

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF THE HOLOCAUST



UNITED STATES
HOLOCAUST MEMORIAL MUSEUM

Boston
Public
Library

BPL


THANK YOU FOR USING THE BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY

PLEASE RETURN THIS MATERIAL ON OR BEFORE THE
LATEST STAMPED DATE

APR 01 2002	
JUL 20 2002	JAN 27 2003
OCT 15 2002	JAN 27 2003
NOV 06 2002	
NOV 30 2002	
DEC 23 2002	
DEC 24 2002	
JAN 26 2003	

• **Would you like to renew this material?**

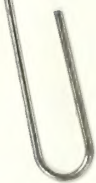
Please come in to any of our 27 locations
in Boston, call us at 617-536-5400, or
visit our website at www.bpl.org.

- Please be aware that you are responsible
for returning this material on time even
if you lose this card.

Thank you

if you lose this card.

Thank you



HISTORICAL ATLAS OF THE HOLOCAUST



Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2014

<https://archive.org/details/historicalatlaso00unit>

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF THE HOLOCAUST

UNITED STATES
HOLOCAUST MEMORIAL MUSEUM

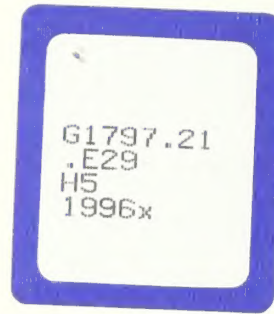
Macmillan Publishing USA
Simon & Schuster Macmillan
New York

Prentice Hall International
London Mexico City New Delhi Singapore Sydney Toronto

Copyright © 1996 by Yechiam Halevy

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage or retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publisher.

Macmillan Publishing USA
Simon & Schuster Macmillan
866 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10022



Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 95-9354

Printed in the United States of America

Printing Number

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Historical Atlas of the Holocaust / United States Holocaust
Memorial Museum

p. cm.

Includes bibliography and index.

ISBN: 0-02-897451-4 (alk. paper)

1. Holocaust, Jewish (1939-1945)—Maps. 2. Holocaust, Jewish
(1939-1945) 3. Historical geography—Maps I. U.S. Holocaust
Memorial Museum.

G1797.21.E29H5 1995

95-9354

940.53'18'0223—dc20

CIP

Map

The paper used in this publication meets the minimum requirements of American National Standard for Information Sciences—Permanence of Paper for Printed Library Materials. ANSI Z39.48-1984 TM

- 7 Preface
- 8 Acknowledgements
- 9 Introduction

SECTION 1

EUROPE BEFORE THE WAR

- 12 Europe 1933
- 14 European Jewish Population Distribution circa 1933
- 15 Jewish Communities in Germany, Austria, and Czechoslovakia circa 1933
- 16 European Romani (Gypsy) Population Distribution circa 1939
- 17 German Territorial Losses, Versailles Treaty 1919
- 18 Remilitarization of the Rhineland and "Anschluss" with Austria 1936-1938
- 18 German Annexation of the Sudetenland 1938
- 19 Partition of Czechoslovakia 1938-1939
- 20 German Territorial Gains before the War, August 1939
- 21 Nazi Concentration Camps 1933-1934
- 22 Nazi Concentration Camps 1939
- 23 Identification Patches and Camp Badges (illustration)
- 24 "Kristallnacht": the Nationwide Pogrom of November 9 and 10, 1938
- 25 Voyage of the SS *St. Louis*, May 13-June 17, 1939
- 26 Jewish Emigration from Germany 1933-1940
- 28 "Euthanasia" Centers, Germany 1940-1945

SECTION 2

THE HOLOCAUST IN EASTERN EUROPE

- 30 Axis Alliance 1939-1941
- 31 Eastern Europe after the German-Soviet Pact 1939-1940
- 32 German Conquests in Europe 1939-1942
- 33 German Administration of Europe 1942
- 34 German Administration of Poland 1942
- 35 German Administration of Eastern Europe 1942
- 36 Ghettos in Occupied Poland 1939-1941
- 37 Warsaw Environs 1940
- 38 Warsaw Ghetto 1940
- 39 Deportations to Warsaw Ghetto 1941-1942
Inset: East Europe 1941
- 40 Deportations from Warsaw Ghetto 1942
- 41 Warsaw Ghetto Uprising 1943
- 42 Deportations to Lodz Ghetto 1941-1942
- 43 Lodz Environs 1940
- 44 Lodz Ghetto 1940-1944
- 45 Nazi Camps in Occupied Poland 1939-1945
- 46 Krakow Environs 1942-1944
- 47 Krakow Ghetto, May 1942
- 48 Plaszow Concentration Camp, January 1944
- 49 "Erntefest," November 3, 1943

- 50 Invasion of the Soviet Union 1941-1942
- 51 Einsatzgruppen Massacres (Mobile Killing Units) in Eastern Europe, June 1941-November 1942
- 52 Deportations to Kamenets-Podolski 1941
- 53 Babi Yar Massacre in Kiev, September 29 and 30, 1941
- 54 Ghettos in Occupied Eastern Europe 1941-1942
- 56 Minsk Environs 1941-1942
- 57 Minsk Ghetto, July 1941
- 58 Bialystok Environs 1941
- 59 Bialystok Ghetto 1941-1943
- 60 Vilna Environs 1941-1943
- 61 Vilna Ghetto 1941-1943
- 62 Lvov Environs 1941-1942
- 63 Janowska Labor Camp, Fall 1942
- 64 Ghettos in the Baltic Countries 1941-1943
- 65 Nazi Camps in the Baltic Countries 1941-1945
- 66 Riga Environs 1941-1942
- 67 Riga Ghetto 1942
- 68 Kovno Environs 1941-1944
- 69 Kovno Ghetto 1941-1944
- 70 Romania 1941
- 70 Romania 1942
- 71 Romanian Camps and Ghettos 1942
- 72 Romanian Deportations to Transnistria 1941-1942
- 72 Romanian Participation in Massacres 1941-1942
- 73 Odessa Environs 1941-1944
- 74 Romanian-Occupied Odessa 1941-1944

SECTION 3

NAZI EXTERMINATION CAMPS

- 76 Extermination Camps in Occupied Poland 1942
- 77 Extermination Camps 1942
- 78 European Rail System 1939
- 80 Chelmno Environs, Spring 1942
- 81 Chelmno, Spring 1942
- 82 Major Deportations to Chelmno 1941-1944
- 83 Aktion Reinhard in the Generalgouvernement 1942
- 84 Belzec Environs, Winter 1942
- 85 Belzec Camp, Winter 1942
- 86 Major Deportations to Belzec 1942
- 87 Sobibor Environs, Spring 1942
- 88 Sobibor Camp, Spring 1942
- 89 Major Deportations to Sobibor 1942-1943
- 90 Treblinka Environs, Spring 1943
- 91 Treblinka Camp, Spring 1943
- 92 Major Deportations to Treblinka 1942-1943
- 93 Auschwitz Environs, Summer 1944
- 94 Auschwitz Development Zone

CONTENTS

- 95 Auschwitz I Camp 1944
- 96 Auschwitz II (Birkenau) Camp, Summer 1944
- 97 Auschwitz III (Monowitz) Camp 1944
- 98 Major Deportations from Ghettos in Poland to Auschwitz 1941-1944
- 99 Major Deportations to Auschwitz 1941-1944
- 99 Auschwitz Subcamp System, Upper Silesia 1941-1945
- 100 Majdanek Environs, Fall 1943
- 101 Majdanek Camp, Fall 1943
- 102 Major Deportations to Majdanek 1941-1944

SECTION 4

THE HOLOCAUST IN WESTERN EUROPE

- 104 German Invasion of Western Europe 1940
- 104 Occupation of Western Europe 1940
- 105 Occupation of Western Europe 1944
- 106 Camps in France 1942
- 107 Major Deportations from France 1942-1944
- 107 Deportation of Jews from Paris
- 108 Paris Environs 1943
- 108 Central Paris 1943
- 109 Drancy Transit Camp 1943
- 110 Gurs Environs 1942
- 111 Gurs Camp 1942
- 111 Major Deportations of Jews to Gurs 1940-1943
- 112 Camps in France 1944
- 112 Occupation of Southern Zone, November 1942
- 113 Natzweiler-Struthof Environs, Spring 1944
- 114 Natzweiler-Struthof Camp, Spring 1944
- 115 Natzweiler-Struthof Subcamps 1942-1945
- 116 The Low Countries 1939
- 117 Nazi Camps in the Low Countries 1940-1945
- 118 Major Deportations from the Low Countries 1942-1944
- 119 Amsterdam Environs 1942
- 120 Amsterdam 1942
- 121 Anne Frank 1929-1945
Inset: Hiding in Amsterdam 1942-1944
- 122 Westerbork Environs 1942
- 123 Westerbork Transit Camp 1942
- 124 Breendonk and Mechelen Environs 1942
- 125 Mechelen Transit Camp 1942
- 126 Breendonk Internment Camp 1942

SECTION 5

THE HOLOCAUST IN CENTRAL EUROPE

- 128 Deportations of Jews from Germany 1941-1944
- 130 Berlin Environs 1942
- 131 Deportations of Jews from Berlin 1941-1943
- 132 Vienna Environs 1942

- 133 Deportations of Jews from Vienna 1941-1945
- 134 Theresienstadt Environs 1944
- 135 Theresienstadt Ghetto, Summer 1944
- 136 Deportations to Theresienstadt from Bohemia and Moravia 1941
- 136 Deportations from Theresienstadt 1942-1944
- 137 Greater Germany 1944
- 138 Greater Germany Major Nazi Camps 1944
- 140 Europe Major Nazi Camps 1943-1944
- 142 Persecution of Roma (Gypsies) 1939-1945
- 143 Nazi Medical Experiments 1942-1945
- 144 Dachau Environs 1944
- 145 Dachau Concentration Camp 1944
- 146 Dachau Subcamps 1938-1945
- 147 Buchenwald Environs 1945
- 148 Buchenwald Concentration Camp, Spring 1945
- 149 Buchenwald Subcamps 1938-1945
- 150 Mauthausen Environs, April 1945
- 151 Mauthausen Concentration Camp, April 1945
- 152 Mauthausen Subcamps in Former Austria 1938-1945
- 153 Ravensbrueck Environs 1945
- 154 Ravensbrueck Concentration Camp 1945
- 155 Ravensbrueck Subcamps 1941-1945
- 156 Gross-Rosen Environs 1945
- 157 Gross-Rosen Concentration Camp 1945
- 158 Gross-Rosen Subcamps 1940-1945
- 159 Stutthof Environs 1944
- 160 Stutthof Concentration Camp, Fall 1944
- 161 Stutthof Subcamps 1939-1945
- 162 Dora-Mittelbau Environs 1945
- 163 Dora-Mittelbau Concentration Camp 1945
- 164 Dora-Mittelbau Subcamps 1943-1945
- 165 Bergen-Belsen Environs 1944
- 166 Bergen-Belsen Concentration Camp 1944

SECTION 6

THE HOLOCAUST IN SOUTHERN EUROPE AND HUNGARY

- 168 Invasion of the Balkans, April 1941
- 169 Partition of Yugoslavia 1941
- 169 Occupation of Greece 1941
- 170 German Administration of Southern Europe 1943
- 172 Major Nazi and Axis Camps in Southern Europe 1941-1944
- 174 Deportations from Southern Europe 1941-1944
- 176 Jasenovac Environs 1942
- 177 Jasenovac III Concentration Camp 1942
- 178 Salonika Environs 1942-1943
- 179 German-Occupied Salonika 1942-1943

- 180 Italy 1939
- 180 Italian-Occupied Areas in Southern Europe 1942
- 181 German-Occupied Areas of Italy 1943
- 182 Deportations from Italy 1943-1944
- 183 Rome Environs 1943
- 184 German-Occupied Rome 1943
- 185 Hungary 1937
- 186 Hungarian Expansion
- 186 Forced-Labor Camps for Jews in Occupied Hungary 1944
- 187 Major Ghettos in Occupied Hungary 1944
- 188 Deportations from Hungarian Ghettos 1944
- 189 Budapest Environs 1944
- 189 Budapest Ghetto 1944
- 190 Death March from Budapest 1944

SECTION 7

RESCUE AND JEWISH ARMED RESISTANCE

- 192 Escape Routes from German-Occupied Europe 1942
- 194 Rescue of Danish Jews, Fall 1943
- 195 Escape Routes from Norway 1942-1943
- 196 Voyage of the *Struma*,
December 12, 1941-February 24, 1942
- 197 Rescue in Budapest 1944-1945
- 198 Jewish Partisan Activity in Eastern Europe 1942-1944
- 199 Jewish Partisan Activity in Western Europe 1942-1944
- 200 Jewish Armed Resistance in Ghettos and Camps
1941-1944
- 201 Jewish Parachutists from Palestine 1943-1945
- 202 Jewish Brigade Group 1944-1945

SECTION 8

DEATH MARCHES AND LIBERATION

- 204 Major Death Marches and Evacuations 1944-1945
- 205 Major Death Marches from Auschwitz
January 1945
- 206 Evacuations and Death March from Stutthof,
January-April 1945
Inset: Death March to Lauenburg (Lebork)
- 207 Death Marches from Gross-Rosen 1945
- 207 Death Marches from Buchenwald, April 1945
- 208 Death March from Dachau to Tegernsee, March 1945
- 209 The Liberation of Major Nazi Camps 1944-1945
- 210 The Defeat of Nazi Germany 1942-1945
- 212 Battle of Berlin, April 1945

SECTION 9

POSTWAR EUROPE 1945-1950

- 214 Europe in 1945
 - 215 Eastern Europe in 1945
 - 215 Occupation of Germany 1945
 - 216 Major European War Crimes Trials 1943-1947
 - 217 Major Camps for Jewish Displaced Persons 1945-1946
 - 218 Jewish "Illegal" Immigration 1945-1947
 - 220 Detention Camps in Cyprus,
August 1946-February 1948
 - 220 The State of Israel, Boundaries as of 1949
 - 221 European Jewish Population Distribution circa 1950
-
- 222 European Regions and German Administration Units
 - 224 Glossary
 - 227 Bibliography
 - 233 Gazetteer

The compilation of the maps for the *Historical Atlas of the Holocaust* involved a number of rare and little-used sources. In producing the atlas, the cartographic research and development team worked extensively with combinations of primary sources, each used to complement the information provided by another.

German army (Wehrmacht) maps captured by American forces during and after World War II constituted the principal map sources used in the atlas. Further, photographs—especially aerial photography taken by both Allied and German forces—were an invaluable source in compiling accurate plans of Nazi concentration camps. Political and strategic maps from the United States government and topographic and transportation maps from most European countries were essential resources for the country and city plans included in the atlas. All map sources used are from the time period 1933 to 1950. The construction of the maps also relied heavily on textual materials, primarily court records, memorial books, captured German records, and secondary works such as scholarly journals and survivor testimonies in German, French, and English.

The compilation of the Drancy transit camp plan (p. 109) illustrates the range of sources used. Located in a suburb of Paris, Drancy was the principal camp used during the deportation of Jews from France. German installations in Drancy were plotted through the use of military maps provided to German occupation forces. The alignment and names of streets were pinpointed through the use of period French civilian maps, which also identified French installations in the area. Camp features were added with the aid of contemporary photographs of the camp. Such photographs identified the structure of Drancy itself, the German headquarters situated next to the camp, the streets falling within the bounds of the camp, and the buildings used for manufacturing operations at Drancy. These features were confirmed, whenever possible, in documents, survivor testimonies, and secondary literature.

The range of rare sources used in the compilation of the atlas is further illustrated by the map of Babi Yar (p. 53), a ravine near Kiev where Einsatzgruppen (mobile killing unit) detachments massacred more than 33,000 Jews in late September 1941. Aerial photographs taken by both Allied and German air forces, civilian Soviet maps, and German military maps were complemented by the use of other photographs to identify features plotted on the map. The ravine itself and the road system leading to it were located through the use of a Soviet military topographic map. A German army map provided the plan of Kiev and the road network of the city.

Finally, a word about the place names used on the maps in the atlas. Many European town or city names had and continue to have several accepted forms. The borders of many European countries changed radically before, during, and after World War II, further complicating the choice of place names. In the atlas, cities and towns are generally named according to the language of the country in which they were located before World War II. German designations are used for Nazi concentration camps. No diacritics are used. A gazetteer listing alternative place names has been included (beginning on p. 233) to facilitate use of the atlas.

The *Historical Atlas of the Holocaust* presents maps produced for the Wexner Learning Center of the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum.

The Center is an interactive computerized facility developed with funds donated by Mrs. Bella Wexner and Mr. and Mrs. Leslie H. Wexner of Columbus, Ohio. It offers Museum visitors historical information based on articles from the Macmillan *Encyclopedia of the Holocaust* and the Macmillan *Encyclopedia of the Third Reich* as the organizing “spine” of this multimedia, on-line program. To enrich and appropriately illustrate the articles drawn from the encyclopedias, the Center created databases of relevant supplementary materials: documentary photographs, film footage, videotaped eyewitness testimonies, musical materials, and, of course, maps. More than 500 maps have been incorporated into the Center’s system; over 230 from among them constitute this atlas.

The maps, prepared by the Center’s cartographer Dewey Hicks and its historian William Meinecke, are based on extensive research into primary sources: for example, period maps from the German army mapping service; Allied and German aerial photographs; political and strategic maps from the U.S. State Department and the Office of Strategic Services (OSS); railway and city maps from various European countries; and a great number of textual records.

The Holocaust took place across more than 20 European countries which during World War II were in the grip of Nazi Germany. During this period political boundaries changed, states were dismantled, new states established, and hundreds of place names, which before the war were unknown even to educated people, suddenly assumed great historic importance. Who would know the location of towns like Auschwitz, Treblinka, or Chelmno were it not for the death camps established there by the Germans? Who would know the location of geographic regions like the Sudetenland or Transnistria, the location of Nazi concentration camps like Dachau, Buchenwald, and Bergen-Belsen, had he not learned the history of the Nazi regime and the Holocaust? Conversely, it is impossible to learn and understand Holocaust history without complementing the chronological description and analysis of the events with adequate information on the geography underlying this chapter of modern history.

The sequence of maps in the atlas follows the chronology of the historic Holocaust-related events from 1933 to 1950. Since each map comes with detailed textual background information, the atlas can be regarded as a condensed history of the Holocaust, presenting the geographical aspects of the historic events.

The atlas is published both in book form and as a CD-ROM by Macmillan Publishing USA in association with the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum. It is an important scholarly publication of the Museum’s Holocaust Research Institute, another contribution of the Museum to the field of Holocaust studies. It is an indispensable source of information for anybody who is interested in this tragic chapter of human history.

Jeshajahu Weinberg, Founding Director
United States Holocaust Memorial Museum

United States Holocaust Memorial Council

Miles Lerman, Chair

Ruth B. Mandel, Vice Chair

United States Holocaust Memorial Museum

Jeshajahu Weinberg, Founding Director

Walter Reich, Director

Review

Michael Berenbaum, Director, United States

Holocaust Research Institute

Sybil Milton, Senior Historian, United States

Holocaust Research Institute

Richard Breitman, Professor of History, The American
University

Concept Development

Jeshajahu Weinberg

Yechiam Halevy

Atlas Design and Production

Jennifer Loew Mendelson, Director

Dewey G. Hicks, Cartographer

William F. Meinecke Jr., Historian

Sandra Kaiser, Editor

Cartography

Amy B. Gorman, Cartographic/Graphic Artist

Eric Smith, Technician

Thach Nguyen, Graphic Artist

Bertram Rothenberg, Editor

Jack Michaelson, Researcher

Rachel Kreiger, Aide

Mounir Murad, Color Separation

Research

Steven Luckert, Historian

Anne Molineu, Researcher

Elizabeth Soloway Snider, Editor

Database Development and Technical Support

Galia Steinbach

Project Coordination

Susan Graber, Coordinator

Deborah L. Gaffin, Coordinator

The Museum acknowledges with gratitude the contributions of the staff of its Research Institute, especially those working in the archives and library, and the staff of the Museum's Department of Technical Services. In addition, the Museum is grateful for the help of the following organizations:

Map Library, Library of Congress, Washington D.C.

Map Archives, National Archives, Washington D.C.

Defense Mapping Agency, Department of Defense,
Washington D.C.

Defense Intelligence Agency, Department of Defense,
Washington D.C.

The Museum also acknowledges the contributions to the production of the atlas of the following:

Cathy Chappell

Peter Fink

Wesley A. Fisher

Michael E. Garvey

Anna Gedrich

Margaret A. Gorman

Jack Harris

Patricia Heberer

William Hess

Radu V. Ioanid

Michelle Isenberg

Nancy Kellman-Maddocks

Robert W. Kesting

Arnold Kramer

Harry Lee

Yelena Luckert

Brad McKelvey

Barbara A. Meinecke

Joel H. Mendelson

Dana Ellyn Miller

Carl J. Modig

Jacek M. Nowakowski

John O'Keefe

Kathleen Samiy

Gerald L. Smith

Ikon Graphics

Thunderwave, Inc.

The Publishers Service Bureau

This atlas presents in specific detail—country by country, place by place, process by process—the evolution of the Holocaust. The importance of the *Historical Atlas of the Holocaust* lies in its emphasis on the specific; but specific events, places, and processes must be viewed in the context of the whole. This brief introduction is intended to tell the story of the Holocaust in an overview.

Throughout the atlas, “the Holocaust” means the systematic, state-sponsored murder of six million Jews and millions of non-Jews by the Nazis and their collaborators during World War II.

In his monumental work *The Destruction of the European Jews*, Raul Hilberg outlines six stages in the destruction process: definition, expropriation, concentration, mobile killing units, deportation, and killing centers. These stages are a useful way to think about the Holocaust.

In Germany, the Nuremberg legislation of 1935 defined the Jews; Jews were identified not by the religion they professed, the values and beliefs they avowed, the rituals they practiced, or the identity they affirmed, but biologically based on the religion of their grandparents. Civil liberties for Jews were abridged and then violated. Once established, this definition of the enemy was applied in country after country as the German Reich expanded its borders and occupied other lands.

Homes, businesses, possessions, synagogues, public institutions, and private property were taken from the Jews. At first, this was an effort to force them to emigrate, to make Germany free of Jews; later, confiscation and expropriation became an essential part of the “Final Solution.”

During the war, Germany concentrated Jews, forcing them to live together in confined areas such as ghettos in Poland and the occupied territories in the east, and transit camps in the west. To the killers, these were temporary measures, pending some final policy. The victims thought the ghettos would endure and imagined some sort of underclass existence, at least until the end of the war.

With the invasion of the Soviet Union in June of 1941, the slaughter by Einsatzgruppen (mobile killing units) began. Accompanying advancing German forces, the Einsatzgruppen entered towns, villages, hamlets, even large cities, and rounded up and shot the Jews, Roma (Gypsies), and Soviet Commissars. This process continued as the army advanced. When the military situation permitted, the Einsatzgruppen returned to the larger Jewish communities to finish off what had been left undone.

The killing was difficult, even for the killers. They drank heavily; alcohol somehow made the work more bearable. Yet

the killers themselves were marked. Heinrich Himmler was told by one of his Einsatzgruppen commanders that “these men are finished for the rest of their lives. What kind of followers are we training here? Either neurotics or savages.”

To deal with this problem, a more impersonal method of killing was sought. The victims would be brought to the killers and dispatched in a way that kept the victims at a distance. Thus, a second form of killing was developed: the death camp, where the killing was done by gas and the bodies burned.

Railroads were the essential link in the killing process. And deportation transformed the ghetto into a transit camp, a way station to contain the captive population until the killing centers were developed and opened. Deportation meant the loss of home, the collapse of families, the beginning of a journey to death. The timetable was swift. The policy was announced in January 1942 at Wannsee; the killing centers were developed in the winter and spring, and by the summer of 1942 deportations had begun. By 1943, most of the Jews who were killed in the Holocaust were already dead.

Four camps were only for killing: Chelmno, Belzec, Sobibor, and Treblinka. Auschwitz and Majdanek served multiple functions: forced-labor camp, concentration camp, and killing center. Other concentration camps were not solely dedicated to killing, though conditions were so harsh, forced labor so intense, and food so scarce that hundreds of thousands of people died or were killed in them.

The progress of World War II had a significant impact on the Holocaust. With each German advance more Jews came under Nazi domination. Impending German losses often intensified the pace of destruction. Each area liberated from German control brought relief to its endangered population—none more endangered than the Jews.

Though the destruction of the Jews was at the center of Nazi ideology, Jews were not the only victims of Nazi Germany. Nazi racism was directed against a mosaic of victims. In the early years, trade unionists and political dissidents were incarcerated along with clergy who spoke out. Jehovah's Witnesses were imprisoned because they would not swear allegiance to the state, would not register for the draft, would not utter the words “Heil Hitler.” German male homosexuals were targeted and arrested because they were an affront to the Nazi macho image: they would not breed the master race. Nazi propaganda demonized these targeted groups so as to facilitate their elimination. During the war, most especially in the early days of victory, the Germans also targeted Soviet prisoners of war for extinction. Further, Slavic nations were to be enslaved by the “master race.”

The Germans systematically killed two other groups. Mentally retarded, physically handicapped, and emotionally disturbed Germans were killed in a "euthanasia" program. They were an embarrassment to the concept of the German master race. Gas chambers and crematoria were developed to kill these Germans and some physicians who presided over their destruction later staffed the Nazi killing centers. Darwinian ethics were taken to the extreme by the Nazis, who believed in survival of the fittest but were unwilling to wait for natural selection. Certain groups were defined as "life unworthy of living."

Roma (Gypsies) were also targeted and killed systematically. Their fate most closely paralleled that of the Jews. They were confined in ghettos such as Lodz and Warsaw. Romani men, women, and children were killed by the Einsatzgruppen and in the gas chambers of Auschwitz-Birkenau.

In the final months of the war, as camps in the east were being overrun, the Nazis instituted a series of forced evacuations by foot and by rail, hasty retreats of concentration camp

populations. Few if any provisions were supplied. The marches, known as death marches, took place in the dead of winter, the last-ditch effort to keep the living witnesses from being freed by the Allies. For the victims, the struggle was no longer against the Nazis, but against death itself as they were forced to draw upon reservoirs of strength, pushed beyond the limits of endurance.

I have told the story in a brief outline. Before you are the geographical details—precise, small, anguishing. They tell another part, an essential part of the story. What remains unsaid in these details, and what you must bring to this atlas, is an understanding of the human tale: the anguish of the victims, the courage of the resisters, the morality of the rescuers, and the depravity of the perpetrators.

Michael Berenbaum, Director
United States Holocaust Research Institute

SECTION 1

EUROPE BEFORE THE WAR





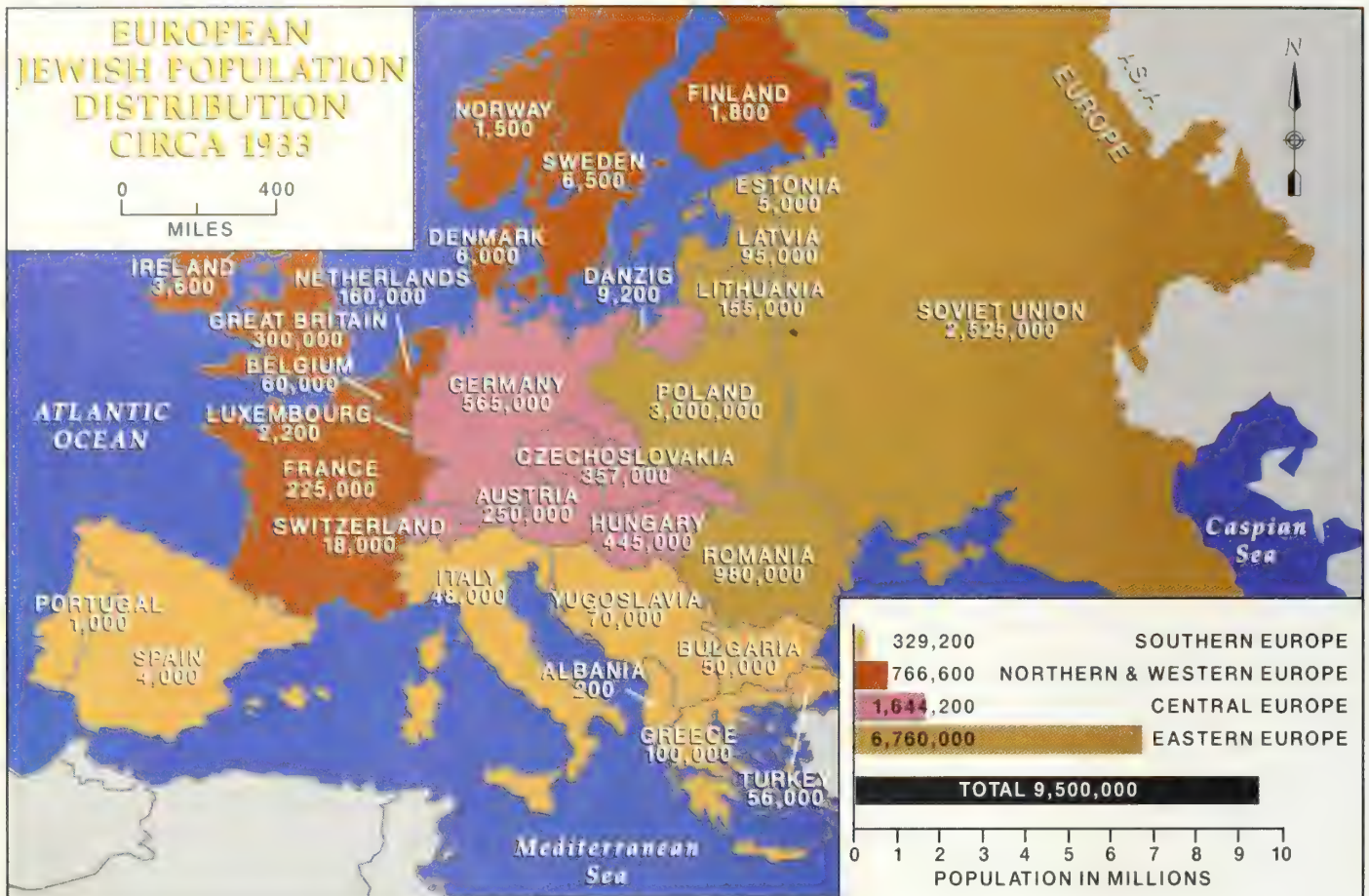
JEWS IN EUROPE BEFORE THE HOLOCAUST

Jews have lived in Europe for more than two thousand years. They trace their origins to the patriarch Abraham, who lived in the Middle Eastern kingdom of Mesopotamia in the seventeenth century B.C.E. Their religion is shaped by the Exodus from bondage in Egypt and the revelation to Moses at Sinai. Jews are monotheists, believing in one God. Their religious beliefs are contained and preserved in the Hebrew Bible.

When the Roman Empire sacked Jerusalem in 70 C.E., Jews were scattered to the far reaches of the empire, from present-day Portugal to Romania. The devastating defeat in Jerusalem and the break between Judaism and Christianity that followed it had a tremendous impact on the history of the Jews in Europe. For centuries, Christianity regarded Judaism and the Jews with hostility. From Augustine in the fifth century to Luther in the sixteenth century, Jews were demonized and lambasted as evil. As Christianity became the dominant religion of Europe, Jews were forced to the margins of society and treated as outsiders, with few civil rights.

Until the French Revolution of 1789, the status of Jews on the Continent remained tenuous. After 1789, France was in the vanguard of the emancipation movement, which gave civic and legal equality to the Jews. Even in France, however, emancipation did not diminish antisemitism. Across Europe, antisemitism took on racial overtones and became a powerful tool to mobilize political support. Jews became the target especially of conservative right-wing parties. Although civil equality for Jews was guaranteed by law by the early twentieth century, European Jewry was still beset by antisemitism and social discrimination.

The *American Jewish Yearbook* placed the total Jewish population of Europe at about 9.5 million in 1933. This number represented more than 60 percent of the world's Jewish population, which was estimated at 15.3 million. Most European Jews resided in eastern Europe. The largest Jewish communities in eastern Europe were in Poland, with about 3,000,000 Jews; the European part of the Soviet Union, with about 2,525,000; Romania, with about 980,000; and the three Baltic states combined, with about 255,000 (about 95,000 in



Latvia, 155,000 in Lithuania, and 5,000 in Estonia).

The largest Jewish community in prewar central Europe was in Germany, with about 565,000 members according to the 1925 census. This was followed by Hungary with about 445,000, Czechoslovakia with about 357,000, and Austria with about 250,000. In western Europe the largest Jewish communities were in Great Britain, with about 300,000 Jews; France, with about 225,000; and the Netherlands, with about 160,000. In southern Europe, Greece had the largest Jewish

population, with about 100,000 Jews. There were also significant Jewish communities in Yugoslavia (about 70,000), Bulgaria (about 50,000), and Italy (about 48,000).

Before the Nazi takeover of power in 1933, Europe had a dynamic and highly developed Jewish culture. In little more than a decade, most of Europe would be conquered, occupied, or annexed by Nazi Germany and most European Jews—two out of every three—would be dead. This immense tragedy extinguished a vibrant Jewish culture.



JEWISH COMMUNITIES: GERMANY, AUSTRIA, AND CZECHOSLOVAKIA

According to the census of June 16, 1933, the Jewish population of Germany, excluding the Saar region, totaled 499,682 people (a reduction from the 1925 figure due to emigration, especially following the Nazi takeover of power in January 1933). Jews represented about 0.8 percent of the total German population of about 62 million people. Separate figures were compiled for the Saar region, which was under the administration of the League of Nations until 1935. In the Saar region there were about 5,000 Jews as of January 1, 1933, about 0.56 percent of the total population.

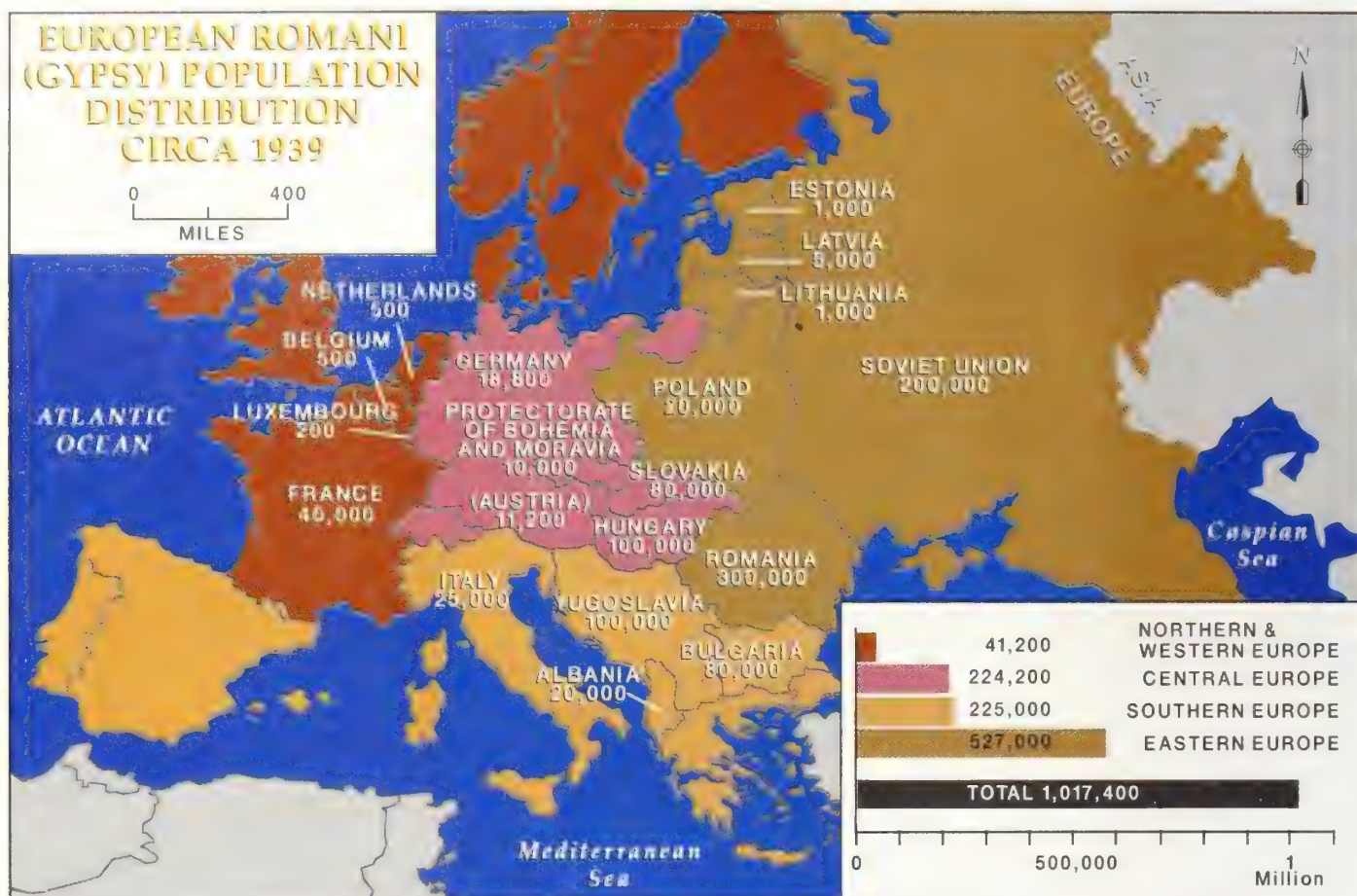
Unlike ordinary census-taking methods, the Nazi racist criteria codified in the Nuremberg Laws of 1935 and subsequent ordinances identified Jews according to the religion practiced by an individual's grandparents. Consequently, the Nazis classified as Jews thousands of people who had converted from Judaism to another religion, among them even Roman Catholic priests and nuns and Protestant ministers whose grandparents were Jewish.

Eighty percent of the Jews in Germany (about 400,000

people) held German citizenship. The remainder were mostly Jews of Polish citizenship, many of whom were born in Germany and who had permanent resident status in Germany.

In all, about 70 percent of the Jews in Germany lived in urban areas. Fifty percent of all Jews in Germany lived in the 10 largest German cities. The largest Jewish population centers were in Berlin (about 160,000), Frankfurt am Main (about 26,000), Breslau (about 20,000), Hamburg (about 17,000), Cologne (about 15,000), Hannover (about 13,000), and Leipzig (about 12,000). According to the census of 1929, slightly over 10,000 Jews lived in the Free City of Danzig, representing 2 percent of the population.

According to the census of 1931, Austria had a Jewish population of 250,000, representing almost 4 percent of the total Austrian population of about 6.7 million people. The overwhelming majority of Jews in Austria, some 178,000, lived in the capital city, Vienna. According to the 1930 census, Czechoslovakia had a Jewish population of 357,000, representing about 2 percent of the population. The largest Jewish community in Czechoslovakia was in Prague, the capital city, with 35,000 people.

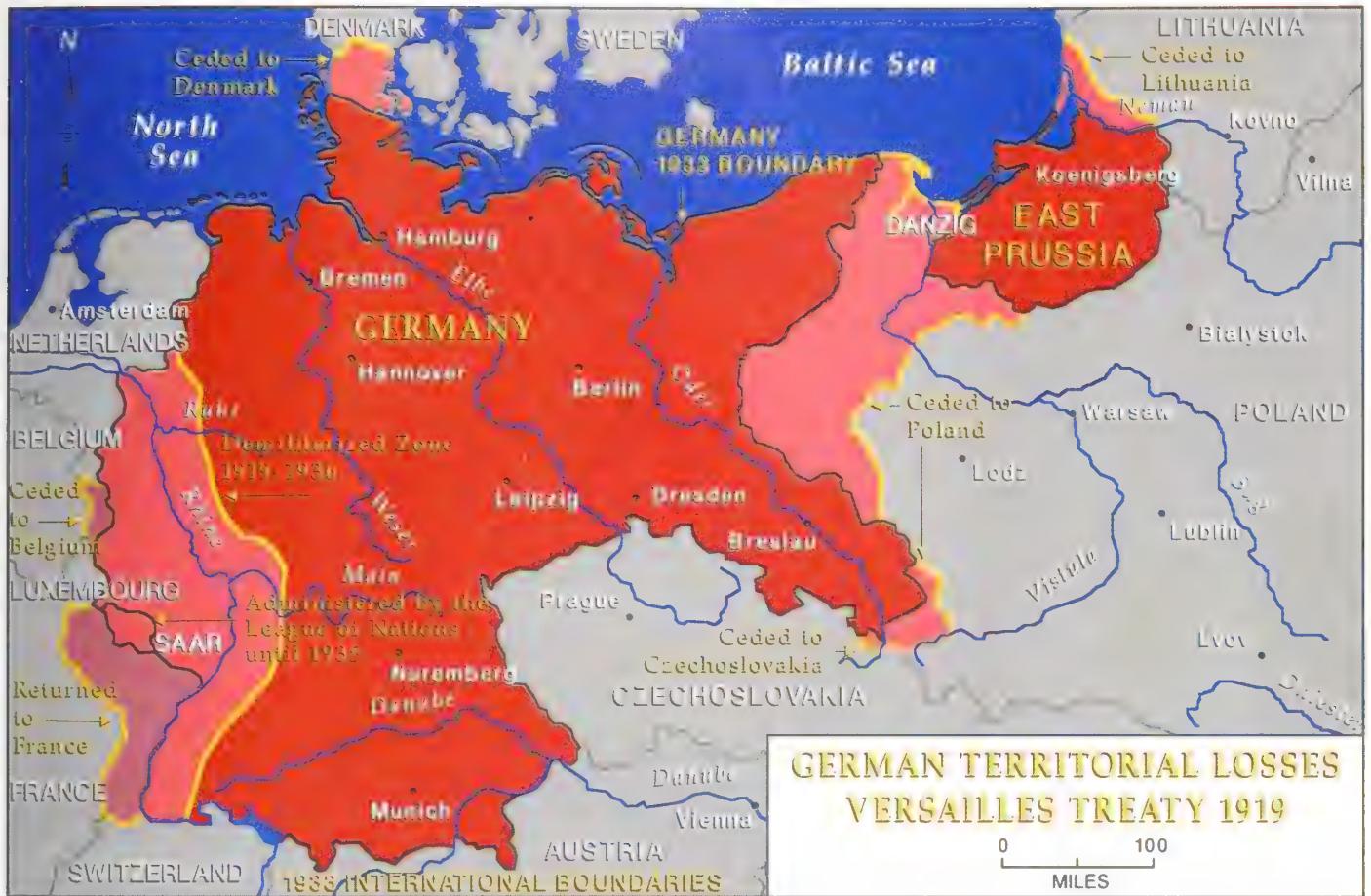


ROMANI (GYPSY) COMMUNITIES IN 1939

Roma (Gypsies) originated in India as a nomadic people and entered Europe between the eighth and tenth centuries C.E. In 1939, about a million Roma lived in Europe. Most European Roma lived in Romania (about 300,000), the Soviet Union (about 200,000), Hungary (about 100,000), and Yugoslavia (about 100,000). In southern Europe, approximately 20,000 Roma lived in Albania, 25,000 in Italy, and 80,000 in Bulgaria. About 90,000 alone lived in the Bohemian, Moravian, and Slovakian regions of Czechoslovakia. In Greater Germany there were about 30,000 Roma, most of whom held German citizenship; about 11,200 of this number lived in Austria. Relatively few Roma lived in western Europe: some 40,000 lived in France, 500 in Belgium, and 500 in the Netherlands.

Persecution of Roma in Germany, and indeed in all of

Europe, preceded the Nazi takeover of power in 1933. As early as 1926, Roma were required to register with the police in Bavaria, Germany, and a commission to coordinate police action against Roma was established in Munich. In 1933, police in Germany began more rigorous enforcement of pre-Nazi legislation against those who followed a lifestyle labeled "Gypsy." The Nazis judged such people to be racially "undesirable" and, after Adolf Hitler's seizure of power, subjected them to most of the racial laws and persecutions. Throughout most of German-occupied Europe, Roma were interned, deported to concentration and extermination camps, and killed. In this way, the experience of Roma closely paralleled that of the Jews. While exact figures or percentages cannot be ascertained, historians estimate that the Germans and their allies killed between 25 and 50 percent of all European Roma.



