the communist party structure, which had a prominent political and propagandistic character since the party power considered them the most essential and primary segment of the press market.

The social changes that took place on the threshold of the 80s forced the preparation of new regulations on censorship. The public demanded clear regulations, as well as their observance. It can be considered quite an exciting phenomenon that neither society nor Solidarity advocated the complete abolition of censorship. The changes were a new regulation, which the government had committed itself to in the "Gdańsk Agreements." The result of the work on it was the Act on the Control of Publications and July 31, 1981 (after this referred to as the Censorship Act). In the adopted form, a short period was in force due to the introduction of martial law. In 1983, changes were made which tightened its wording.

During the drafting of the new law, two different views clashed as to the location of GUKPiW in the system of state organs. Eventually, the audit office was subordinated to the Council of State under the law. As an expression of reformist and ideological aspirations, this supremacy was to be an excellent picture of the transformation taking place in the functioning of censorship. In addition, this change gave her certain independence from the government. However, as the literature points out, the government usually intervened in the case of publications with critical overtones under their address.

The Censorship Act allowed for the marking of places of censorship interference. This was of great importance to readers – it made the interference of censorship visible and was its tangible proof. At the same time, it was dictated by issues related to copyright. As Mr. Bafia rightly

pointed out, the interference in its current form infringed copyright. The Censorship Act allowed interference to be marked in the text with the author's consent or at his request. According to the legislator, consent was necessary because it constituted the author's admission of breaking the law. The manner of marking the interference was specified in the Regulations governing the control of publications and performances. On its basis, it was possible to give the basis for the interference of the censorship. At the same time, the disclosure of interference could not constitute an attempt to "smuggle" content that had been removed from the publication. In connection with such a solution, it was assumed that the right to mark the interference was granted only in the event of failure to appeal the censor's decision to the Supreme Administrative Court. In the event of legal proceedings, in accordance with the principle of openness of proceedings, the disputed passages and the course of the proceedings were public. In the case of using the option of marking, Nationalities had only the right to appeal to the superior unit over the censor, i.e., to GUKPPIW.

A single publishing house held the monopoly position in the press market - the Press-Book-Movement Workers' Publishing Cooperative (Robotnicza Spółdzielnia Wydawnicza Prasa-Książka-Ruch or RSW), owned by the Central Committee of the Communist Party (Komitet Centralny PZPR). Founded in 1947 (then called R S W 'Prasa'), it took over other, often larger, publishing houses and the titles they published (Wiedza (Knowledge) in 1948 and Czytelnik (Readers) in 1951, the most significant postwar publisher of the popular press) and quickly attained the position of the largest press publisher in Poland. RSW gained a monopoly position in 1972 when it incorporated the only press distributor in Poland, Ruch (Movement), into its structure. After the merger, during PRL's last two decades, RSW distributed about 85 percent of press titles in Poland (more precisely, 92 percent of newspapers and over 70 percent of magazines). RSW was the exclusive press distributor, owned most printing companies and printing houses in the country, and even had its own research institution of high international standing, the Press Research Centre (Ośrodek Badań Prasoznawczych), which cooperated with media science institutions around the world.

The opposition found itself in this media system when it became active in the late 1970s. Democratization of the media system was also one of the main demands of the Solidarity movement (NSZZ Solidarność) in 1980-81, whose journalists were active in the Association of Polish Journalists (Stowarzyszenie Dziennikarzy Polskich), which fought for change. In the late 1980s, this was not yet possible because those in power believed that control of the media was essential for effective governance. The deep political, economic and social crisis at the end of the 1980s made them aware of the inevitability of change, which led to the decision to start talks with the opposition about democratizing the existing system.

Press Market and Journalism Institutions

There is an urgent point to be highlighted that there were 14 newspapers published nationwide during the People's Republic of Poland, 10 of which were general newspapers. In addition, three major party magazines and several newspapers representing different political parties were also published, such as Trybuna Ludu (literally: Tribune of the People, published by the Polish United Workers' Party, PZPR), Dziennik Ludowy (literally: People's Daily, United Peasant Party) and the Kurier Polski (literally: Polish Courier, Democratic Party), as well as - representing the government authority - Rzeczpospolita (literally: Commonwealth, but meaning Poland).

During that time, four serious magazines were aimed at various smaller audiences like Sztandar Młodych (literally: Banner of Youth) for the youth, Gromada – Rolnik Polski (literally: Cluster – Polish Farmer) for villagers, Żołnierz Wolności (literally: Soldier of Freedom) on military topics, and Słowo Powszechne (literally: Popular Word), published by the pro-socialist PAX Catholic Association and recognized by church authorities. Moreover, others are Życie Warszawy (literally: Life of Warsaw), Express Wieczorny (literally: Evening Express), a children's magazine Świat

Młodych (literally: Youth World), and three sports newspapers Sport, Przegląd Sportowy (literally: Sports Review) and Tempo.

