The Socialist Project for a New Intelligentsia and Its Limits. Academic Careers in the Polish Post-War University: A Biographical Perspective

Abstract

The paper examines the post-war period of reconstruction of the Polish academic system from the perspective of young academicians and students of that time. The generation born in the 1920s and early 1930s witnessed a profound change in Polish society, when its intelligentsia and universities had to face the dramatic events of post-WWII. The forthcoming reform of science and the higher education system was an attempt to build a socialist university and an egalitarian society. Those processes are often viewed as the political domination of academia, the captivity of professors, and seduction of students. It is a part of the story. On the contrary, it is argued herein that the academic field and its associated processes shaped the biographical paths of erstwhile scientists/academics as strongly, if not stronger, than the political factors which usually are brought to the forefront by researchers. Three chosen academic biographies present the complexity of those processes, and at the same time they reveal different patterns of the interplay between political changes, the university, the academic habitus and higher education reform.

Keywords

university, intelligentsia, post-war Poland, biography, socialist modernization

Agata Zysiak

University of Lodz, Poland; University of Michigan, U.S.A.

https://doi.org/10.18778/1733-8069.11.3.06

In 1952 a young orphan of peasant origin, holding the diploma he received as leader of a workshop, entered the office of the Rector of the University of Lodz. He headed to the Enrollment Commission and said politely: “Dear Sirs (proszę Państwo), I would like to...”, but he was immediately interrupted: “Colleague (kolego), here there are no sirs! We are all colleagues!”. This scene was recalled in 2011 by a retired professor of the University of Lodz. This person had, despite many obstacles, entered walls of academia less than a decade prior to the event. To him this kind of biographical path had once been beyond the horizon of his imagination, not to mention his aspirations. But, this particular decade was indeed a time of social revolution. After the dreadful events of WWll, from 1945 onwards there was no going back to inter-war model of academia. The whole university structure went through deep and rapid changes during implementation of ‘Soviet solutions’ for science. Its aim was to build an egaliitarian society, to modernize the economy, and reform the educational system, especially higher education. Engineers, teachers and doctors were needed more than ever before. While intellectuals debated and quarrelled over the shape of future academia and politicians struggled for power and influence, another important layer of social change was taking place. Via the daily press, public speeches and everyday experiences the social imagination was being reconstructed, shaping the educational desires of the masses. The construction of a socialist university was a factor and response to those newly-created desires. The traditional elitist university was supposed to be reformed into a socialist one.

There are two contrasting narratives present in today’s literature about the post-war period and higher education during the People’s Republic of Poland: 1) that it created a new intelligentsia, or the so-called ‘ZMP-generation’; 2) loyal to the Communist Party and in many cases grateful for the possibilities of upward mobility offered by the new system (Palska 1994; Świda-Ziemba 2010). 2) that for universities and the inter-war professors it was a time of oppression, captivity, the decline of science and the loss of autonomy (Connelly 2000; Herczyński 2008). According to this latter notion, the situation of higher education during the People’s Republic of Poland is mainly presented as a dark period of terror and captivity, and the most recent publications reveal this even in their titles (Pleskot and Rutkowski 2009; Connelly 2014; Herczyński 2008). This totalitarian interpretation offers a vision of the endangered university, its traditions and values undermined by political forces, which demand the production of specialists, support in the development of industry, implementation of positive discrimination in favour of youth of working-class origin, et cetera. Therefore, these processes are seen as the domination of academia and the captivity of professors. Similarly, the post-war generation of students is considered to have been seduced by the vision of a new society and creation of the already-mentioned ‘new intelligentsia’.

2 It should be noted that the narration of captivity does not exclude spaces for opposition or resistance, which are underlined especially in writings of John Connelly. His works underlined ability of Polish academia to preserve values of traditional university, still were framed by totalitarian paradigm, which I am trying to overcome.

3 The recent wave of publications and vividness of this notion is seen as a revival of the so-called totalitarian paradigm, dominant in English-speaking discourse about Central Europe and Soviet Russia in the Cold War period. According to this paradigm, totalitarianism was focused on power, legislation and the destructive influence of the system on societies. Furthermore, this attitude was in a way part of a wider political struggle between two superpowers. In opposition to this notion the revisionist paradigm appeared, underlining the importance of economic and social aspects of change. In the 1990s, after the opening of formerly closed archives and the transition enthusiasm in Central Europe, the totalitarian paradigm again became dominant, mainly in the Post-Soviet academic discourse (Kotkin 1998; Malla 2008).