GERMAN EXPANSION WITHOUT WAR 1933-1939

Territorial Losses Under the Versailles Treaty

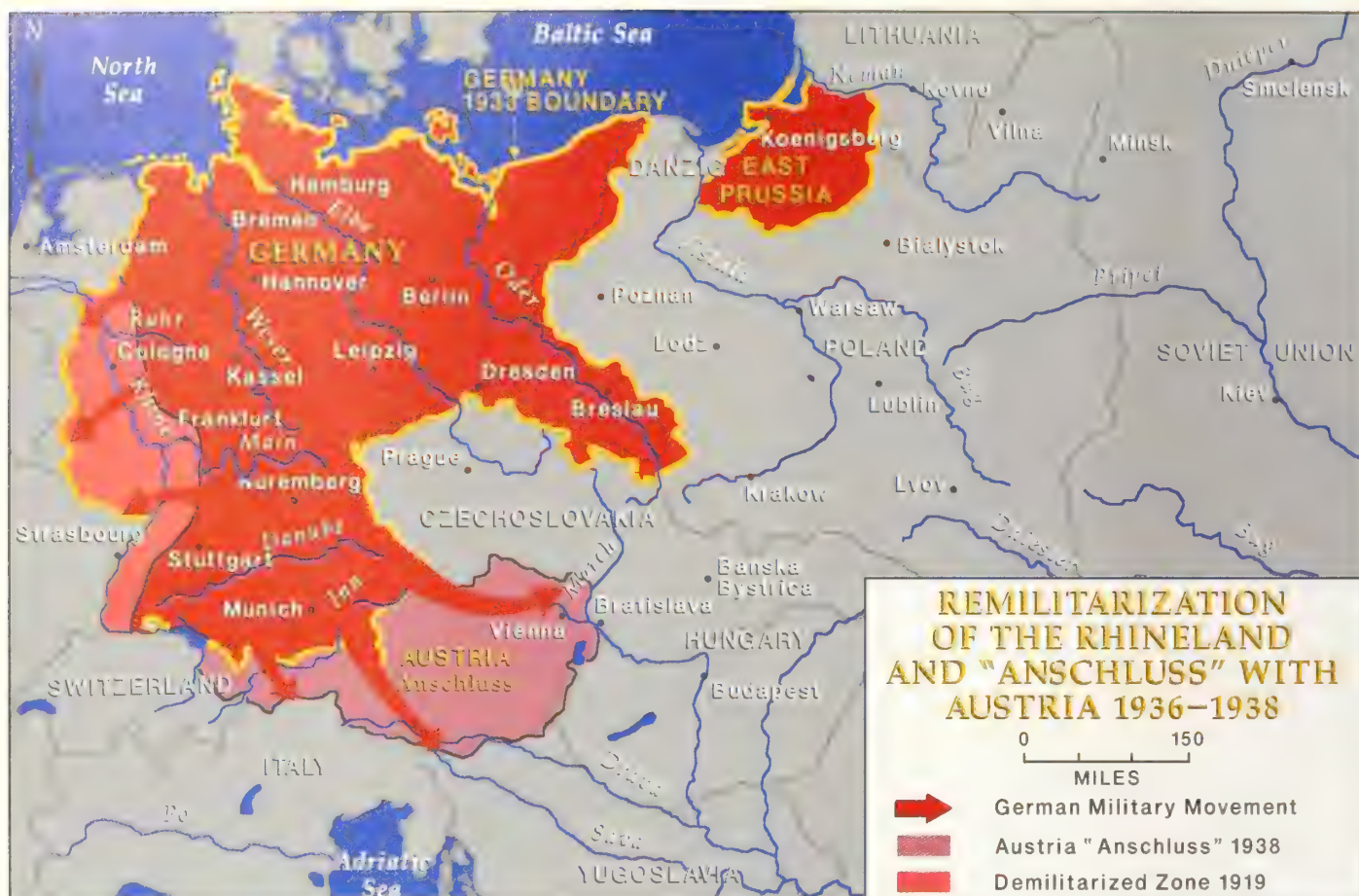
In the 1919 Treaty of Versailles, the victorious powers of World War I (the United States, Great Britain, France, and other allied states) imposed punitive territorial, military, and economic treaty terms on defeated Germany. German representatives were not permitted to participate in the treaty negotiations and the terms were non-negotiable. Under protest and the threat of invasion, Germany signed the Treaty of Versailles on June 28, 1919.

The terms of the treaty required Germany to make territorial concessions, to pay reparations, and to restrict its military forces and installations. Under the territorial provisions of the treaty, Germany's national boundaries were reduced. In the west, Germany returned Alsace-Lorraine to France (Germany had annexed Alsace-Lorraine after the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871); Belgium received Eupen and Malmedy; the Saar region was placed under the administration of the League of Nations for 15 years; and Denmark received Northern Schleswig. In the east, the partitions of Poland during the eighteenth century were reversed. Poland,

restored, received parts of West Prussia and Silesia from Germany. In addition, Czechoslovakia received the Hultschin district from Germany; the largely German city of Danzig became a free city under the protection of the League of Nations; and Memel, a small strip of territory in East Prussia along the Baltic Sea, was ultimately placed under Lithuanian control. Outside Europe, Germany lost all its colonies. In sum, Germany forfeited 13 percent of its European territory (more than 27,000 square miles) and one-tenth of its population (between 6.5 and 7 million people).

Among the military provisions of the treaty were the demilitarization of the Rhineland, strict limits on the size and composition of Germany's armed forces (100,000 men, no aircraft, tanks, or submarines), and the prohibition of military conscription. Financially, Germany was to make reparations for war damages and payments to surviving relatives of those killed in World War I.

The Treaty of Versailles took effect on January 10, 1920, and many Germans viewed the treaty as a "victors' peace." Demands for its repudiation became a central theme among radical right-wing parties, such as the Nazi party, which blamed democratic parties for accepting the terms of the treaty.



GERMAN ANNEXATION OF THE SUDETENLAND 1938



PARTITION OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA 1938-1939

0 100
MILES



Remilitarization of the Rhineland and the "Anschluss"

At the Lausanne Conference of 1932, Germany, Britain, and France agreed to the formal suspension of reparations. Thus, when Adolf Hitler became chancellor of Germany in January 1933, the financial provisions of the Treaty of Versailles had already been revised. Hitler was determined to overturn the remaining military and territorial provisions of the Versailles treaty and include ethnic Germans in the Reich as a preliminary step toward the restoration of German power and the creation of a German empire in Europe.

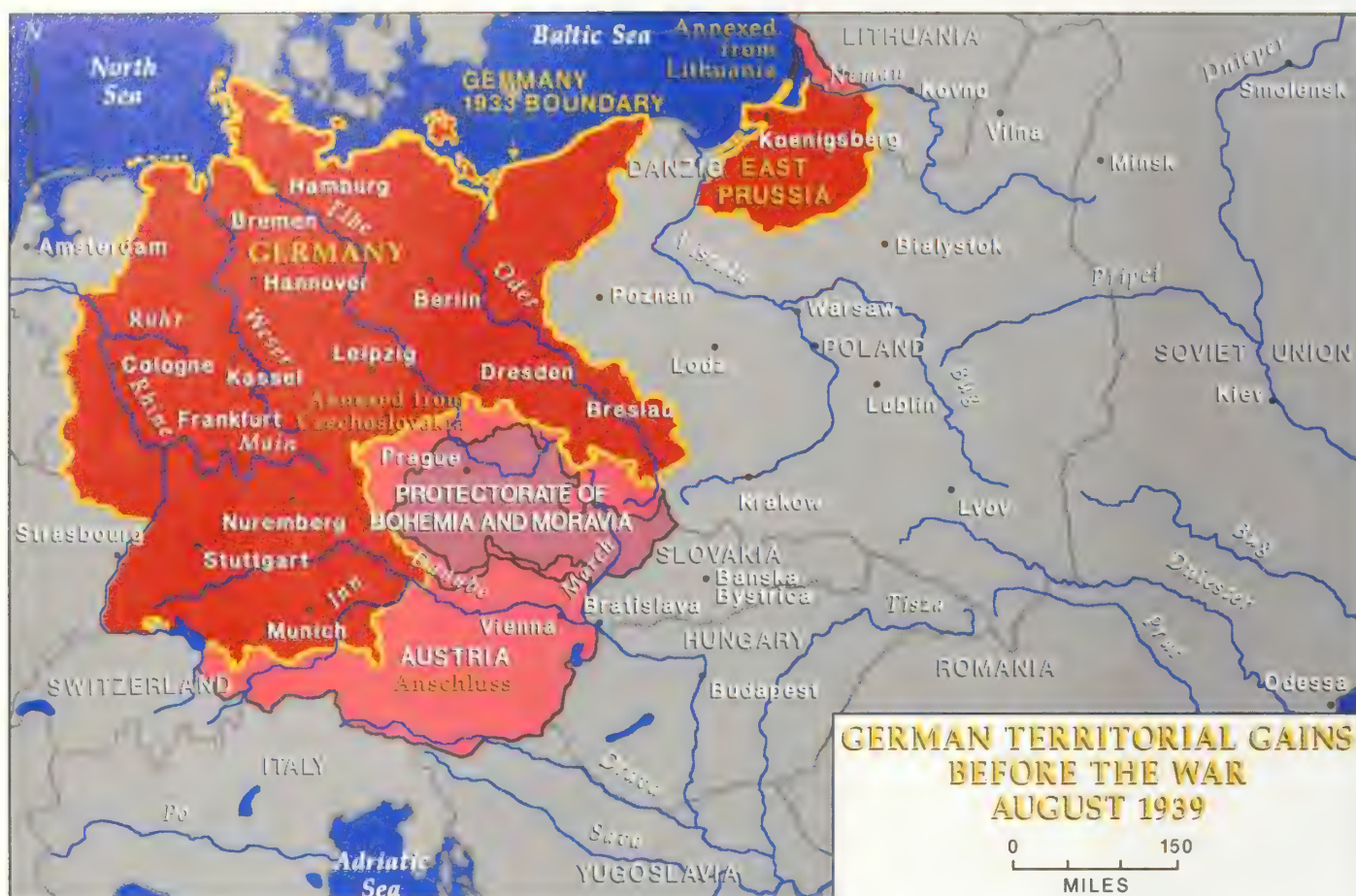
The German armed forces engaged in secret rearmament even before the Nazi takeover of power. Thereafter, the Nazis supported rearmament and rapidly expanded arms production. Military conscription was introduced on March 16, 1935, in open violation of the Treaty of Versailles. At the same time, Hitler announced the expansion of the German army to more than 500,000 men.

In 1935, a plebiscite was held in the Saar region to determine the region's future sovereignty. The overwhelming-

ly German population voted decisively for the return of the area to German rule.

In the 1925 Treaty of Locarno, Germany had recognized both the inviolability of its borders with France and Belgium and the demilitarization of the Rhineland. On March 7, 1936, however, Hitler repudiated the Treaty of Locarno and ordered the German armed forces (Wehrmacht) into the demilitarized Rhineland. Hitler's action brought condemnation from Britain and France, but neither nation intervened against this flagrant violation of the treaties of Locarno and Versailles.

After a prolonged period of intense propaganda inside Austria, German troops entered the country on March 12, 1938, receiving the enthusiastic support of most of the population. Austria was incorporated into Germany on the following day. In April, this German annexation was retroactively approved in a plebiscite that was manipulated to indicate that about 99 percent of the Austrian people wanted the union (known as the "Anschluss") with Germany. Neither Jews nor Roma (Gypsies) were permitted to vote in the plebiscite.



Munich Agreement and Partition of Czechoslovakia

In 1938, Hitler threatened to unleash a European war unless the Sudetenland, a border area of Czechoslovakia containing an ethnic German majority, was surrendered to Germany. The leaders of Britain, France, Italy, and Germany held a conference in Munich, Germany, on September 29-30, 1938, in which they agreed to the German annexation of the Sudetenland in exchange for a pledge of peace from Hitler. Czechoslovakia, which was not a party to the Munich negotiations, had little choice but to agree.

On March 15, 1939, Hitler violated the Munich agreement and moved against the Czechoslovak state. The Czech provinces of Bohemia and Moravia became a German protectorate and were occupied by German forces. Slovakia became

an independent state, closely allied with Germany. Germany's ally, Hungary, annexed the Transcarpathian Ukraine and strips of territory in southern Slovakia. Czechoslovakia ceased to exist as an independent nation.

Little more than a week later, on March 23, 1939, German troops suddenly occupied Memel. Lithuania was unable to prevent this occupation. Hitler also raised territorial demands on Poland in the spring of 1939. He demanded the annexation of the Free City of Danzig to Germany and extraterritorial access for Germany across the Polish frontier to East Prussia.

Convinced that Hitler could not be trusted to negotiate in good faith, Britain and France guaranteed the integrity of Polish territory against German aggression. Europe was on the brink of war.



CONCENTRATION CAMP SYSTEM 1933-1939

The term "concentration camp" refers to a camp in which people are detained or confined, usually under harsh conditions and without regard to due process and the legal norms of arrest and imprisonment. Concentration camps (Konzentrationslager; KL) were an integral feature of the Nazi regime between 1933 and 1945.

The first concentration camps in Germany were established soon after Hitler's appointment as chancellor in January 1933. The SA (Storm Troopers) and the police established concentration camps beginning in February 1933. These camps were set up on an ad hoc basis to handle the masses of people arrested as alleged political opponents of the regime and were established on the local level throughout Germany. For example, camps were located in Oranienburg, north of Berlin; Esterwegen, near Hamburg; Dachau, north of Munich; and Lichtenburg, in Saxony. Columbia Haus in Berlin was used for certain prisoners under investigation by the Gestapo (the German secret state police) and operated until 1936. Gradually, most of these early camps were disbanded and replaced by centrally organized concentration camps under the exclusive jurisdiction of the SS (Schutzstaffel; the elite guard of the Nazi state).

Dachau, the only concentration camp opened in 1933 that remained in operation until 1945, was the model for the Nazi concentration camp system that replaced the earlier camps. The daily routine at Dachau, the methods of punishment, and the duties of the SS guards became the norm, with some variation, at all German concentration camps.

By 1939, seven large concentration camps had been established. Besides Dachau, they were Sachsenhausen (1936), Buchenwald (1937), Neuengamme (1938), Flossenbuerg (1938), Mauthausen (1938), and Ravensbrueck (1939). As production in war industries intensified, Germany increased the exploitation of concentration camp prisoners for forced labor. After 1939, with new territorial conquests and larger groups of potential prisoners, the concentration camp system expanded rapidly.

CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM IN NAZI CONCENTRATION CAMPS

The Nazis victimized many groups. Among the first victims of persecution in Nazi Germany were political opponents—primarily Communists, Social Democrats, and trade unionists. Jehovah's Witnesses refused to serve in the



German army or salute Adolf Hitler and consequently were targeted for persecution. The Nazis also persecuted German male homosexuals, whose sexual orientation was considered a hindrance to the preservation of the German nation. "Chronic" homosexuals were deported to jails and prisons; some were later remanded to the camps.

The Nazis persecuted those they considered to be racially inferior. Nazi racial ideology vilified above all Jews, but also propagated hatred for Roma (Gypsies) and blacks. The Nazis viewed Jews as racial enemies and consequently many were arbitrarily arrested and interned. Roma were also singled out on racial grounds for persecution. The Nazis viewed Poles and other Slavs as inferior, and slated them for subjugation and forced labor.

Jewish prisoners were singled out for the most brutal treatment in Nazi concentration camps. From 1938, Jews in the camps were identified by one yellow triangle placed over another, in the shape of a star, sewn onto their prison uniforms. After 1939 and with some variation from camp to camp, the

categories of prisoners were easily identified by a marking system combining a colored inverted triangle with letters. The badges sewn onto prisoner uniforms enabled SS guards to readily identify the alleged grounds for incarceration.

Criminals were marked with green inverted triangles, political prisoners with red, asocials (including Roma, nonconformists, vagrants, and some other groups) with black or—in the case of Roma in some camps—brown triangles. Homosexuals were identified with pink triangles and Jehovah's Witnesses with purple ones. Non-German prisoners were identified by the first letter of the German name for their home country, which was sewn onto their badge. The two triangles forming the Jewish badge would both be yellow unless the Jewish prisoner was included in one of the other prisoner categories. A Jewish political prisoner, for example, would be identified with a yellow triangle beneath a red triangle. Further, the Nazis required Jews to wear yellow badges not only in the camps, but throughout most of occupied Europe.

IDENTIFICATION PATCHES AND CAMP BADGES

IDENTIFICATION PATCHES



Armband, Generalgouvernement



Bulgaria (button)



Hungary



The Netherlands



Czechoslovakia








France



Polish ID
in the German Reich

CAMP BADGES

SYMBOL KEY

-  Jehovah's Witness
-  Homosexuals
-  Criminals
-  Jews
-  Gypsies and "Asocials"
-  Political Prisoners



German
(Security Risk)



Italian



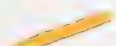
Czech



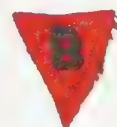
French



Hungarian



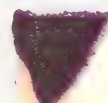
Monowitz,
Poland



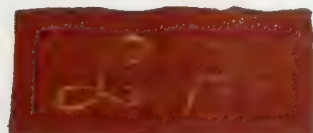
Belgian
Homosexual



Prisoner Number
Ravensbrueck, Germany



Prisoner Number
Sachsenhausen, Germany



Armband, Labor Subcamp
Malchow, Germany



Identification Tag
Radom, Poland



“KRISTALLNACHT”: THE NATIONWIDE POGROM OF NOVEMBER 9 AND 10, 1938

“Kristallnacht”—literally, “Crystal Night”—is usually translated from German as the “Night of Broken Glass”; it refers to the violent anti-Jewish pogrom of November 9 and 10, 1938. The pogrom occurred throughout Germany, which by then included both Austria and the Sudetenland region of Czechoslovakia. The name “Kristallnacht” referred to the broken windows of synagogues, Jewish-owned stores, communal centers, and homes plundered during the pogrom. Although frequently used, the term has come to be regarded as a euphemistic way to refer to this brutal pogrom.

The Germans officially presented “Kristallnacht” as a spontaneous outburst of public rage in response to the assassination of Ernst vom Rath, third secretary at the German embassy in Paris. A young Polish Jew named Herschel Grynszpan shot vom Rath on November 7, 1938. Grynszpan was apparently motivated by the plight of his parents who, like tens of thousands of Jews of Polish citizenship living in Germany, had been expelled from Germany but denied entry into their native Poland. Grynszpan’s parents, and thousands of expelled Polish Jews, were stranded in a refugee camp near

the town of Zbaszyn in the border region between Poland and Germany. Grynszpan knew of his parents’ plight through a letter he received from them.

Vom Rath died on November 9, 1938, two days after he was shot. As reprisal for vom Rath’s death, the Nazis organized a massive pogrom against Jews throughout Germany. The pogrom was conducted primarily by the SA.

Hundreds of synagogues all over Germany, including Austria and the Sudetenland, were attacked, vandalized, looted, and destroyed. Many were set ablaze. Firemen were instructed to let the synagogues burn but to prevent the flames from spreading to nearby structures. The shop windows of thousands of Jewish-owned stores were smashed and the wares within looted. Jewish cemeteries were desecrated. Many Jews were attacked by mobs of SA men.

While not directly involved in the pogrom, the SS and the Gestapo used it as a pretext for the arrest of about 30,000 Jews, who were sent to the Dachau, Buchenwald, and Sachsenhausen concentration camps. Most of these Jews were treated brutally but released after a few weeks, on the condition that they were to begin the process of emigration from Germany.



The Nazis immediately claimed that the Jews were to blame for the pogrom and imposed a fine of one billion Reichsmarks (some 400 million U.S. dollars at 1938 rates) on the Jewish community of Germany. The state confiscated all the insurance payments that were to have been paid out to Jewish store owners as compensation for the damage. Jewish store owners were thus made responsible for the cost of all repairs to their businesses.

The November pogrom heralded a new wave of anti-Jewish legislation designed to further restrict Jewish life in Germany, to force the "Aryanization" (transfer to non-Jewish ownership) of Jewish-owned property, and to encourage Jewish emigration from Germany. Such measures demonstrated the uncertain fate confronting Jews in Germany.

JEWISH EMIGRATION FROM GERMANY 1933-1939

Between 1933 and 1939, Jews in Germany were subjected to arrest, economic boycott, the loss of civil rights and citizenship, incarceration in concentration camps, random violence, and the state-organized "Kristallnacht" ("Night of Broken Glass") pogrom. Jews reacted to Nazi persecution in a

number of ways. Forcibly segregated from German society, German Jews turned to and expanded their own institutions and social organizations. However, in the face of increasing repression and physical violence, many Jews fled Germany. At first, the German government encouraged Jews to emigrate and placed few restrictions on what possessions they could take. Gradually, however, the Nazis sought to deprive Jews fleeing Germany of their property by levying an increasingly heavy emigration tax and by restricting the amount of money that could be transferred abroad from German banks.

There were three major phases of Jewish emigration from Germany between 1933 and 1939. All were in reaction to heightened anti-Jewish violence and increasing legal restrictions on Jews in Germany. The first phase, in 1933, was in reaction to violent attacks on Jews during the jubilation over the Nazi takeover of power. Those Jews who were politically active fled quickly to adjacent European countries. Other measures that spurred decisions to emigrate at this time were the dismissal of Jews from the civil service and the Nazi-sponsored boycott of Jewish-owned stores. The second phase was in reaction to the Nuremberg Laws of September 1935 and subsequent related ordinances that deprived Jews of

German civil rights and prohibited marriage or sexual relations between German non-Jews and Jews. In the third phase, Jewish emigration increased dramatically in response to the German annexation of Austria and "Kristallnacht." After "Kristallnacht," the German state moved to confiscate Jewish-owned property and exclude Jews from the German economy. Many Jews decided that there was no longer a

future for them in Germany and resolved to leave. Emigration was at that point the official Nazi policy regarding Jews in the attempt to render Germany "free of Jews" (judenrein).

According to the *American Jewish Yearbook*, about 432,000 Jews emigrated from Germany between 1933 and 1940. This figure includes Jews from Germany (282,000) and from countries and regions annexed by Germany before the

JEWSH EMIGRATION FROM GERMANY 1933-1940

0 1,234
MILES



war (for example, 117,000 from Austria). Both individuals and entire families became refugees. More than 100,000 German-Jewish emigres traveled to western European countries, especially France, Belgium, and the Netherlands. Some 8,000 entered Switzerland and about 48,000 went to Great Britain and other European countries. About 90,000 German-Jewish refugees were able to emigrate to the United

States and 60,000 to Palestine, which was then under British mandate. About 83,000 German-Jewish refugees emigrated to Central and South America, with the largest numbers entering Argentina (25,000), Brazil (15,000), Chile (10,000), and Bolivia (9,000). Between 15,000 and 18,000 people were able to find refuge in Shanghai, China. Tens of thousands of German-Jewish refugees entered other countries. More Jews would have left Germany had such countries as the United States and Britain been more willing to admit them.

The Evian Conference on the question of Jewish refugees took place in Evian, France, in July 1938. Delegates from 32 countries, including the United States, Great Britain, France, Canada, and Australia, announced their countries' refusal to accept additional Jewish refugees. The plight of German-Jewish refugees, persecuted at home and unwanted abroad, is illustrated by the voyage of the *St. Louis*.

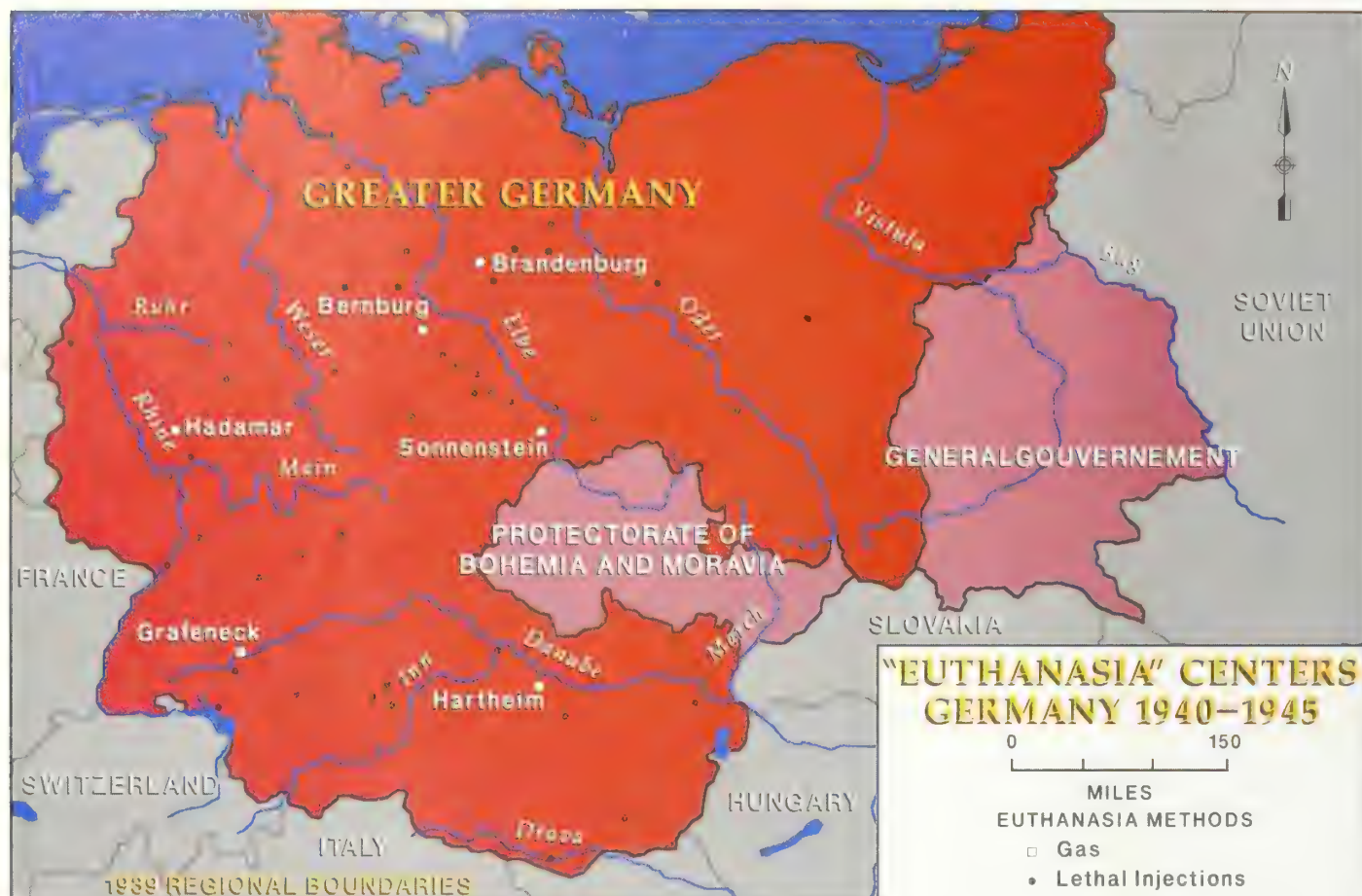
On May 13, 1939, the SS *St. Louis*, a German passenger ship, left Germany with almost a thousand Jewish refugees on board. The refugees' destination was Cuba, but before their arrival the Cuban government revoked their permission to land. The United States also refused the refugees permission to land. The *St. Louis* was forced to return to Europe in June 1939. During the return voyage, Great Britain, France, Belgium, and the Netherlands agreed to accept the stranded refugees, thanks to the efforts of the American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee. After German forces occupied the Netherlands, Belgium, and France in 1940, many *St. Louis* passengers and other Jewish refugees who had entered those countries were caught up in the "Final Solution," the Nazi plan to murder the Jews of Europe.

"EUTHANASIA" PROGRAM

The term "euthanasia" usually refers to the inducement of a painless death for a chronically or terminally ill individual. In Nazi usage, however, "euthanasia" referred to the systematic killing of those Germans whom the Nazis deemed "unworthy of life" because of alleged genetic diseases or defects. Hitler ordered the establishment of the "Euthanasia" Program in October 1939, but backdated the order to September 1, 1939, the first day of World War II. The secret operation was code-named T4, in reference to the street address (Tiergartenstrasse 4) of the program's coordinating office in Berlin. Six gassing installations were eventually established as part of the "Euthanasia" Program: Bernburg, Brandenburg, Grafeneck, Hadamar, Hartheim, and Sonnenstein.

The victims of the "Euthanasia" Program included the mentally retarded, the mentally ill, the physically handicapped,





chronically ill or deformed children, and the elderly residents of nursing homes. Patients were selected by their doctors for death. Doctors did not examine the patients in this process, but based their decisions on medical files. Those selected for "euthanasia" were transported by health-care workers to the sanatoria that served as central gassing installations. The victims were told they would undergo a physical evaluation and take a disinfecting shower. Instead, they were killed in gas chambers using carbon monoxide gas. Their bodies were immediately cremated and their ashes placed in urns without regard for accurately labeling the urns. One such urn was sent to each victim's family, together with a death certificate listing a false cause of death. The sudden death of thousands of chronically ill and institutionalized people, with death certificates listing strangely similar causes and places of death, raised suspicions. Eventually, word of the program leaked out and protest ensued.

Hitler ordered the "Euthanasia" Program officially disbanded in late August 1941, in light of mounting criticism

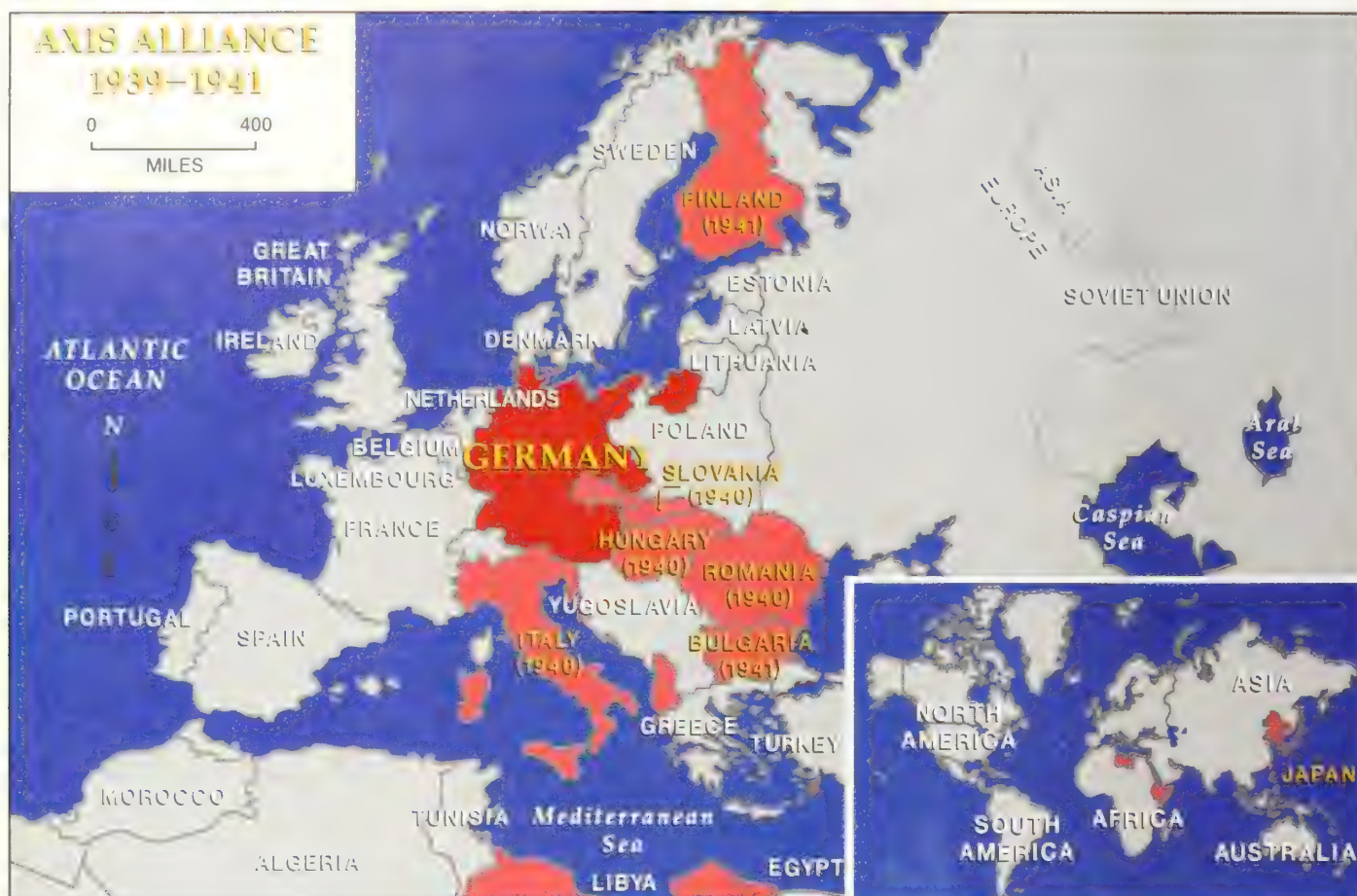
from the German public, especially from members of the German Catholic clergy. However, this did not mean an end to the "euthanasia" killing operation, which was continued secretly. Victims were no longer murdered in centrally located gassing institutions. Instead, doctors administered lethal injections to those selected for "euthanasia" in clinics and hospitals throughout Germany. In this way, the "Euthanasia" Program continued and expanded until the end of the war.

During the initial phase of operations, from 1939 until 1941, about 70,000 people were killed under the "Euthanasia" Program. At the proceedings of the International Military Tribunal in Nuremberg (1945-1946), it was estimated that the total number of "euthanasia" victims was 275,000 people.

The "Euthanasia" Program instituted the use of gas chambers and crematoria for systematic murder. The experts who participated in the "Euthanasia" Program were instrumental in establishing and operating the killing centers later used to implement the "Final Solution."

SECTION 2

THE HOLOCAUST IN EASTERN EUROPE



THE AXIS ALLIANCE IN WORLD WAR II

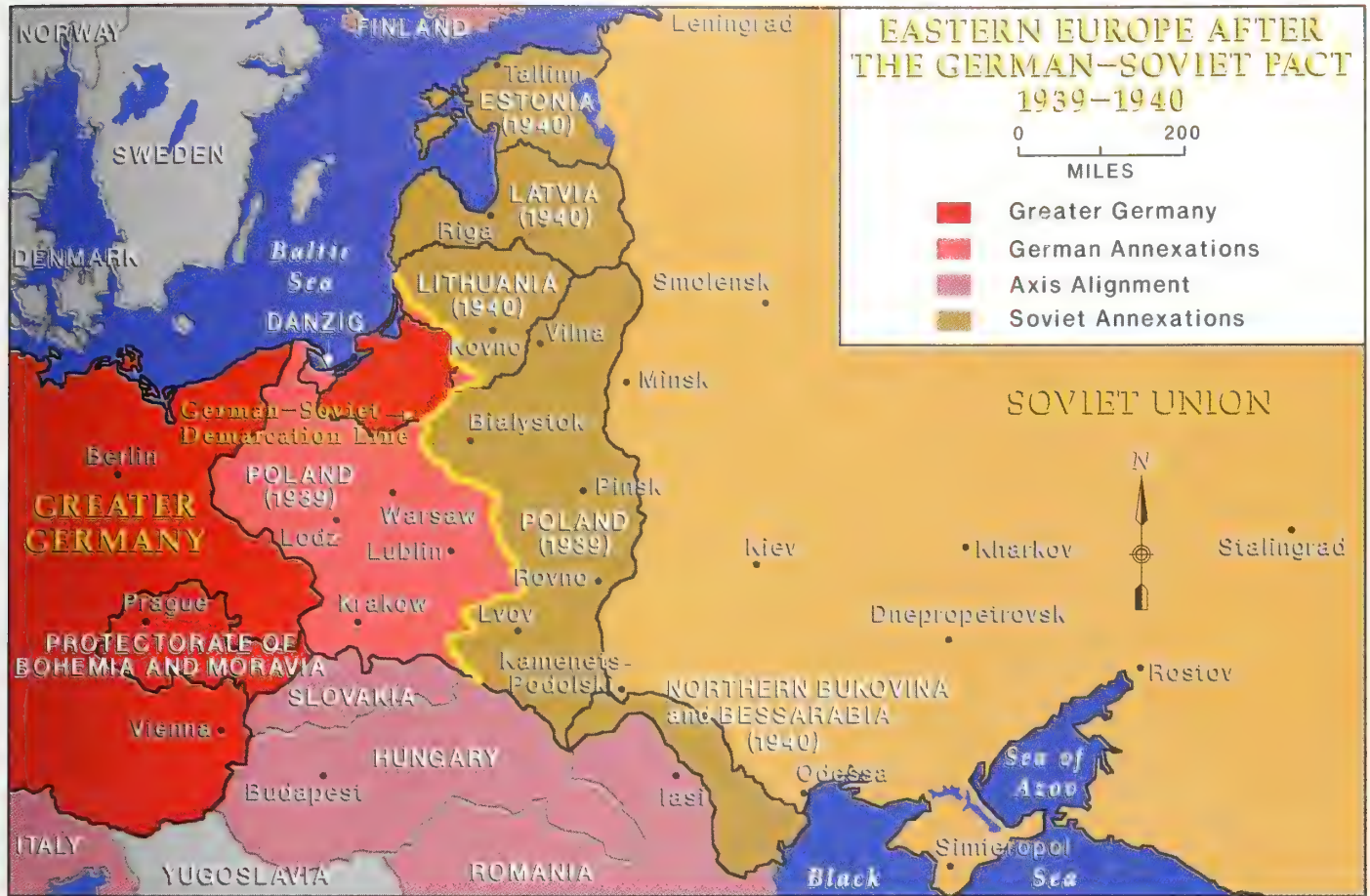
World War II, which involved most of the world's nations, was fought chiefly between two major alliances: the Axis and the Allies. The Tripartite Pact of September 27, 1940, allied Germany, Italy, and Japan and became known as the Berlin-Rome-Tokyo Axis, or Axis alliance. These three countries recognized German hegemony over most of continental Europe; Italian hegemony over the Mediterranean; and Japanese hegemony over East Asia.

During World War II, the Axis alliance came to include Slovakia (November 1940), Hungary (November 1940), Romania (November 1940), and Bulgaria (March 1941). Finland also fought with Germany against the Soviet Union but did not sign the Tripartite Pact and was not technically part of the Axis alliance. Yugoslavia joined the Axis alliance on March 25, 1941, but withdrew two days later after an anti-German coup. After Germany and its allies invaded and

partitioned Yugoslavia, the newly established fascist satellite state of Croatia joined the Axis on June 15, 1941. Although an anti-democratic state sympathetic to the Axis, Spain refused either to join the Axis alliance or to enter the war with the Allies.

World War II began in Europe with the German invasion of Poland on September 1, 1939. In response, Great Britain and France, which had agreed to defend Poland in case of attack, declared war on Germany on September 3. Italy entered the war on June 10, 1940. Japan, at war in Asia since the 1930s, expanded the conflict with a surprise attack on the American fleet on December 7, 1941, at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii.

The Axis alliance was ultimately defeated. Italy signed an armistice with the Allies in September 1943. Germany surrendered unconditionally to the Allies in May 1945, as did Japan in September 1945.



THE GERMAN-SOVIET PACT

The German-Soviet Pact, also known as the Ribbentrop-Molotov Pact after the two foreign ministers who negotiated the treaty, was a two-part agreement between the Soviet Union and Germany. It consisted of an economic agreement, signed on August 19, 1939, whereby Germany exchanged manufactured goods for Soviet raw materials, and a nonaggression pact, signed on August 23, 1939, whereby the signatories promised not to attack one another for 10 years.

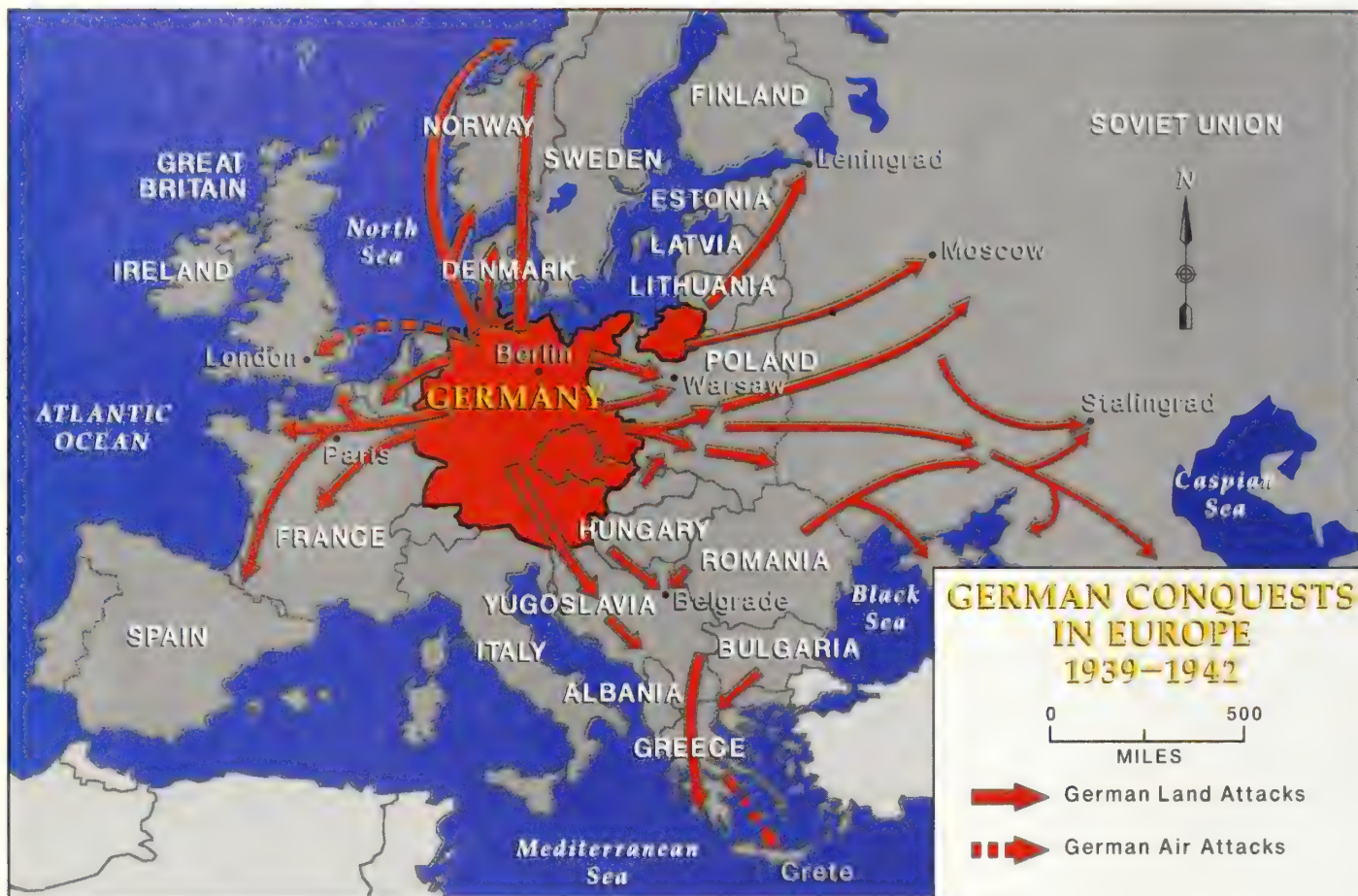
The German-Soviet Pact enabled Germany to attack Poland, whose borders had been guaranteed by Britain and France, without fear of Soviet intervention, on September 1, 1939. Britain and France declared war on Germany on September 3, 1939.

The nonaggression pact included a secret protocol that divided Poland and the rest of eastern Europe into Soviet and German spheres of interest. The Soviet army moved into

eastern Poland on September 17, 1939. In 1940, while Germany was preoccupied with the war against Britain and France, the Soviet Union also moved to secure its sphere of interest in eastern Europe, occupying the Baltic states, northern Bukovina, and Bessarabia. In the war (1939-1940) with Finland, the Soviet Union annexed large tracts of Finnish territory north of Leningrad.

After the French armistice in June 1940, Germany moved to secure its position in eastern Europe. Hungary, Romania, and Slovakia all joined the Axis in November 1940.