The above titles have embarked on the path of ownership and organizational transformation, but the failure to adapt to the rules of the free market has led most of them to abandon within the first decade of transition, as following order:

1993 – Świat Młodych (Pierwszy numer: 7.02.1949)

1994 – Dziennik Ludowy (Pierwszy numer: 1918)

1995 – Gromada - Rolnik Polski (Pierwsze wydanie: 1 czerwca 1952)

1997 – Słowo Powszechne (Pierwszy numer: 1947)

1997 – Sztandar Młodych (Pierwszy numer: 1 maja 1950)

1997 – Żołnierz Wolności (Pierwszy numer: 5 października 1921. Obecna nazwa: Polska Zbrojna)

1999 – Express Wieczorny (Pierwszy numer: 20 maja 1946. Aktualna nazwa: Super Express)

1999 – Kurier Polski (Pierwszy numer: 1957)

2009 – Trybuna (Pierwszy numer: 16 grudnia 1948)

2011 – Życie Warszawy (Pierwszy numer: 15 października 1944)

Still exist – Rzeczpospolita (Założona w 1920 [reaktywowana w 1944 i 1982])

Still exist – Przegląd Sportowy (Pierwszy numer: 21 maja 1921)

Still exist – Sport (Założona w 1945)

Still exist – Tempo (Pierwsze wydanie: 1948)

Moreover, it is also worth mentioning the emergence of Polish journalism schools during the Soviet period. The first school of journalism was founded by Stefan Góra (1903), but it was not until 1911 that a journalism faculty was established at the University of Political Sciences in Kraków. Six years later (1917), a similar faculty was established at the Warsaw University of Political Sciences, but it was dissolved after five years (1922) for programmatic and financial reasons. Then, at the Free Polish University in Warsaw, the School of Journalism was established at the Faculty of Humanities, which has existed since 1927 as an independent, private journalism university. After World War II, the Faculty of Journalism of the Academy of Political Science II was established, and in the course of the subsequent transformation, it was incorporated into the University of Warsaw. Finally, in 1953, the Faculty of Journalism was established at the University of Warsaw. Its activity was discontinued in 1960, after which the inter-UW Journalism School was formed, which trained graduates in various courses.

In Warsaw, a new history of journalism began in 1975 when the Faculty of Journalism and Political Science was formed.

In Krakow, on the other hand, after World War II in the late 1940s, the School of Social Sciences was founded, which then became a part of the Jagiellonian University and was renamed the Study of Journalism, but ceased to exist after a few years. It was not until 1971 that the Postgraduate School of Journalism was established at the Faculty of Philology of the Jagiellonian University under the leadership of Dr. Jacek Kajtoch. In 1976, he founded the political science journalism specialty at the Institute of Political Studies of the Jagiellonian University. After the regime change, the International School of Journalism (headed by Teresa Sasińska-Klas) was founded, followed by the Institute of Journalism and Communication at Jagiellonian University in 1998.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As is noted above, the nation of journalists always fought for freedom of speech and completely abolish censorship. Finally, the deep political, economic and social crisis at the end of the 1980s made them aware of the inevitability of change, which led to the decision to start talks with the opposition about democratizing the existing system. Moreover, during the period of USSR, there were 14 newspapers and magazines, some of which could not stand for the rules of new press marketing rules and disappeared. The Soviet Union time was also the moment of establishing Polish journalism institutions, especially after 1960s.

However, after 1990, more public and private universities started training future journalists. Currently, there are more than 90 public and private universities in Poland that train potential journalists. For example, in Kraków, there are two programs at Jagiellonian University and one program at the University of Education, the Pontifical University of John Paul II, the Andrzej Frycz- Modrzewski Kraków University, the Małopolska Higher Vocational School, Bogdan Jaiiski Academy in Kraków, Tischner European University, Kraków University of Economics (postgraduate studies in the field of economic journalism) and University School of Physical Education (postgraduate studies in the field of sports journalism and advocacy).

Some higher education institutions in Poland offer two or even three degrees in journalism (the University of Wrocław - in political science and philology, and the Maria Curie-Skłodowska University in Lublin - at the Faculty of Humanities, in Political Studies, and at the University's Bachelor College in Biała Podlaska), so there are at least 117 specializations in journalism in Poland. Especially, but not only do private schools show their ingenuity when it comes to creating new specializations, especially since the standard offer of journalism (or journalism and communication studies) is not such a strong magnet for potential candidates. For example, journalism degree programs today must include courses for information technologists, media managers, specialists in organizing work in film and television, digital media specialists, computer graphic designers, editors of specialized newsletters or local newspapers, and a variety of professionals who work on the Internet.

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