4 It is worth mentioning, that the term ‘new intelligentsia’ was applied to a group of professionals, not a narrow intellectual elite.

The Socialist Project for a New Intelligentsia and Its Limits. Academic Careers in the Polish Post-War University: A Biographical Perspective
Those two notions interact with each other within the frame of generational conflict.

However, I would like to revise such a totalitarian paradigm (Kotkin 1998). From a more revisionist perspective, the reform of universities, despite its political (in the narrow sense) context, can be seen not only as the oppression of a foreign superpower over Polish academia or the brainwashing of naive students. Such a point of view (i.e., the totalitarian paradigm) needs to be amended by taking into consideration two additional important factors. First, at the beginning (that is between 1945-1948), it was not known how the political situation was going to develop, which allowed considerable latitude for the accumulation of wide-ranging support for a new political project. Second, even after the political situation had already been defined, rapid modernization, upward social mobility, and simply the post-war stabilization were important factors which, for many Polish citizens, helped secure the legitimation of the new order. The construction of a new social order and socialist university can be seen as a modernization project, as an attempt to build the world anew, to create an egalitarian university or did they bring the socialist model to life? 

The following section of this article contains a brief sketch of the historical context of inter-war academia, the influence of World War II, and the post-war situation in Poland, with special attention given to the industrial city of Lodz. This working class city occupied a very special place in the revival of academic life and higher education in the 1940s. In the second part of the article three academic biographies of the first post-war generation are examined, questioning the accuracy of the two dominant narratives about post-war academia. The three chosen biographies are a part of a wider collection of biographical interviews with professors born at the end of the 1920s and beginning of the 1930s, that is, who began their academic careers during Stalinization. They are representative of the wider collection of professors’ biographies from that time.

**Stalinization and Modernization**

During the Second Republic of Poland (1918-1939) there were five public universities in the country: in Warsaw, Poznan, Lvov (Jan Kazimierz University), Vilnius (Stefan Batory University) and Cracow (Jagiellonian University), as well as the non-public Catholic University in Lublin and the Free Polish University in Warsaw, which had a local branch in Lodz. Including the technical universities or academies, over thirty institutions of higher education were in operation before World War II. The prevailing conditions of inter-war academia were far from satisfactory; one of the main obstacles to overcome was the lack of funding, which strongly affected the experimental sciences and blocked the academic careers of many young scholars. From the 1930s onward political and social problems also arose – first following the Higher Education Act of 1933, which strengthened the state’s control over academia; and secondly in the form of antisemitism, which reached the universities, where nationalist youth launched brawls, which became an element of the final inter-war years (Natkowska 1999). Generally, the universities had a rather conservative profile with respect to both their methodological and political aspects. At the same time, the nationwide processes were not fortuitous: antisemitism at universities was just one element of increasingly dangerously ethnic tensions throughout the entire country, reflected in the “reforms” of 1933 and the strengthening of the authoritarian regime known as Sanacja (which can be translated roughly as “national moral regeneration”). Many inter-war leftist intellectuals could not find a place for themselves, although some managed to circulate around public universities or research institutes and some involved themselves in more progressive projects like the Free Polish University, while others – more radical and politically active – ended up in the Bereza Kartuska Prison.

The year 1939 not only ushered in the most frightening time of 20th century, but also a time of deep, irreversible change, the magnitude of which could even be perceived as a revolution. In writing about Poland, Michael Fleming and Padraic Kenney described the post-war period even as a double revolution: a social and economic one until 1947, and political one between 1948-50 (Fleming 2010; Kenney 2012). In turn, Krystyna Kersten (Kersten 1991) or more recently Andrzej Leder (Leder 2014) see it as one, rather social, revolution lasting from 1939 to 1956. The war years reshaped, in a cruel manner, the social, political and economic structure of the Polish state and society. Pre-war values were undermined, population losses tremendous, infrastructure destroyed and geopolitical situation profoundly changed. There was no coming back to the Second Republic of Poland.
However, after the war this revolution was not based on pure destruction, but rather more on reconstruction/re-construction. Without forgetting about or justifying the terror and millions of victims of Soviet-style modernization, it was nevertheless a time of great social experiment – both in Soviet Russia from the 1920s, and in Central Europe from 1945:

Of all the deliberate social experiments which have taken place in human history, Soviet society was one of the largest ever undertaken (...) it claimed to offer an alternative to capitalism, providing full employment for its citizens, cheap housing for all, free healthcare and free education. (Bertaux 2004:2)

It was a time of leftist intellectuals, many of whom saw in the post-war reality a very special historic moment for implementing utopian projects, for instance reforming the social order by creating a new type of university – democratic, egalitarian and free. The time of so-called “gentle revolution” was very short however, and from the 1948 onward universities were transformed to institutions and spaces subsumed to the goals of the new socialist state ruled from the Soviet Union, where national history, education was seen, as well by many scholars, who traditionally, students focused on both teaching and research, as “bourgeois science” and simply cancelled.

Despite the reform's negative effect on the autonomy of academia, for the system of education and society as such it still meant new paths of upward mobility for many. It was a parallel process to the global democratization – the notion of bringing high culture to the masses by providing access to higher education for the most skilled youth from all social strata – in this way avoiding the direct reproduction of the intelligentsia.

In contrast, the modern socialist model aimed at the massive and rapid production of skilled workers. According to this model, the university was rendered rather as a tool, a measure, and a component of the industrialization of Poland and of the strong egalitarian impulse to democratize Polish academia. It was thought that in this way it would play the role of a new type of university, closer to meeting

early stage of implementation. Science was parametrized and the universities were obliged to respect the assigned quotas of students and graduates. Courses became obligatory, and in opposition to the so-called “aristocratic manner of studying”, students were supposed to work on the basis of rules similar to workers in a factory, with almost 8 hours per day of classes, roll-call, and supervision of their efficiency. The first three years of study were designed to prepare students for practical tasks, and the additional final two years to give them more advanced skills and the masters degree (M.A.). They were expected to contact a future workplace during their studies in order to obtain work experience in a factory or public institution. Universities were thus to become part of a production process aimed at training skilled specialists. Censorship was strengthened, international cooperation strictly controlled, and many courses – like sociology – were labelled as “bourgeois science” and simply cancelled.

A special place on the post-war map of higher education was occupied by the young, working class city of Lodz. Following the conclusion of the war in 1945 only 30% of its former citizens remained, but its material structure was well preserved, and together, with the influx of internally displaced Poles, it became a temporary, informal capital of the country. It was also a magnet for leftist intellectuals (Connelly 2000). Although it was the second biggest city after Warsaw, because of its lack of any previous higher education institutions (the only one being a local branch of the non-public university of Warsaw) it had no previous academic structures to be reproduced. However, as an industrial giant Lodz was considered to be a “red” city with its tradition of the 1905 Revolution and labour movements, historically playing a kind of figure of the ‘Other’ in Polish culture (Zysiak 2014). All in all, it was a perfect place to build a university for the new times, and one could easily feel and become a part of this change.

Reform and the New Intelligentsia

One of the most important goals of higher education reform was its democratization. This term was understood as the reconstruction of the social structure of students (and graduates) so it would reflect the social structure of society. If society was mainly rural, then mainly peasant children should attend the lectures. The need for more egalitarian access to higher education was seen, as well by many scholars, who actively participated in this process. In the first post-war years a variety of solutions were implemented, like the ‘initial year’, preparatory courses, the special quota of registration indices reserved for the disposition of the Ministry of Education, and some preferences for children of working-class origin.\(^7\)

The academic year 1949/1950 was crucial for Polish academia as the central reform of science was in its

\(^1\) Both were designed to overcome gaps in education and allow students without a high school diploma to enter university.

\(^2\) An affirmative action program awarding additional points during enrollment was not implemented until the 1960s, when the effects of democratization turned out to be very poor.

\(^7\) An affirmative action program awarding additional points during enrollment was not implemented until the 1960s, when the effects of democratization turned out to be very poor.

\(^8\) Also known as the german model, 19th century university in Berlin established by W. Humboldt, in literature it is used as a reference to an institutional model - autonomous union of scholars and students focused on both teaching and research, based on individualistic attitude, liberal values and vision of science as a separate social sphere not controlled by any outside, especially political, force.
the social and economic needs of workers, and open to as many people as were needed to build a socialist welfare state. There was no need to bring high culture to the masses; instead it was time to create a new mass culture.