Hitler regarded the German-Soviet Pact as temporary. On December 18, 1940, he issued Directive 21 (code-named Operation Barbarossa), in which he ordered the German army to draft detailed plans for an attack on the Soviet Union. German forces invaded the Soviet Union on June 22, 1941, less than two years after the German-Soviet Pact had been signed.



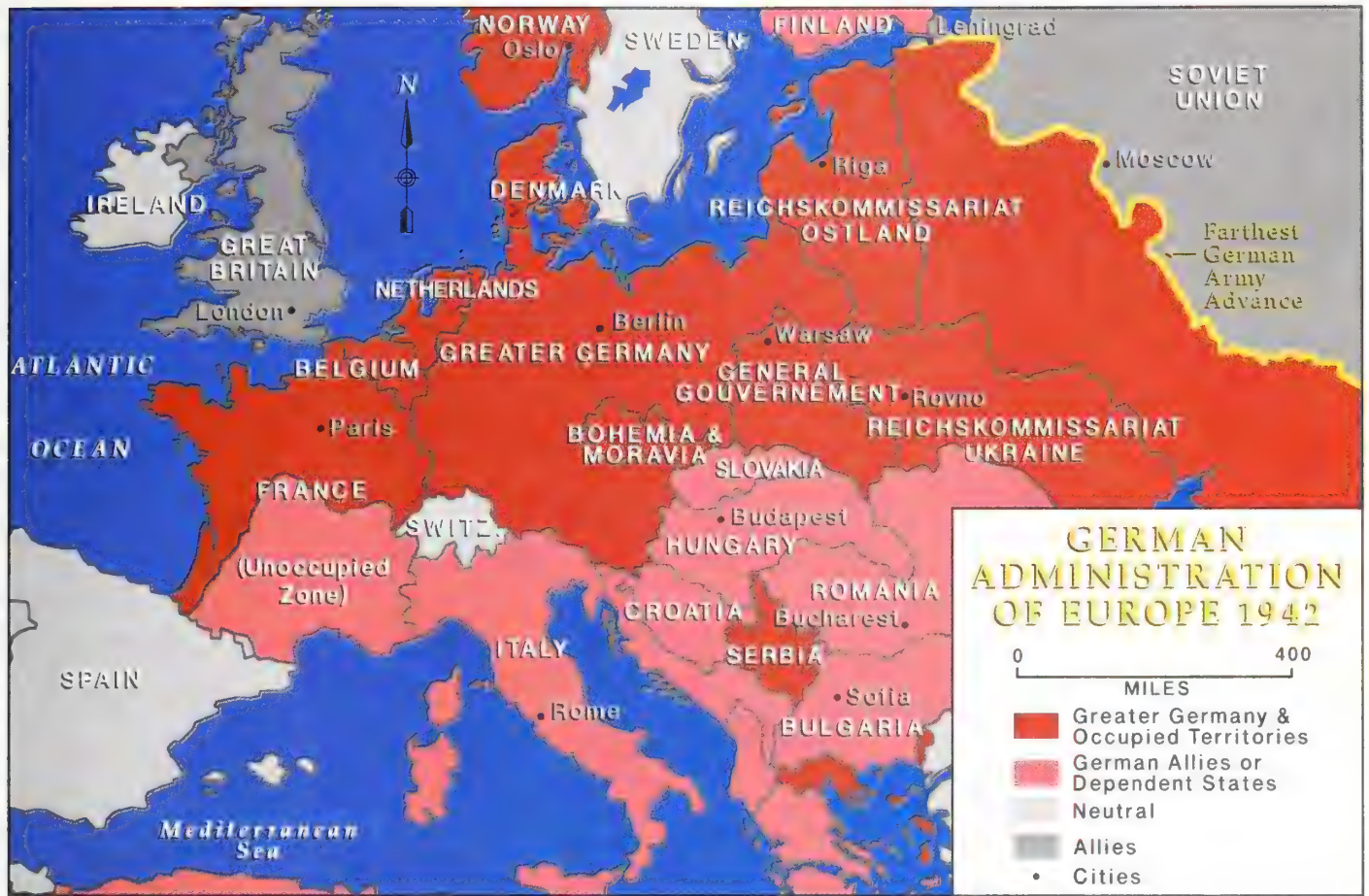
GERMAN CONQUESTS IN EUROPE 1939-1942

In the first phase of World War II in Europe, Germany sought to avoid a long war and defeat its opponents in a series of short campaigns. Germany quickly overran much of Europe and was victorious for more than two years by relying on a new military tactic called the "Blitzkrieg" (lightning war). Blitzkrieg tactics required the concentration of offensive weapons (such as tanks, planes, and artillery) along a narrow front. These forces would drive a breach in enemy defenses, permitting armored tank divisions to penetrate rapidly and roam freely behind enemy lines, causing shock and disorganization among the enemy defenses. German air power prevented the enemy from adequately resupplying or redeploying forces and from sending reinforcements to seal breaches in the front. German forces could then encircle opposing troops and force them to surrender.

Germany successfully used the Blitzkrieg tactic against Poland (attacked in September 1939), Denmark (April 1940), Norway (April 1940), Belgium (May 1940), the Netherlands

(May 1940), Luxembourg (May 1940), France (May 1940), Yugoslavia (April 1941), and Greece (April 1941). Germany seemed invincible. Yet Germany did not defeat Great Britain, which was protected from German ground attack by the English Channel and the Royal Navy.

Despite the continuing war with Great Britain, German forces suddenly invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941. The German Blitzkrieg seemed at first to succeed. Soviet forces were either destroyed or driven back more than 600 miles to the gates of Moscow. In December 1941, Hitler unilaterally declared war on the United States, which consequently added its tremendous economic and military power to the coalition arrayed against him. A second German offensive in 1942 brought German forces in the east to the shores of the Volga River and the city of Stalingrad. But Germany proved unable to defeat the Soviet Union, which together with Great Britain and the United States seized the initiative from Germany. Germany became embroiled in a long war, leading ultimately to its defeat in May 1945.



GERMAN ADMINISTRATION OF EUROPE

In 1942, Germany dominated most of Europe. Greater Germany was enlarged by the seizure of Austria and Luxembourg and territories from Czechoslovakia (the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia and the Sudetenland), Poland, France, Belgium, and the Baltic states. German military forces occupied Norway, Denmark, Belgium, northern France, Serbia, parts of northern Greece, and vast tracts of territory in

eastern Europe. Italy, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Slovakia, Finland, Croatia, and Vichy France were all either allied to Germany or subject to heavy German influence. German-occupied northern and western Europe had German military governors, as did the area immediately behind the front in eastern Europe. Between 1942 and 1944, German military forces extended the area under their occupation to southern France, central and northern Italy, Slovakia, and Hungary.



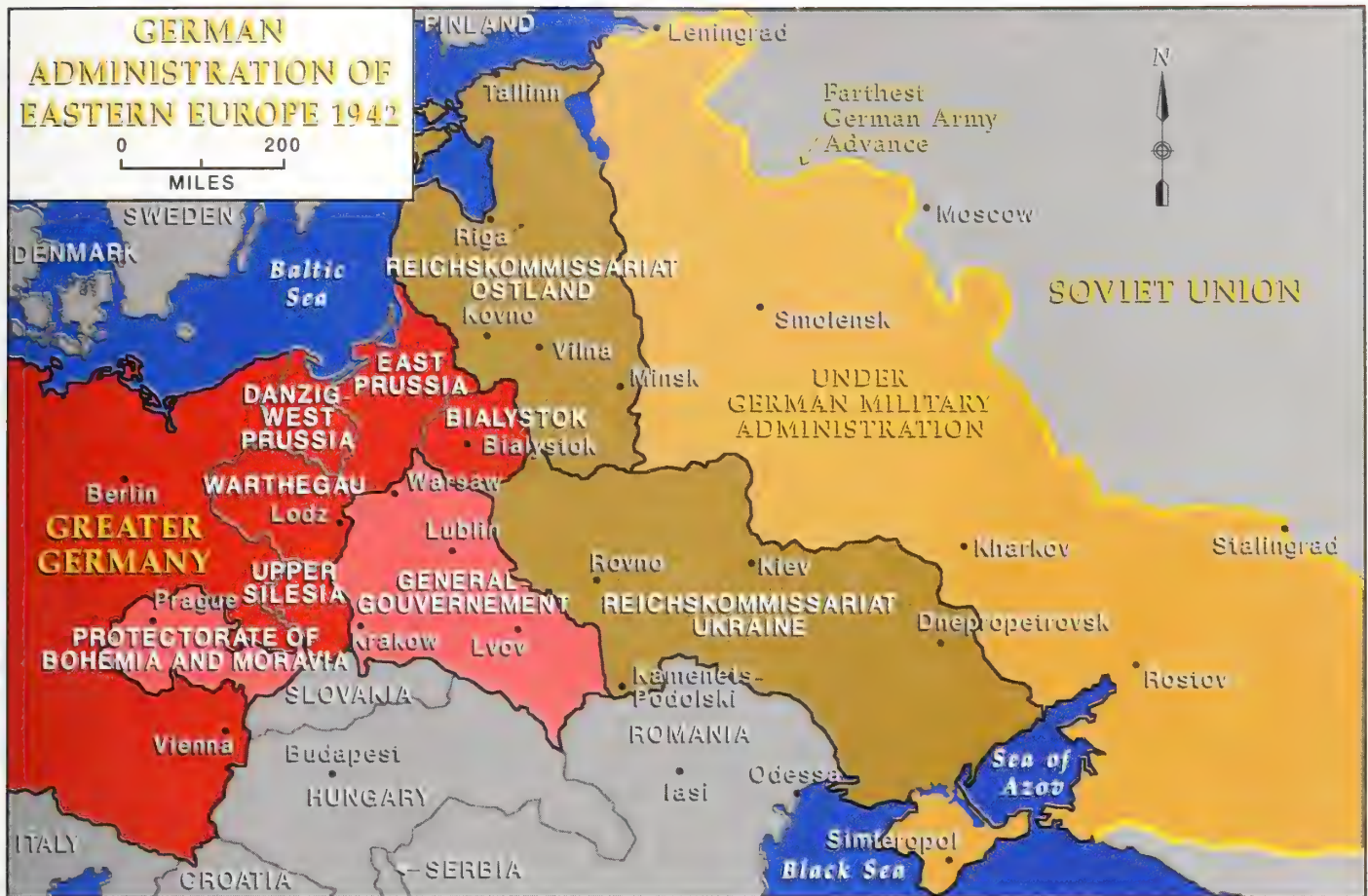
GERMAN ADMINISTRATION OF POLAND

In October 1939, Germany annexed most of western Poland. The area around the city of Lodz became a new German province, the Warthegau. Northwestern Polish territory was incorporated into the German provinces of Danzig, West Prussia, and East Prussia. Eastern Upper Silesia, a small area of southwestern Poland, was incorporated into the German province of Upper Silesia. Central and southern Poland were organized into the Generalgouvernement (General Government) of Poland, which was established in October 1939. The full official German designation was the "General Government for the Occupied Areas of Poland" (Generalgouvernement fuer die besetzten polnischen Gebiete).

After the invasion of the Soviet Union in 1941, Germany also took over eastern Poland, which had been occupied—in accordance with the German-Soviet Pact—by the Soviet Union since 1939. The region around the city of Bialystok became a separate administrative district under German civilian control. Southeastern Poland, the region around Lvov,

was added to the Generalgouvernement, which then had a population of more than 12 million. East-central Poland became part of the German administration of the Ukraine, while northeastern Poland became part of the Reich Commissariat Ostland.

The German administrator of the Generalgouvernement was the Nazi lawyer Hans Frank, whose headquarters in Krakow became the Generalgouvernement's capital. German rule in the Generalgouvernement was extremely harsh. German authorities regarded the Polish population as a supply of forced laborers. A campaign of terror was directed against members of the Polish intelligentsia, many of whom were killed or sent to the camps. Polish teachers, priests, and cultural figures, who would form the core of the resistance movement, were especially targeted for persecution. The Germans destroyed Polish cultural and scientific institutions and plundered national treasures. Poles were supplied only with starvation rations, as the bulk of the country's food was confiscated by the Germans for their home front.



GERMAN ADMINISTRATION OF THE OCCUPIED EASTERN TERRITORIES

The German administration of the rest of the occupied east included both military and civilian governments. The areas immediately behind the front remained under German military authority. Territories conquered in the initial German attack were transferred to civilian administration. The Germans established a Ministry for the Occupied Eastern Territories (Reichsministerium fuer die besetzten Ostgebiete) under Alfred Rosenberg, responsible for administering territories under civilian authority. The eastern occupied territories were divided into two commissariats: the Reich Commissariat Ostland (Reichskommissariat Ostland) and the Reich Commissariat for the Ukraine (Reichskommissariat Ukraine).

The Reich Commissariat Ostland included Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, most of Belorussia, and part of northeastern Poland. Hinrich Lohse was assigned to head Ostland, and established his office in Riga, the capital. The Reich

Commissariat for the Ukraine was headed by Erich Koch, the district leader of the Nazi party in East Prussia, with Rovno as the capital. The Reich Commissariat for the Ukraine included part of eastern Poland and most of the Ukrainian SSR, as far east as the area around the cities of Kiev and Dnepropetrovsk.

Germany planned to annex most of the conquered eastern territories after they had been Germanized. Some areas were to serve as reservations for forced laborers, supplying German construction needs, but most of the conquered eastern territories would be resettled by German colonists. Most German plans for resettlement were postponed until the end of the war. Meanwhile, the regions were exploited ruthlessly for the German war effort: foodstuffs, raw materials, and war stocks were confiscated. Members of the local population were drafted for forced labor in war industries or military construction projects. Millions more were deported to Germany to be used as forced laborers in German war industries or agriculture.



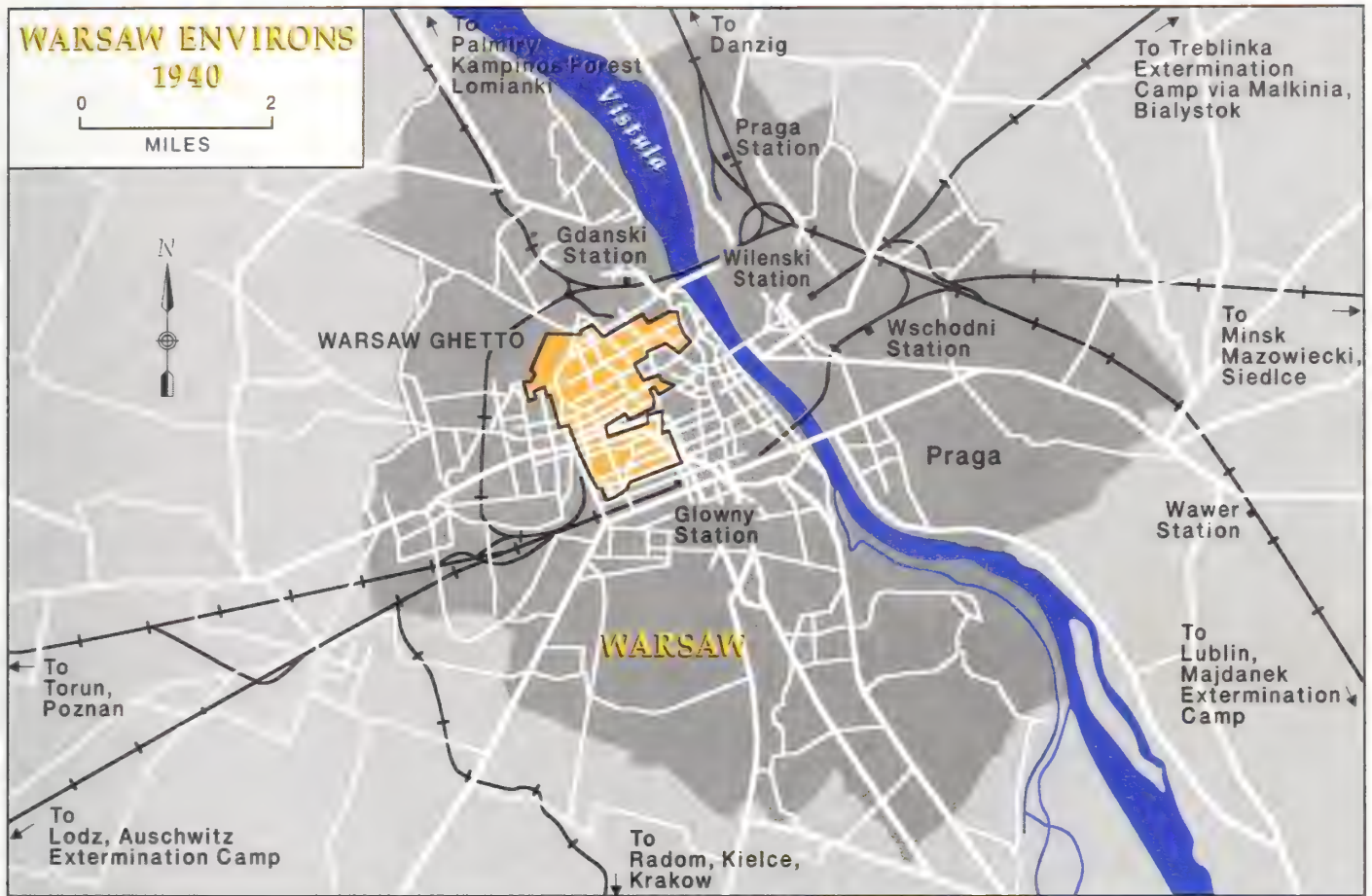
GHETTOS IN POLAND

The term "ghetto" originated in Italy from the name of the Jewish quarter in Venice, which was established in the sixteenth century. The term described an area or street where Jews were required to live. During World War II, ghettoization of the Jewish people occurred primarily in eastern Europe between 1939 and 1942. The ghettos were enclosed districts of a city in which the Germans forced the Jewish population to live under miserable conditions. Ghettos isolated Jews by separating Jewish communities both from the population as a whole and from neighboring Jewish communities. The ghettos were overcrowded and dirty. Starvation, chronic shortages, and the curtailing of most urban services led to repeated outbreaks of epidemics and to a high death rate.

Under the provisions of the 1939 German-Soviet Pact, Germany occupied and annexed most of western Poland. Eastern Poland was not occupied by German forces until June 1941. In south-central Poland the Germans set up the Generalgouvernement (General Government), where most of

the early ghettos were established. The first ghetto was established there in October 1939, in the town of Piotrkow Trybunalski. The first large ghetto was in the city of Lodz (February 1940), in the area of western Poland that had been annexed by Germany. The Warsaw ghetto, established on October 12, 1940, was the largest ghetto in the Generalgouvernement, in both area and population. There, more than 350,000 Jews—about 30 percent of the city's population—were eventually confined in about 2.4 percent of the city's total area. Other major ghettos in Poland at this time included Krakow (Cracow) and Tarnow.

The Nazis regarded the establishment of Jewish ghettos in Poland as a provisional measure to control, isolate, and segregate Jews. Beginning in 1942, after the decision had been made to kill the Jews, the Germans systematically destroyed the ghettos of Poland, deporting the Jews to extermination camps where they were killed. By the fall of 1944, none of the Polish ghettos remained and almost all Polish Jews had been killed.



WARSAW

The city of Warsaw, capital of Poland, flanks both banks of the Vistula River; two-thirds of the city is located on the west bank and one-third is on the east bank. Before World War II, Warsaw was the center of Jewish life and culture in Poland. Warsaw's prewar Jewish population of more than 350,000 constituted about 30 percent of the city's total population. The Warsaw Jewish community was the largest in both Poland and Europe, and was the second largest in the world, behind that of New York City.

Following the outbreak of World War II with the German invasion of Poland on September 1, 1939, Warsaw suffered heavy air attacks and artillery bombardment. The city surrendered on September 28. German troops entered Warsaw on September 29.

For the first several weeks of the German occupation, Warsaw was under German military command. Civil administration of Warsaw began in late October, after the establishment of the Generalgouvernement. Warsaw was a regional center in the Generalgouvernement. The headquarters of the German civil administration in Warsaw were located in the Bruehl Palace.

Prewar Jewish organizations were prohibited and Jews were allowed to participate only in welfare or self-help organizations. The only Jewish representation was the Nazi-established Jewish council (Judenrat).

WARSAW GHETTO

On October 12, 1940, the Germans announced a decree ordering the establishment of a ghetto in Warsaw. All Jewish residents of Warsaw were ordered into the designated area, which was sealed off from the rest of the city in November 1940. The ghetto was enclosed by a wall that was over 10 feet high, topped with barbed wire, and closely guarded to prevent movement between the ghetto and the rest of Warsaw.

The Jewish council offices were located on Grzybowska Street in the southern part of the ghetto. Jewish organizations tried to meet the needs of the ghetto residents, who were constantly struggling for survival. Among the welfare organizations active in the ghetto were the Jewish Mutual Aid Society, the Federation of Associations in Poland for the Care of Orphans, and the Organization for Rehabilitation through Training (O.R.T.).

Emanuel Ringelblum, a historian prominent in Jewish



LEGEND

- Ghetto Boundary November 15, 1940
Wall with Barbed Wire on Top.
- Entrances, Gates to Ghetto
- Selected Ghetto Factories
- Selected Features
- 1. Jewish Council (Judenrat)
- 2. Jewish Police
- 3. Gesiowka Prison
- 4. Pawiak Prison
- 5. Umschlagplatz
- 6. Hiding Place of Ringelblum Archive
- 7. Hospitals
- 8. The Great Synagogue
- 9. Nozjik Synagogue
- 10. Moriah Synagogue
- 11. Z.T.O.S. (Jewish Mutual Aid Society)
- 12. C.E.N.T.O.S. (Federation of Associations in Poland for the Care of Orphans)
- 13. Office for Combatting Usury and Profiteering
- 14. O.R.T. (Organization for Rehabilitation through Training)
- 15. Post Office
- 16. Center for Vocational Training
- 17. Labor Bureau (Arbeitsamt)
- 18. Korczak Orphanage
- 19. Courthouse (Tribunals)

self-aid efforts, also founded a clandestine organization that aimed to provide an accurate record to future historians of events taking place in Warsaw and the Generalgouvernement throughout the ghetto's existence. This record came to be known as the "Oneg Shabbat" ("In Celebration of Sabbath," also known as the Ringelblum Archive). Only partly recovered after the war, the Ringelblum Archive proved an invaluable source of information about life in the ghetto and German policy toward the Jews of Poland.

Beginning in the spring of 1941, German manufacturers established workshops or factories in the ghetto to utilize Jewish forced labor. Such workshops were created in part to supply the German army. Among the firms active in the Warsaw ghetto were Toebbens, Schultz, Roehrich, Hoffmann, and Schilling, producers of textiles, armaments, and other manufactured goods. The "Brushmakers" area of the ghetto was a major center of brush manufacture.

The Germans controlled the movement of goods into and out of the Warsaw ghetto through the Transfer Office (Transferstelle), situated at the Umschlagplatz (transfer point and major rail yard). Located near the northern boundary of the ghetto, the Umschlagplatz functioned as the official



transit point until the summer of 1942, when it became an assembly area for deportations from the ghetto.

In addition to the official movement of goods, smuggling took place at other parts of the ghetto boundary. Jews caught outside the ghetto faced imprisonment in Pawiak Prison or immediate execution. Pawiak Prison was the main facility used by the German Security Police and Security Service in the Warsaw district. It held mainly Polish political prisoners and some Jews. Between 1939 and 1944, the Germans imprisoned about 99,000 people at Pawiak: one-third of them were killed there and the rest were deported from Warsaw. The Jewish council in Warsaw ran the Gesiowka Prison, which was within the ghetto boundary and was mainly for Jewish prisoners. In 1943, after the destruction of the Warsaw ghetto, Pawiak became a forced-labor camp.

DEPORTATIONS TO THE WARSAW GHETTO

Between January and March 1941, Jews from smaller communities to the west of Warsaw were deported to the Warsaw ghetto. Between April and July 1942, Jews from the nearby towns east of Warsaw, from Germany, and from German-occupied areas were deported there. Several hundred

Roma (Gypsies) were also deported to the ghetto.

At its height, the total population of the Warsaw ghetto reached more than 400,000 people. Conditions in the ghetto worsened over time. In 1941, one year before the mass deportations, over 43,000 people died, more than one in every ten ghetto residents.

DEPORTATIONS FROM THE WARSAW GHETTO

Between July and mid-September 1942, over 300,000 people were deported from the Warsaw ghetto; more than 250,000 of them were deported to the Treblinka killing center. Deportees were forced to the Umschlagplatz (deportation point), which was connected to the Warsaw-Malkinia rail line. They were crowded into freight cars and most were deported, via Malkinia, to Treblinka.

The Germans demanded that the Jewish council organize the deportations, but Adam Czerniakow, who headed the Jewish council in Warsaw, refused to cooperate. Although Czerniakow did not call for resistance to the Germans, he did not sign the deportation order and committed suicide, swallowing a cyanide capsule on July 23, 1942.



LEGEND

- Ghetto Boundary July 22, 1942, Wall with Barbed Wire on Top.
- Entrances, Gates to Ghetto
- Selected Features
- 1. Jewish Council (Judenrat)
- 2. Jewish Police
- 3. Gesiowka Prison
- 4. Pawiak Prison
- 5. Umschlagplatz
- 6. Hiding Place of Ringelblum Archive
- 7. Czyste Hospital
- 8. The Great Synagogue
- 9. Korczak Orphanage
- 10. Deportation Office (Befehlsstelle)

The Germans developed various methods to trap Jews for deportations. Sometimes whole buildings were surrounded by police and SS units and those inside forced to the Umschlagplatz. Late in the deportation process, the Germans promised food to any Jews who went voluntarily to the assembly point. Starving and unaware that they would be transported to their deaths, some Jews reported and they too were deported to Treblinka. Children from Janusz Korczak's Sliska Street orphanage were rounded up and marched to the Umschlagplatz. Despite offers of rescue, Korczak and his

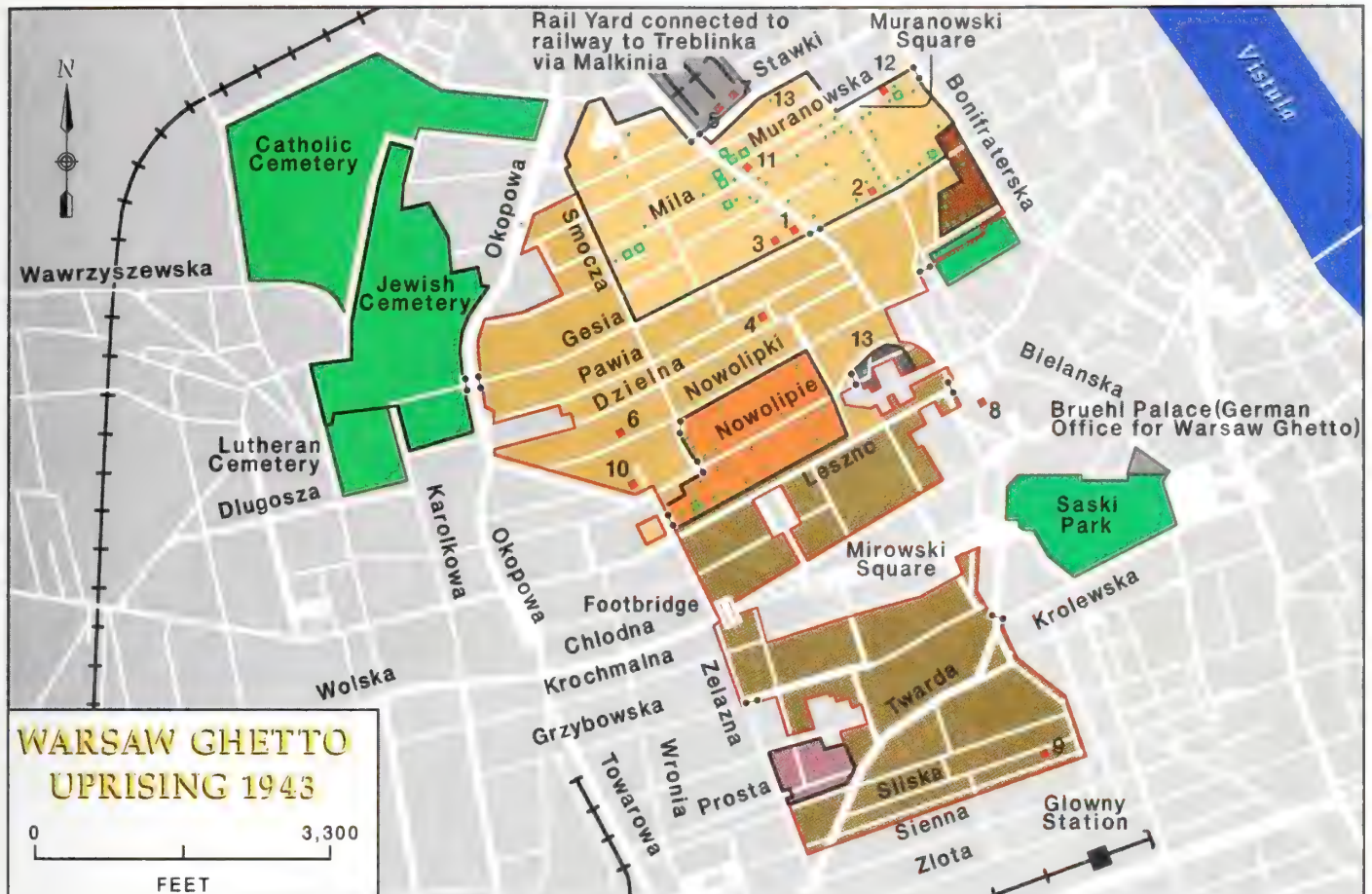
assistants refused to leave the children and were deported along with them.

During the deportations, the Czyste Hospital in the ghetto served as a roundup center, where Jews were assembled before their transfer to the Umschlagplatz. The Deportation Office (Befehlsstelle), at the corner of Nowolipie and Zelazna streets, directed the entire process. Jewish police forces were at first employed in the deportations. Later, German forces and their Latvian and Ukrainian auxiliaries took charge of roundups. Toward the end of the deportations, German forces and collaborators searched streets and residences and imposed a daily quota on Jewish policemen as it became increasingly difficult to conduct large-scale roundups.

In September, at the end of the 1942 mass deportation, only about 55,000 Jews remained in the ghetto. The SS established a special section (the Werterfassung) to collect and sort the belongings of the victims for shipment to Germany. Following the mass deportation, the ghetto area was reduced in size and divided into three separate sections.

WARSAW GHETTO UPRISING

During the mass deportation from the Warsaw ghetto in



LEGEND

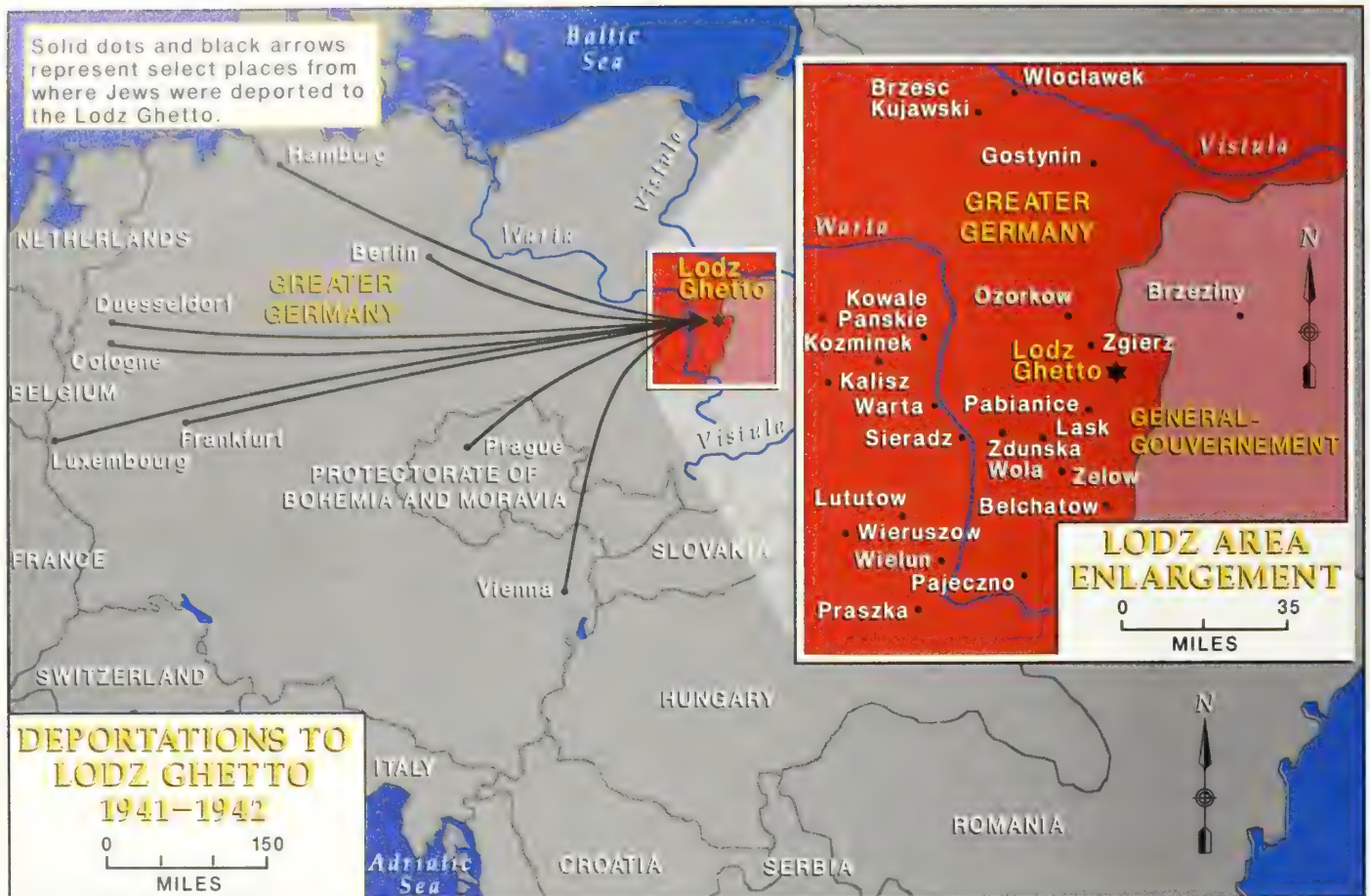
- Ghetto Boundary July 22, 1942
 - Reduced Ghetto
 - Main Ghetto
 - Ghetto Factory Area: Toejbens, F.E. Schultz, K.G. Schultz, Roehrich, Hoffmann, Schilling
 - Central Ghetto Factory Area, Toejbens
 - Brushmakers Shops
 - Area Resettled by Poles
 - Area Unoccupied, Jews in Hiding
 - January 1943 Revolt
 - Bunkers & Fighting Points April-May 1943 Revolt
 - Entrances, Gates to Ghetto
 - Selected Features (Ghetto Public Institutions)
1. Jewish Council (Judenrat)
 2. Jewish Police
 3. Gesiowka Prison
 4. Pawiak Prison
 5. Umschlagplatz (Assembly Point and Transfer Office)
 6. Hiding Place of Ringelblum Archive
 7. Czyste Hospital, Deportation Center
 8. The Great Synagogue
 9. Korczak Orphanage
 10. Deportation Office (Befehlsstelle)
 11. ZOB Headquarters
 12. ZZW Headquarters
 13. SS Werterfassung

1942, several Jewish underground organizations created an armed self-defense organization known as the Jewish Fighting Organization (Zydowska Organizacja Bojowa; ZOB). The Revisionist party (right-wing Zionists) formed another resistance organization, the Jewish Fighting Union (Zydowski Zwiazek Wojskowy; ZZW). Although initially there was tension between the ZOB and the ZZW, both groups decided to work together to oppose German attempts to destroy the ghetto.

The Germans tried to resume mass deportations of Jews from Warsaw in January 1943. A group of Jewish fighters infiltrated a column of Jews on its way to the Umschlagplatz and, at a prearranged signal, broke ranks and fought their German escorts. After seizing 5,000-6,500 ghetto residents to be deported, the Germans suspended further deportations. Encouraged by the apparent success of the resistance, which they believed may have halted deportations, the ghetto population began to construct subterranean bunkers and shelters in preparation for an uprising should the Germans begin the final deportation of all remaining Jews in the reduced ghetto.

The Germans renewed deportations from the Warsaw ghetto in April 1943, thereby beginning the final destruction

LODZ GHETTO



of the ghetto. The renewal of deportations was the signal for an armed uprising within the ghetto. The Warsaw ghetto uprising lasted about one month, from April 19 until May 16, 1943, and was the largest, most important Jewish uprising, and the first urban uprising, in German-occupied Europe.

When the destruction of the Warsaw ghetto began on April 19, most of the ghetto population refused to report to assembly points for deportation. Many hid from the Germans in the previously prepared bunkers and shelters.

ZOB commander Mordecai Anielewicz led resistance forces in the Warsaw ghetto uprising. In the first days of fighting, Anielewicz commanded the Jewish fighters in street battles with the Germans. The ZOB also blew up a workshop in the "Brushmakers" area. When street fighting shifted to fighting from concealed bunkers, Anielewicz and a large group of fighters retreated to the ZOB headquarters' bunker on Mila Street. The ZZW headquarters' bunker was on Muranowski Square.

On the third day of the uprising, forces under German commander SS General Juergen Stroop began burning the ghetto, building by building, to force the remaining Jews out of hiding. Jewish resistance fighters made sporadic raids from

their bunkers, but the Germans systematically reduced the ghetto to rubble. Anielewicz and those with him were killed in an attack on his command bunker on Mila Street, which fell to German forces on May 8.

On May 16, 1943, Stroop ordered the Great Synagogue on Tlomackie Street destroyed to symbolize German victory. The ghetto itself was in ruins. Although only about 50,000 Jews remained in the ghetto after the January 1943 deportations, Stroop reported to Berlin that he had captured 56,065 Jews and destroyed 631 bunkers. He estimated that 5,000 to 6,000 Jews had been killed in the bombardment and fires. Stroop also reported that he had shot more than 7,000 and captured and deported almost 7,000 Jews to Treblinka, where they were killed. Most of the remaining Jews were deported to the Poniatowa and Trawniki forced-labor camps and to the Majdanek extermination camp.

LODZ

The city of Lodz is located about 75 miles southwest of Warsaw, Poland. The Jews of Lodz formed, after Warsaw, the second largest Jewish community in prewar Poland. One week after German forces attacked Poland on September 1, 1939,



Lodz was occupied by the German army and annexed to Germany as part of the Warthegau district. The Germans renamed the city Litzmannstadt, after a German general, Karl Litzmann, who had captured that city during World War I.

In early February 1940, the Germans ordered the establishment of a ghetto in the northeastern section of Lodz. Over 150,000 Jews, more than a third of the entire population of Lodz, were forced into a small area of the city.

In 1941 and 1942, almost 40,000 Jews were deported to the Lodz ghetto: 20,000 from Germany, Austria, the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia, and Luxembourg, and almost 20,000 more Jews from the smaller provincial towns in the Lodz region. Further, about 5,000 Roma (Gypsies) from Austria were deported to the Lodz ghetto, where they were confined in a segregated block of buildings.

The Lodz ghetto was isolated from the rest of the city by barbed-wire fencing. Special SS units guarded the ghetto perimeter. Internal order in the ghetto was the responsibility of Jewish ghetto police. The ghetto area was divided into three parts by the intersection of two major roads, which were excluded from the ghetto. The three segments of the ghetto were accessible to each other via bridges constructed over the

two thoroughfares. Streetcars for the non-Jewish population of Lodz traversed the ghetto but were not permitted to stop within it.

Lodz had been a key industrial center in prewar Poland, and thus the Lodz ghetto became a major production center under the German occupation. As early as May 1940, the Germans began to establish factories in the ghetto and to utilize Jewish residents for forced labor. By August 1942, there were almost 100 factories within the ghetto. The major factories produced textiles, especially uniforms, for the German army. Mordechai Chaim Rumkowski, chairman of the Jewish council in the Lodz ghetto, hoped to prevent the destruction of the ghetto by making it as productive as possible. He gambled that making Jewish labor essential to German factories would spare Jews from eventual deportation and preserve the Lodz ghetto until the end of the war.

Living conditions in the ghetto were horrendous. Most of the area did not have running water or a sewer system. Hard labor, overcrowding, and starvation were the dominant features of life. The overwhelming majority of ghetto residents worked in German factories, receiving only meager food rations from their employers. More than 20 percent of



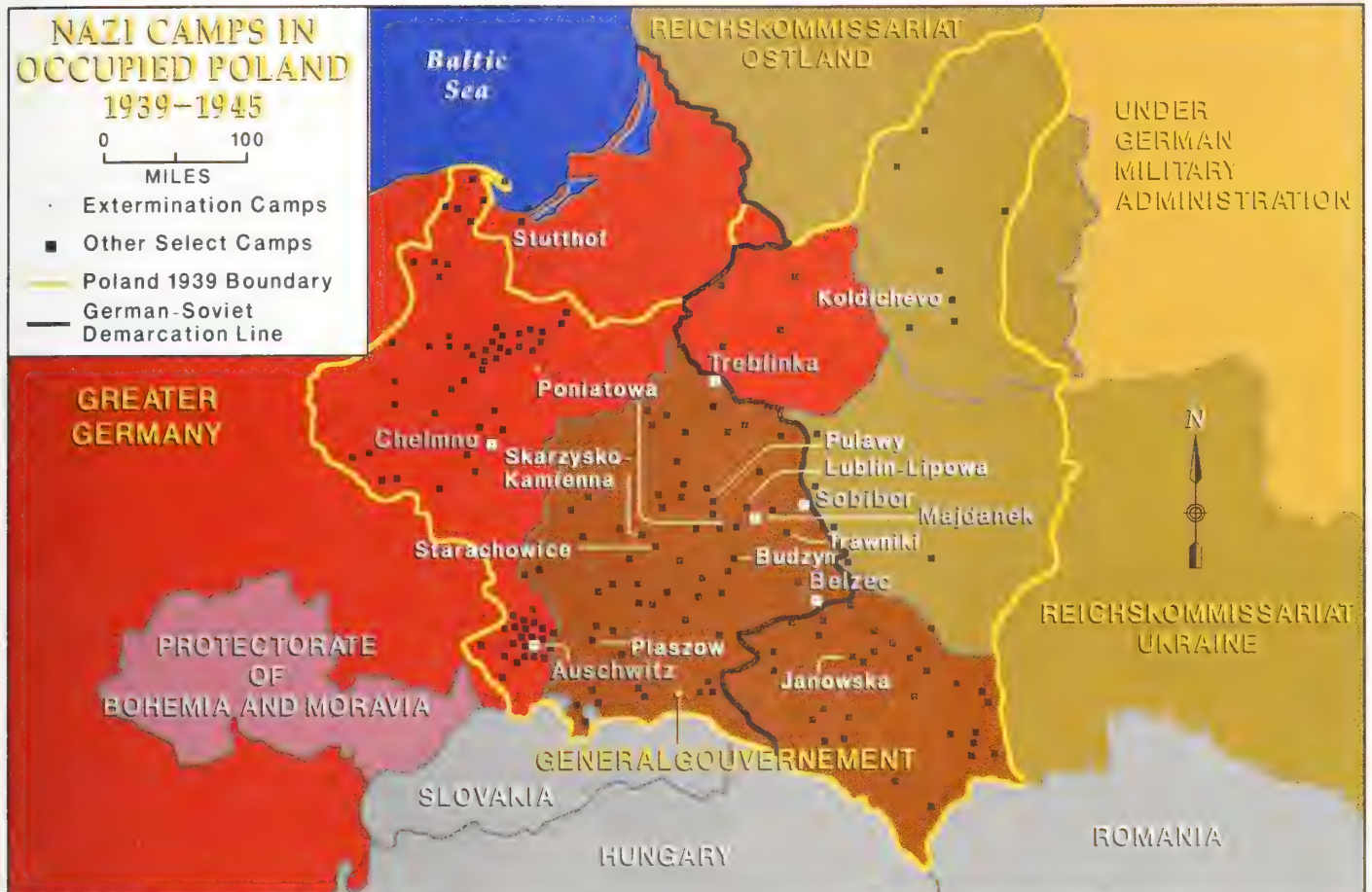
they were killed in mobile gas vans (trucks with a hermetically sealed compartment that served as a gas chamber). Jews were rounded up in assembly points before deportation. The Germans at first required the Jewish council to prepare lists of deportees, but soon switched to direct roundups organized by the German police. Hundreds of Jews, mainly children, the elderly, and the sick, were killed on the spot while the deportation was in progress.