While the traditional university model was supposed to be isolated from society and create pure science, with academic relations based on a craft model of master/mentor-pupil; the socialist mode was opposite to all these features: its role was supposed to be an active one as one of the tools of change in building a socialist society based on an organized, planned and collective effort of the working intelligentsia, not individual professors (“intellectual aristocrats”). The traditional model was politically neutral, or as critics would say “above people’s needs”, while the second was strongly devoted to social improvement and modernization. The first assumed that science is a way to get to know oneself, and the second that it is a public good, serving the development of a socialist society (Zysiak 2015).

The attempts to build a socialist university were most intense in the early post-war years in the working class city of Lodz, where over ten higher education institutions were created in the first post-war years. As already mentioned, before the war Lodz was labeled as the Red City. It was a textile industry center with the lowest percentage of intelligentsia and highest illiteracy rate among Polish cities (Baranowski 1996). While in 1937 1/3 of its citizens were still not able to read and write and 7% of adults had never attended school (Kamiński 1962), in 1988, after over 30 years of socialist experiment and with Lodz’s population exceeding 850,000, over 95% of its citizens had secondary or higher education (Dziuchowicz 2009:228). While in 1960 only 415,000 people had graduated from universities, before PRL’s collapse in 1988 the number had reached almost two million (Karpinski 2005:160). But, the core of social change was supposed to be of a more qualitative nature, consisting of an increase in educational desires and reconstruction of the social imagination, causing an education to be perceived as something attainable for all social strata. More women and workers were graduating not only from universities but also from high schools and trade schools, which became a main channel of upward social mobility. At the level of higher education the results were not so spectacular as had been planned and the gross enrolment index in institutions of higher education did not exceed 10%. For example, although in the 1970s already 40% of each year group of high school graduates entered universities (while before WWII this rate was 4-5%), 20-60% of students didn’t finish even their first year of education, and most of them were of working-class origin (Szczepański 1976:77). Still, all of the following generations brought up during the People’s Republic of Poland had greater chances to attain a higher level of education, and education inequalities were decreasing (Zawistowska 2012).

On a general level, it should be noted that universities were not the main place where this educational revolution took place. It rather happened in trade schools, technical colleges and technical universities. All in all, it is estimated that 24-35% of the post-war Polish population experienced upward mobility (Słomczyński 1973:122), and these were mainly comprised of two groups occupying opposite positions in the social structure: the intelligentsia and unskilled workers, starting from lowest positions. Even if the post-war press was encouraging the working classes to enrol in universities, this was still a rather rare choice for them.

Table 1. The percentage of University of Lodz students by social origin 1945-1969.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Percentage of UL’s students by social origin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1945/46</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1949/49</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951/52</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954/55</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957/58</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959/61</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963/64</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968/67</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969/69</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The mobility ladder for them was the trade schools, and even though a considerable number of working-class children entered the universities as well, they were still definitely a minority. Therefore, while political careers and even management positions were more open to working-class people (Skłabek 2001; Szczepański 1993), the academic field also served as a testing ground for upward mobility. As the most elitist and hermetic social field, and also probably the one most sceptical to educational reform, academia revealed the limits of upward mobility.

Academic Biographies

In this second part of the paper I present three biographies of ‘future professors’, that is, persons who started their academic careers during the time of reform. Along the lines of Daniel Bertaux (Bertaux 2004) and his influential work about Soviet Russia, where he refers to his understanding of the representativity of biographical research by stating that: “when picking a single witness whose life experience fits closely with what we know from history – his testimony reveals common patterns and mechanisms” (Bertaux 2004:13), in a similar vein I decided to select three biographical interviews to investigate patterns of embarking on an academic career during these turbulent times, and to trace the circumstances which determined this initial stage of this chosen biographical path. As stated, the presented materials are part of a wider collection of biographical interviews with almost 30 professors.9

---

9 The research project “Academic Lodz – university in biographies” (2011-2014) was inspired by the methodological approach proposed first by Fritz Schutze and developed, inter alia, by the so-called Lodz biographical school (Kamińska 1994; 2008; Rekuszewska-Pawełek 2002; Waniuk 2012).
In this group, most of the interviewees were born into intelligentsia families with high symbolic capital, and only a few came from peasant families (and none from workers). Intelligentsia should be understood here in a wide sense, including inter-war officers (military), teachers and even railway workers (Zarnowski 1965), as these were families with the highest symbolic and often economic capital. Although nobility was not to be counted as a part of intelligentsia (Jakubowska 2012), it was also a group characterized by a high symbolic capital.