Between September 1942 and May 1944, there were no major deportations from Lodz to extermination camps, and the ghetto resembled a forced-labor camp. In the spring of 1944, the Nazis decided to destroy the Lodz ghetto. By then, Lodz was the last remaining ghetto in Poland, with a population of about 75,000 Jews. In June and July 1944 the Germans resumed deportations from Lodz, and about 3,000 Jews were deported to Chelmno. The ghetto residents were informed by Rumkowski that they were being transferred to work camps in Germany. The deportations continued in August, but most of the remaining ghetto population was deported to the Auschwitz-Birkenau extermination camp.

the ghetto's population died as a result of the harsh living conditions.

DEPORTATIONS FROM THE LODZ GHETTO

In January 1942, deportations from Lodz to the Chelmno killing center began. By September 1942, over 70,000 Jews and about 5,000 Roma had been deported to Chelmno, where



NAZI CAMPS IN POLAND

Tens of thousands of non-Jewish Poles were imprisoned in Nazi concentration and forced-labor camps. As throughout occupied Europe, the Germans used terror and the extensive camp system to instill fear in people and to wreak destruction upon institutions and culture. Poles were prisoners in nearly every camp, but especially in the Auschwitz and Stutthof camp systems. Both camps had an extensive system of subcamps or forced-labor camps: Auschwitz in the southwest and Stutthof in north-central Poland. Conditions in the camps were intolerable. Prisoners were provided with little food, inadequate housing and sanitary facilities, and virtually no medical care. Epidemics and disease were common. Prisoners were literally worked to death.

Polish Jews were the primary targets of Nazi policy in Poland, as were Jews throughout German-occupied Europe. Immediately following the German occupation of Poland in September 1939, Jews were drafted for forced labor, mainly clearing rubble and debris in Polish cities damaged by the

invasion. Jews continued to be used for forced labor after they were concentrated in ghettos. Eventually, the Nazis established hundreds of forced-labor camps, where tens of thousands of Jews were forced to work in construction, military, and agricultural projects.

The Germans established six extermination camps on former Polish soil—Chelmo, Belzec, Sobibor, Treblinka, Auschwitz-Birkenau, and Majdanek. Extermination camps were killing centers designed and built for the sole purpose of efficiently killing millions of people. Auschwitz and Majdanek functioned as penal camps and labor camps as well as killing centers. Chelmo, Belzec, Sobibor, and Treblinka served only as killing centers, mainly for Polish Jews, as well as Jews and Roma (Gypsies) from other parts of Europe. These four camps were dismantled in 1943, since most of the Jews in Poland had already been killed. Chelmo was reopened in 1944, to kill the Jews remaining in the Lodz ghetto. An estimated 3.5 million Jews were killed in the killing centers as part of the “Final Solution.”



KRAKOW

The city of Krakow (Cracow) is in southern Poland. In 1939 there were 60,000 Jews residing in Krakow, almost one-quarter of its total population of about 250,000.

The German army occupied Krakow in the first week of September 1939. Persecution of the Jews began immediately and intensified after the Germans declared Krakow the capital of the Generalgouvernement territory in the interior of occupied Poland. Wawel Castle became the residence of the Nazi lawyer Hans Frank, who had been appointed administrator of the Generalgouvernement. Montelupich Prison became a Gestapo prison. In 1942, the Plaszow camp was established in the south of the city as a forced-labor camp for the Jews of Krakow. In 1944, Plaszow became a concentration camp.

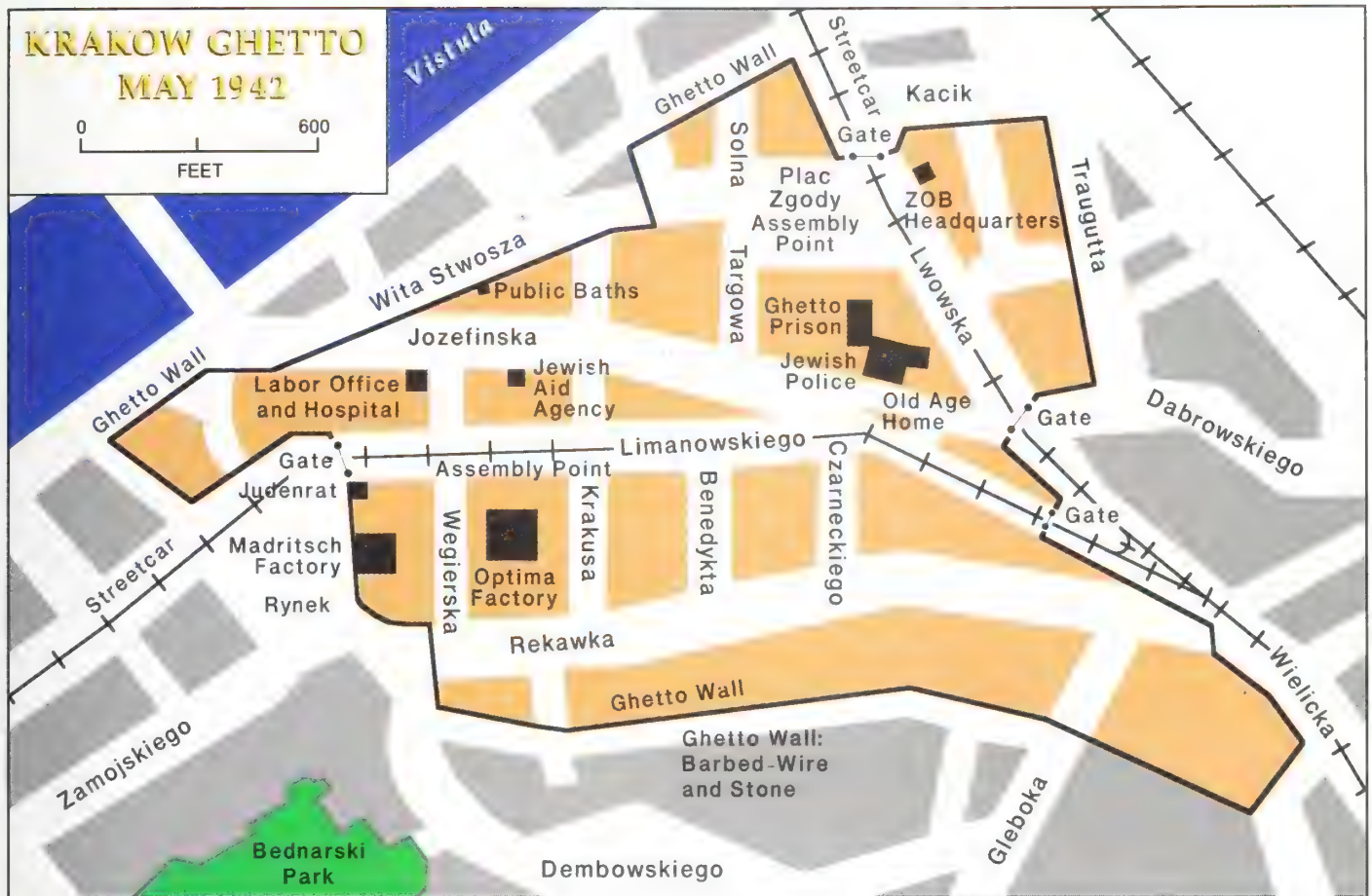
In May 1940, the Germans began to expel Jews from Krakow to neighboring towns. By March 1941, the majority of Jews had been evicted and only about 15,000 remained in Krakow. In early March 1941, the Germans ordered the establishment of a ghetto, to be situated in Podgorze in the south of Krakow rather than in Kazimierz, the traditionally Jewish quarter of the city. The Germans concentrated Krakow Jews and those from surrounding towns and villages in the ghetto.

Almost 20,000 Jews were confined in the ghetto, which was enclosed by barbed-wire fences and, in places, by a stone wall. Streetcars traveled through the ghetto but made no stops within its boundary.

The Germans established several factories inside the ghetto, among them the Optima and the Madritsch factories, where Jews were used for forced labor. Several hundred Jews were also employed in factories and forced-labor projects outside the ghetto.

In March 1942, the Germans arrested about 50 intellectuals in the ghetto and deported them to the Auschwitz-Birkenau extermination camp. In the second half of 1942, the Germans deported about 13,000 people from the ghetto. During the deportations, Plac Zgody and the Optima factory were the major assembly points. Most of the deportees were sent to the Belzec extermination camp; some were sent to Auschwitz, which was only 40 miles from Krakow. Hundreds of people were shot in the ghetto during the deportations.

In March 1943, the Germans destroyed the Krakow ghetto. More than 2,000 people were deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau and killed. The remainder of the ghetto population was deported to the nearby Plaszow camp.

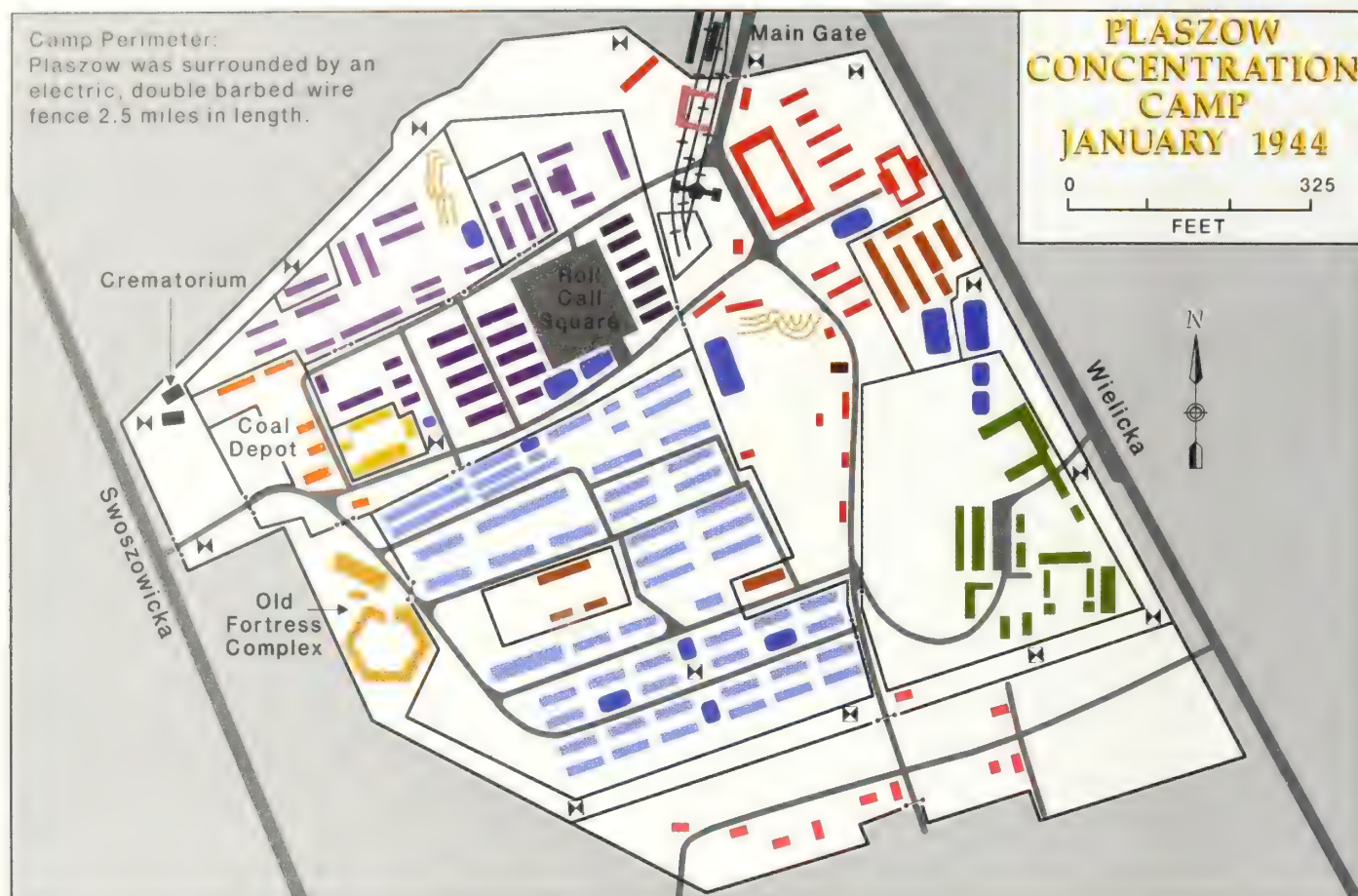


RESISTANCE IN THE KRAKOW GHETTO

A Jewish resistance movement existed in the Krakow ghetto from the ghetto's establishment. Underground operations initially focused on supporting education and welfare organizations. In October 1942, however, the Jewish Fighting Organization (Żydowska Organizacja Bojowa; ZOB), an underground organization independent of the Warsaw ZOB, prepared to fight the Germans. The ZOB decided not to fight within the limited confines of the ghetto, but instead to use the ghetto as a base from which to attack

targets throughout the city of Krakow. The most important ZOB attack took place in the center of Krakow at the Cynagieria cafe, which was frequented by German officers.

Krakow ghetto fighters also attempted to join partisan groups active in the Krakow region. In successive skirmishes with the Germans, the Jewish underground fighters suffered heavy losses. In the fall of 1944 the remnants of the resistance escaped from Poland, crossing into neighboring Slovakia and then into Hungary, where they joined with Jewish resistance groups in Budapest.



LEGEND

- Roads
- Gates
- Barbed-Wire Fence
- ⌘ Watchtowers
- Ponds
- Railroad Tracks
- Gravel Pits
- Barracks for SS and Ukrainian Guards
- Camp Administration
- Camp Commandant's House
- Factory Area
- Hospital Camp
- Housing for German Civilians
- Kitchen
- Men's Camp
- Polish Reeducation Work Camp
- Stables and Garage
- Warehouses
- Women's Camp

PLASZOW CONCENTRATION CAMP

The Plaszow camp was originally a forced-labor camp established in 1942 in the south of Krakow. The original site of the camp included two Jewish cemeteries. From time to time the camp was enlarged, and it reached its maximum size in 1944, the same year that it became a concentration camp. The Plaszow camp was surrounded by an electrified barbed-wired fence and was divided into several sections. The camp had barracks for German personnel, factories, warehouses, a men's camp and a women's camp, and a reeducation camp for Polish workers. Poles and Jews were segregated within the camp. The largest number of people confined in Plaszow at any one time was more than 20,000. Thousands were killed there.

The German industrialist Oskar Schindler established an enamelware factory in Krakow, adjacent to the Plaszow camp. He attempted to protect his Jewish workers, some 900 people, from abuse in the Plaszow camp and from deportation to extermination camps. When he moved the factory and his Jewish work force to the Sudetenland (an area formerly in Czechoslovakia) in 1944, he was able to rescue more than 1,000 Jews.



In the summer of 1944, as the Soviet army approached, the Germans prepared to dismantle the Plaszow camp. Prisoners were transferred to other camps closer to Germany or deported to the Auschwitz-Birkenau extermination camp and killed there. The Germans also attempted to remove all traces of the crimes that had been committed in the camp. They ordered that the mass graves at Plaszow be opened and the bodies exhumed and burned. In January 1945, the last prisoners from Plaszow were sent to Auschwitz.

“ERNTEFEST”

Translated from the German, “Erntefest” means “Harvest Festival.” The word “Erntefest” was the code name for the German operation to kill all Jews remaining in the Generalgouvernement in the fall of 1943. The timing of the operation was apparently in response to the uprising and attempted mass escape of Jews at the Sobibor extermination camp in October 1943. The SS believed that additional

Jewish-led revolts were possible in the Generalgouvernement; to prevent further resistance, the SS decided to kill most of the remaining Jews who were employed in forced-labor projects and were concentrated in the Trawniki, Poniatoŭa, and Majdanek camps.

“Erntefest” began at dawn on November 3, 1943. The Trawniki and Poniatoŭa labor camps were surrounded by SS and police units. Jews were then taken out of the camps in groups and shot in nearby pits, which had been dug for this purpose. At Majdanek, Jews were first separated from the other prisoners, and then taken in groups to nearby trenches and shot. Jews from other labor camps in the Lublin area were also taken to Majdanek and shot. Music was played through loudspeakers at both Majdanek and Trawniki to drown out the noise of the mass shooting. The extermination operation was completed in a single day. Approximately 40,000 Jews were killed during “Erntefest,” almost half of them at Majdanek.



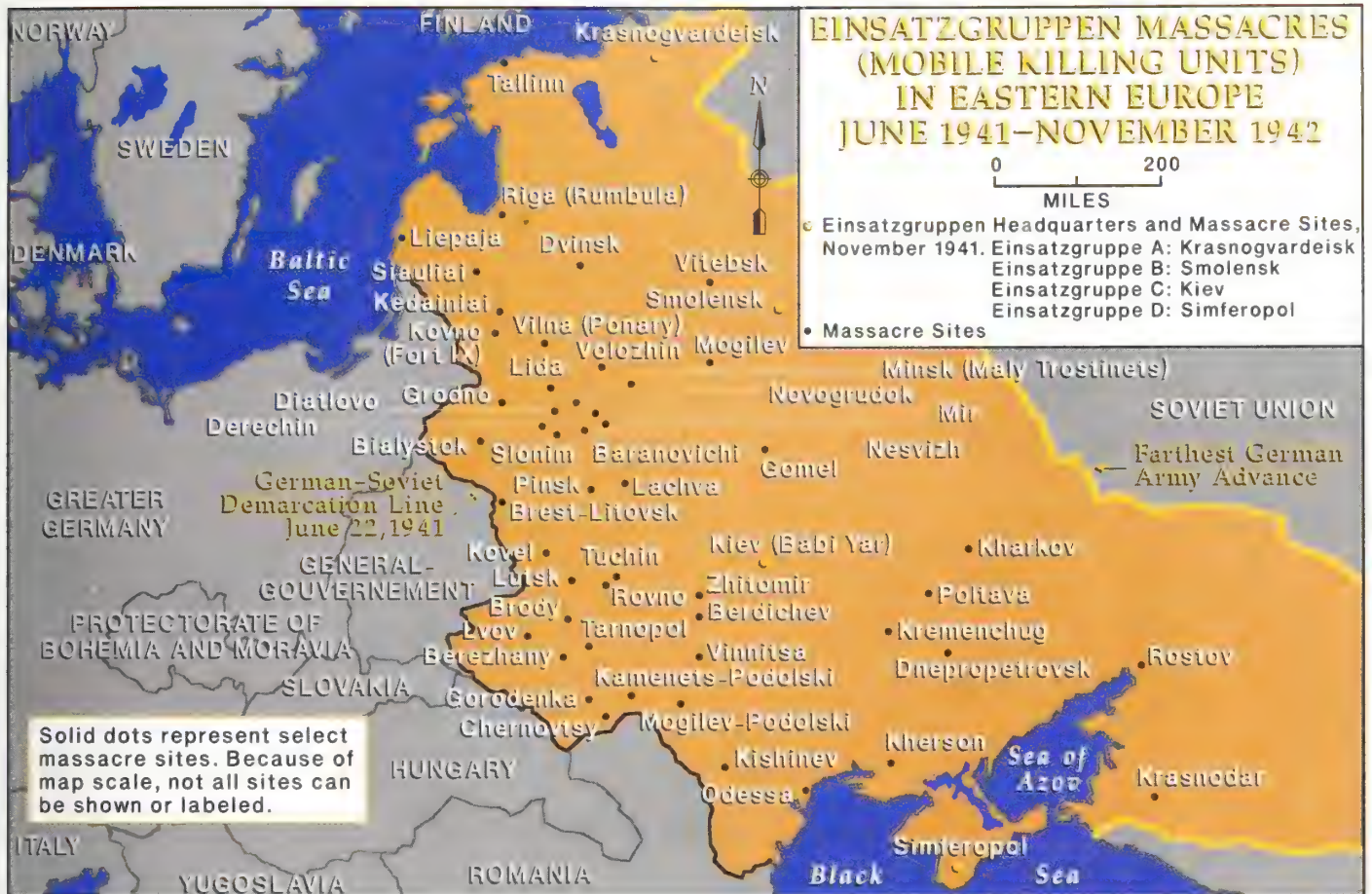
GERMAN INVASION OF THE SOVIET UNION

The German invasion of the Soviet Union, code-named Operation Barbarossa, began on June 22, 1941. It was the largest German military operation of World War II. More than three million German soldiers, reinforced by half a million auxiliaries from Germany's allies (Finnish, Romanian, Hungarian, Italian, Slovakian, and Croatian troops, and a contingent from Spain), attacked the Soviet Union across a broad front, from the Baltic Sea in the north to the Black Sea in the south. Three German army groups advanced deep into Soviet territory. The Soviet leadership had refused to heed warnings of the impending German attack, so Germany achieved tactical surprise and the Soviet army was initially overwhelmed. Millions of Soviet soldiers were encircled, cut off from supplies and reinforcements, and forced to surrender.

By early September 1941, German forces were at the gates of Leningrad in the north, Smolensk in the center, and Dnepropetrovsk in the south. German troops continued to

advance to the outskirts of Moscow. Yet after months of campaigning, the German army was exhausted. Its supply lines were hampered by the great distances involved (Moscow is almost 1,000 miles east of Berlin). German forces were also unprepared for winter fighting, having expected the Blitzkrieg tactic to result in the swift surrender of the Soviet Union. Winter conditions hampered major military operations and took a significant toll on German soldiers.

In December 1941, the Soviet Union launched a counteroffensive which was initially successful in forcing a German retreat from the outskirts of Moscow. But by April 1942, German forces were able to stabilize the front east of Smolensk. Germany resumed the offensive in the spring of 1942 with a massive attack in the south toward the city of Stalingrad on the Volga River and the oil fields of the Caucasus. By August 1942, German forces neared the city. With the battle for Stalingrad, German domination of Europe was at its height.



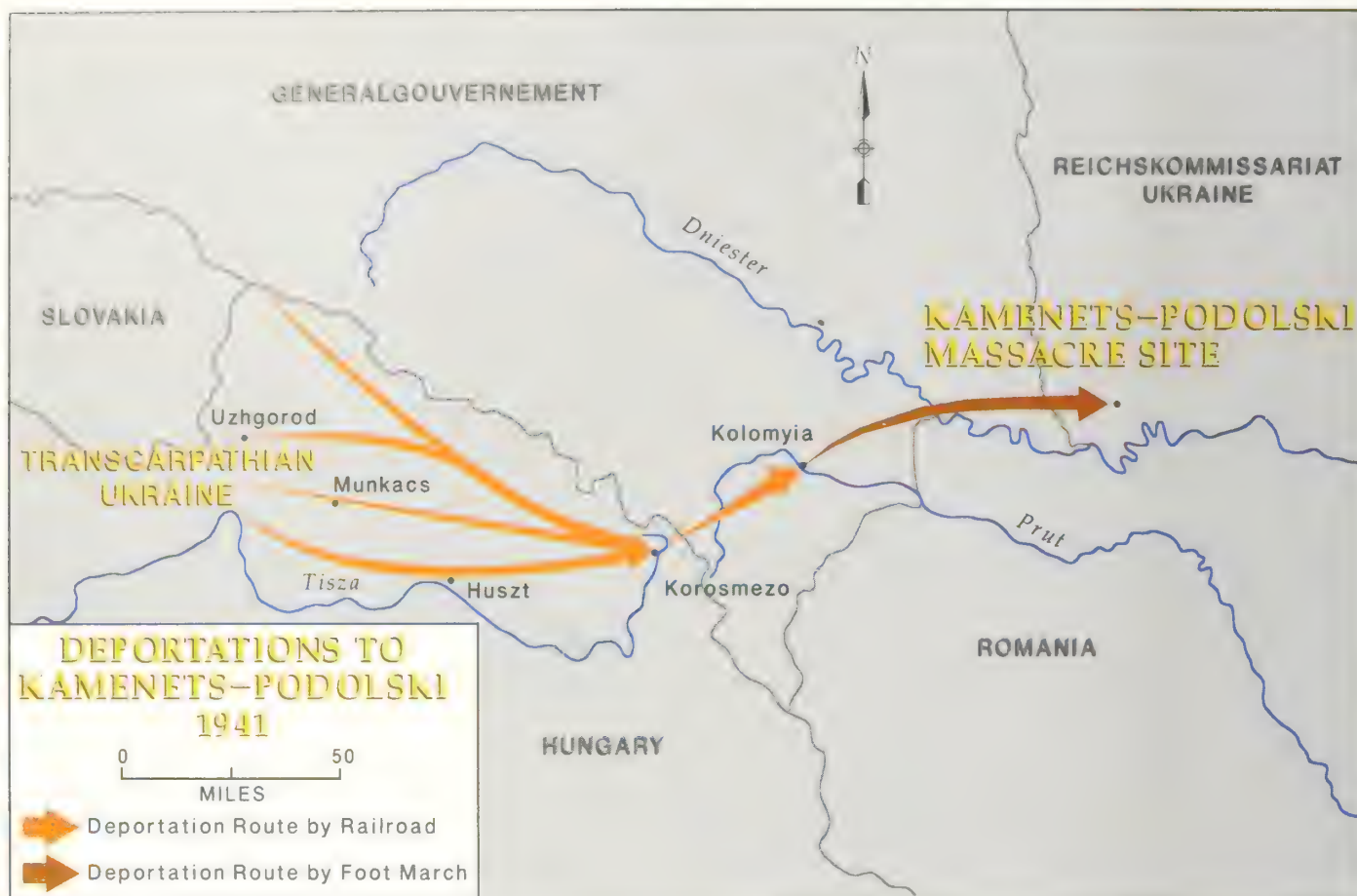
EINSATZGRUPPEN

Einsatzgruppen (mobile killing units) were German special duty squads, composed primarily of SS and police personnel, assigned to kill Jews as part of the Nazi program to murder the Jews of Europe. The Einsatzgruppen also killed Roma (Gypsies), Soviet political commissars, and others whom the Nazis deemed racially or politically unacceptable. Einsatzgruppen operated behind the front lines in German-occupied territories in eastern Europe. During the invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941, the Einsatzgruppen followed the German army as it advanced deep into Soviet territory, and carried out mass-murder operations. The German army was responsible for logistical support for the Einsatzgruppen, providing supplies, transportation, and housing. At first the Einsatzgruppen shot primarily Jewish men. Soon, wherever the Einsatzgruppen went they shot all Jewish men, women, and children, without regard for age or gender.

The Einsatzgruppen following the German army into the

Soviet Union were composed of four battalion-sized operational groups. Einsatzgruppe A fanned out from East Prussia across Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia toward Leningrad. It massacred Jews in Kovno, Riga, and Vilna. Einsatzgruppe B started from Warsaw in occupied Poland, and fanned out across Belorussia toward Smolensk. It massacred Jews in Grodno, Minsk, Brest-Litovsk, Slonim, Gomel, and Mogilev, among other places. Einsatzgruppe C began operations from the western Generalgouvernement and fanned out across the Ukraine toward Kharkov and Rostov-on-Don. It committed massacres in Lvov, Tarnopol, Zolochov, Kremenets, Kharkov, Kiev, and elsewhere. Of the four units, Einsatzgruppe D operated farthest south. It carried out massacres in the southern Ukraine and the Crimea, especially in Nikolayev, Kherson, Simferopol, Sevastopol, and Feodosiya.

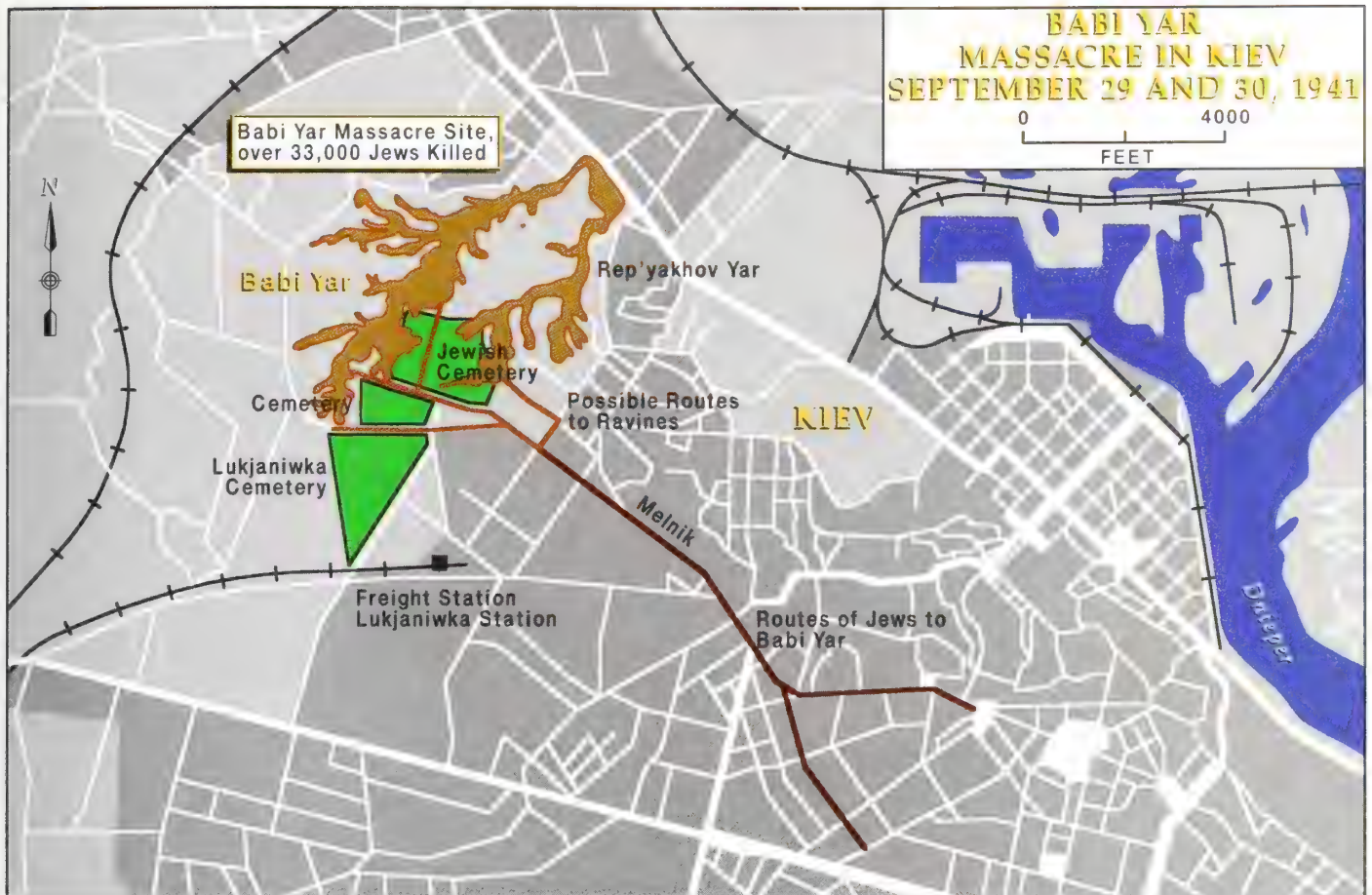
By the spring of 1943, the Einsatzgruppen had killed more than a million Jews and tens of thousands of Soviet political commissars, partisans, and Roma.



KAMENETS-PODOLSKI

The city of Kamenets-Podolski is in the western Ukraine. It was occupied by German forces during the invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941. After the invasion, officials in Hungary (Germany's ally) decided to deport foreign Jews (mostly Polish and Russian Jews) living in Hungary to German-occupied eastern Europe. As elsewhere in Europe, Jews who could not establish citizenship were especially vulnerable to deportation; many Hungarian Jews who could not document their citizenship were thus also deported. Many Jewish communities, especially in the Transcarpathian Ukraine, were

deported in their entirety. Jews were loaded into freight cars and taken to Korosmezo, near the prewar Hungarian-Polish border, and were handed over to the Germans. By the end of August 1941, almost 20,000 Jews had been deported from Hungary. Once in German hands, the Jews, still often in family units, were forced to march from Kolomyia to Kamenets-Podolski. Einsatzgruppen detachments in Kamenets-Podolski and troops under the command of the Higher SS and Police Leader for the southern region carried out mass killings of the Jewish deportees. These Jews were massacred together with the local Jewish population of the city.



BABI YAR

One of the largest massacres perpetrated by members of the Einsatzgruppen took place just outside the Ukrainian capital city of Kiev. Tens of thousands of Jews were systematically massacred at Babi Yar, a ravine to the northwest of the city.

German forces entered Kiev in September 1941. During the first days of the occupation, several buildings used by the German army were blown up, apparently by the Soviet security police (the NKVD). The Germans blamed the Jews for the explosion and, ostensibly in retaliation, decided to kill the Jews of Kiev. At that time, there were about 60,000 Jews in the city. Detachments of the Einsatzgruppen, together with Ukrainian auxiliary units, were assigned to carry out the massacre.

In late September, the Germans posted notices requiring all Jews to report for resettlement outside the city of Kiev. Failure to report was made a capital offense. Masses of Jews

reported and were directed to proceed along Melnik Street toward the Jewish cemetery and Babi Yar. Under guard, the Jews were directed to hand over all their valuables and to disrobe. As the victims moved into the ravine, they were shot in small groups by Einsatzgruppen detachments. The massacre continued for two days. It is estimated that over 33,000 Jews were killed in this operation. In the months that followed the massacre, thousands more Jews were shot at Babi Yar. Many non-Jews, including Roma (Gypsies) and Soviet prisoners of war, were also killed at Babi Yar.

In July 1943, as Soviet forces appeared likely to recapture Kiev, the Germans attempted to destroy any traces of the crimes committed at Babi Yar. As part of Aktion 1005, which aimed to obliterate the evidence of mass murder all over Europe, the Germans forced prisoners to reopen the mass graves and cremate the bodies. Once this was done, the Germans killed the remaining prisoners. The Soviet army liberated Kiev in November 1943.

Map of Eastern Europe (1941-1945)

Regions and Territories:

- GREATER GERMANY** (Red)
- GENERAL-GOUVERNEMENT** (Orange)
- PROTECTORATE OF BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA** (Light Blue)
- SLOVANIA (German Ally)** (Light Blue)
- HUNGARY (German Ally)** (Light Blue)
- ROMANIA (German Ally)** (Light Blue)

Major Cities and Towns (marked with stars):

- North:** Riga, Liepaja, Stauliai, Mikaliskes, Dvinsk, Salos, Svencionys, Vitebsk, Smolensk, Mogilev.
- Central:** Vilna, Lida, Volozhin, Minsk, Novogrudok, Mir, Nesvizh, Baranovichi, Slonim, Grodno, Diatelovo, Derechin, Bialystok, Pruzhany, Pincsk, Lachva, Brest-Litovsk, Minsk, Mazowiecki, Tomaszow Mazowiecki, Lodz, Warsaw, Lublin, Opole Lubelskie, Radom, Kielce, Czestochowa, Belchatow, Piotrkow Trybunalski, Bedzin, Sosnowiec, Krakow, Tarnow, Nowy Sacz, Przemyśl, Drogozbych, Stanislawow, Kolomyia, Rzeszow, Zamosc, Lvov, Brody, Zolochov, Tarnopol, Berezhan, Chorikov, Gorodenka, Chernovisy, Mogilev-Podolski, Kishinev.
- South:** Zhitomir, Berdichev, Vinnytsa, Revno, Tulin, Lutsk, Kovel.

Geographical Features:

- Baltic Sea** (North)
- Black Sea** (South)

GHETTOS IN OCCUPIED EASTERN EUROPE 1941-1942

0 175
MILES

★ Select Ghettos

Farthest German
Army Advance

UNDER GERMAN
OCCUPATION

★ Kharkov

Dnepropetrovsk
★

★ Kherson

Black Sea

GHETTOS IN EASTERN EUROPE

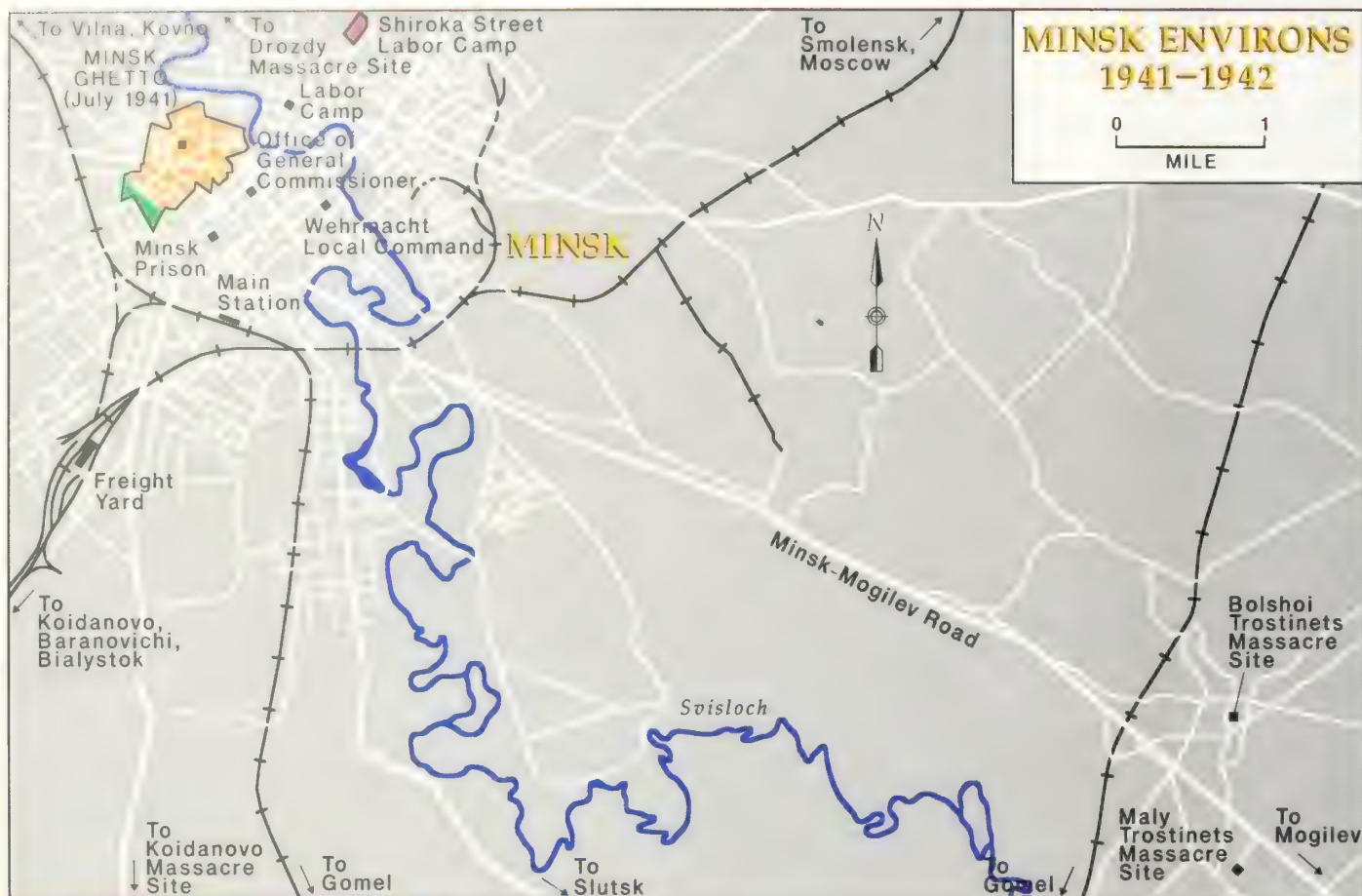
Ghettoization of Jews, which isolated Jewish communities from the population as a whole and from one another, occurred primarily in eastern Europe (Poland, the Baltic states, and occupied areas of the Soviet Union) between 1939 and 1942 and in Hungary after the 1944 German occupation.

The Nazis regarded the establishment of Jewish ghettos in Poland, begun in the fall of 1939, as a provisional measure. In western Poland, ghettoization preceded the massacre of Jews. The destruction of the ghettos began in late 1941, and attained full measure in the summer of 1942 with the deportation of Polish Jews to the extermination camps.

The occupation of eastern Poland, the Baltic states, Belorussia, and most of the Ukraine took place following the German invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941. In these areas, Einsatzgruppen massacres preceded ghettoization. Relatively few ghettos were established and of these, most were in larger cities because Einsatzgruppen detachments killed Jews in smaller communities outright. Ghettos were established in Bialystok, Lvov, Rovno, and elsewhere in eastern Poland. In the Baltic states, ghettos were established in Riga, Kovno, and Vilna (Vilna was then part of Lithuania), among other cities. The Minsk ghetto was the largest in the Soviet Union, with a population of about 80,000.

Einsatzgruppen massacres continually reduced the Jewish population of these ghettos. By the end of 1943, most of the ghettos of eastern Europe were destroyed. Most Jews were killed, either by Einsatzgruppen detachments or after their deportation to the killing centers in occupied Poland. The others were deported to forced-labor camps in the Baltic states and eastern Poland.

MINSK GHETTO



MINSK

German forces occupied Minsk, capital of the Belorussian Soviet Socialist Republic (SSR) in the Soviet Union, shortly after beginning the invasion of the Soviet Union on June 22, 1941. During the German occupation, the Belorussian SSR became part of the Reich Commissariat Ostland (Reichskommissariat Ostland). Within this German civilian administration, Minsk became a district capital. Wilhelm Kube, the German general commissioner of Belorussia, governed from Minsk.

In late July 1941, the Germans ordered the establishment of a ghetto in a small section of the northwestern part of Minsk. About 80,000 people, including Jews from nearby towns, were crowded into the Minsk ghetto.

Between November 1941 and October 1942, over 20,000 Jews from Germany and the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia were deported to Minsk. Many were killed upon arrival in Maly Trostinets, a small village about eight miles to the east. Others were housed in a separate ghetto in Minsk that segregated German Jews from local Belorussian Jews. Little contact was permitted between residents of the two ghettos.

Jews were forced to work on labor projects in factories



inside the ghetto. They were also used for forced labor outside the ghetto, especially in the Shiroka Street labor camp and the opera house (where Jewish private property was sorted and stored).

Detachments of the Einsatzgruppen began massacres in Minsk in July 1941, even before the establishment of the ghetto. Shootings of Jews occurred almost daily. By January 1942, Einsatzgruppen reports indicated that only 25,000 Jews remained in the ghetto. The rest had been killed by members of the Einsatzgruppen and by Lithuanian police auxiliaries. In July 1942, the Einsatzgruppen killed more than 10,000 Jews from both ghettos. Several thousand Jews were killed in Koidanovo, a small town southwest of Minsk. Thousands more were killed in Tuchinka, and many died inside the

ghetto. Both the Shiroka Street camp and Jubilee Square in the ghetto were assembly points for Jews rounded up by the Germans for immediate execution.

In August 1941, an anti-German underground was established in the Minsk ghetto. Members of the underground organized escapes from the ghetto and formed partisan units in the forests to the southeast and northwest of Minsk. Jews from Minsk established seven different partisan units. In all, about 10,000 Jews fled to the forests; most of them were killed during the war.

The Minsk ghetto was destroyed by the Germans in the fall of 1943. Some Jews were deported to the Sobibor extermination camp. About 4,000 Jews were killed at Maly Trostinets.

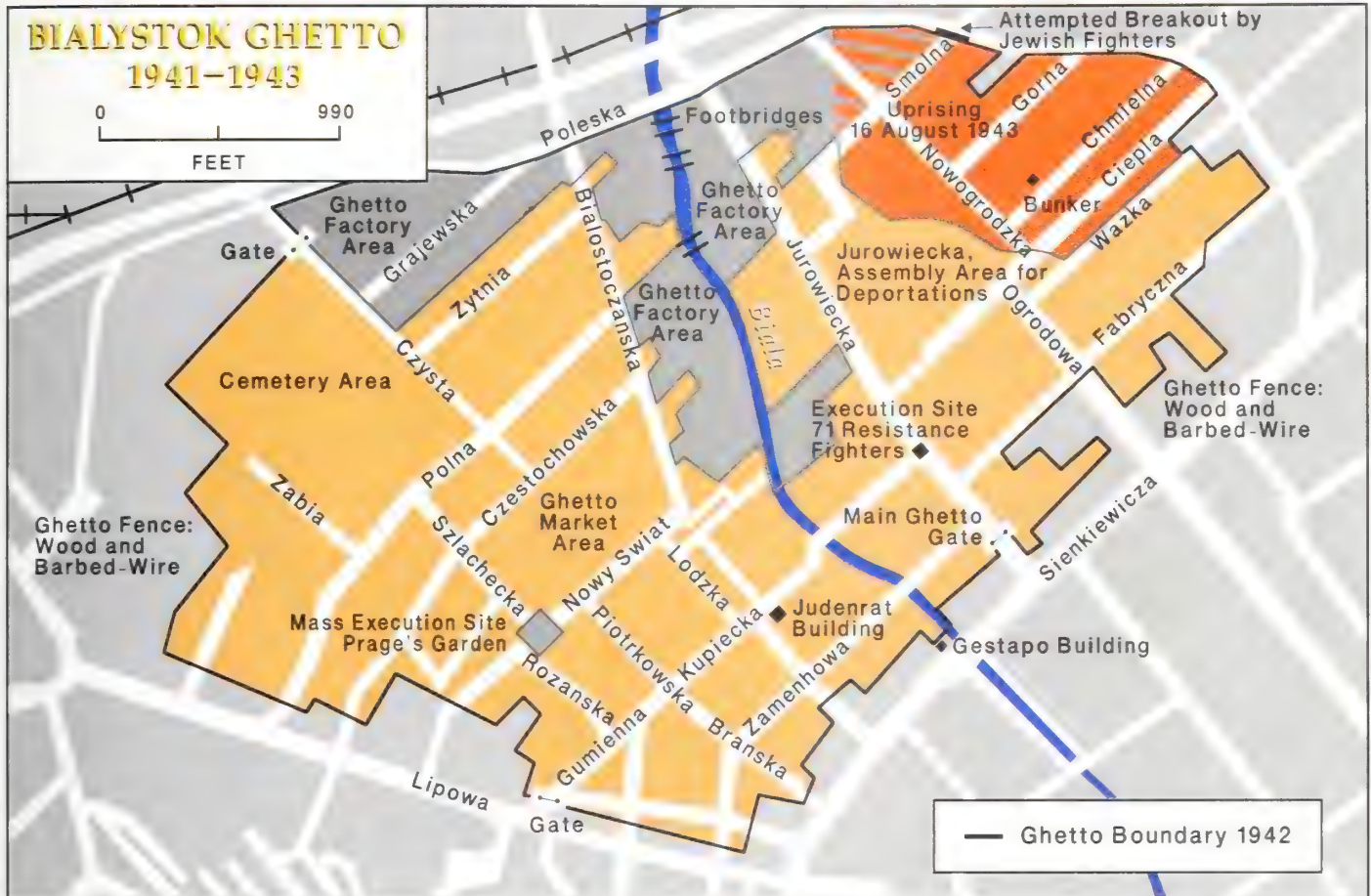


According to the terms of the German-Soviet Pact of 1939, Bialystok, a city in northeastern Poland, was assigned to the Soviet zone of occupation. Soviet forces entered the city in September 1939, and held it until the German army occupied Bialystok in June 1941. In the early days of the German occupation, Einsatzgruppen detachments rounded up and killed thousands of Jews in Bialystok.

In August 1941, the Germans ordered the establishment of a ghetto in Bialystok. About 50,000 Jews from the city and the surrounding region were confined in a small area of Bialystok city. The ghetto had two sections, divided by the Biala River. Most Jews in the Bialystok ghetto worked in forced-labor projects, primarily in large textile factories located within the ghetto boundaries. The Germans also sometimes used Jews in forced-labor projects outside the ghetto.

In early 1943, thousands of Bialystok Jews were deported to the Treblinka extermination camp. During the deportations, hundreds of Jews, mainly those deemed too weak or sick to travel, were killed at Prague's Garden and at the Jewish cemetery.

In August 1943, the Germans began the final destruction of



the Bialystok ghetto. German forces and Ukrainian auxiliaries surrounded the ghetto and began systematically rounding up Jews for deportation to Treblinka. Over 10,000 Jews were held in a central transit camp in the city before their deportation to Treblinka. Others were sent to the Majdanek extermination camp. From Majdanek, those deportees whom the Germans considered fit for forced labor were transported to the Poniatowa, Blizyn, or Auschwitz camps; the rest were killed at Majdanek. More than 1,000 Jewish children were sent first to the Theresienstadt ghetto in Bohemia, and then to Auschwitz-Birkenau, where they were killed.

During the August 1943 deportations, when all hope for

survival within the ghetto was abandoned, the Bialystok ghetto underground staged an uprising against the Germans. In an unsuccessful attempt to break out of the ghetto and join partisans in the nearby forests, armed Jews attacked German forces near the ghetto fence along Smolna Street. The fighting in the northeastern section of the ghetto lasted for five days; hundreds of Jews died in this battle. Seventy-one Jewish fighters were killed after being discovered in a bunker and captured by the Germans. More than a hundred Jews managed to escape from the ghetto and join partisan groups in the Bialystok area.

The Soviet army liberated Bialystok in August 1944.



VILNA

Poland and Lithuania both claimed Vilna (Vilnius) after World War I. Polish forces occupied Vilna in 1920, and before the outbreak of World War II, the city of Vilna was part of northeastern Poland. Under the terms of the German-Soviet Pact, Vilna, along with the rest of eastern Poland, was occupied by Soviet forces in late September 1939. In October 1939, the Soviet Union transferred the Vilna region to Lithuania. However, Soviet forces occupied Lithuania in June 1940 and in August 1940 incorporated Vilna, along with the rest of Lithuania, into the Soviet Union. On June 22, 1941, Germany attacked Soviet forces in eastern Europe. The German army occupied Vilna on June 24, 1941, the third day after the invasion.

The Germans established two ghettos—ghetto #1 and ghetto #2—in Vilna in early September 1941. Jews considered incapable of work were concentrated in ghetto #2. In October 1941, German Einsatzgruppen detachments and Lithuanian auxiliaries destroyed ghetto #2, killing the ghetto population in Ponary, a wooded area about eight miles southwest of Vilna. Lukiszki Prison served as a collection center for Jews who were to be taken to Ponary and shot. By the end of 1941,

the Einsatzgruppen had killed about 40,000 Jews in Ponary.

The Jews in ghetto #1 were forced to work in factories or in construction projects outside the ghetto. Some Jews were sent to labor camps in the Vilna region. In periodic killing operations, most of the ghetto's inhabitants were massacred at Ponary. From the spring of 1942 until the spring of 1943, there were no mass killing operations in Vilna. The Germans renewed the killings during the final liquidation of ghetto #1 in late September 1943. Children, the elderly, and the sick were sent to the Sobibor extermination camp or were shot at Ponary. The surviving men were sent to labor camps in Estonia, while the women were sent to labor camps in Latvia.

The Vilna ghetto had a significant Jewish resistance movement. A group of Jewish partisans known as the United Partisan Organization (Fareynegte Partizaner Organizatsye; FPO) was formed in 1942 and operated within the ghetto. The resistance created hiding places for weapons and prepared to fight the Germans. In early September 1943, realizing that the Germans intended the final destruction of the ghetto, resistance members skirmished with the Germans, who had entered the ghetto to begin the deportations. The Jewish council, however, agreed to cooperate in the deportations of



Jews from the ghetto, hoping to minimize bloodshed. Consequently, the FPO decided to flee to the nearby forests to fight the Germans. Some ghetto fighters escaped the final destruction of the ghetto, leaving through the sewers to join partisans in the Rudnikai and Naroch forests outside the city.

In September 1943, in an attempt to destroy the evidence of the killing of Jews at Ponary, the Germans forced

detachments of Jewish laborers to open the mass graves and burn the corpses. Jews from nearby labor camps continued to be killed at Ponary. During the German occupation, tens of thousands of Jews from Vilna and the surrounding area, as well as Soviet prisoners of war and others suspected of opposing the Germans, were massacred at Ponary.

The Soviet army liberated Vilna in July 1944.

LVOV GHETTO



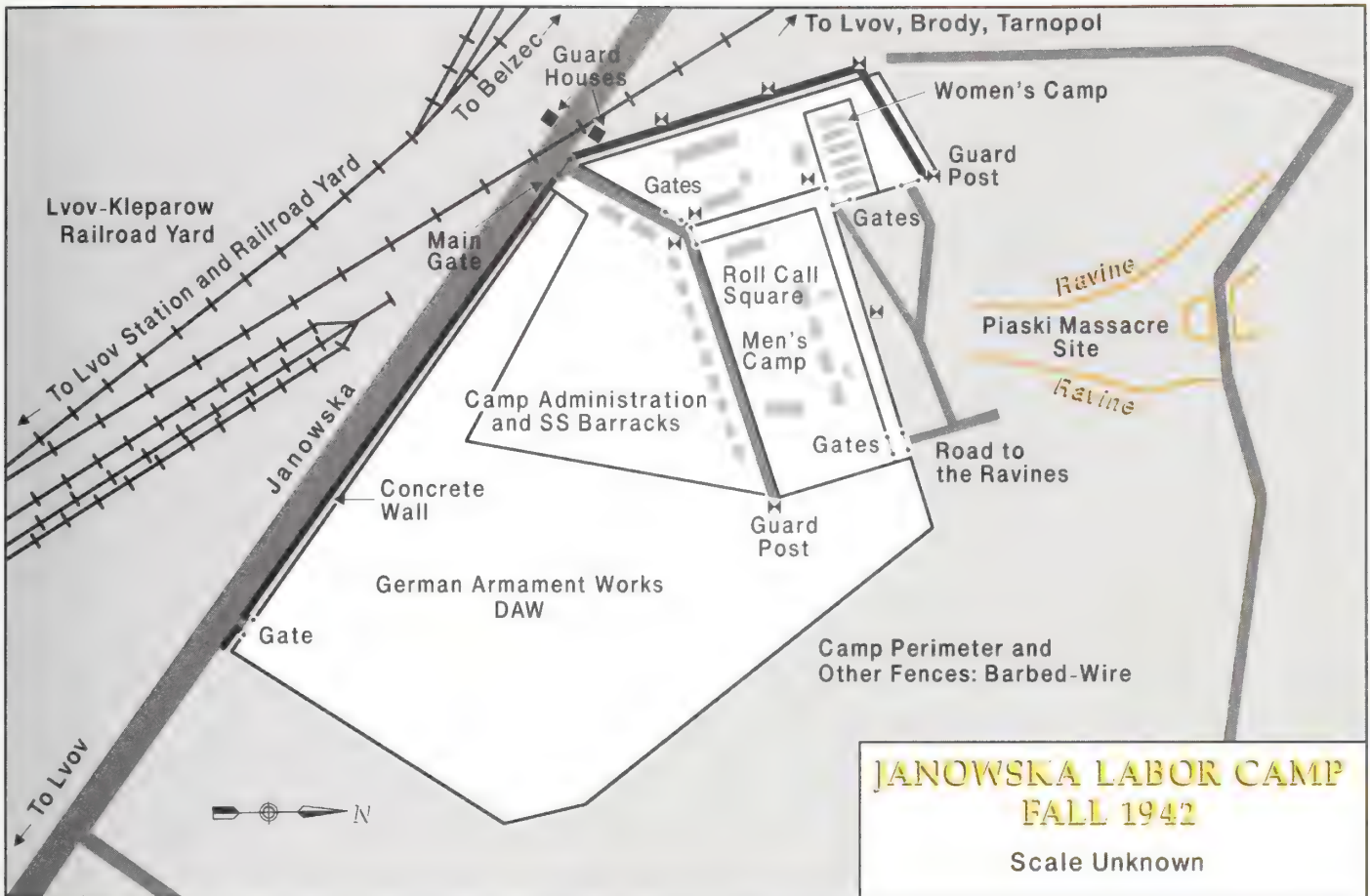
LVOV

The city of Lvov (Lviv) in southeastern Poland was occupied by the Soviet Union in 1939, under the terms of the German-Soviet Pact. Lvov was subsequently occupied by Germany after the invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941.

Encouraged by German forces, Ukrainian nationalists staged a violent pogrom against the Jews in early July 1941, killing about 4,000 Jews. Another pogrom, known as the Petliura Days, was organized in late July. This pogrom was named for Simon Petliura, who had organized anti-Jewish pogroms in the Ukraine after World War I. For three days, Ukrainian militants went on a rampage through the Jewish districts of Lvov. They took groups of Jews to the Jewish

cemetery and to Lunecki Prison and shot them. More than 2,000 Jews were killed and thousands more were injured.

In early November 1941, the Germans established a ghetto in the north of Lvov. Thousands of elderly and sick Jews were killed as they crossed the bridge on Peltesna Street on their way to the ghetto. In March 1942, the Germans began deporting Jews from the ghetto to the Belzec killing center. By August 1942, more than 65,000 Jews had been deported from the Lvov ghetto and killed. Thousands of Jews were sent for forced labor to the nearby Janowska camp. The ghetto was finally destroyed in early June 1943. The remaining ghetto residents were sent to the Janowska labor camp or deported to Belzec. Thousands of Jews were killed in the ghetto during this liquidation.



JANOWSKA CAMP

In September 1941, the Germans set up a factory in the northeastern suburbs of Lvov, on Janowska Street. It became part of a network of factories owned and operated by the SS called the German Armament Works (Deutsche Ausruestungswerke; DAW). Jews were used as forced laborers, mainly in carpentry and metalwork. The Germans established a camp housing them adjacent to the factory in October 1941.

In addition to being a forced-labor camp for Jews, Janowska was also a transit camp during the mass deportations of Polish Jews to the killing centers in 1942. Jews underwent a selection process in Janowska similar to that used

at Auschwitz-Birkenau and Majdanek. Those classified as fit to work remained at Janowska for forced labor. The majority, rejected as unfit for work, were deported to Belzec and killed or were shot at the Piaski ravine, just north of the camp. In the summer and fall of 1942, thousands of Jews (mainly from the Lvov ghetto) were deported to Janowska and killed.

The evacuation of the Janowska camp began in November 1943. Prisoners were forced to open the mass graves and burn the bodies, as the Germans attempted to destroy the traces of mass murder (Aktion 1005). On November 19, 1943, these prisoners staged an uprising and a mass escape attempt. A few succeeded in escaping, but most were recaptured and killed.



THE BALTIC COUNTRIES 1940-1945

Between the two world wars, the Baltic states (Estonia, Lithuania, and Latvia) were independent republics. The Vilna region, which had been part of Poland, was transferred to Lithuania through a Soviet-Lithuanian treaty of October 1939. The Soviet Union occupied the Baltic states in June 1940 and annexed them in August 1940. In June and July 1941, following the German invasion of the Soviet Union, the Germans occupied the Baltic states. During the German occupation, the Baltic states were included in the Reich Commissariat Ostland (Reichskommissariat Ostland), a German civilian administration.

The pre-1941 Jewish population of Lithuania, swelled by the influx of refugees from German-occupied Poland, was about 250,000. The Lithuanians carried out pogroms against the Jews both shortly before and immediately after the arrival of German forces. In June and July 1941, German Einsatzgruppen detachments, together with Lithuanian auxiliaries, began killing the Jews of Lithuania. By the end of August 1941, most of the Jews in rural Lithuania had been killed. By November 1941, most of the Jews who had been concentrated in ghettos in the larger cities had also been killed.

The surviving 40,000 Jews were concentrated in the Vilna, Kovno, Siauliai, and Svencionys ghettos, and in various labor camps in Lithuania.

In 1943, the Vilna and Svencionys ghettos were destroyed, and those of Kovno and Siauliai were converted into concentration camps. Some 15,000 Lithuanian Jews were deported to labor camps in Latvia and Estonia. About 5,000 Jews were deported to the killing centers in Poland. Shortly before withdrawing from Lithuania in the fall of 1944, the Germans deported about 10,000 Jews from Kovno and Siauliai to camps in Germany.

Before the war, about 94,000 Jews lived in Latvia. Detachments of German Einsatzgruppen, together with Latvian, Lithuanian, and Ukrainian auxiliaries, massacred most of the Latvian Jews. Ghettos were established in the larger cities of Riga, Dvinsk, and Liepaja. Thousands of German and Austrian Jews were deported to the Riga ghetto in 1941 and early 1942. Einsatzgruppen killed most of them, along with most Latvian Jews. By the beginning of 1943 only about 5,000 Jews remained in Latvia. They were concentrated in the Riga, Dvinsk, and Liepaja ghettos and in a few labor camps, the largest of which was Kaiserwald in Riga.



No ghettos were created in Estonia, the northernmost and smallest of the Baltic states. In 1939, the Jewish population of Estonia numbered about 4,500. Almost half of the Estonian Jews lived in Tallinn, the capital city. The rest lived in other towns, such as Tartu, Valga, Parnu, Narva, Viljandi, Rakvere, Voru, and Nomme. German Einsatzgruppen, together with Estonian auxiliaries, had massacred the Jews of Estonia by the end of 1941.

After the fall of 1942, tens of thousands of Jews from other European countries were sent to forced-labor camps inside Estonia. The main camp was Vaivara. Jewish forced laborers built military defenses for the German army and mined shale oil. With the advance of the Soviet army in the fall of 1944, the Estonian camps were evacuated, as were other camps throughout the Baltic. The Jews were transferred by sea to the Stutthof concentration camp near Danzig.



RIGA GHETTO AND KAISERWALD LABOR CAMP

From 1918 to 1940, Riga was the capital of independent Latvia. In August 1940, the Soviet Union annexed Latvia and Riga became the capital of the Latvian SSR. German forces occupied Riga in early July 1941. Riga became the capital of

the German administration in the Reich Commissariat Ostland.

Before World War II, about 40,000 Jews lived in Riga, representing slightly more than 10 percent of the city's population. German Einsatzgruppen detachments, together with Latvian auxiliaries, killed several thousand Jews shortly



after German forces entered the city. In mid-August, the Germans ordered the establishment of a ghetto in the south-eastern area of the city. In late November and early December of 1941, the Germans began to move about 28,000 Jews to a fenced-in area of the ghetto; they were then killed in the Rumbula Forest, near the Rumbula railway station, five miles southeast of Riga along the Riga-Dvinsk railway and the Riga-Salaspils road.

The surviving Jews were fenced into what became known as the "small" or "Latvian" ghetto. The Germans deported more than 15,000 Jews from Germany, Austria, and the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia to Riga. They were concentrated in the residences of those Jews killed at Rumbula in November 1941. This ghetto was called the "big" or "German" ghetto. Most of the German Jews deported to Riga were also later killed in the Rumbula Forest.

Several hundred Jews in the Riga ghetto organized resistance against the Germans. Small groups sought to escape from the ghetto and join partisans in the surrounding forests. In October 1942, one small group was discovered outside the

ghetto by the Germans and killed. In reprisal for partisan activities, the Germans seized and killed more than 100 people from the ghetto, and executed almost all Jewish policemen for participating in resistance activities.

In the summer of 1943, the Germans deported some of the ghetto inhabitants to the Kaiserwald concentration camp, which had been established in March in the north of the city. Others were deported to Kaiserwald subcamps in Latvia. The ghetto was finally destroyed in December 1943, and the last Jews were deported to Kaiserwald. The surviving Jews in Latvia, from the destroyed ghettos of Riga, Liepaja, and Dvinsk, were concentrated in Kaiserwald and its subcamps.

In 1944, in an attempt to destroy evidence of mass murder, the Germans forced prisoners to reopen mass graves in Rumbula and burn the bodies as part of Aktion 1005. Once their work was completed, these prisoners were also killed. In the summer of 1944, the Germans killed thousands of Jewish prisoners in Kaiserwald and its subcamps. Those remaining were later deported to the Stutthof concentration camp.

On October 13, 1944, the Soviet army liberated Riga.



KOVNO GHETTO

Before World War II, Kovno (Kaunas) was the capital of and largest city in Lithuania. It had a Jewish population of 40,000, about one-quarter of the city's total population. The Soviet Union occupied Kovno in 1940. Immediately before and following the German occupation of the city on June 24, 1941, rampaging Lithuanian mobs began to attack Jews in Kovno, especially along Jurbarko and Krisciukaicio streets. Hundreds of Jews were killed during this period. Dozens more were taken to the Lietukis Garage and killed there.

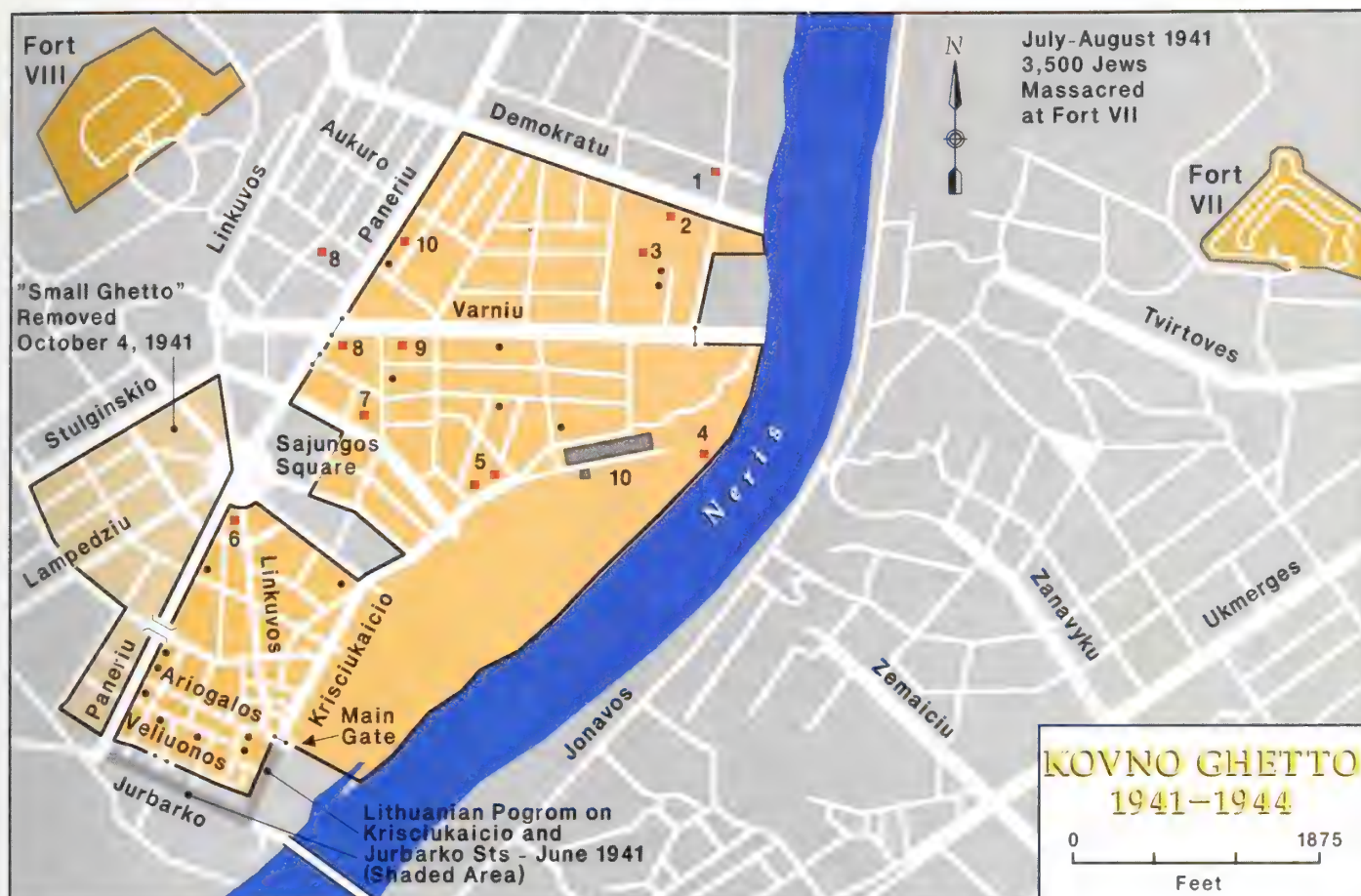
In early July 1941, German Einsatzgruppen detachments and their Lithuanian auxiliaries began systematic massacres of Jews in several of the forts around Kovno. These forts had been constructed by the Russian tsars in the nineteenth century for the defense of the city. Einsatzgruppen detachments and Lithuanian auxiliaries shot thousands of Jewish men, women, and children, primarily in Fort Nine, but also in Forts Four and Seven.

In August 1941, the Germans concentrated the remaining Jews in a ghetto established in the Slobodka suburb of Kovno. The ghetto had two parts, the small ghetto and the large ghetto, separated by Paneriu Street. Each ghetto was enclosed

by barbed wire and guarded by Lithuanian auxiliaries and German police. The Jews were employed primarily as forced laborers at various sites outside the ghetto.

On October 4, 1941, the small ghetto was liquidated. Those Jews deemed fit for work were transferred to the large ghetto; the rest were shot at Fort Nine. On October 28, 1941, about 10,000 Jews from the large ghetto were killed. In the fall of 1943, the large ghetto was liquidated. Thousands of Jews were deported to forced-labor camps in Estonia, and the Kovno ghetto was converted into a concentration camp. In July 1944, the Germans evacuated the camp, deporting the remaining Jews to the Dachau concentration camp in Germany or to the Stutthof camp, near Danzig, on the Baltic coast.

The Kovno ghetto had an extensive Jewish resistance movement. The resistance acquired arms, developed secret training areas in the ghetto, and established contact with Soviet partisans in the forests around Kovno. In 1943, the General Jewish Fighting Organization (Yidishe Algemeine Kamfs Organizatsye) was established, uniting the major resistance groups in the ghetto. Under this organization's direction, hundreds of ghetto fighters escaped the Kovno



ghetto to join partisan groups. Very few fighters survived the war.

The Jewish council in Kovno and its chairman, Dr. Elchanan Elkes, actively supported the ghetto underground. Moreover, a number of Jewish policemen participated in resistance activities. The Germans shot about 40 members of the Jewish police for such activities.

The Soviet army liberated Kovno in August 1944.

LEGEND

- Footbridge
 - Ghetto Surrounded with Barbed-Wire Fence
 - Underground Hiding Places
 - Gates
 - Select Features
1. Hiding Place for Books
 2. Clandestine Arms Training
 3. Ammunition Hiding Place
 4. Clandestine Meeting Place
 5. Clandestine School and Arms Training
 6. Young Zionists
 7. Pharmacy (Clandestine Radio)
 8. Safe House
 9. Jewish Council Building (Judenrat)
 10. Workshop





THE HOLOCAUST OF ROMANIAN JEWRY

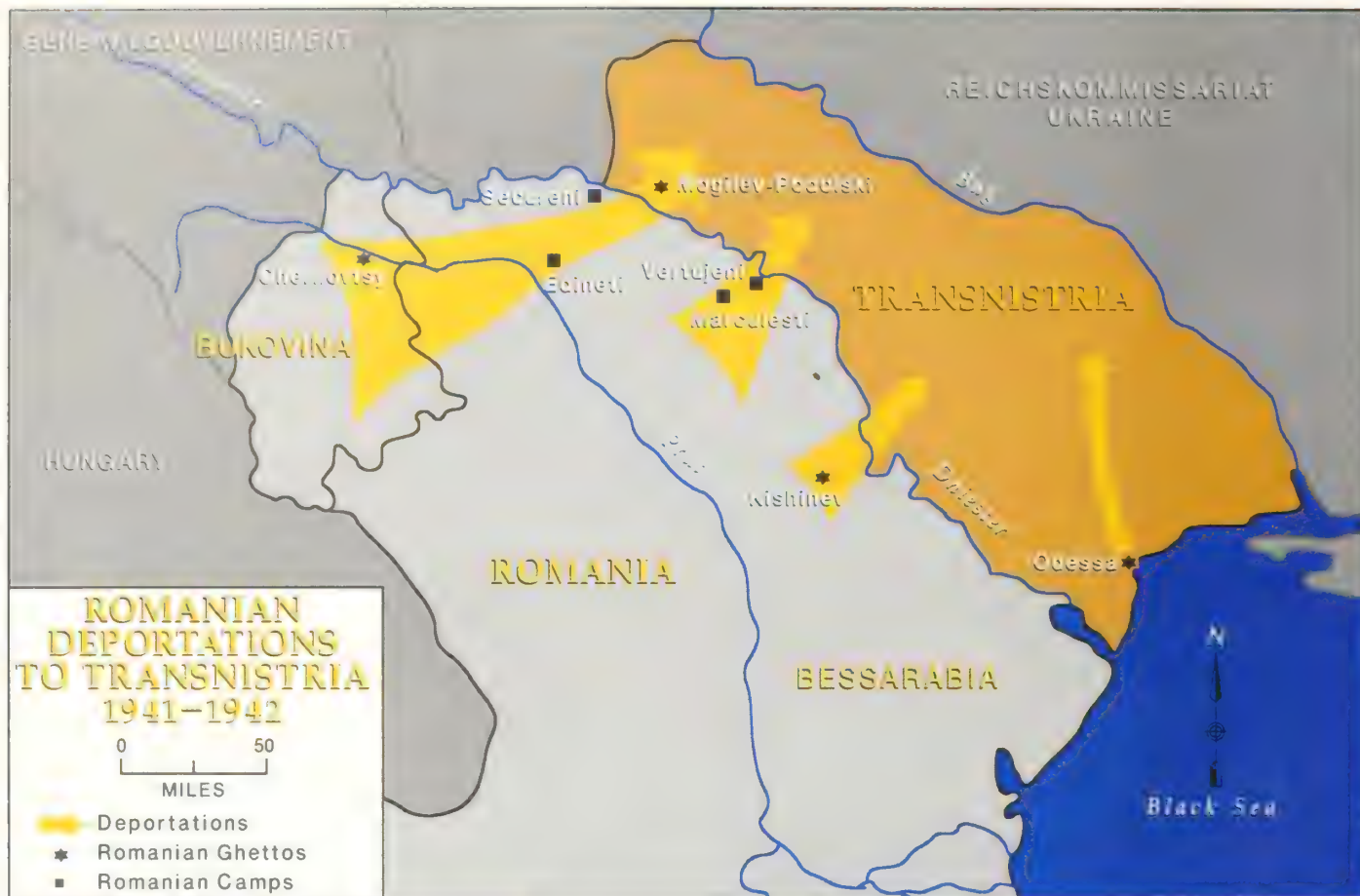
Romania had a prewar Jewish population of about 750,000, the third largest Jewish community in Europe, after the Soviet Union and Poland. Romania was stripped of territory in the summer and fall of 1940. On June 28, 1940, the Soviet Union occupied Romanian territory, seizing Bessarabia, located between the Prut and Dniester rivers, and northern Bukovina, along the Carpathian Mountains in the northeast (Romania reoccupied these territories in June and July 1941). Hungarian and Bulgarian demands on Romanian territory were settled in the 1940 Vienna Arbitration Awards, sponsored by Germany and Italy. Romania was forced to cede northern Transylvania to Hungary on August 30, 1940, and southern Dobruja to Bulgaria on September 7, 1940. After the German occupation of Hungary in 1944, the Jews of northern Transylvania were included in the deportation of Hungarian Jews to Auschwitz. Bulgaria did not deport the Jews of southern Dobruja. The remaining Jews in Romania were subject to Romanian rule.

As Romania came under German influence and with the rise of the Romanian fascist organization, the Iron Guard, Romanian authorities introduced increasingly harsh measures

against Jews. Romania generally did not deport Jews to the extermination camps in German-occupied Poland, ultimately rejecting German plans to send 200,000 Romanian Jews to the Belzec extermination camp. However, Romanian forces, in cooperation with Einsatzgruppen detachments, brutally killed hundreds of thousands of Jews, mainly residents of Bessarabia, northern Bukovina, and Transnistria (the area of the Ukraine transferred to Romanian rule in 1941).

Romania joined Germany and Italy in the Axis alliance on November 20, 1940, and participated in the invasion of the Soviet Union on June 22, 1941. Within days of the invasion, Romanian authorities staged a pogrom in the city of Iasi, the regional capital of northeastern Romania and a center of Iron Guard activity. At least 8,000 Jews, nearly a fifth of the city's Jewish population, were killed, thousands in their homes and in the streets of the city. Thousands more were arrested and shot in the courtyard of the Iasi police headquarters. Over 4,000 Jews, survivors of the pogrom, were deported in sealed trains to Calarasi and Podul Iloaei. More than half of those deported died, deprived of food and water during days of travel in the heat of summer.

Einsatzgruppen detachments and Romanian units roamed



ROMANIAN PARTICIPATION IN MASSACRES 1941-1942





through Bessarabia, northern Bukovina, and the southern Ukraine, massacring large numbers of Jews. When Romanian and German units entered Kishinev, the capital of Bessarabia, they began slaughtering the Jewish residents. In July the surviving Jews, about 11,000 people, were concentrated in a ghetto and drafted for forced labor. Many were killed. In October, the remaining Jews in the Kishinev ghetto were deported by the Romanians to camps and ghettos in Transnistria, as were most of the surviving Jews of Bessarabia and northern Bukovina. Many Jews were killed while being forced to cross the Dniester River, the border line between Bessarabia and Transnistria. Some died on the way to

Transnistria, and about two-thirds died after arrival, mostly from starvation or during epidemics.

Thousands more were massacred by the Romanians in Transnistria. Over 50,000 Jews were interned in Bogdanovka, a Romanian camp along the Bug River in Transnistria. In December 1941, Romanian troops, together with Ukrainian auxiliaries, massacred almost all the Jews in that camp; shootings continued for more than a week. The Romanians also massacred Jews in the Domanevka and Akhmetchotka camps.

By the fall of 1944, when Romania left the Axis alliance, more than 350,000 Romanian Jews had been killed.



THE MASSACRE OF THE JEWS OF ODESSA

Before World War II, 180,000 Jews lived in Odessa, a Black Sea port city in the Ukraine. On October 16, 1941, after a long siege, Romanian and German forces occupied Odessa. At least half of the city's Jewish population had already fled. The remaining Jewish population of Odessa under occupation was between 80,000 and 90,000 people.

Odessa became the capital of Transnistria. On October 22, 1941, Romanian military headquarters in Odessa were blown up. The blast killed more than 60 officers, including the military governor of the city. In reprisal, Romanian army units assembled 19,000 Jews in a public square in the harbor area, shot them, doused the bodies with gasoline, and burned them. Another 20,000 Jews were assembled at the local jail and then taken to the village of Dalnik, where the Romanians

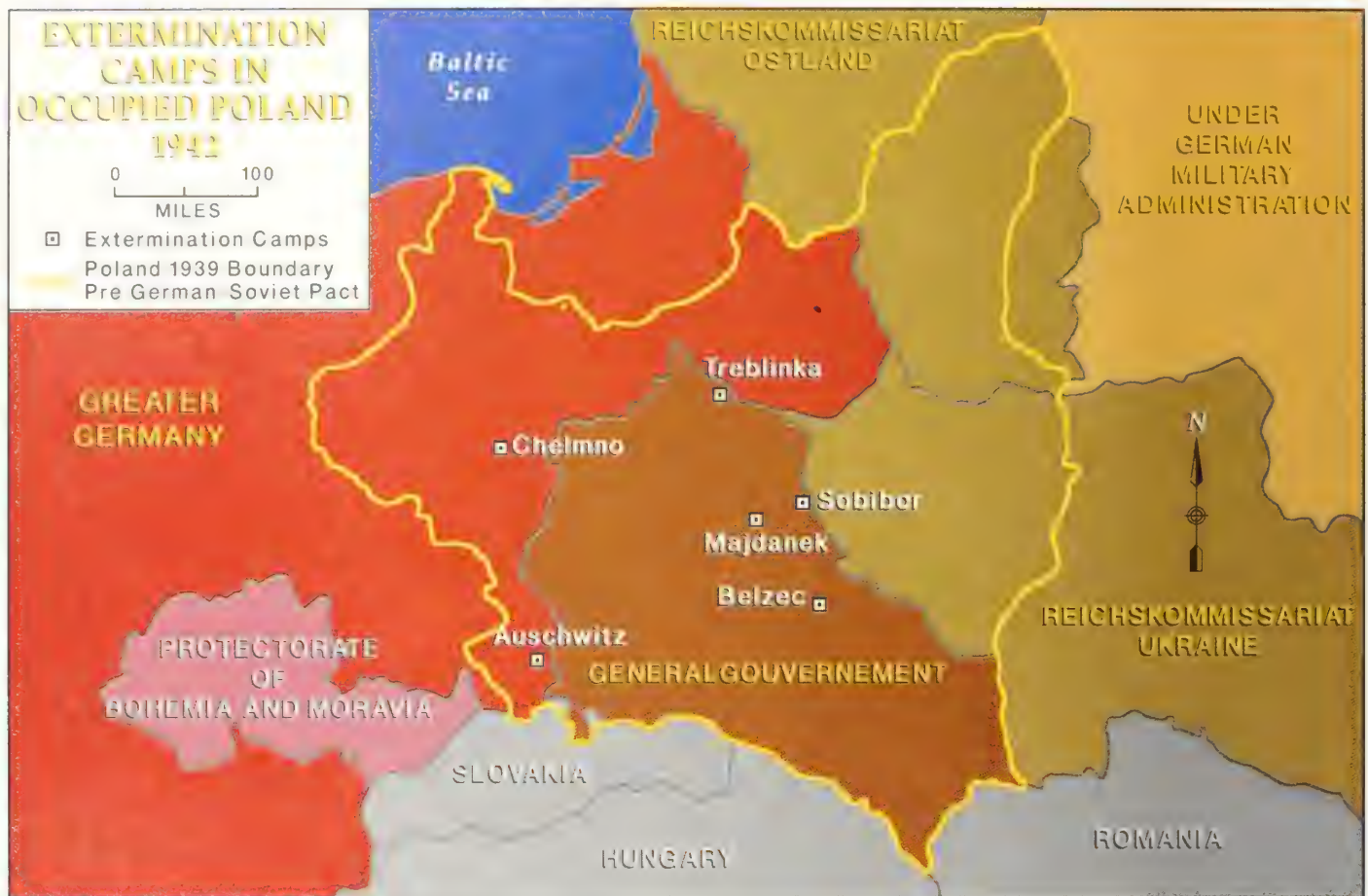
shot some of the Jews and locked others into warehouses that were then set ablaze and sprayed with machine-gun fire. After the massacre, some Jews in Odessa were deported to Romanian camps in Bogdanovka, Domanevka, and Akhmetchetka.

At the end of December 1941, the remaining 35,000 to 40,000 Jews in Odessa were ordered into a ghetto established in Slobodka. They were left there without shelter for over a week. Many died of exposure in harsh winter conditions. By the end of February 1942, most of the surviving Jews in the Slobodka ghetto were killed or deported to the Berezovka region of Transnistria, where the majority were included in the massacre of local Jews by ethnic Germans living in the region. Others died of starvation, disease, and exposure.

The Soviet army liberated Odessa in April 1944.

SECTION 3

NAZI EXTERMINATION CAMPS



EXTERMINATION CAMPS

Extermination camps were killing centers designed to carry out genocide. The Nazis established six extermination camps in former Polish territory—Chelmno, Belzec, Sobibor, Treblinka, Auschwitz-Birkenau (part of the Auschwitz complex), and Majdanek. Both Auschwitz and Majdanek functioned as concentration and forced-labor camps as well as killing centers. The overwhelming majority of the victims of the extermination camps were Jews.

The first extermination camp was established at Chelmno in the Warthegau, an area annexed to Germany. Gassing operations began there in December 1941. Victims at Chelmno were killed in gas vans (hermetically sealed trucks with engine exhaust diverted to the interior compartment). Chelmno operated without interruption until March 1943 and was reopened during the final liquidation of the Lodz ghetto in 1944. The victims of Chelmno were primarily Jews from the Warthegau region, especially from the Lodz ghetto. Those deported from Lodz included some Jews previously sent there from Germany, Austria, Bohemia and Moravia, and Luxembourg, and about 5,000 Roma (Gypsies). Other victims of the Chelmno extermination camp included several hundred

Poles and Soviet prisoners of war.

The Belzec, Sobibor, and Treblinka extermination camps were established as part of Aktion Reinhard (Operation Reinhard), the Nazi plan to kill the Jews of southern and central Poland. During the German occupation of Poland in World War II, this territory was known as the Generalgouvernement. All three camps used carbon monoxide generated by stationary engines attached to gas chambers to kill the victims. Belzec operated from March to December 1942. Sobibor operated from April 1942 to October 1943. Treblinka operated from July 1942 to the fall of 1943.

The overwhelming majority of victims of the Operation Reinhard camps were Polish Jews. At Belzec they were primarily from the ghettos of southern Poland. Jews were deported to Sobibor mostly from the ghettos of eastern Poland, especially from the Lublin area. Transports to Treblinka arrived mainly from the Jewish ghettos of central Poland, above all from the Warsaw ghetto. Additional transports of Jews arrived from western and central Europe as well as from the Balkans. More than 1.7 million Jews and several thousand Roma were murdered as part of Operation Reinhard.



Auschwitz was a concentration, forced-labor, and extermination camp. It was located near the prewar German-Polish border in Eastern Upper Silesia, an area annexed to Germany after the 1939 invasion of Poland. Auschwitz-Birkenau began operating as an extermination camp in March 1942. New arrivals underwent selection on arrival. Those deemed fit for forced labor were removed from incoming transports, while the overwhelming majority of deportees were sent directly to gas chambers. At the height of gassing operations in Auschwitz there were four gas chambers using Zyklon B (crystalline hydrogen cyanide) as the killing agent. Gassing operations in Auschwitz continued until November 1944.

Trains brought Jews almost daily to Auschwitz-Birkenau from virtually every German-occupied country. The victims at Auschwitz numbered more than 1.1 million Jews from all over Europe, between 70,000 and 75,000 Poles, about 21,000 Roma, and 15,000 Soviet prisoners of war.

Majdanek was located near Lublin in the Generalgouvernement. Like Auschwitz, it functioned as a concentration, forced-labor, and extermination camp. Prisoners sent to Majdanek underwent selection on arrival. Those considered unable to work were sent directly to the gas chambers; the remainder were used for forced labor. Gassing operations began at Majdanek in October 1942 and continued until the fall of 1943. The gas chambers used both carbon monoxide and Zyklon B. The victims at Majdanek included Jews from central Poland, especially Lublin, Warsaw, and Bialystok; Jews from western Europe; more than 100,000 non-Jewish Poles; tens of thousands of Soviet prisoners of war; and some Roma. Non-Jews were usually not victims of gassing operations at Majdanek, but died as a result of the terrible conditions in the camp.

An estimated 3.5 million Jews were killed in these six extermination camps as part of the "Final Solution."