Illustration 1. Narrators social origin compared with wealth and resources available.

An additional inspiring context was provided by the autobiographies written by professors themselves (Moja droga do nauki [My path to science] 1996, and others) and a collection of interviews with members of Polish Academy of Learning, re-established in 1989 (Kobos 2007 and others). The material selected for this article describes three representative academic biographical paths available to the generation for this article describes three representative academic biographical paths available to the generation.

1. The Obvious

The first narrator was born into a well-situated intelligentsia family in Lodz in 1926. Her safe childhood was interrupted by the war, but thanks to her family’s social capital and savings, her level of life remained decent, allowing her to continue her educational path, almost without interruptions or delays, in the best schools available at that time. The interviewee was even introduced to academic circles in order to choose the future academic discipline that would most suit her interests, as her family network of contacts allowed for the organization of meetings with well-known professors. She relates that:

[about choosing the field of study] It was a funny situation, as two families offered to help me. I was supposed to meet with two professors - one was with professor X, whom I knew, and the other with professor Y, about whom I knew nothing. But I learned [...] that she was a very interesting person and conducted such an interesting study et cetera. so they arranged both meetings, and let’s say that on Wednesday I had a meeting scheduled with Y - I had the address and a recommendation - and on Friday I had a meeting scheduled with X. So I went first to Y, and the professor convinced me at once. So I never went to the second meeting.

While this manner of arranging contacts was partly related to the war circumstances, still her educational career seems to be quite typical for an intelligentsia child, strongly supported by her family’s social networks. It was obvious that she would start studies at university, as her older sister did, and she managed to attend an underground university. After the war, when the family managed to get back into its previous house, she continued her studies at the newly-established University of Lodz. She was deeply involved in the academic community and devoted to her academic supervisor. This dyadic relation of a master/mentor and pupil was typical of inter-war academia. She was involved in the organization of the new university, but on a purely academic level, avoiding political engagement and in fact was not even interested in politics, to which she referred in her interview as only annoying outside interruption. Her whole narration is structured by her repeated statement "The peak of Stalinization (1952-1953), this event seems to have had only a minor impact on her academic path. She mentioned it only in the course of describing..."
A new research project in which she got involved. Her bonds with academic field and her master/mentor remained quite close and she got support from her family and husband, so she treated her dismissal as just a time-limited inconvenience. While she had problems with obtaining an academic degree and position owing to political reasons, it did not influence her academic career. She felt secure because her reference point was in academics, not politics, and it was rather the opinions of her supervisor that were crucial in the evaluation of her academic work, and it was rather the opinions of her supervisor that were crucial in the evaluation of her academic work, and it was rather the opinions of her supervisor that were crucial in the evaluation of her academic work.

After defending my PhD, I didn’t do my habilitation for a long time; actually I hadn’t defended my PhD for a long time as well because it was abolished. There were only exams and a title of candidate of science, and I had no great desire to pass an exam on Marxism-Leninism, because there was this Marxism-Leninism exam [...] And, we were all incurably non-party (laughs), with my professor leading the way. And due to this fact I did my PhD only in 1959 when the title of candidate of science was abolished.

Her biographical path is in many places and moments typical of that of a traditional university academic in inter-war academia – she is from a well-situated family, has close relation with her supervisor (mentor). Her definition of what the university is seems obvious, almost invisible or transparent, rooted in tradition. So are the rules that one follows – they constitute an inner moral compass she seemed to have socialized at home and during her education. From this perspective political changes are unexpected and unwanted outside interventions - not needed, rare and incomprehensible.

2. The Romantic

The second narrator was born in 1931 to a military officer’s family. During the war the level of life of her family was quite stable, although her father went missing (but survived the war). Despite changing places of living, her educational path was also stable and when family arrived in Lodz in 1945 she continued her education in well-respected schools, without suffering any delays as a result of the war. Although in her family there were no expectations for women to be educated at the university level, when she had decided to sign up for the University of Lodz she received strong support – including even when she became politically active in communist youth organizations, which her family disapproved of. As she claimed, she was a representative of a generation too young to participate consciously in the war experience or the Warsaw Uprising. It was a generation that also felt a hunger for a grand narrative that wanted to be involved in a social change:

I had a great interest in social issues, and the influence of Marxism, Leninism was very large [...] I belonged to the generation that was too late to participate... maybe I would have been a scout in Warsaw, but I lived in the countryside, so I did not participate in the Resistance. After the war we wanted to change the world through such slogans as free education, free health care and equality, equal treatment. In the countryside I saw how the farmhands were treated. It all somehow appealed to me.

With this romanticized notion, she was expected to be a part of the ZMP-generation and become a part of the new intelligentsia building a socialist university. Her university education coincided with the reform, of which she remained critical, searching independently for preserved niches of more traditional academia. Soon she settled in the elite group of students and assistants, all of intelligentsia origin (which even became an issue of official discussion and intervention):

All of us [the department’s faculty] were of intelligentsia origin so in the end this was badly seen. I was hired (...) as well of intelligentsia origin. And finally, Professor C., he came to his senses or was under pressure (...) he had to take someone from the new students, who would have a good class origin and was in the Party.

Her initial social engagement passed quickly and did not help her in her academic career – from the perspective of the local Party executive her social background seemed more important. While still studying and being active in many student projects, she began to work at the University as a typist and moved smoothly to an academic position after graduation. Throughout her whole narration a noticeable amount of space is given to her political and social activity.

This case may seem to be similar to the previous one, but the difference lies in her initial engagement and attitude towards political activity. She wanted to be an active subject in the current changes and was interested in politics and its relation with academia. However, following her initial engagement in communist youth organizations she became highly critical of the existing order. The more she became involved in the academic community and its traditional values, the more she became distanced from the governmental reforms of universities and the political order in general. Hers is a case of a politically active academician who at first became enraptured by the new system and later became disillusioned with it, albeit still involved in ongoing social change. Her academic career developed smoothly with the strong support of her husband (also an academician and dissident) and a close circle of scientists.

3. The Unexpected

The last of the narrators presented here is also the youngest. He was born into a peasant family in 1934. As he avoided talking about his childhood, we know only that his entire family except for his grandmother was killed during the war. Despite the difficult conditions, he commenced education in pedagogical high school in a small town, where he became the leader of a workshop and was exempted from a work order (i.e., an obligatory appointment to a job in provincial schools in his case). [in the 1950s] most of my colleagues had to go to work immediately. Then the country (with emphasis) needed people. There was more work then, so to speak (...) and just physically, biologically fit human beings were needed.

Due to his having obtained the title of workshop leader he was able to enrol in university. For personal reasons he chose Lodz and started courses in 1953, when the condition of this particular university was relatively poor and the Stalinization of science was reaching its peak. Already in the first
year he became the best student, surprised that he was given an award for his high marks, as studying was “just his duty”. He was also active in student communist youth organizations, successfully seeking opportunities to participate in both the political and cultural life of a big city.

[Around 1953-55] there were some elections. I do not remember whether they were the parliamentary one or to the councils, but the polling station was in the school, and one of the boys ran up and said that there are some hooligans, immediately, not agitated by anyone, all the students who had very different views and were not always enthusiastic about the, as it was then called, the ‘new or current reality’ or the Polish People’s Republic, still upon hearing the news that something was happening at the polling station, everyone immediately rushed to the rescue. Before the militia arrived, order was restored.

Just after having defended his highly rated M.A. thesis he obtained a proposition from his supervisor and began his quite regular academic career, stabilized also by his early-established family. Until today he still retains enthusiasm and sentiment for the People’s Republic of Poland and its social achievements.

In this case the narrator began his academic path without a previous habitus of intelligentsia, or attachment to any defined model of a university or set of values and rules. He has entered an educational path unexpected for his social origin - both from perspective of traditional academia and a socialist one (which needed educated specialist for industry and primary education). He was the beneficiary of the newly opened possibilities for social advancement. Nevertheless, at the same time the idea of a traditional university turns out to be closer to him than one might expect. His initial enthusiasm for social and political order of 1950s is not problematic for him – nor does he try to distance himself from it. Still, in later fragments of his narration he focuses mainly on his scientific career, where he did not try to influence either reality or the university in any way. He seems to have continued his initial political and social engagement in his academic work, serving his country and society. His position in academia, as well as his economic status was stable, partly thanks to his wife’s position as a manager of a local state institution.