EUROPEAN RAIL SYSTEM 1939

0 200
MILES

- Cities with a 1939 Jewish Population of 40,000 or Greater
- Extermination Camps 1942
- Major Railroads





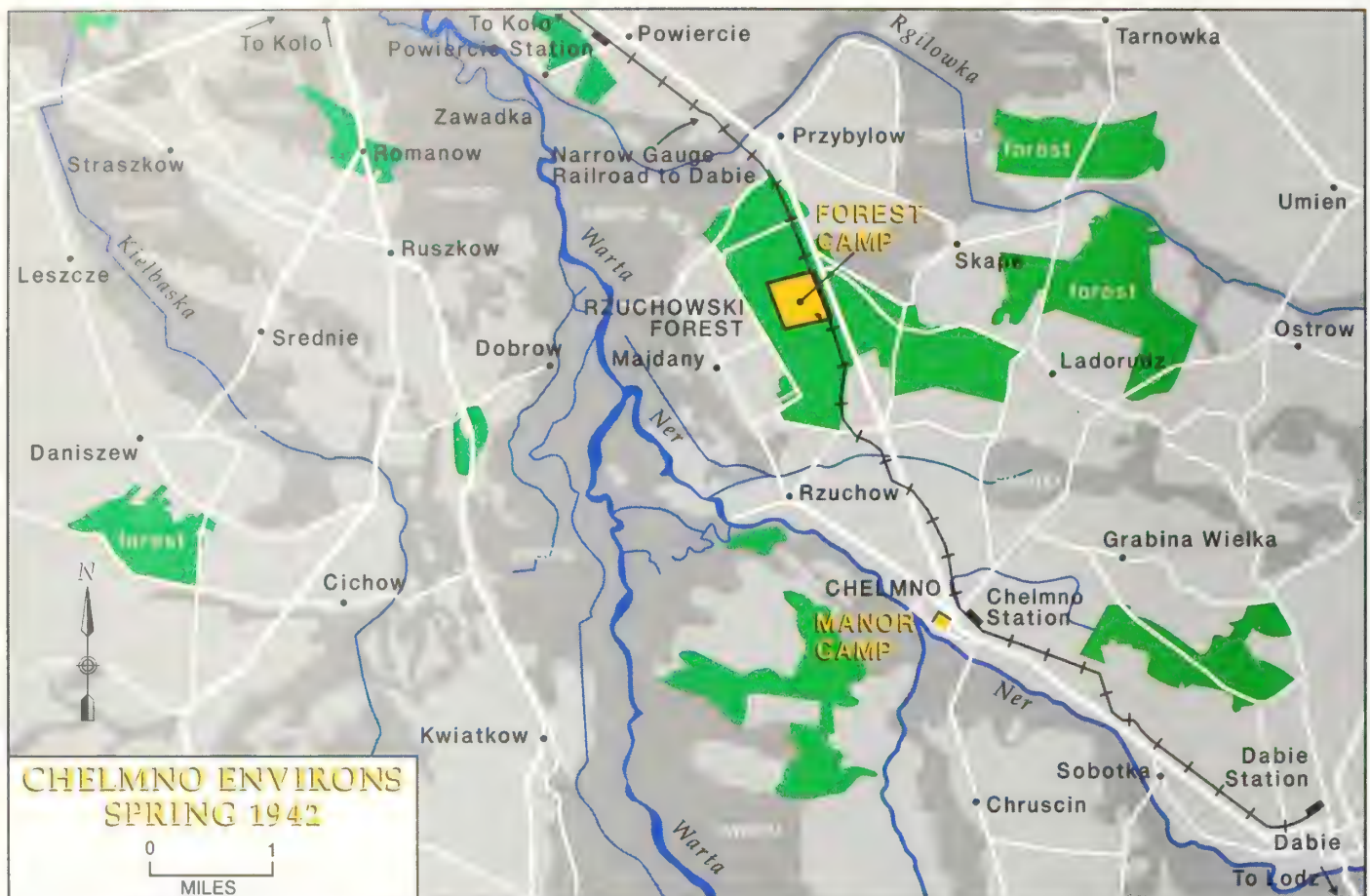
DEPORTATIONS

The Wannsee Conference was held on January 20, 1942, in Berlin, to discuss and coordinate the implementation of the "Final Solution," which was already under way. At Wannsee, the SS estimated that the "Final Solution" would involve 11 million European Jews, including those from non-occupied countries such as Ireland, Sweden, Turkey, and Great Britain.

The European rail network played a crucial role in the implementation of the "Final Solution." Jews from Germany and German-occupied Europe were deported by rail to the extermination camps in occupied Poland, where they were killed. The Germans attempted to disguise their intentions, referring to deportations as "resettlement to the east." The victims were told they were to be taken to labor camps, but in reality, from 1942 onward, deportation meant transit to killing centers for most Jews.

Deportations on this scale required the coordination of numerous German government ministries, including the Central Office for Reich Security (Reichssicherheitshauptamt; RSHA), the Transport Ministry, and the Foreign Office. The RSHA coordinated and directed the deportations; the Transport Ministry organized train schedules; and the Foreign Office negotiated with German-allied states to hand over their Jews.

Both freight and passenger cars were used for the deportations. The deportees were usually not provided with food or water for the journey, even when they had to wait days on railroad spurs for other trains to pass. The people being deported in sealed freight cars suffered from intense heat during summer and freezing temperatures during winter, and also from the stench of urine and excrement. Aside from a bucket, there was no provision for sanitary requirements. Without food or water, many deportees died before the trains reached their destination. Armed guards shot anyone trying to escape. Between the fall of 1941 and the fall of 1944, the German railways transported millions of people to their deaths in the killing centers in occupied Poland.

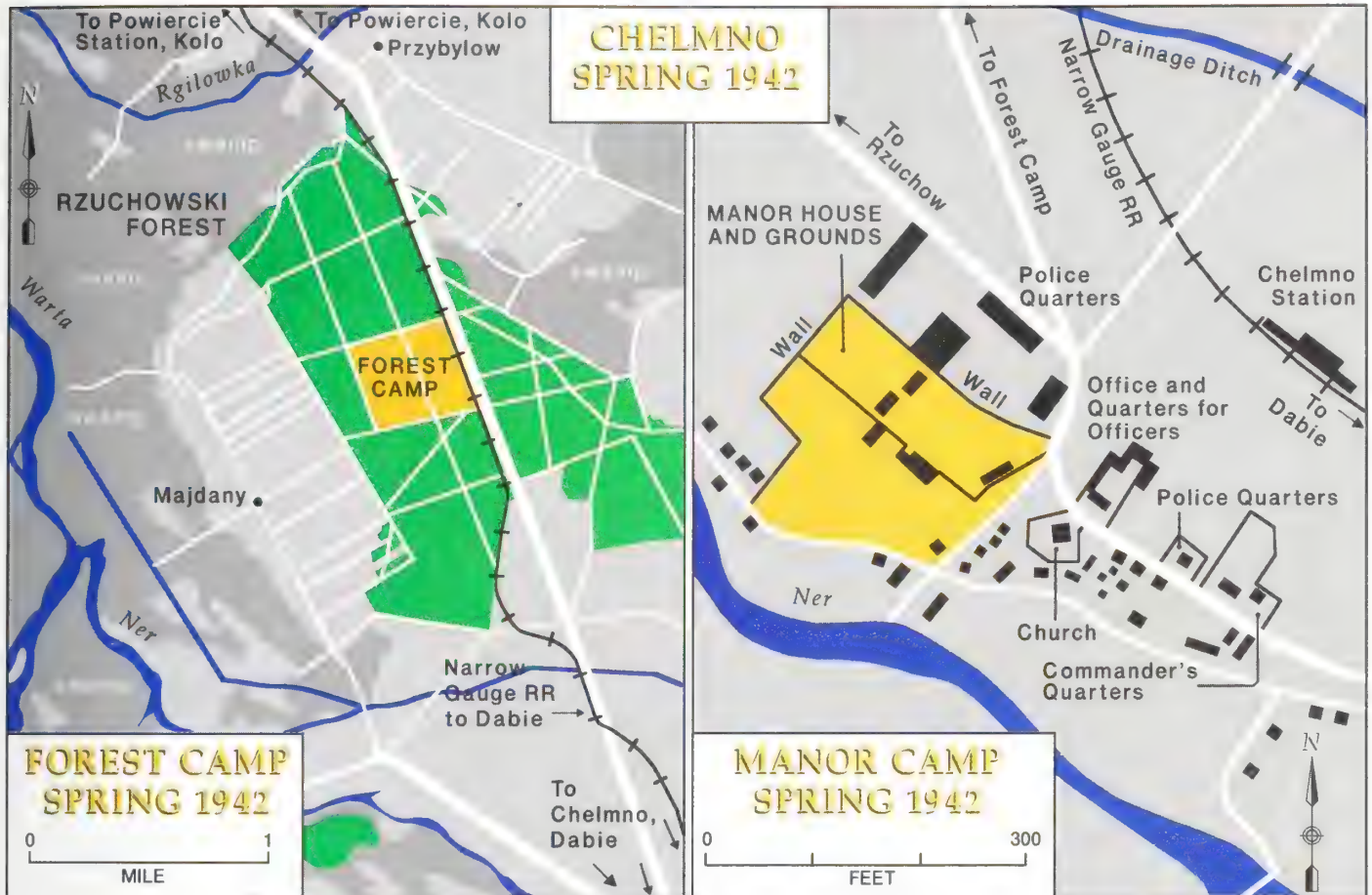


CHELMNO EXTERMINATION CAMP

The village of Chelmno is located about 45 miles west of Lodz in western Poland, which under German occupation in World War II was in the Warthegau. The German name for the village was Kulmhof. The Chelmno killing center was established to kill Jews from the nearby Lodz ghetto and in the Warthegau. It was the first Nazi camp where poison gas was used for mass murder.

The Chelmno camp was operated by the Chelmno Special Commando, made up of both security police and regular uniformed policemen. The camp was situated close to the Powiercie railway station and had two sites, located 2.5 miles apart: the Schlosslager (manor-house camp) and the Waldlager (forest camp). The Schlosslager was an old manor house inside the village of Chelmno. It held the reception and extermination center, and residences for the camp staff. The manor-house area was surrounded by a high wooden fence. The Waldlager, in the nearby Ruchowski Forest, included mass graves and crematory ovens.

Victims transported to Chelmno by freight train were transferred at the Kolo junction to a train running on a narrow-gauge track, which took them to the Powiercie



station. Deportees were transported in trucks from the station to the manor-house camp. Upon entering the camp, they were concentrated in the courtyard, told that they would be sent to a labor camp, and instructed to wash. Groups of 50 at a time were ordered to strip on the ground floor of the building. Men, women, and children were not put into separate groups. Valuables and possessions were confiscated at this point.

The victims were then taken past deceptive signs pointing "To the Washroom" to an enclosed ramp sloping downward to a gas van. Guards forced the deportees to run down the ramp into the van. A tube directed the van's exhaust into the hermetically sealed compartment, which held between 50 and 70 people. Once the carbon monoxide had

killed all those locked inside, the van was driven to mass graves in the forest camp. There were three gas vans at Chelmno.

A few Jewish prisoners were selected from incoming transports for a forced-labor detachment (Sonderkommando) assigned to the killing area in the camp. These prisoners removed corpses from the gas vans and buried them in mass graves. From the summer of 1942, bodies were burned in crematoria or on pyres in the forest camp. The Sonderkommando also sorted victims' clothing and cleaned the vans. After a short time, members of the Sonderkommando would be killed and replaced with new arrivals.



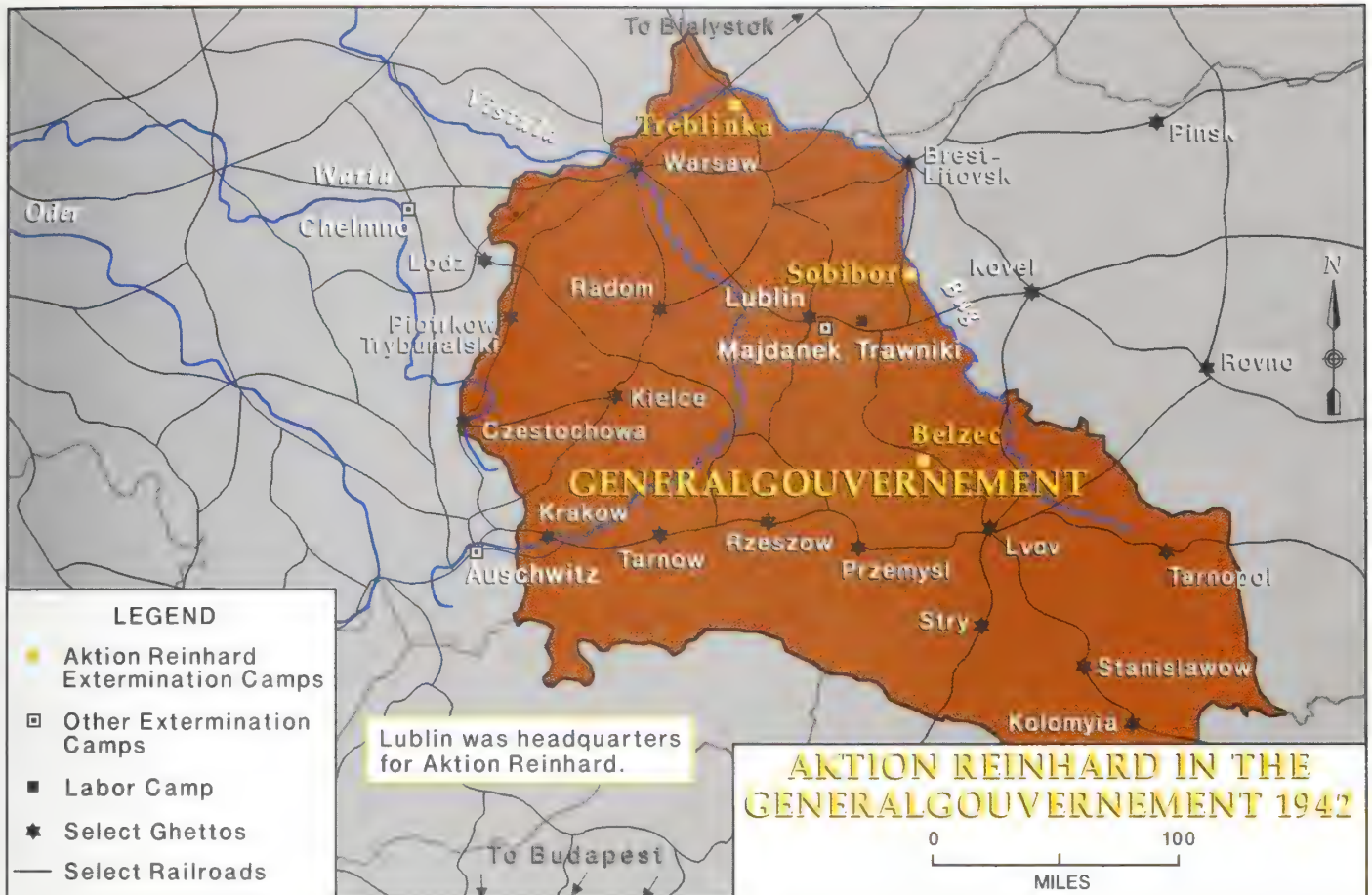
DEPORTATIONS TO CHELMNO

Gassing operations began in Chelmno on December 8, 1941, and lasted until March 1943. From early December 1941 until mid-January 1942, Jews from nearby towns and villages were deported by truck directly to Chelmno. The first transports included Jews from Kolo, Dabie, Sompolno, Klodowa, Babiak, and Kowale Panskie. Some 5,000 Roma (Gypsies) who had been deported from Austria and incarcerated in the Lodz ghetto were also among the camp's first victims.

From mid-January 1942, victims from the Lodz ghetto were deported to Chelmno in crowded freight trains. Transports from the Lodz ghetto also included Jews who had been deported from Germany, Austria, Bohemia and Moravia, and Luxembourg. Throughout 1942, Jews from the Warthegau region were murdered at Chelmno. Other victims of the Chelmno killing center included several hundred Poles and Soviet prisoners of war.

Transports to Chelmno ceased in March 1943 because most of the Jews in the Warthegau (except for the Lodz ghetto) had been killed. The camp was dismantled and the manor house demolished. The Germans renewed deportations to Chelmno in June 1944 to facilitate the liquidation of the Lodz ghetto. Killing operations took place until mid-July 1944 in the forest camp, where two reception huts and two crematoria were built. From mid-July, the remaining inhabitants of the ghetto were deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau.

Beginning in September 1944, a group of Jewish prisoners was forced to exhume and cremate corpses from the mass graves at Chelmno as part of the operation (Aktion 1005) to obliterate evidence of German mass murder. The Nazis executed most of the remaining prisoners and abandoned the Chelmno camp on the night of January 17, 1945, as the Soviet army approached. Approximately 320,000 people had been killed in Chelmno.



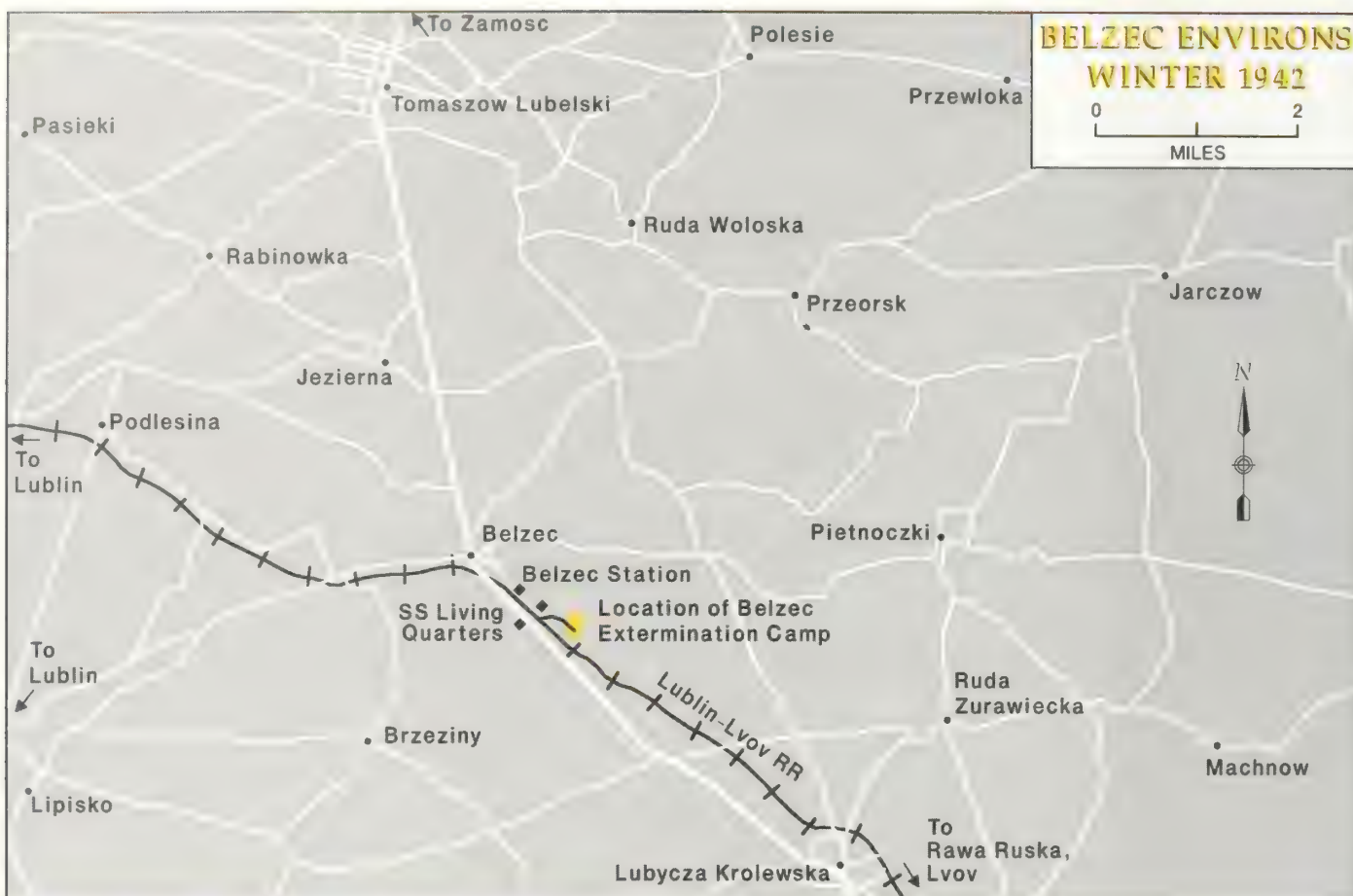
AKTION REINHARD

Aktion Reinhard (Operation Reinhard) was the code name for the German plan to kill the Jews of the Generalgouvernement. The operation was named for SS General Reinhard Heydrich, director of the Central Office for Reich Security (RSHA), who died in June 1942 as a result of injuries sustained during an assassination attempt by Czech partisans. The RSHA was the office responsible for coordinating deportations to the killing centers. SS officials directed Operation Reinhard from headquarters in Lublin. Lublin also served as a collection center to inventory the confiscated personal property of the victims prior to its shipment to Germany.

Three killing centers—Belzec, Sobibor, and Treblinka—were established as part of Operation Reinhard. The gas chambers in all three camps used carbon monoxide generated by stationary engines. Gassing operations took place in Belzec from March to December 1942; in Sobibor from April 1942 to

October 1943; and in Treblinka from July 1942 to August 1943.

The overwhelming majority of victims in the Operation Reinhard camps were Jews deported from ghettos in Poland. Ghettoization was a transitional policy, designed to concentrate and control Jews living in the Generalgouvernement. Once the killing centers were operational, the ghettos were liquidated and Jews were deported by rail to the killing centers. The victims of Belzec were mainly Jews from the ghettos of southern Poland. Jews deported to Sobibor came mainly from the Lublin area and other ghettos of the eastern Generalgouvernement. Deportations to Treblinka originated mainly in central Poland, primarily in the Warsaw ghetto. In all, more than 1.7 million Jews were killed as part of Operation Reinhard. Additional transports of Jews arrived from western and central Europe and from the Balkans. The victims of the Operation Reinhard camps also included several thousand Roma (Gypsies).



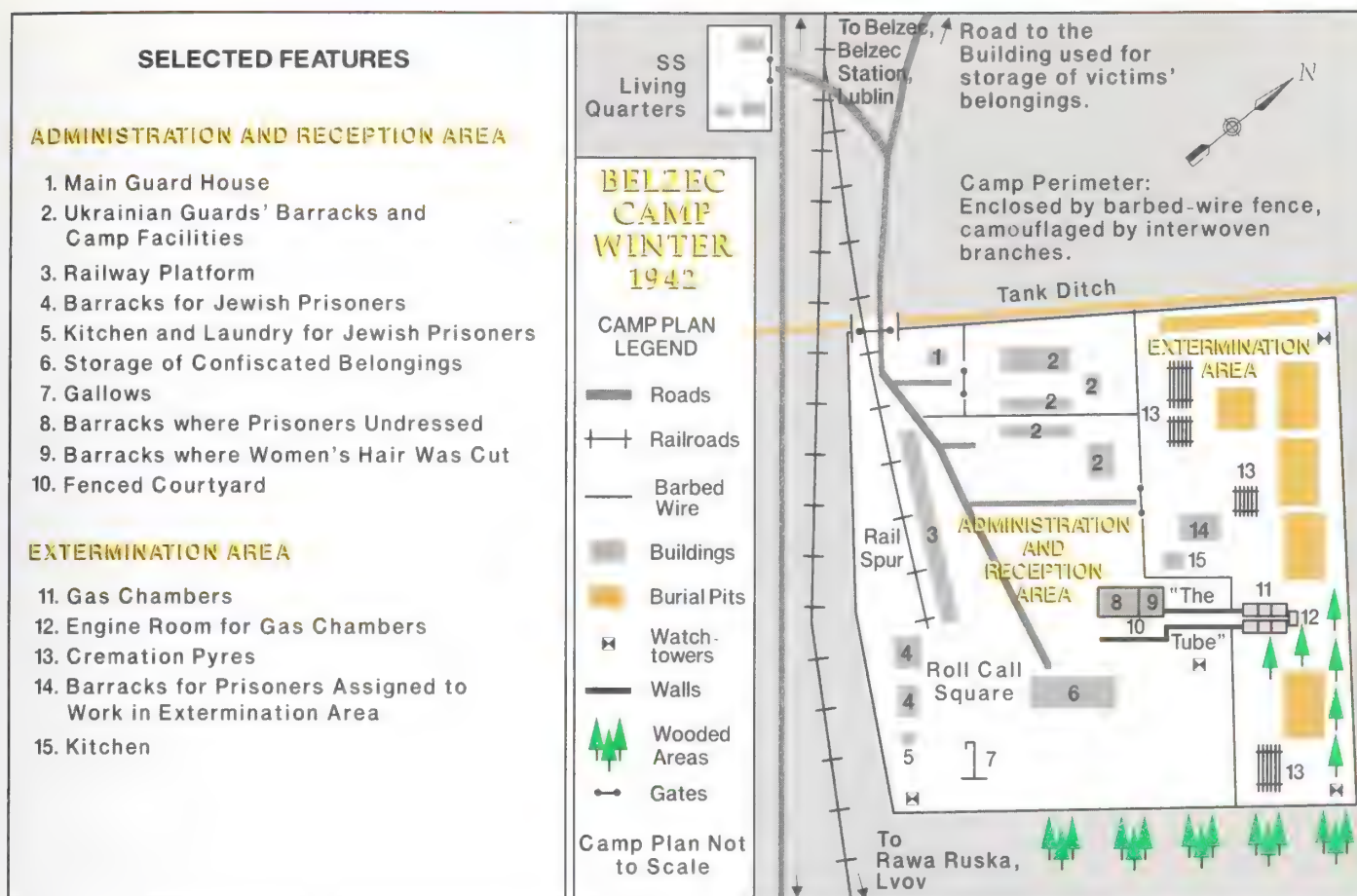
BELZEC EXTERMINATION CAMP

The small town of Belzec is located between the cities of Zamosc and Lvov in southeastern Poland. During the German occupation of Poland in World War II, this area was in the Generalgouvernement.

In early 1940, the Germans established a labor camp for Jews in Belzec, where Jews were forced to build fortifications and antitank ditches along the demarcation line between German- and Soviet-occupied Poland. This labor camp was liquidated in the fall of 1940.

Constructed as part of Operation Reinhard, the Nazi plan to kill all Jews in the Generalgouvernement, Belzec was the second Nazi killing center to begin operation, and the first of the Operation Reinhard camps.

The availability of good rail connections and Belzec's location in the center of the large Jewish populations of the Lvov, Krakow, and Lublin regions led to the construction of an extermination camp there in November 1941. Located along the Lublin-Lvov railway line, the extermination camp was 1,620 feet from the Belzec railway station. A siding connected the camp and the station. The SS guards assigned to the camp were housed in a separate compound near the Belzec station.



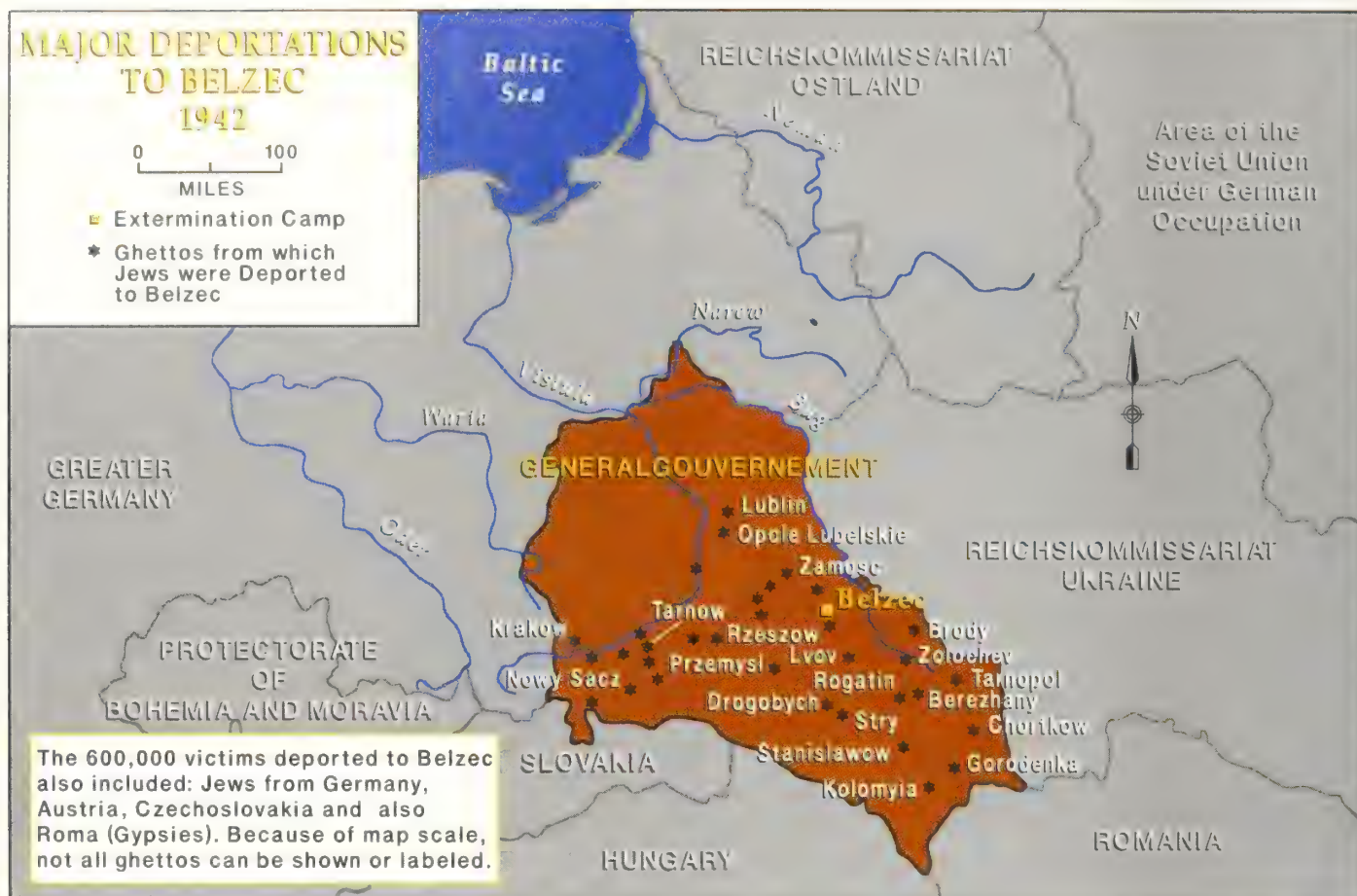
Belzec was divided into a combined administration-reception area and an extermination compound. A narrow enclosed path called the "tube" connected the two. The reception area held the railway siding and a ramp. The extermination area included the gas chambers and mass graves. Rail tracks ran from the gas chambers to the burial pits, but the exact configuration of these tracks is unknown. Each side of the camp measured 886 feet. Branches woven into the barbed-wire fence and trees planted around the perimeter served as camouflage.

Gassing operations began in mid-March 1942. Trains of 40 to 60 freight cars, with 80 to 100 people crowded into each car, arrived at the Belzec railway station. Twenty freight cars at a time were detached and brought from the station into the camp. The victims were then ordered to disembark at the platform of the reception area. German officers announced that the deportees had arrived at a transit camp and were to hand over all valuables in their possession.

Men were separated from women and children. All were forced to undress and run through the "tube," which led directly into gas chambers labeled as showers. Once the chamber doors were sealed, an engine, installed in an outside shed, was started. Carbon monoxide was funneled into the gas chamber, killing all those inside. The process was then repeated with the next 20 freight cars.

Members of the Sonderkommandos—groups of prisoners kept alive for forced labor in the killing area—removed bodies from the gas chambers and buried the victims. In addition, these prisoners sorted through the victims' possessions, prepared them for transportation to Germany, and cleaned the freight cars for the next deportation.

After deportations to Belzec ceased in December 1942, prisoner detachments exhumed bodies from burial pits and cremated them in an effort to obliterate all traces of mass murder (Aktion 1005).

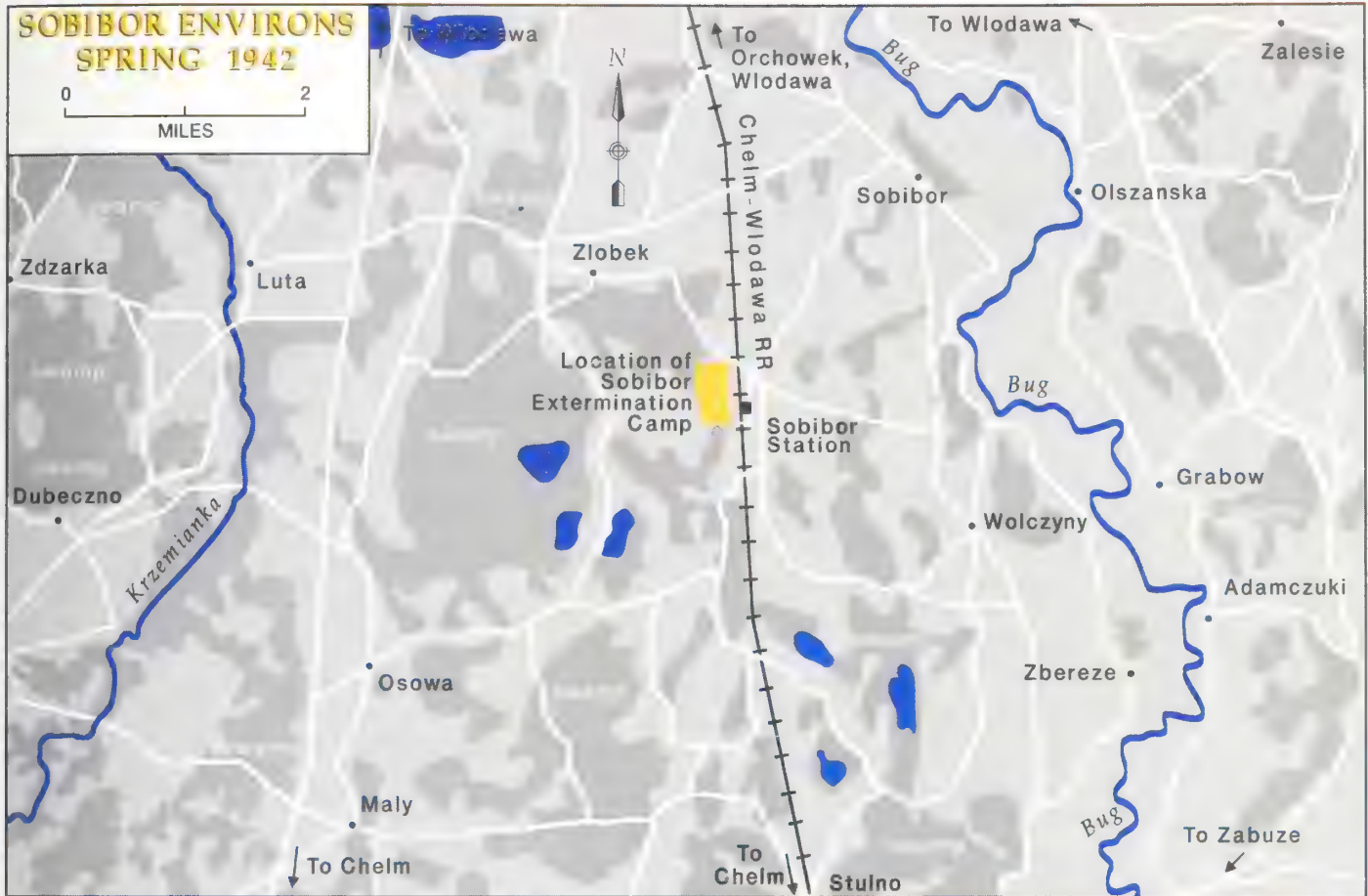


DEPORTATIONS TO BELZEC

Between March and December 1942 at least 600,000 people were deported to Belzec and killed. Most of the victims were Jews from the ghettos of southern Poland. The Germans also deported Jews from Germany, Austria, and Bohemia and Moravia to Belzec. Further, several hundred Roma (Gypsies) were deported to the camp and murdered. The Belzec killing center was finally dismantled in July 1943.

The remaining prisoners, who had been assigned to the camp's work force, were deported to the Sobibor extermination camp and killed.

After Belzec was dismantled, the Germans established a farm at the site, planting trees and crops to disguise the area. A Ukrainian, a former guard at the camp, farmed the land. Soviet forces liberated the Belzec camp area in the summer of 1944.



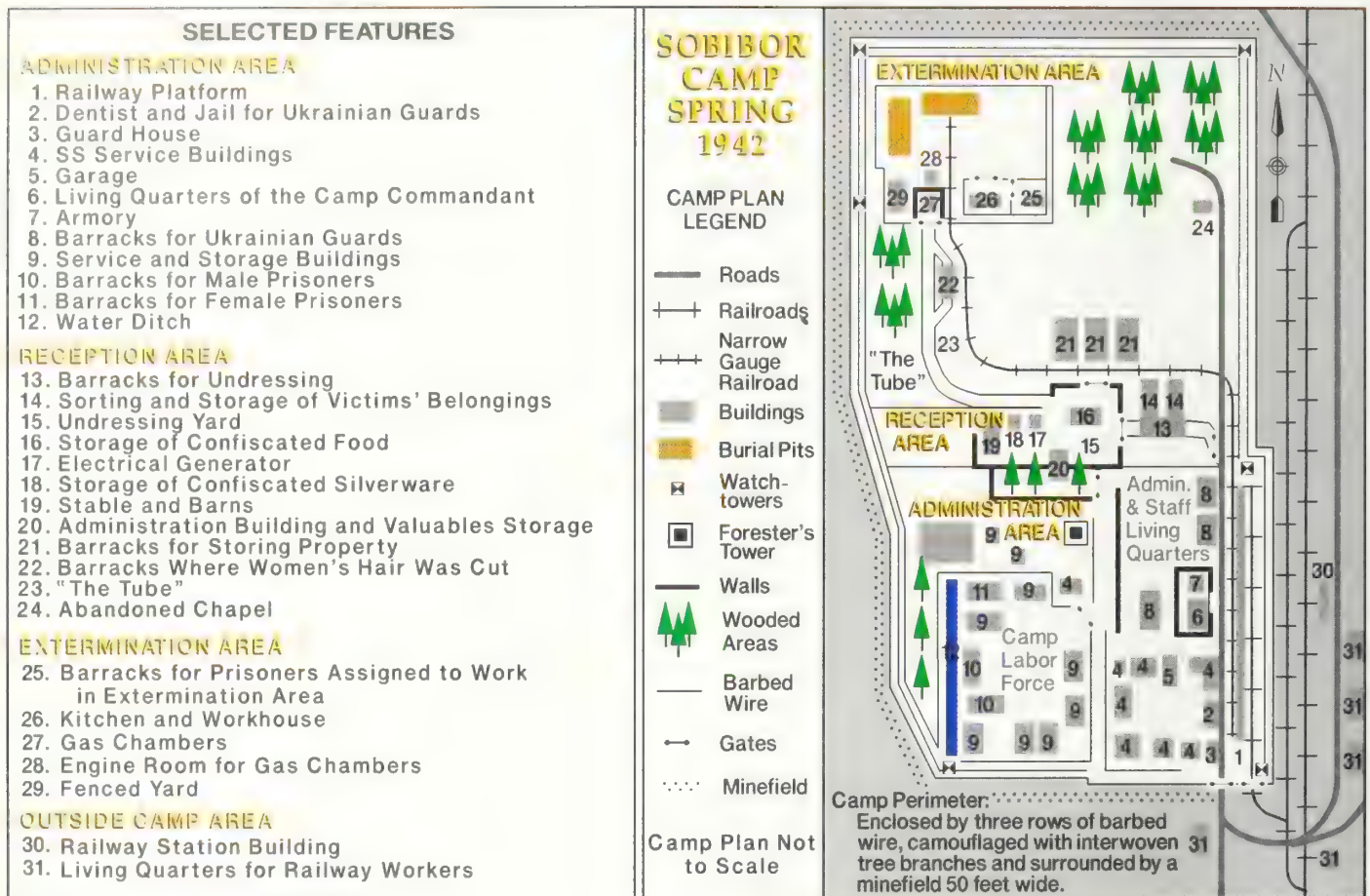
SOBIBOR EXTERMINATION CAMP

The small village of Sobibor is in central Poland, about three miles west of the Bug River and five miles south of Wlodawa. During the German occupation of Poland, this area was in the Generalgouvernement.

Sobibor was the second killing center constructed as part of Operation Reinhard. It was built along the Chelm-Wlodawa railway line, in a wooded, swampy, and thinly populated region. The camp covered a rectangular area of 1,312 by 1,969 feet. Branches woven into the barbed-wire fence and trees planted around the perimeter camouflaged the site. The entire camp was surrounded by a minefield 50 feet wide.

The Sobibor camp was divided into three parts: an administration area, a reception area, and an extermination area. The administration area included camp offices, housing for the German and Ukrainian guards assigned to the camp, and barracks for the prisoner labor force. The reception area held the railway siding, ramp, barracks where the victims disrobed, and warehouses for the victims' possessions. The extermination area included gas chambers, mass graves, and barracks for prisoners assigned to forced labor. A narrow





enclosed path called the "tube" connected the reception and extermination areas.

Gassing operations began in April 1942. Trains of 40 to 60 freight cars would arrive at the Sobibor railway station. Twenty cars at a time entered the reception area, where victims were unloaded onto the platform. German officers announced that the deportees had arrived at a transit camp and were to hand over all valuables. They were ordered into the barracks and forced to undress and run through the "tube," which led directly into gas chambers labeled as showers. The womens' hair was shorn in a special barracks inside the "tube." Once the gas chamber doors were sealed,

an engine in an adjacent room was started and carbon monoxide gas was piped into the gas chambers, killing all those inside. The process was then repeated with the next freight cars.

Groups of prisoners kept alive for forced labor in Sobibor removed bodies from the chambers and buried them, sorted through confiscated possessions, and cleaned the freight cars in preparation for the next transport.

Even before gassing operations at Sobibor ceased in the fall of 1943, bodies were exhumed from the burial pits and cremated in an effort to obliterate all traces of mass murder (Aktion 1005).

MAJOR DEPORTATIONS TO SOBIBOR 1942-1943

0 100
MILES

- Extermination Camp
- ★ Ghettos from which Jews were Deported to Sobibor



DEPORTATIONS TO SOBIBOR

Deportations to Sobibor took place between April 1942 and the fall of 1943, with one exception: at the end of July 1942, large-scale deportations were suspended for two months while repairs were made on the Chelm-Lublin railway.

Jews deported to Sobibor came mainly from the ghettos of eastern Poland, especially from the Lublin area. Jews were also deported to Sobibor from German-occupied Soviet

territory, and from Bohemia and Moravia, Austria, the Netherlands, Belgium, and France. In all, about 250,000 people were killed at Sobibor.

Jewish prisoners attempted a revolt and mass escape from Sobibor in mid-October 1943. German and Ukrainian guards opened fire, preventing the prisoners from reaching the main exit and forcing them to attempt escape through the minefield. About 300 escaped; over 100 were recaptured and later shot. After the revolt, Sobibor was closed and the camp dismantled.



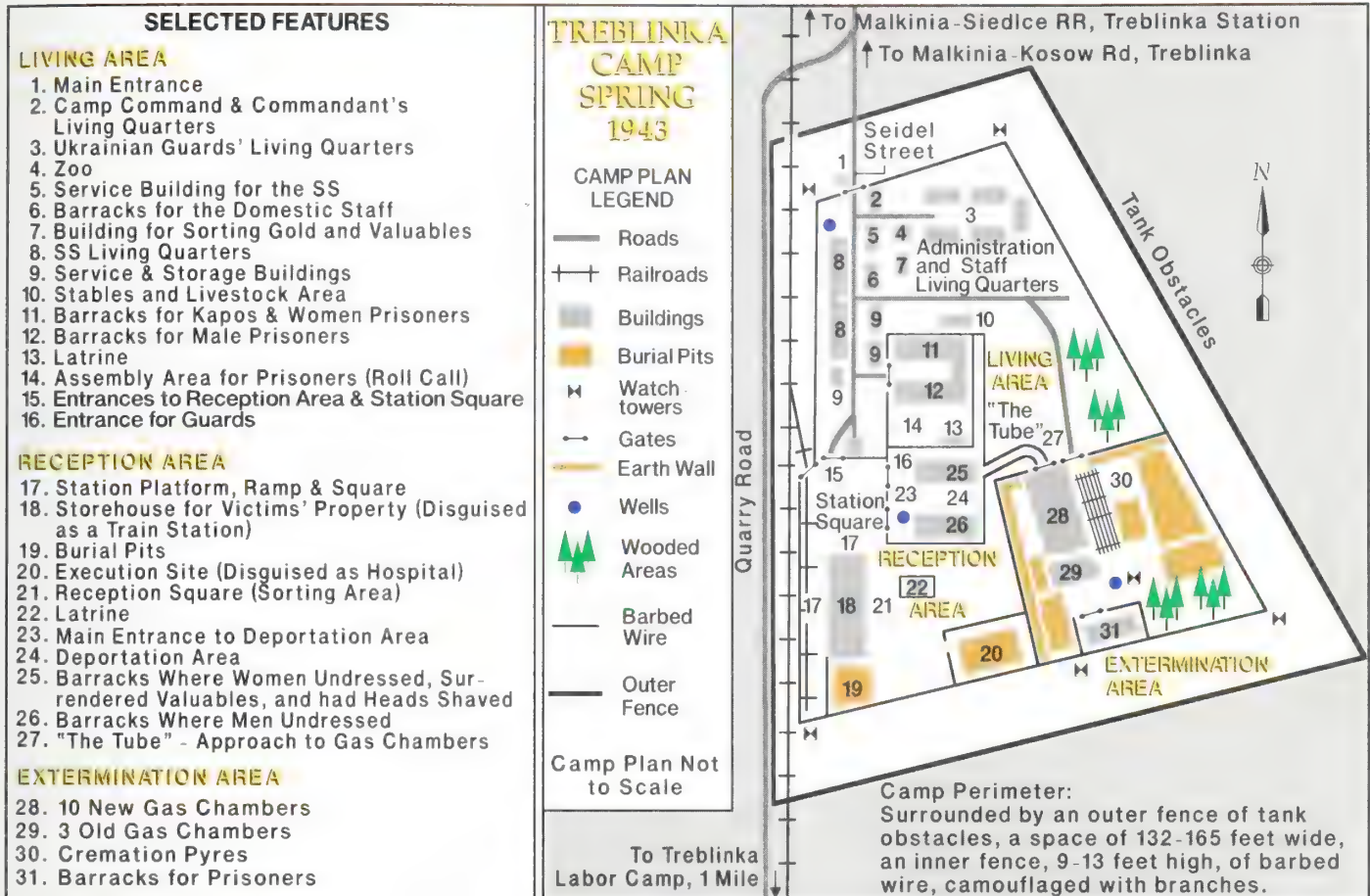
TREBLINKA EXTERMINATION CAMP

The village of Treblinka, located about 50 miles northeast of Warsaw, was in the northern region of the Generalgouvernement. In June 1941, a labor camp known as Treblinka I was established near the village. The Poles and Jews imprisoned there were forced to work in quarries to extract materials for the construction of fortifications along the German-Soviet demarcation line in occupied Poland.