His biographical path seems to be a perfect exemplification of the ‘ZMP-generation’ and the creation of the new intelligentsia. His ‘proper’ social origin, spectacular upward mobility, political activity, faith in the modernization project and the excellent academic results of his work make him a perfect ‘socialist’ scientist. However, one feature may be considered an exception to this model – when he embarked on his academic career he became, at the same time, a representative of traditional academia in the sense of values, relations, and his understanding of the aims of a scientist and the role of the university. This is especially visible in his relations with his mentor and the criteria of his academic career.

To sum up the main differences between these three biographies I have focused on a few specific moments and aspects of their biographical paths, which were related with their academic careers.

### Table 2. Comparison of selected biographical features.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>THE OBVIOUS</th>
<th>THE ROMANTIC</th>
<th>THE UNEXPECTED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SOCIAL BACKGROUND</td>
<td>Intelligentsia</td>
<td>Intelligentsia</td>
<td>Peasant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TURNING POINT</td>
<td>Meeting with Master</td>
<td>Social relations in inter-war academic circles</td>
<td>Political privilege</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACADEMIC CAREER</td>
<td>Despite official obstacles, very close relation with Master</td>
<td>Strong social bonds, high social sensitivity</td>
<td>Close relation to Master, stable academic career</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT</td>
<td>None, politics means problems</td>
<td>ZMP activist, later on – critical</td>
<td>Believer and supporter of socialist modernization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own elaboration.

The first case reflects a traditional academic career – it is driven by the stable and almost invisible rules of an academic field, based on the model of a traditional university. The political realm is seen as external and hostile. In the second case, the narrator’s strong social sensitivity led her to both join the ZMP, as well as later participate in many opposition initiatives. At the beginning of her biographical path the influence of the political field and the socialist model of a university seems to be strong, although she later became highly critical towards the implemented version of the socialist university and the proposed version of communism. Without denying her previous engagement, she became a critic of the socialist university and built her academic career within the framework of a traditional university. Finally, the third narrator represents a perfect product of socialist upward mobility, yet although he preserved a nostalgia and admiration for socialist modernization, he himself became socialized into a traditional academic habitus, probably mainly because of his close relationship with his mentor/master. His academic career developed smoothly within the visible criteria of traditional academia, and he also stayed away from political engagement. Therefore in all three cases the narrators ended up with stable academic careers within a traditional model of university.

### The Pre-War Intelligentsia Ethos

When power, however ruthless and forceful, “hits the ground,” it is met with various interactive dynamics and reshaped along different structural and personal vectors. It was no different with the Stalization of science. Here, the reconstitution of forced imperatives was made through people personally involved in benign projects of radical democratization and modernization. In all three examined cases the academic field gained dominance at certain moments of the narrators’ careers. The acceptance of its rules and values seems to be a constitutive factor for continuing an
academic career. In the first two cases this process was supported by social origin and strong ties between the narrators and important others, who belonged to inter-war academia. The third case, as well as a few other similar careers of professors of working-class origin, created an unexpected pattern.

Table 3. Comparison of political and academic filed influence on biographies.

| At the beginning of their academic career | Academic | Political | Political |
| During their academic career | Academic | Academic | Academic |

Source: Own elaboration.

A closer look at the biographical material provides a basis for criticism of the one-dimensional picture of post-war academia, which seems to dominate historical studies on the issue. The post-war reform created new paths of social mobility, making space for people earlier excluded from this type of career. What is interesting is that even those who benefited from organizational reform were themselves deeply socialized into the traditional model of academia, which existed as a positive model and a guarantee of developing an academic career. The radical, out- sider and imposed modernization of science generated a sense of loss and strong nostalgia for a never-existing traditional model of university – not only among inter-war intellectuals and students of intelligentsia origin, but also among the beneficiaries of the very change itself.

The two main narratives of the post-war period in academia assume the dominance of the political field, both in the case of creation of a new intelligentsia and a captive university: the first narrative is about seduction, the second about enslavement. However, this is not the only vector of social changes which were in play. The fight against inter-war academia and the traditional university – a part of the narrative about the captive university – led iron-ically to reproduction of the traditional university. Two opposite vectors of social change met in the academic field. In the case of the new generation of academicians, those who were supposed to be- come a new intelligentsia reproduced the tradition- al university model. The vector of the academic field turned out to be stronger and probably determined their biographical path.10 Even if the post-war social imagination had been reconstructed and educa- tional desires emerged, still the habitus of working class children had to adjust to the academic field. Those who experienced the upward mobility path to intelli-gentsia entered an unknown and alien culture. The field of academia valued inter-war patterns of behaviour, rules and the traditional model of uni- versity, and it remained highly critical of the so- cialist model of university and the modernization project as such. Those who entered academia had to socialize themselves into the traditional university, and if they wanted to continue their academic careers they needed to adjust. This is why they would not become the new intelligentsia.

The changes provided by socialist reform were a shallow facade, and the rules of the academic field at that particular historical moment were pre- served, as is clearly visible in case of “The Obvi- ous”, who views her loss of her job as only a tem- porary setback. During the reform eleven assistant professors lost their jobs, yet nine of them - like our as ours chosen narrator – later continued their academic careers. Furthermore, while academic ti- tles were granted to 302 people in 1951-54, only 41 were Party members (Connelly 1999:198). The fail- ure to produce a new academic intelligentsia was not only a problem of generations (Świda-Ziema 2003), but rather of classes, their values and lan- guages (Swartz 2012). Furthermore, the research from the late 1950s revealed a profound distinct- ion in educational aspirations between workers and intelligentsia families. While working classes wished for their children only to avoid physical work, the intelligentsia aimed at an academic ca- reer for their children – becoming a professor was a dream biographical plan (Szczeński 1960). In the 1980s 68% of academicians teaching at universities were of intelligentsia origin, as were the stu- dents planning an academic career (Najdusowska and Wnuk-Lipińska 1990).

On one hand, the academic field was supposed to adjust to the political reform, but this evoked, on the other hand, the resistance of inter-war academicians and led to an attempt to preserve the model of a tra- ditional university. The reform excluded many pro- fessors from academic life, allowed some to develop their careers based on political capital, and opened the possibilities of upward mobility for the working classes. However those who wanted to obtain a position in the academic field had to adjust to its underlying values, which were still not changed by the reform. The radical project of social reform did not influence the inner-rulled academic field. The narrative of a captive university produced by the totalitarian paradigm conceals the highly conser- vative character of the academic field and its high level of autonomy, especially considering values and the criteria for granting positions to newcom- ers. Inter-war academia, seeing itself as an imagined liberal university, defended itself from the wave of ‘barbarians at the gates’.

Acknowledgments

The work on this article was part of a research proj- ect realized at University of Lodz, Poland, financed by the Polish National Science Center, research grant Preludium 2 contracted as UMO-2011/03/N/ HS6/01948. I am especially grateful for professor Bri- an Porter-Szücs for his remarks on this paper.
References


Baranowski, Krzysztof. 1996. Inteligenca bldzika w latach II Rzeczypospolitej. Lodz: Wydawnictwo PL.


©2015 PSJ Tom XI Numer 3

Przegląd Socjologii Jakościowej • www.przegladsocjologijakosciowej.org
Socjalistyczny projekt nowej inteligencji i jego granice. Kariery akademickie na powojennym uniwersytecie w Polsce: perspektywa biograficzna

Abstrakt: Tematem artykułu jest powojenna rekonstrukcja polskiej akademii z perspektywy młodych pracowników naukowych i studentów. Pokolenie urodzone w latach dwudziestych i trzydziestych XX wieku było świadkami fundamentalnej zmiany polskiego społeczeństwa, kiedy także inteligencja i uniwersytety musiały stawić czoła dramatycznym wydarzeniom związanym z II wojną światową. Nadchodząca reforma systemu szkolnictwa wyższego była próbą budowy socjalistycznego uniwersytetu i egalitarnego społeczeństwa. Te procesy są zazwyczaj widziane jako dominacja akademii przez pole polityczne, zniewolenie profesorów czy uwidzenie studentów. Jest to część tego procesu. Jednak w opozycji do takiego ujęcia tematu artykuł proponuje tezę, iż to pole akademickie kształtowało biograficzne ścieżki przyszłych naukowców przynajmniej na równi – jeśli nie silniej – niż czynniki polityczne, których rolę zazwyczaj się podkreślą. Trzy wybrane biografie akademików przedstawiają nie złożość tych procesów, ale także odmienne konstelacje między politycznymi zmianami, uniwersytetem, akademickim habitusem i edukację szkolnictwa wyższego.

Słowa kluczowe: uniwersytet, inteligencja, Polska powojenna, biografia, socjalistyczna modernizacja

Citation