The Treblinka killing center was established as part of Operation Reinhard. Construction was completed in July 1942. Deportations to the two other Operation Reinhard camps, Belzec and Sobibor, had already begun.

The Treblinka killing center was located in a sparsely populated area near the Polish village of Wolka Okraglik along the Malkinia-Siedlce railway line. The camp was 2.5 miles southeast of the village and the railway station of Treblinka. A branch railway track was built leading from the labor camp, Treblinka I, to the extermination camp, Treblinka II, and continued to the nearby railway station in the village of Treblinka. The site was heavily wooded and hidden from view.

The camp was laid out in a trapezoid of 1,312 by 1,968



feet. Branches woven into the barbed-wire fence and trees planted around the perimeter served as camouflage, blocking any view into the camp from the outside. Watchtowers 26 feet high were placed along the fence and at each of the four corners.

The camp was divided into three parts: the reception area, the living area, and the extermination area. The living area contained housing for German and Ukrainian guards assigned to the camp, offices, a clinic, storerooms, and workshops. One section contained barracks that housed Jewish prisoners forced to work in the camp.

Incoming trains of about 50 or 60 cars first stopped at the Treblinka village railway station. Twenty cars at a time were detached from the train and brought into the camp. Victims were ordered to disembark in the reception area, which contained the railway siding and platform. German officers announced that the deportees had arrived at a transit camp and were to hand over all valuables. The reception

area also contained a fenced-in "deportation square" with two barracks in which deportees—men separated from women and children—had to undress, and two large storerooms where victims' possessions, confiscated upon arrival, were sorted for shipment back to Germany.

A camouflaged, fenced-in path, referred to as the "tube," led from the reception area to the extermination area. Victims were forced to run along this path to the gas chambers, labeled as showers. Once the chamber doors were sealed, an engine installed in a room attached to the gas chambers was started. Carbon monoxide was funneled into the gas chambers, killing those inside. The bodies of the gassing victims were interred in huge trenches. The process was then repeated.

Deportees who were too weak to reach the gas chambers on their own were told they would receive medical attention. They were instead taken to a camouflaged area, which was disguised with a Red Cross flag as a hospital, and shot.



MAJOR DEPORTATIONS TO TREBLINKA

Deportations to Treblinka came mainly from the Jewish ghettos of central Poland. Between late July and September 1942, more than 250,000 Jews from Warsaw were deported to Treblinka. Although transports from Poland originated primarily in the Warsaw ghetto and ghettos near Warsaw, they also arrived from the areas of Radom, Lublin, and Bialystok.

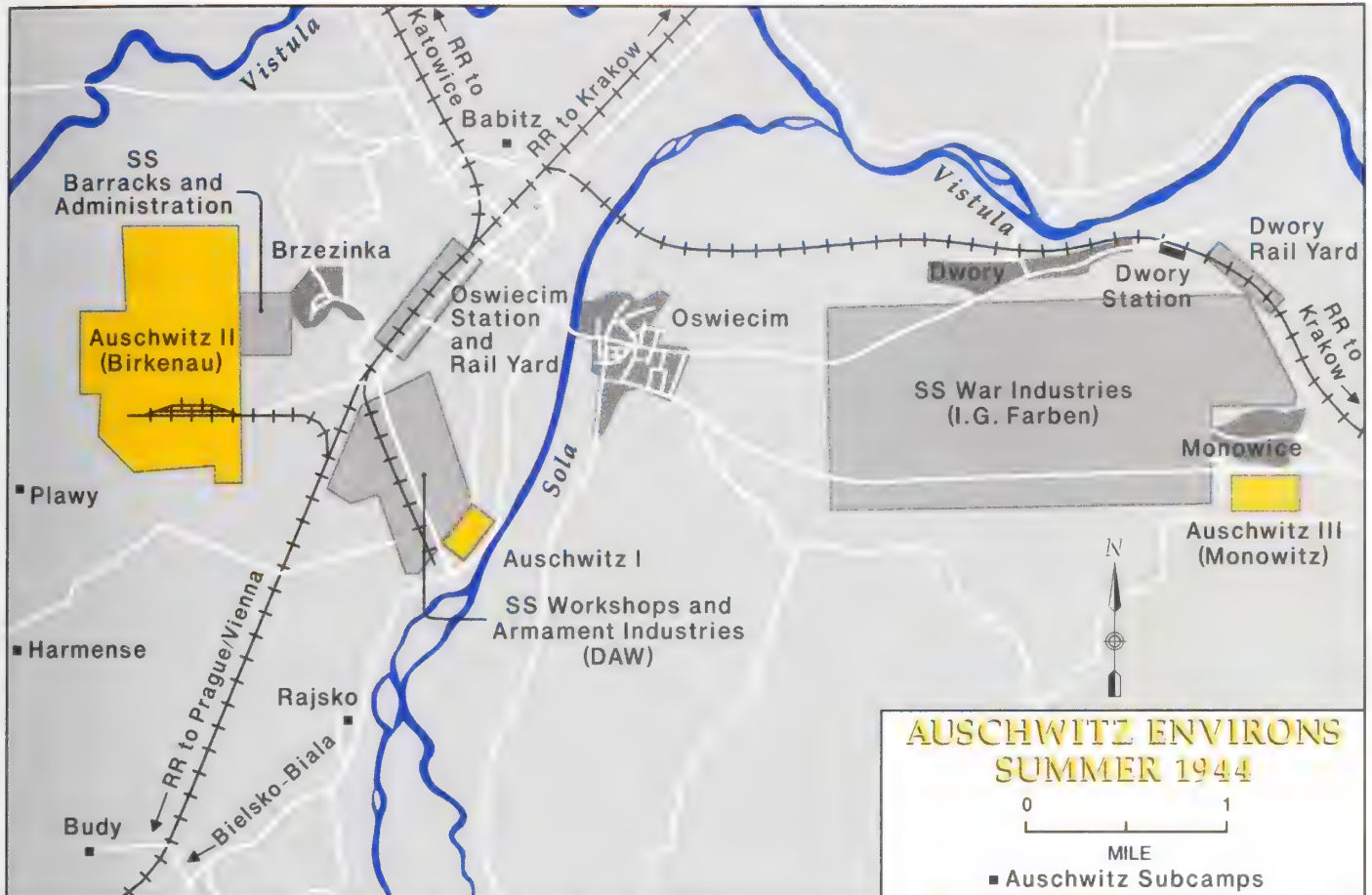
Jews were also deported to Treblinka from the Theresienstadt ghetto in Bohemia, from Greece and Slovakia, and from the Bulgarian-occupied zones in Greece and Yugoslavia. Other transports came from Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, and the Soviet Union. About 2,000 Roma (Gypsies) were deported to Treblinka and killed.

Deportations to Treblinka continued until May 1943. A few isolated transports arrived after that date. In an effort to obliterate traces of mass killing (Aktion 1005), mass graves at Treblinka were opened and the corpses exhumed to be burned

on huge pyres. The burning of corpses continued until the end of July 1943.

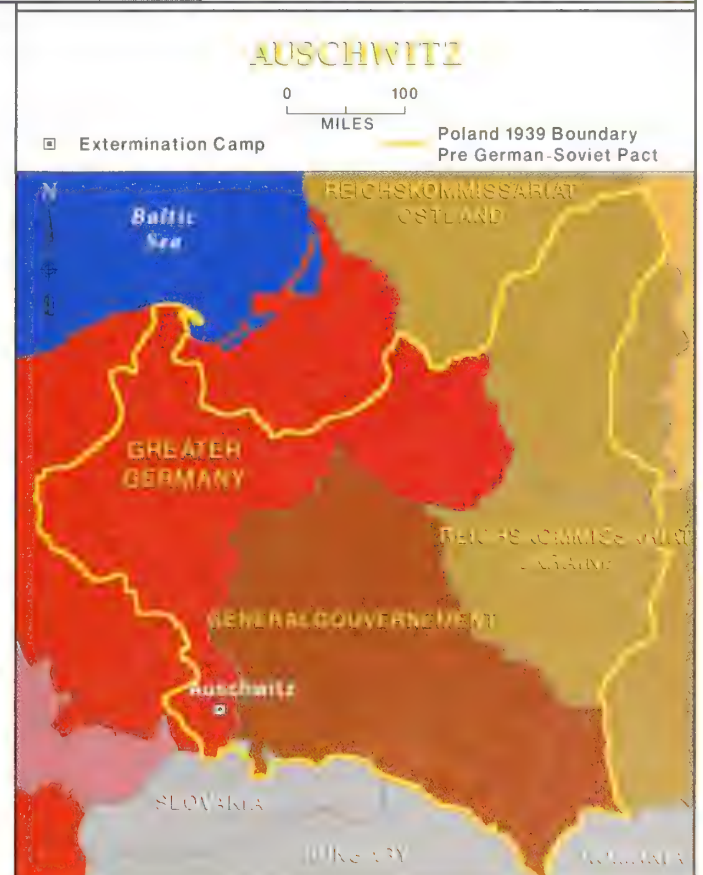
Jewish inmates organized a resistance group in Treblinka in early 1943. When Aktion 1005 neared completion in the camp, the prisoners feared they would be killed and the camp dismantled. The resistance leaders decided to revolt. On August 2, 1943, prisoners quietly seized weapons from the camp armory, but were discovered before they could take over the camp. Hundreds of prisoners stormed the main gate in an attempt to escape. Many were killed by machine-gun fire. More than 300 did escape, most only to be captured and killed by German police and troops. Most of the camp was burned down by the prisoners in the uprising. The surviving prisoners were forced to remove all remaining traces of the camp's existence. They too were then shot.

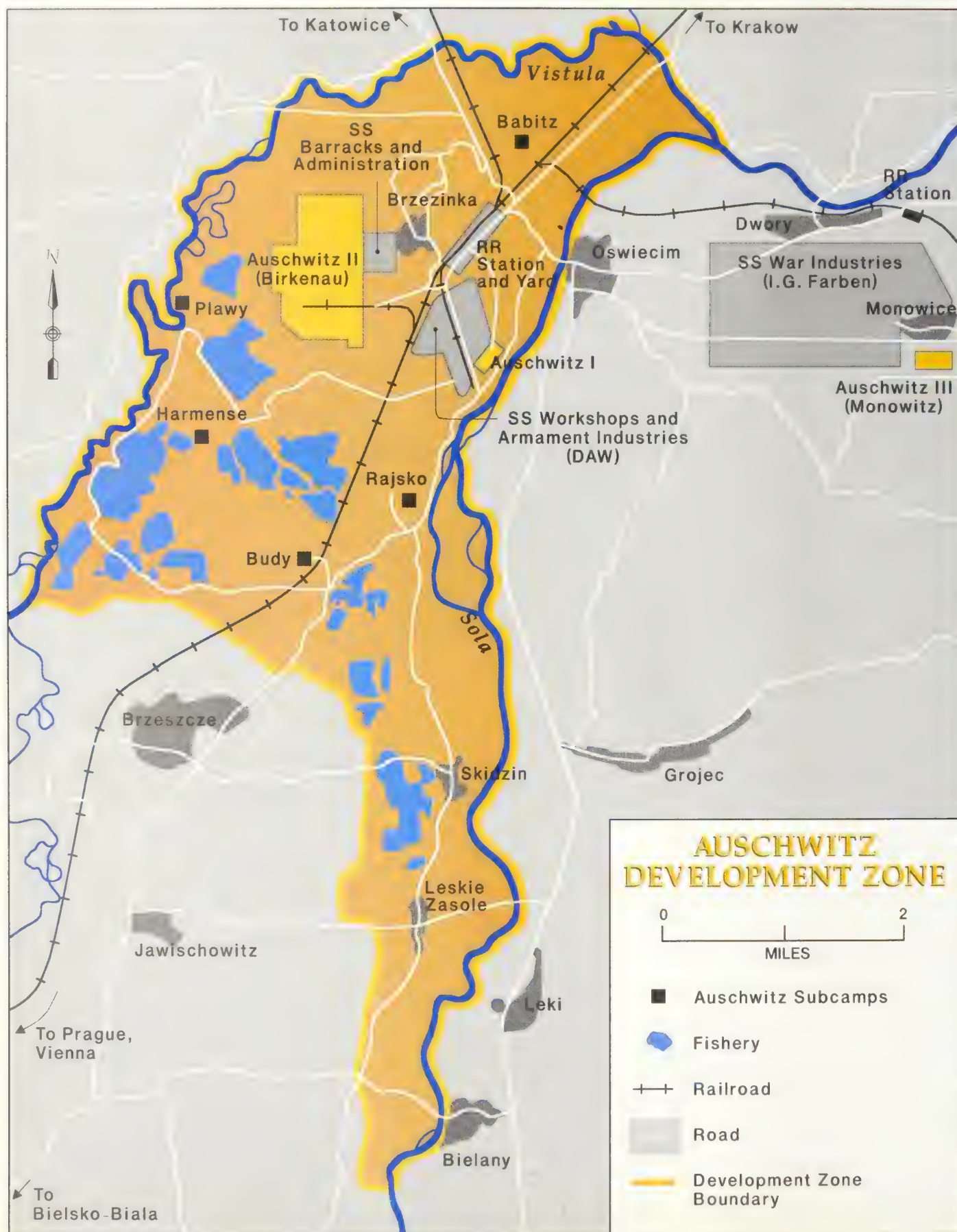
The camp was finally dismantled in the fall of 1943. Between 700,000 and 850,000 people had been killed there.

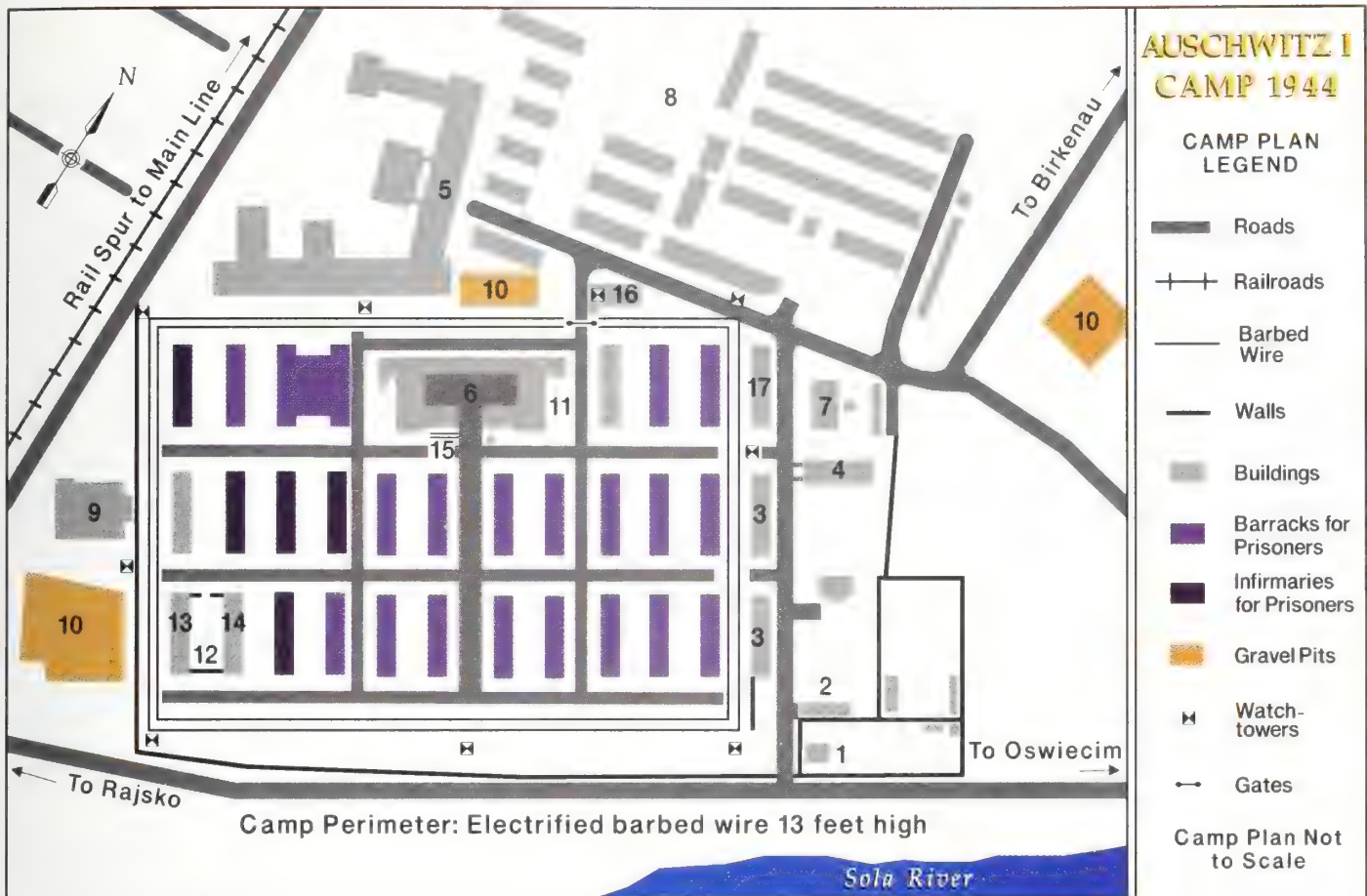


AUSCHWITZ

Auschwitz was the largest camp established by the Germans. It was a complex of camps, including a concentration, extermination, and forced-labor camp. It was located 37 miles west of Krakow, near the prewar German-Polish border in Eastern Upper Silesia, an area annexed to Germany in 1939. Three large camps established near the Polish town of Oswiecim constituted the Auschwitz camp complex: Auschwitz I, Auschwitz II (Birkenau), and Auschwitz III (Monowitz).







AUSCHWITZ I

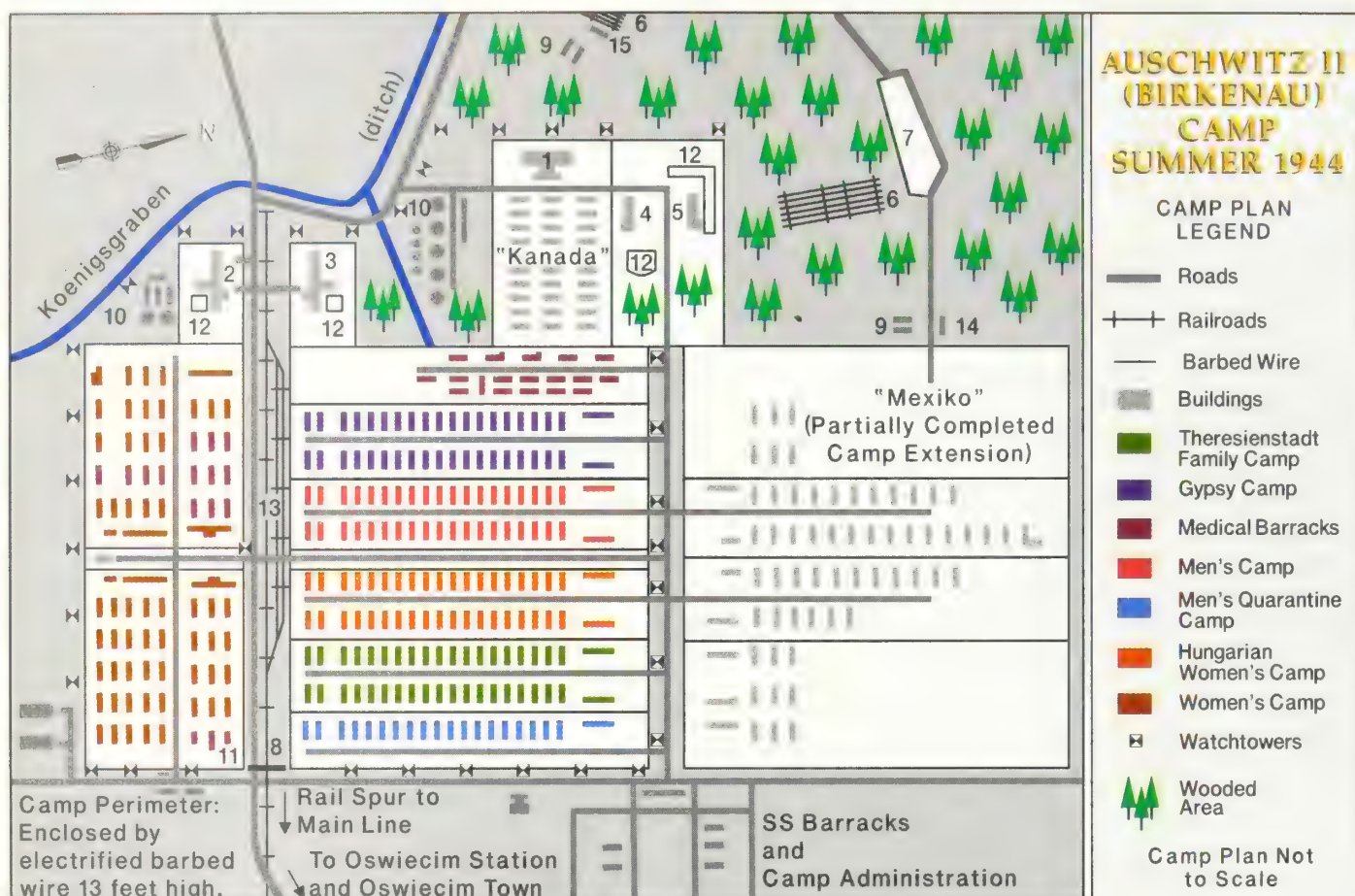
Auschwitz I, the main camp, was the first camp established near Oswiecim. Construction began in May 1940 in the Zasole suburb of Oswiecim, in artillery barracks formerly used by the Polish army. The camp was continuously expanded by forced labor. The first prisoners were Germans deported from the Sachsenhausen concentration camp in Germany and Polish political prisoners from Tarnow.

Although Auschwitz I was primarily a concentration camp, serving a penal function, it also had a gas chamber and crematorium. An improvised gas chamber was located in the basement of the prison, Block 11, and later a gas chamber was constructed in the crematorium.

SS physicians carried out so-called medical experiments in the hospital, Barrack (Block) 10. They conducted pseudo-scientific research on infants, twins, and dwarfs, and forced

sterilizations, castrations, and hypothermia experiments.

Between the crematorium and the medical-experiments barrack stood the "Black Wall," where thousands of prisoners were executed.



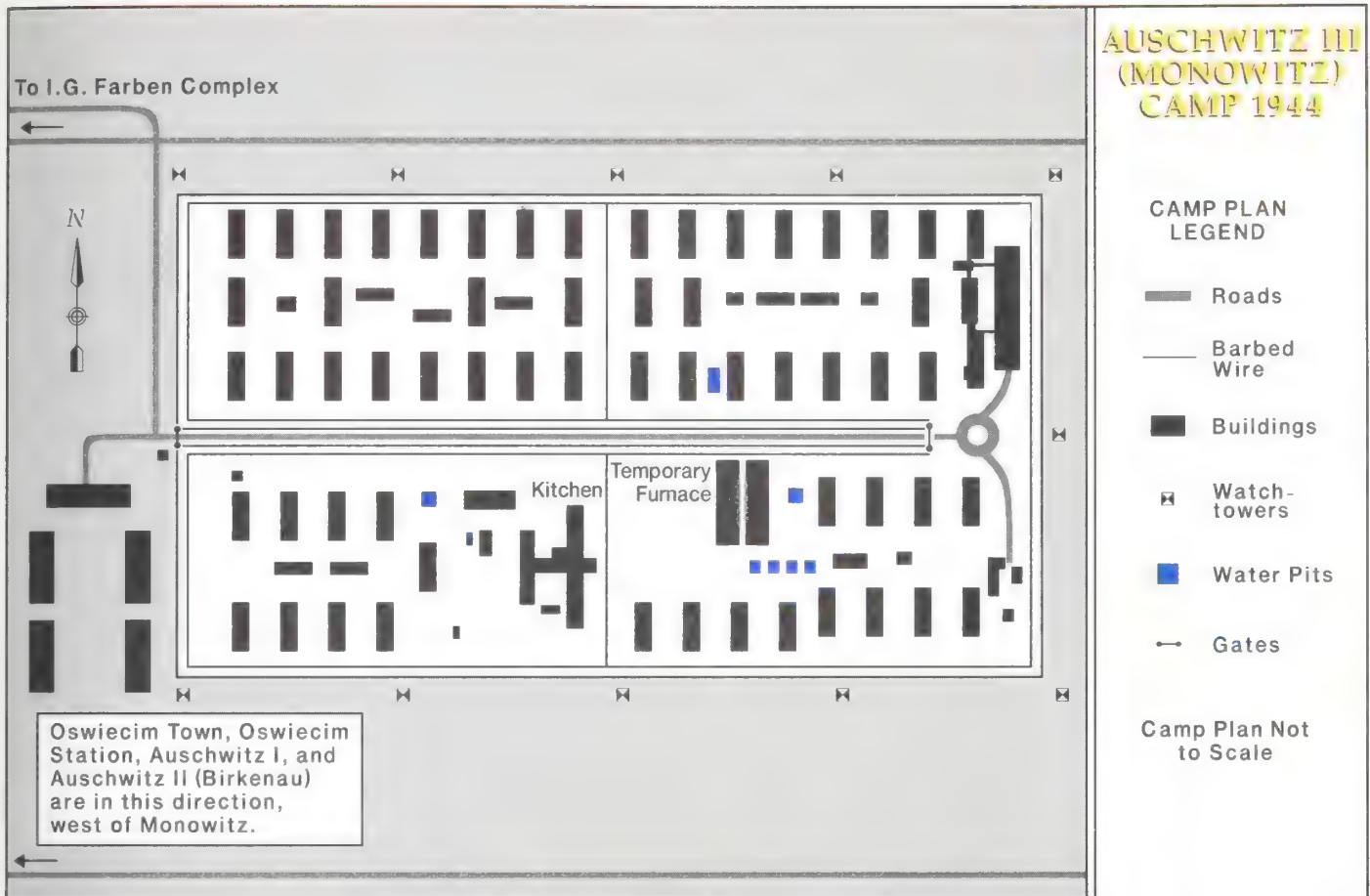
AUSCHWITZ II

Construction of Auschwitz II, or Auschwitz-Birkenau, began in Brzezinka in October 1941. Of the three camps established near Oswiecim, Auschwitz-Birkenau had the largest prisoner population. It was divided into nine sections separated by electrified barbed-wire fences and patrolled by SS guards and dogs. The camp included sections for women, men, Roma (Gypsies), and families deported from the Theresienstadt ghetto.

Auschwitz-Birkenau played a central role in the German

plan to exterminate the Jews of Europe. In September 1941, the Germans tested Zyklon B gas as an instrument of genocide. The "success" of these experiments led to the adoption of Zyklon B at Auschwitz. At first, gassing occurred at two farmhouses converted into gas chambers. Provisional gas chamber I went into operation in January 1942 and was later dismantled. Provisional gas chamber II began operations in June 1942 and continued through the fall of 1944. These facilities were judged inadequate for the scale of gassing planned at Auschwitz-Birkenau. Four large crematoria buildings were constructed between March and June 1943. Each had three components: a disrobing area, a large gas chamber, and crematorium ovens. Gassing operations continued until November 1944.

Trains arrived at Auschwitz-Birkenau almost daily with transports of Jews from virtually every German-occupied country of Europe—from as far north as Norway to the island of Rhodes off the coast of Turkey and from western France to eastern Poland. The role of Auschwitz-Birkenau in the German plan to kill the Jews of Europe is symbolized by the deportations from Hungary. Between May and July 1944, nearly 440,000 Hungarian Jews were deported to



Auschwitz-Birkenau; most of them were sent directly to the gas chambers and killed.

New arrivals at Auschwitz-Birkenau underwent selection. The majority were found unfit for forced labor and were sent immediately to the gas chambers, which were disguised as shower installations to mislead the victims. The belongings of those gassed were confiscated and sorted in the "Kanada" (Canada) warehouse for shipment back to Germany.

At least 1.1 million Jews were killed in Auschwitz. Other victims included between 70,000 and 75,000 Poles, 21,000 Roma, and about 15,000 Soviet prisoners of war.

A prisoner forced-labor detachment (Sonderkommando) assigned to the extermination area of the camp staged an uprising and destroyed Crematorium IV in October 1944, blowing up one of the gas chambers in Auschwitz-Birkenau. Gassing operations continued, however, until November 1944. The SS destroyed the remaining installations as Soviet forces approached.

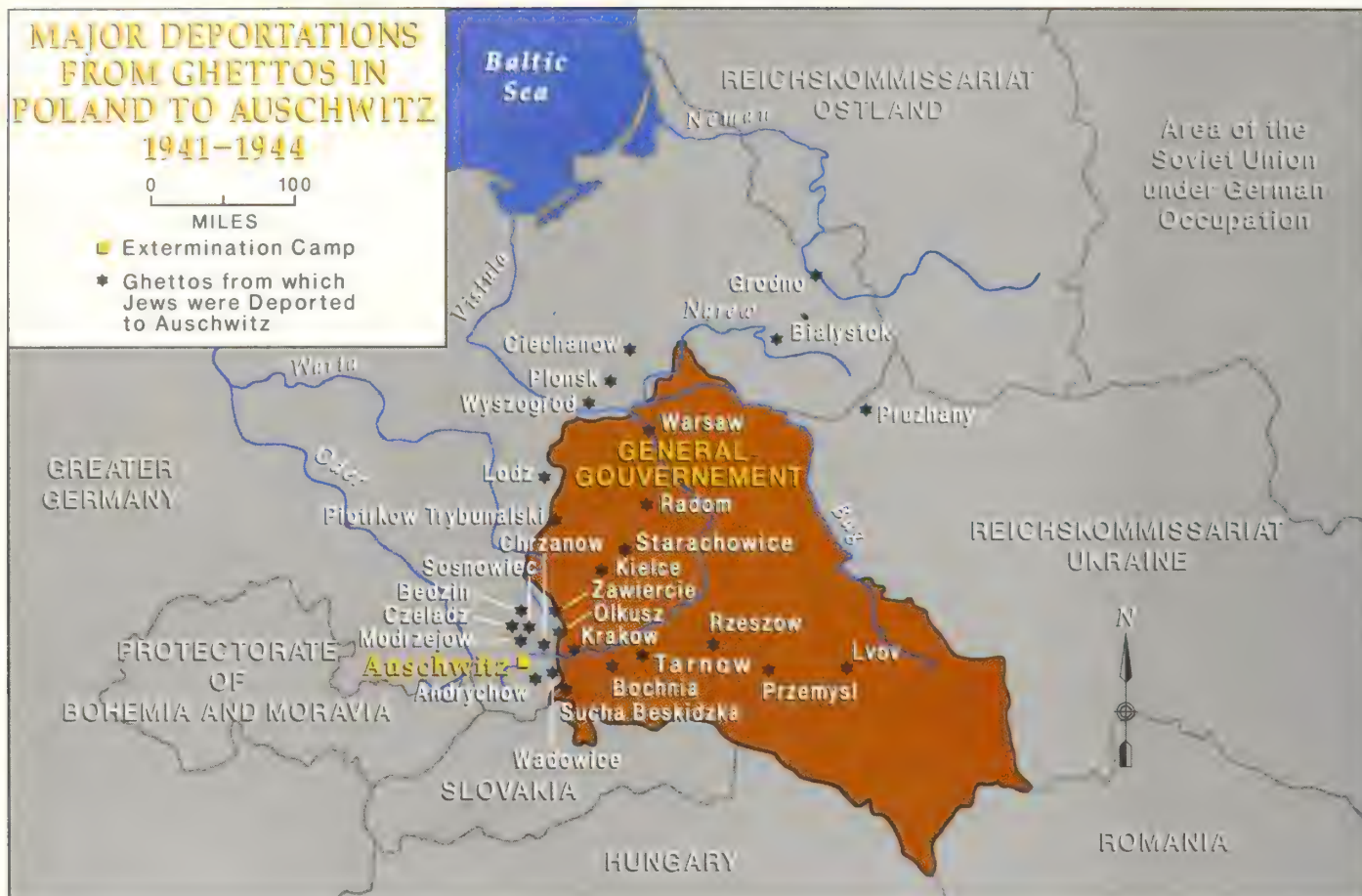
AUSCHWITZ III

Auschwitz III, also called Buna or Monowitz, was

established in nearby Monowice to provide forced laborers for the Buna synthetic rubber works. The German conglomerate I.G. Farben established a factory at Dwory in order to take advantage of cheap concentration camp labor and the nearby Silesian coalfields. It invested more than 700 million Reichsmarks (about 1.4 million U.S. dollars in 1942) in Auschwitz III.

Prisoners selected for forced labor were registered and tattooed with identification numbers on their left arms in Auschwitz I. They were then assigned to forced labor in Auschwitz or in one of the many subcamps attached to Auschwitz III.

The Germans forcibly expelled the entire local population from Oswiecim and from an area of 40 square miles around the camp. This area became known as the camp's "development zone" and was reserved for the camp's exclusive use. Most of the Auschwitz subcamps were established within this officially designated area, including Althammer, Blechhammer, Budy, Fuerstengrube, Gleiwitz, Rajsko, and Tschechowitz. Auschwitz inmates were employed on huge farms, including the experimental agricultural station at Rajsko, in coal mines, in stone quarries, in



fisheries, and especially in armaments industries such as the German Armament Works (DAW; established in 1941). Periodically, prisoners underwent selection. If they were judged too weak or sick to continue working, they were transported to Auschwitz-Birkenau and killed.

The SS began evacuating Auschwitz and its associated subcamps on January 18, 1945, as Soviet forces approached the area. Almost 60,000 prisoners, mostly Jews, were forced on a death march to Wodzislaw. Death marches were forced marches of concentration camp prisoners made over a long distance under heavy guard and extremely harsh conditions.

During the forced evacuation of Auschwitz, prisoners were brutally mistreated and many were killed. SS guards shot anyone who fell behind.

Upon their arrival in Wodzislaw, the inmates were put on freight trains and transported to various concentration camps, especially Gross-Rosen, Buchenwald, Dachau, and Mauthausen. The journey lasted days; often the prisoners were provided with no food or water.

On January 27, 1945, the Soviet army entered Auschwitz and liberated those prisoners who had not been evacuated.

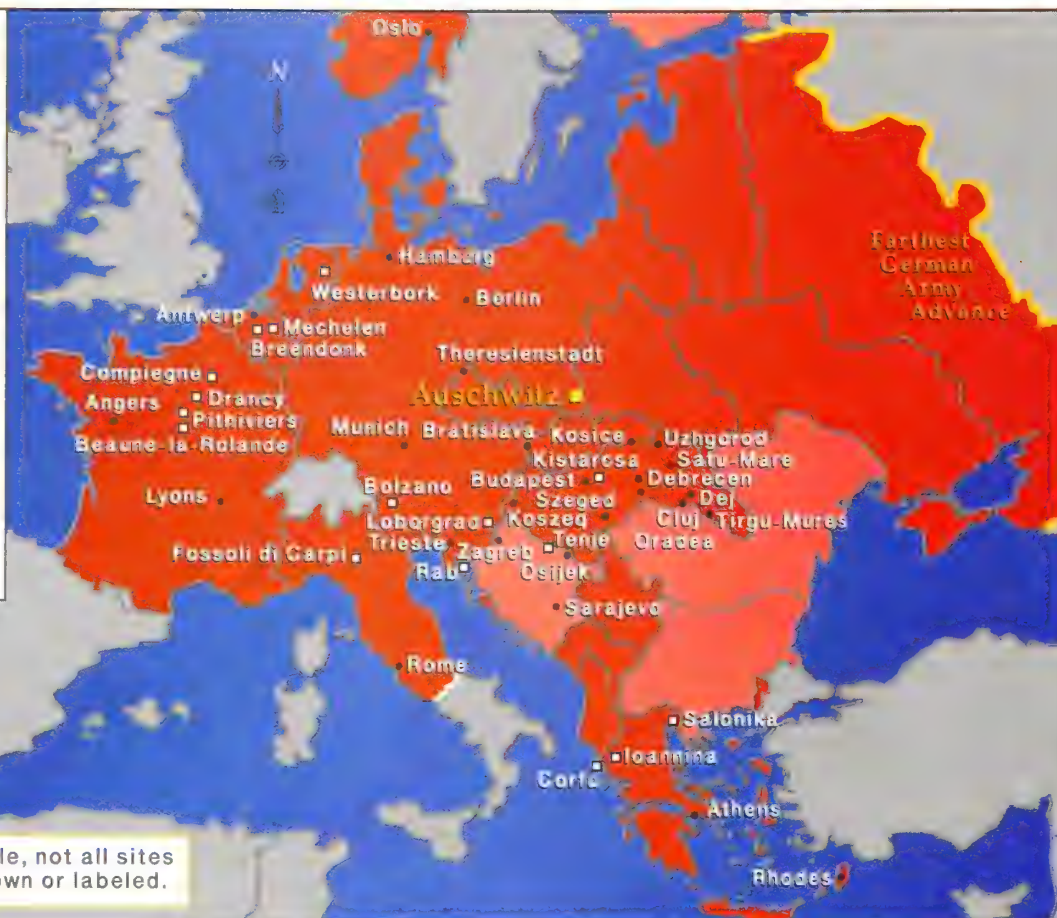
MAJOR DEPORTATIONS TO AUSCHWITZ 1941-1944

0 400
MILES

At least 1.1 million people were killed at Auschwitz-Birkenau.

Cities and Camps from which Jews were Deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau.

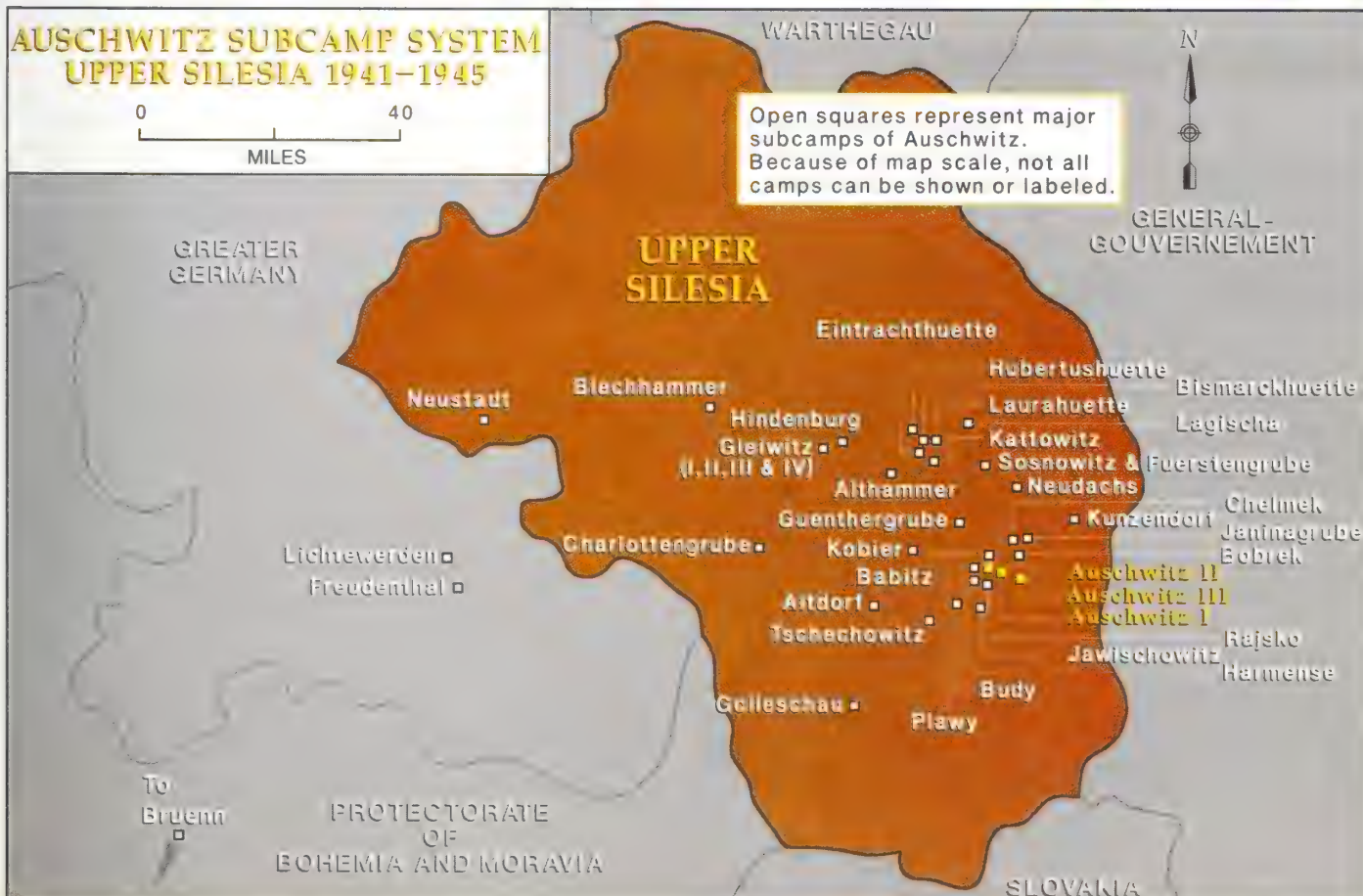
- Cities or Places
- Transit Camps
- German Reich & Occupied Territories
- German-Allied or Dependent States

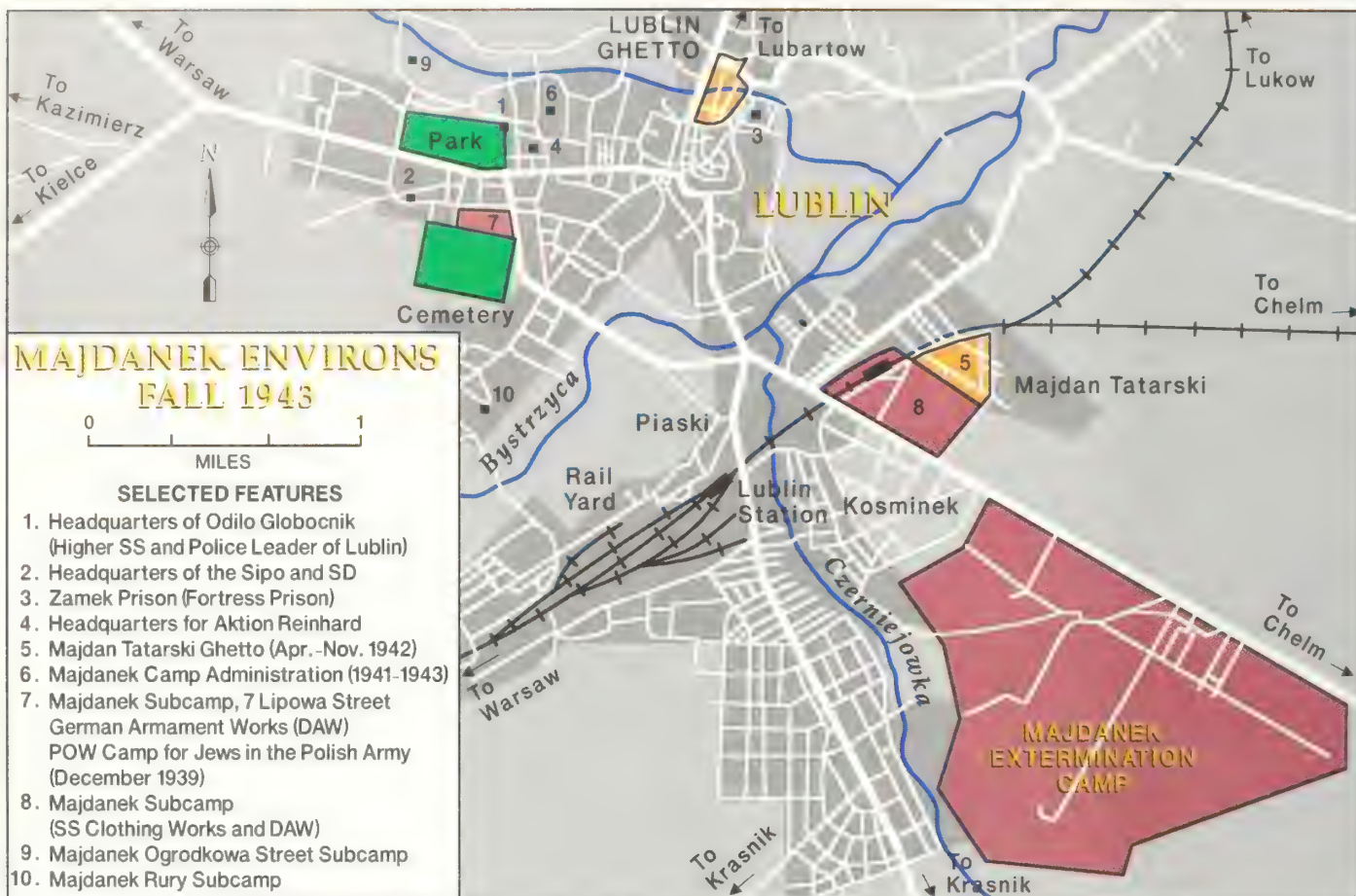


AUSCHWITZ SUBCAMP SYSTEM UPPER SILESIA 1941-1945

0 40
MILES

Open squares represent major subcamps of Auschwitz.
Because of map scale, not all camps can be shown or labeled.





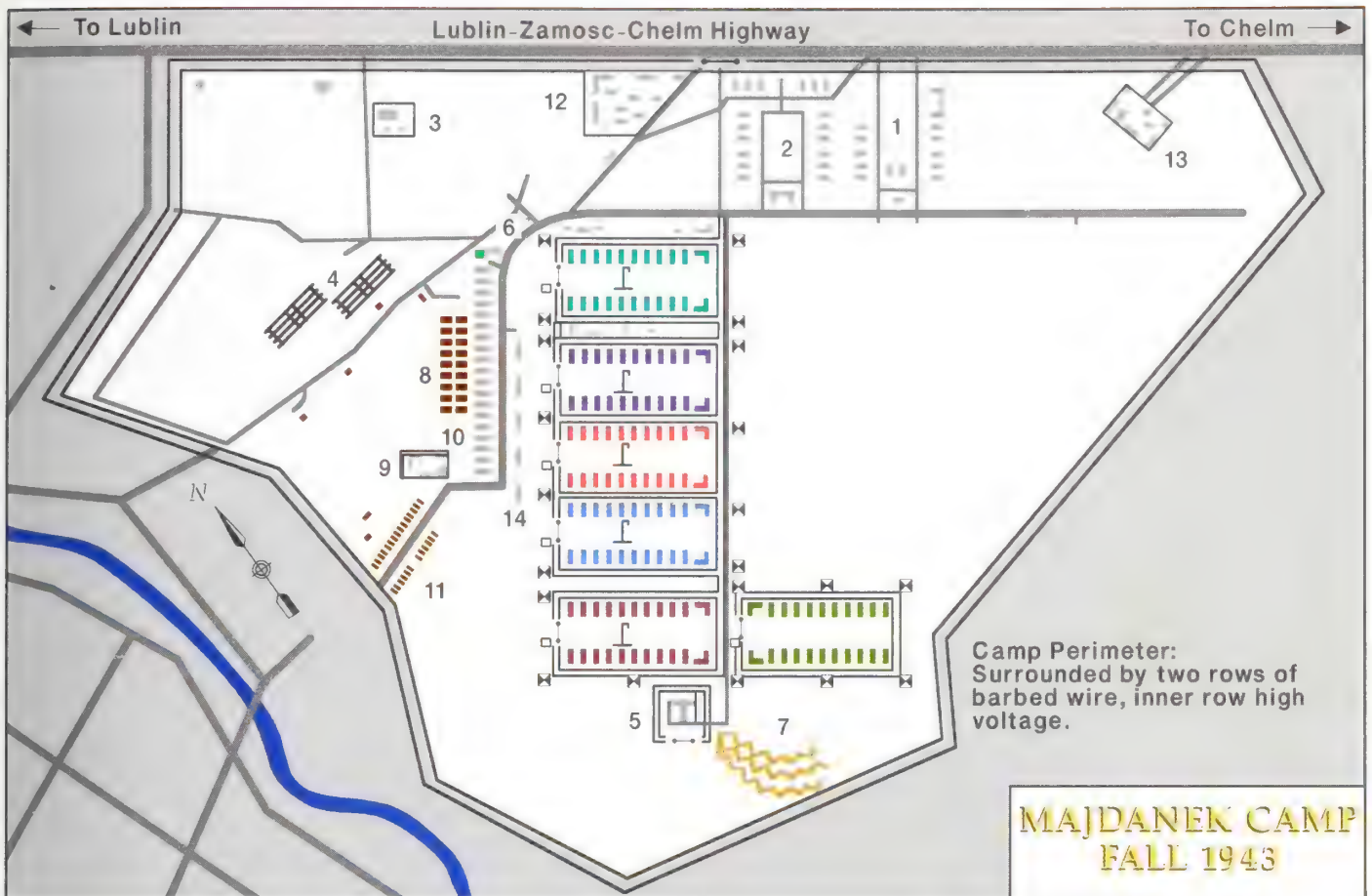
MAJDANEK AND LUBLIN

The Majdanek camp, also called Lublin-Majdanek, was situated along the Lublin-Zamosc-Chelm highway. Located adjacent to the Majdan Tatarski suburb of Lublin, Poland, the camp was in the Generalgouvernement. Majdanek had four subcamps in Lublin, where prisoners worked in German armaments industries or on other forced-labor projects. Majdanek also served as an execution place for hostages who were transported from the Zamek Prison in Lublin. Lublin itself served as headquarters for Operation Reinhard.

Two ghettos were established in Lublin. The Lublin ghetto was opened in March 1941 with a population of more than 30,000 Jews. By the end of March 1942, most were deported to the Belzec killing center. In April 1942, a new ghetto was established in Majdan Tatarski, near the Majdanek camp, for the remaining Jewish population of Lublin. Nearly 5,000 Jews lived in this ghetto. They were deported to Majdanek when the ghetto was liquidated in November 1942.

MAJDANEK EXTERMINATION CAMP

Like Auschwitz, Majdanek was a concentration, forced-labor, and extermination camp. Unlike the Operation Reinhard



camps, Majdanek was built adjacent to and within sight of a major city—Lublin. Construction of a large camp began in early October 1941. Until 1943 the camp was officially a prisoner-of-war camp run by the Waffen-SS. In mid-February 1943, Majdanek was reclassified a concentration camp.

The Majdanek camp was divided into six compounds. In the fall of 1943, Compound I was a women's camp; Compound II was a field hospital for Russian collaborators attached to the German army; Compound III was a men's camp mainly for Polish political prisoners and Jews from Warsaw and Bialystok; Compound IV was a camp for men, mainly Soviet prisoners of war, civilian hostages, and political prisoners; Compound V served as a men's hospital camp; and Compound VI was established but remained unoccupied.

Gassing operations at Majdanek began in October 1942 and continued until the fall of 1943. Majdanek had at least three gas chambers—which used both carbon monoxide and Zyklon B—and a large crematorium. Unlike the Operation Reinhard camps, which used stationary engines to generate carbon monoxide gas, the Majdanek camp was supplied with canisters of compressed gas.

On November 3, 1943, the Germans removed from the

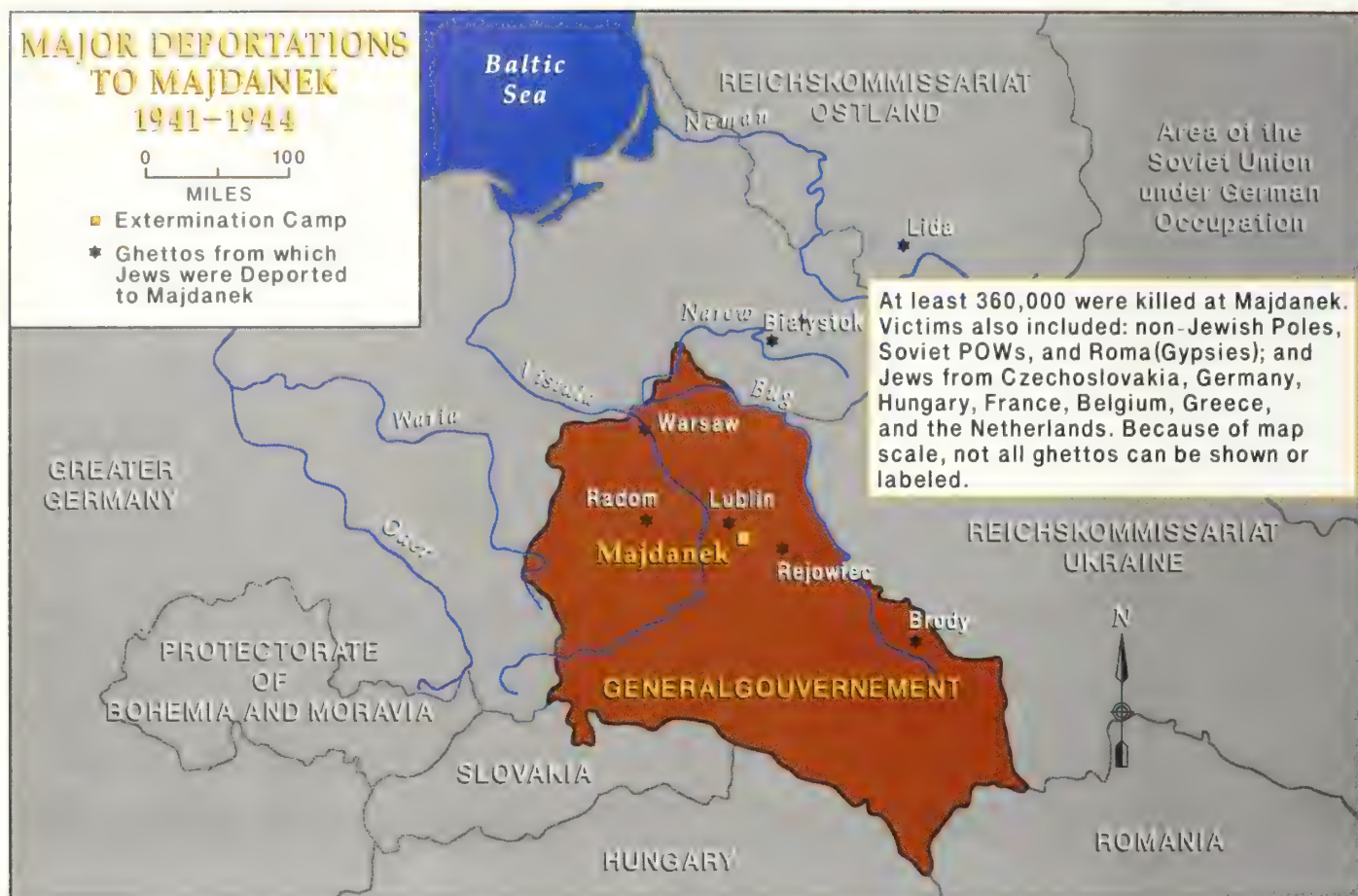
CAMP PLAN LEGEND

— Roads	Buildings
— Gates	Compound I Women's Camp
— Barbed Wire	Compound II, Field Hospital for Wehrmacht Auxiliary (Recruited from Soviet POWs)
⌘ Watch-towers	Compound III Men's Camp
□ Watch-posts	Compound IV Male Hostages / POWs
■ Open Structures	Compound V Men's Hospital Camp
⌚ Gallows	Compound VI Unoccupied

SELECTED FEATURES

1. Camp Administration
2. SS Barracks
3. Camp Commandant's House
4. Cremation Pyres
5. Crematorium
6. Gas Chambers
7. Mass Execution Ditches
(November 3, 1943 "Harvest Festival")
8. Potato Bins
9. Dog Kennel
10. Warehouses
11. Compost Heaps
12. Warehouse Compound for Construction Materials
13. Camp Farm
14. Workshops

Camp Plan Not to Scale



camp all remaining Jewish prisoners—almost 18,000 people—and shot them in large prepared ditches near the crematorium parallel to Compound VI. This was part of Operation Harvest Festival (Aktion “Erntefest”), the code name for the execution of the remaining Jews of the Generalgouvernement.

The Germans hastily evacuated Majdanek as the Soviet army approached Lublin in July 1944. They did not have time to dismantle the camp entirely, although some of the remaining prisoners were transferred to Auschwitz. The Soviet army liberated Lublin on July 24, 1944. Majdanek was the first killing center liberated, and the only one captured virtually intact. The Germans dismantled or partially destroyed the other killing centers.

DEPORTATIONS TO MAJDANEK

The victims of Majdanek included Jews from central Poland, especially Lublin, Warsaw, and Bialystok; Jews from western Europe; more than 100,000 non-Jewish Poles; and tens of thousands of Soviet prisoners of war. As in Auschwitz-Birkenau, prisoners sent to Majdanek underwent selection on arrival. Those considered incapable of work were sent directly to the gas chambers. The remainder were employed for forced labor.

More than 360,000 people were killed at Majdanek. Most died from starvation, exhaustion, disease, and the harsh regimen imposed at the camp. The overwhelming majority of those killed in Majdanek’s gas chambers were Jews.

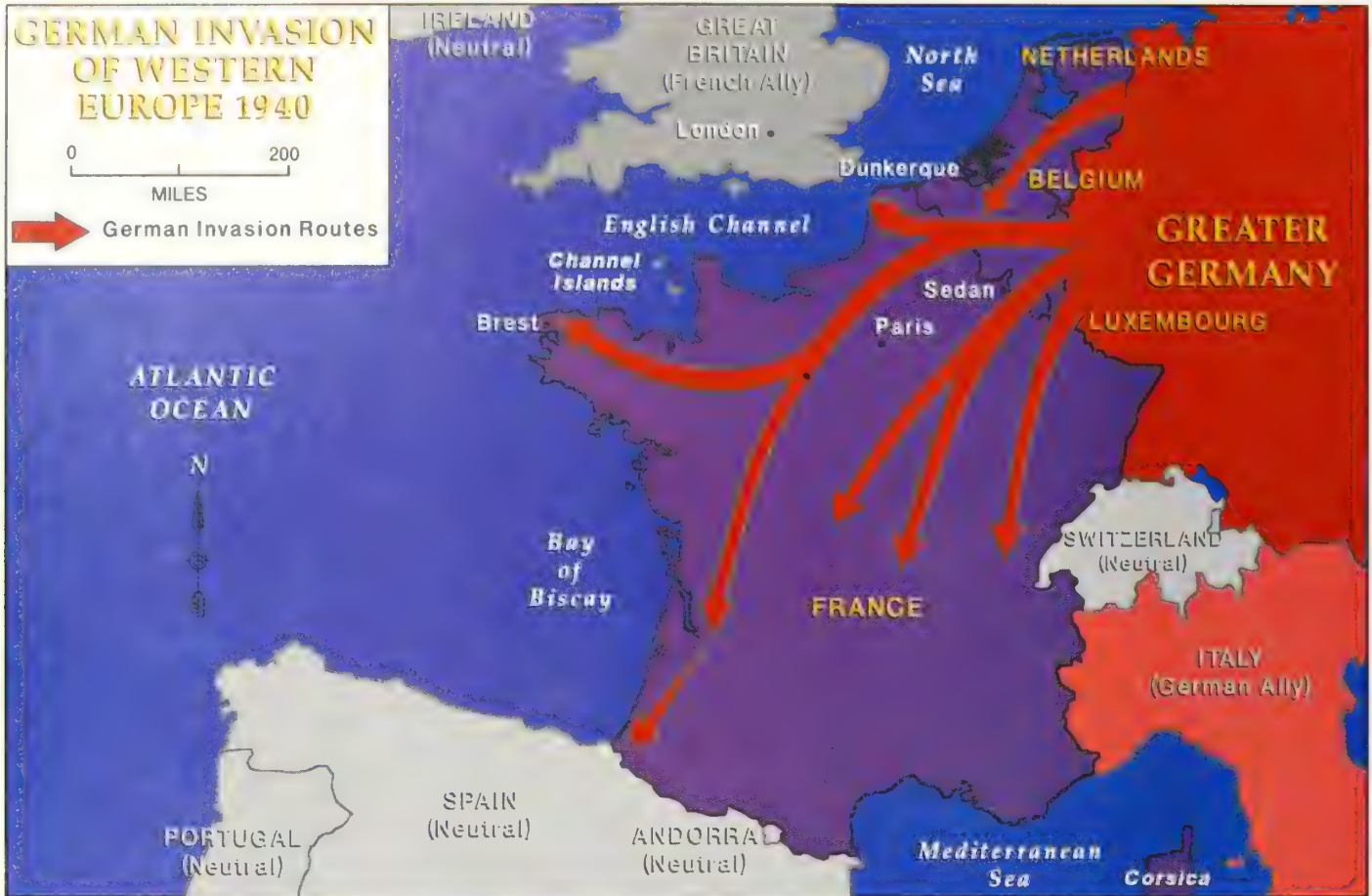
SECTION 4

THE HOLOCAUST IN WESTERN EUROPE

GERMAN INVASION OF WESTERN EUROPE 1940

0 200
MILES

German Invasion Routes

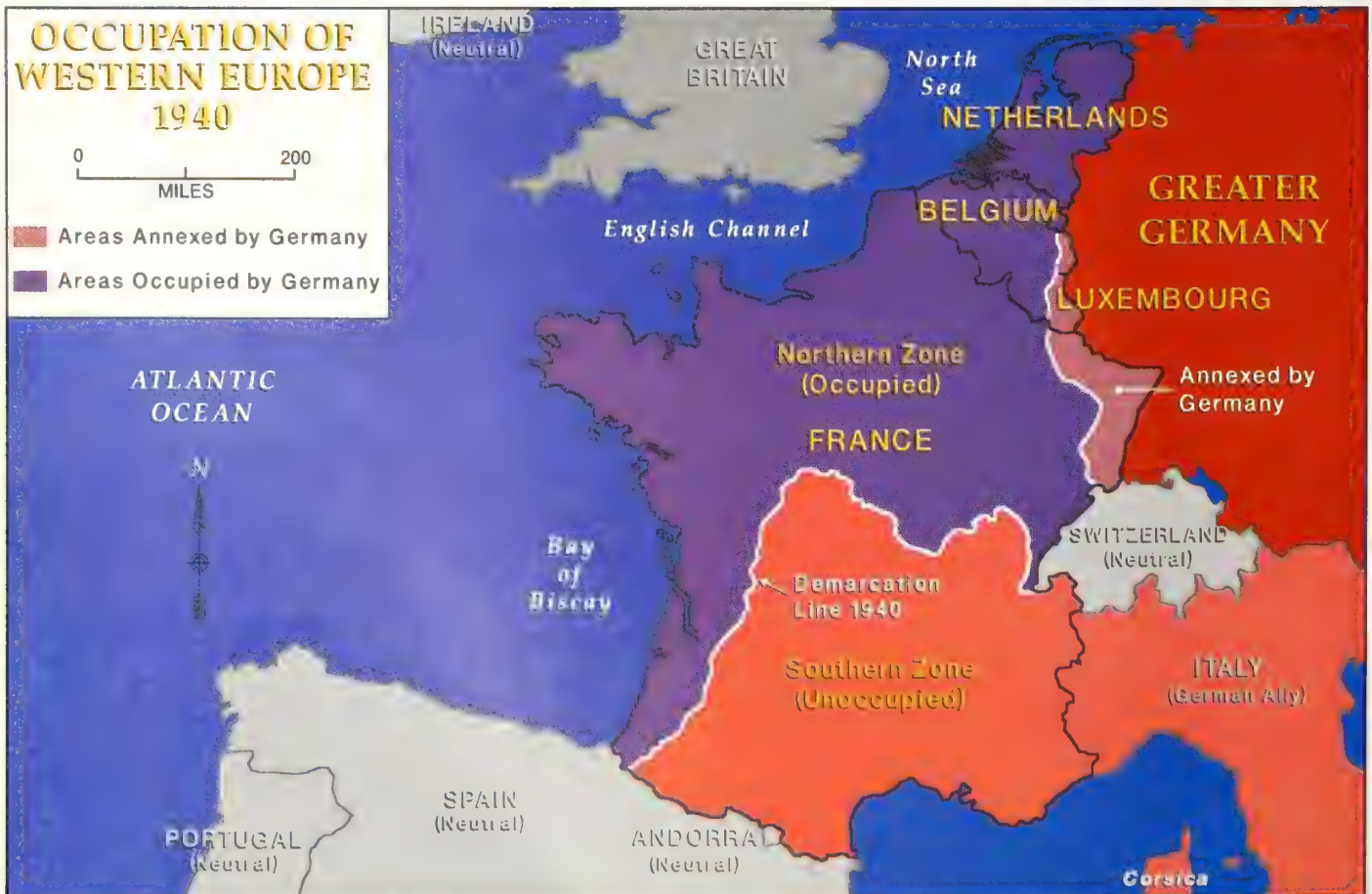


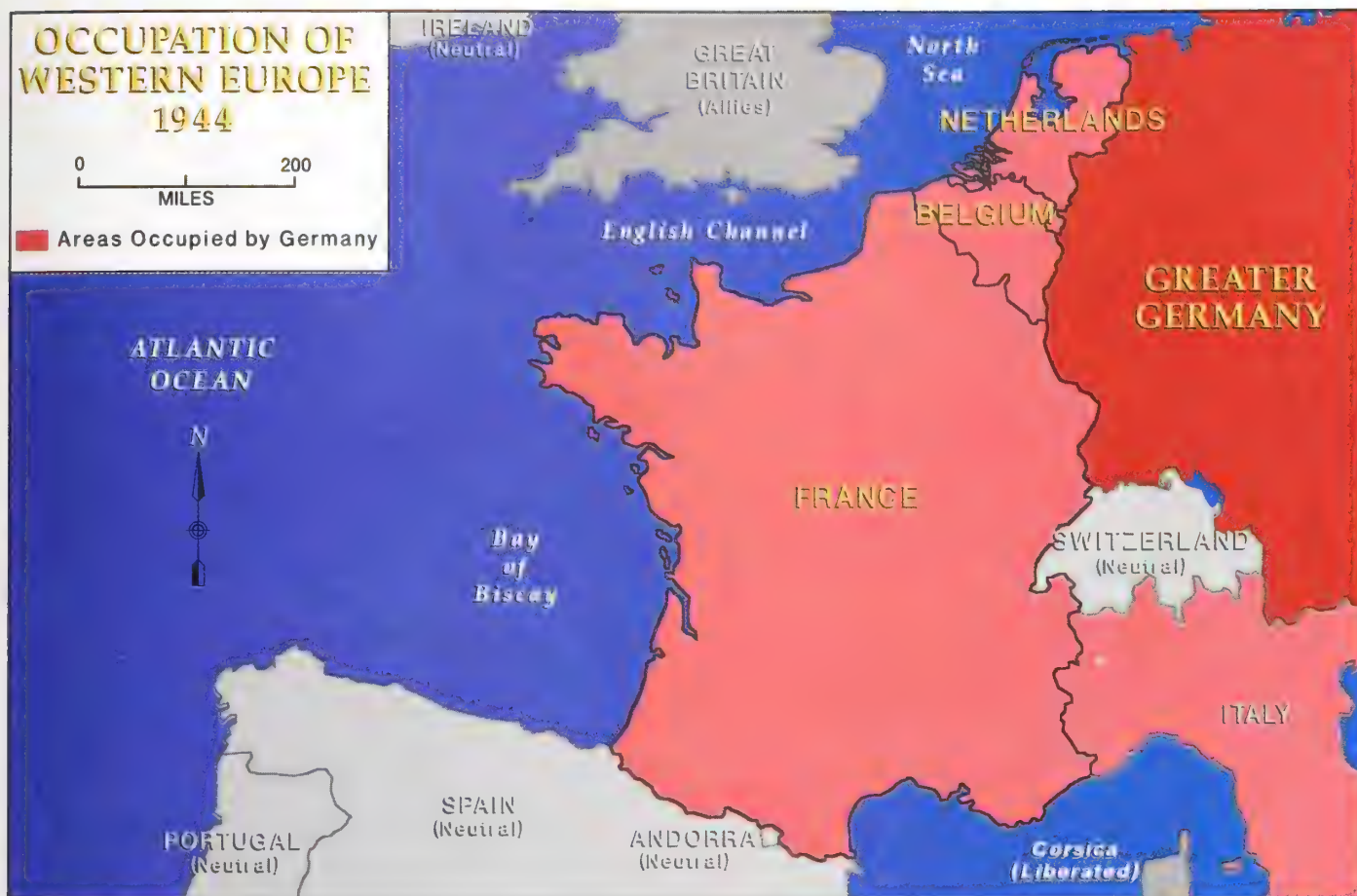
OCCUPATION OF WESTERN EUROPE 1940

0 200
MILES

Areas Annexed by Germany

Areas Occupied by Germany





THE INVASION OF FRANCE AND THE LOW COUNTRIES

The campaign against the Low Countries and France lasted less than six weeks. Germany attacked in the west on May 10, 1940. Initially, the Allies believed that Germany would attack through Belgium and the Netherlands and therefore rushed forces to meet the Germans there. The main German attack however, went through Luxembourg and the Ardennes Forest near the French city of Sedan. German tanks and infantry burst through the French defensive lines and advanced to the coast, trapping the British and French armies in the north. The Allies successfully evacuated over 300,000 troops from Dunkerque (Dunkirk) to Britain, but France was decisively defeated. Paris, the French capital, fell to the Germans on June 14, 1940. As part of the armistice agreement France signed with Germany on June 22, Germany occupied northern France while southern France remained unoccupied. A new French government was established in the town of Vichy, which was in the unoccupied southern part of France. The Vichy government declared neutrality in the war, but promised cooperation with Germany.

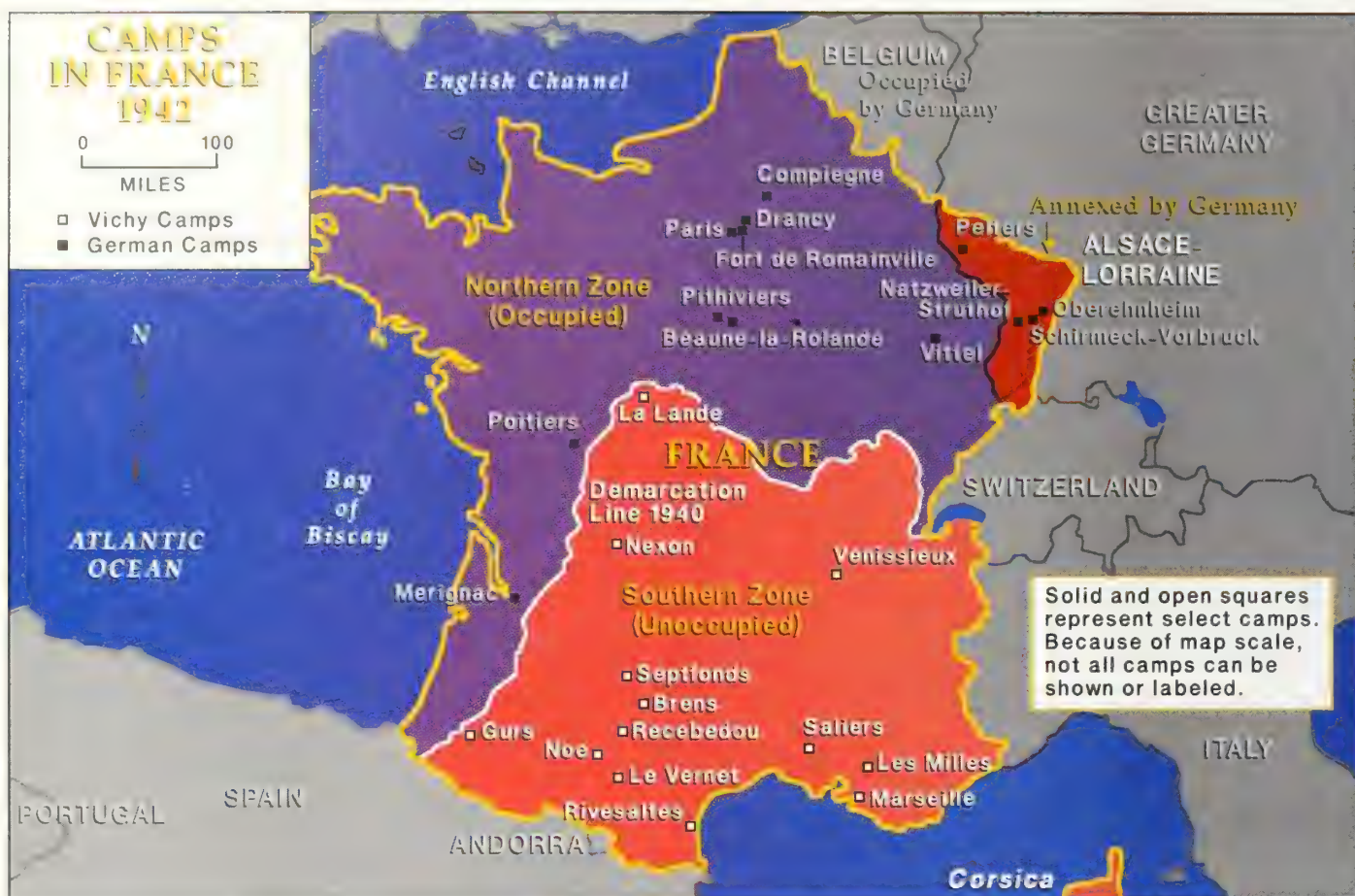
The Germans viewed the defeat of Britain's Royal Air

Force (RAF) as a prerequisite for an invasion of Britain. When the German air force failed to win air superiority over southeastern England in 1940, Hitler decided to postpone indefinitely preparations for the invasion of the British Isles.

VICHY AND THE DEPORTATION OF THE JEWS IN FRANCE

During the 1930s, many German Jews and other refugees fled to France from Nazi Germany. By 1939, however, France imposed restrictions on Jewish immigration and set up internment camps for refugees. When Germany defeated France in June 1940, there were more than 300,000 Jews in France.

France signed an armistice with Germany in June 1940. Under the terms of the armistice, northern France remained under German occupation. Germany de facto annexed the French provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. Southern France remained unoccupied and governed by an exclusively French administration. Marshal Henri Philippe Petain became the head of state, with full power, of this French government, which had its seat in the town of Vichy. The Vichy regime declared neutrality in the war, but actually cooperated closely



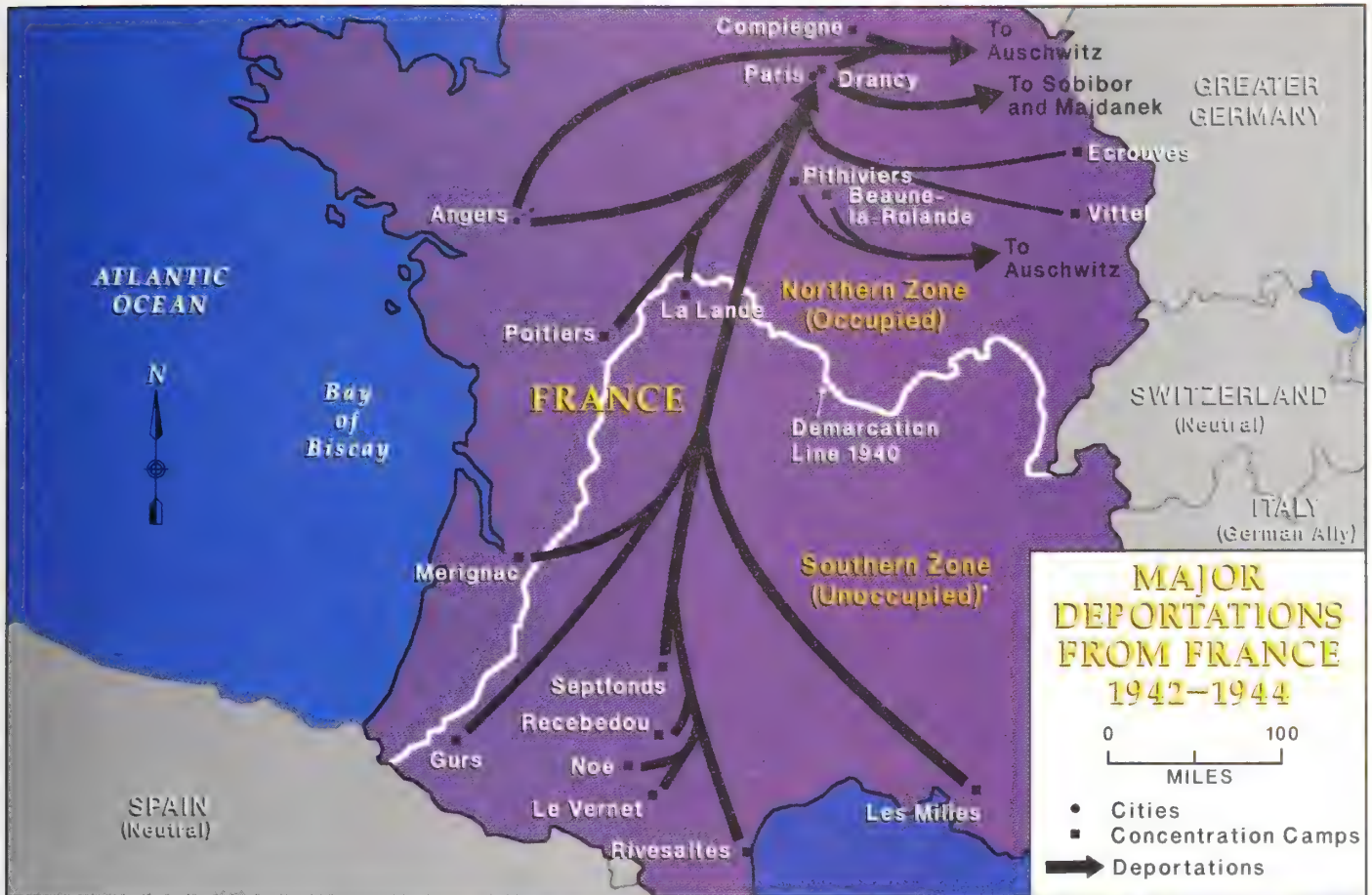
with Germany. Vichy passed antisemitic legislation and cooperated with Germany in the deportation of Jews from France.

Persecution of Jews began almost immediately after the defeat of France. The Vichy regime passed the comprehensive Statut des Juifs (Jewish Law), which consisted of two antisemitic laws, one passed in October 1940 and one in June 1941. The legislation provided the legal foundation for the persecution of Jews in France. It excluded Jews from public life, removing them from the civil service, the army, the professions, commerce, and industry. In July 1941, Vichy inaugurated an extensive program of "Aryanization," confiscating Jewish-owned property for the French state. Many Jews became destitute. Foreign Jews were particularly vulnerable and thousands were subsequently deported to camps. In November 1941, the Vichy government established the General Union of French Jews as a Jewish organization to run Jewish communal affairs.

Preparations for the inclusion of Jews in western Europe in the "Final Solution" began in early 1942. This meant, in part, the systematic roundup of Jews and their deportation to the killing centers in occupied Poland. Throughout the

summer and fall of 1942, French police rounded up Jews, mainly those without French citizenship, in both the occupied and unoccupied zones. In mid-July, nearly 13,000 Jews were seized in Paris and interned in a sports arena, the Velodrome d'Hiver, with little food or water, until their deportation to Auschwitz. Throughout France, Jews were assembled in camps and then loaded onto cattle cars. They were deported first to the Drancy transit camp (northeast of Paris), which became the main center for deportations from France. Over 60 transports left Drancy, mainly for the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center. More than 40,000 Jews were deported in 1942.

German and Italian forces occupied the southern zone of France in November 1942, and the Germans began to seize Jews throughout German-occupied France. Having won the cooperation of Vichy authorities in the deportation of foreign and stateless Jews, German authorities then sought to deport Jews with French citizenship. By 1943, French police participated with the Germans in the roundup of Jews. Thousands of French Jews went into hiding, escaped to nearby neutral countries (such as Spain or Switzerland), or sought protection in the Italian occupation zone. Thousands joined partisan units to fight the Germans.



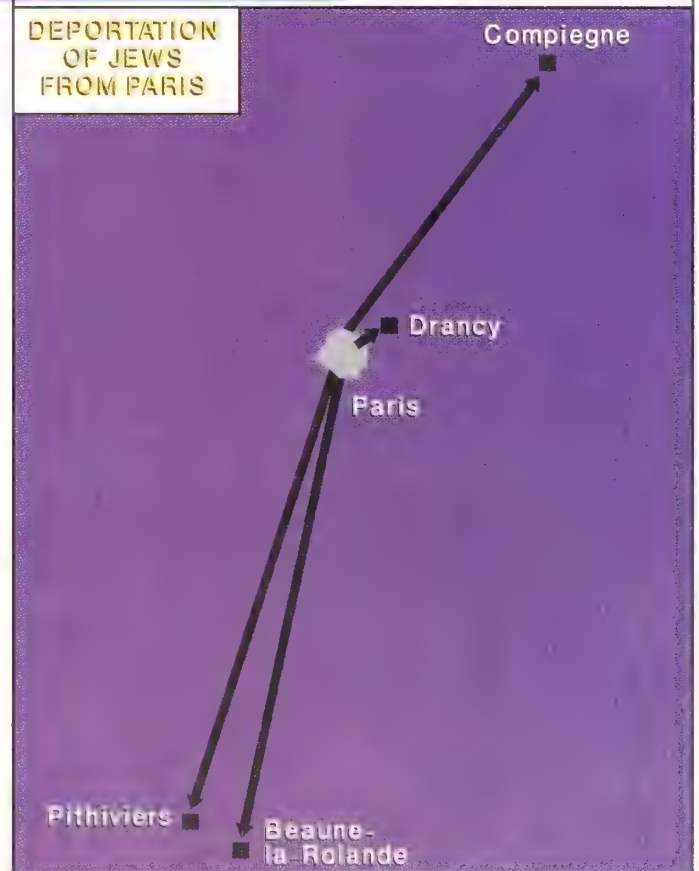
The last deportation from France to the killing centers in the east occurred in the summer of 1944. By then, about 75,000 Jews, mostly foreign, had been deported from France. Most had been killed. Almost all were deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau, but several transports were sent to Majdanek and Sobibor.

The Allied landing in Normandy, in northwestern France, on June 6, 1944, began the liberation of France from Vichy and German domination. By the end of 1944, Allied forces had liberated France. To avoid capture, many Vichy officials fled to Germany.

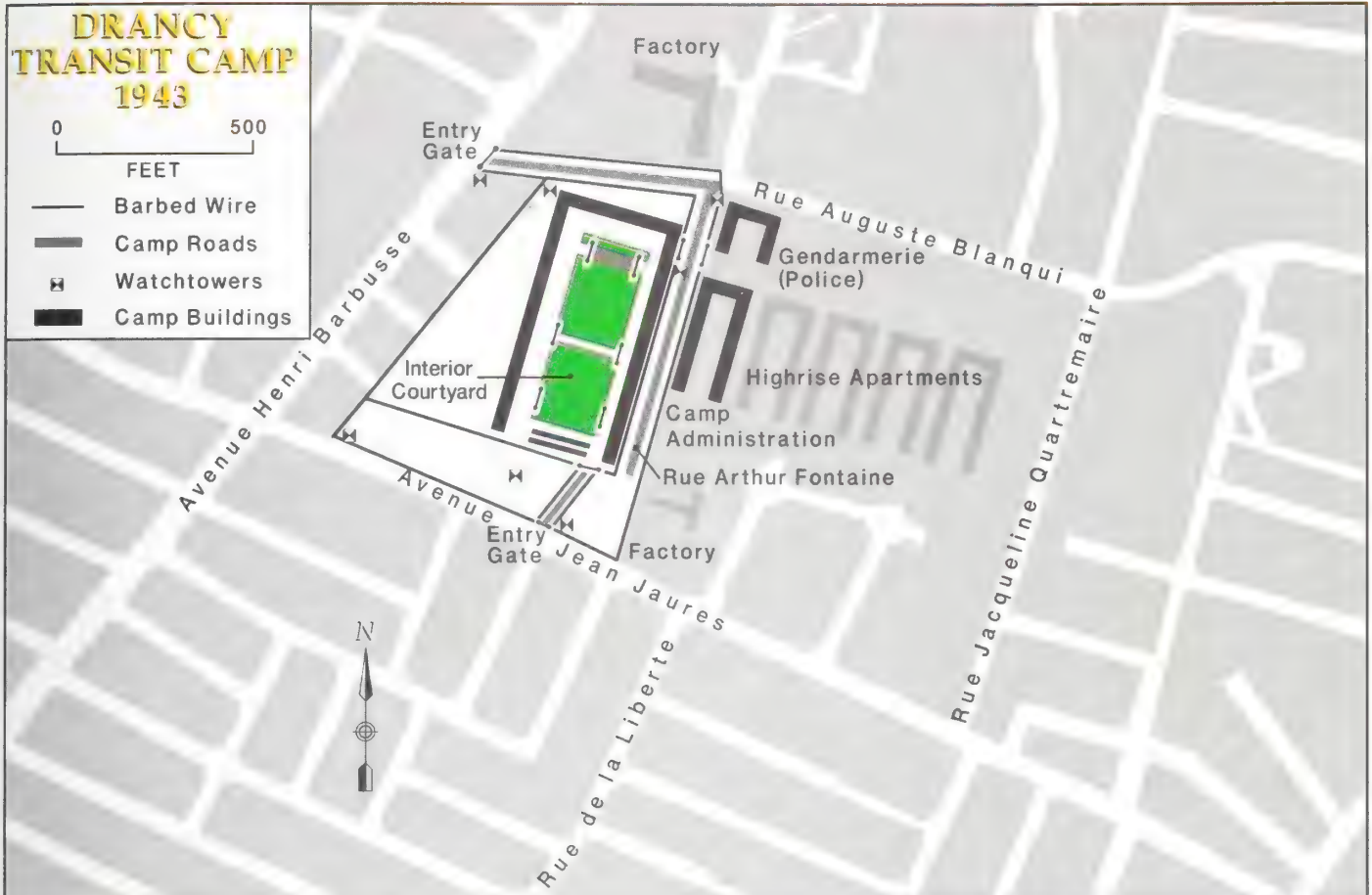
DEPORTATIONS FROM PARIS AND THE DRANCY TRANSIT CAMP

Paris

The Jewish community in Paris was the largest in France. In 1939, more than 200,000 Jews lived there. Most were eastern Europeans who had recently immigrated to France. The 11th, 18th, and 20th districts had the largest number of Jewish residents in Paris. About half of the Jewish population of Paris left the city after the Germans invaded France in May 1940.







After the French armistice with Germany in June 1940, Paris, in the German-occupied zone, became the seat of the German military government and the Gestapo in France. French officials established a government in Vichy in the unoccupied zone, but Paris remained France's largest, most important city.

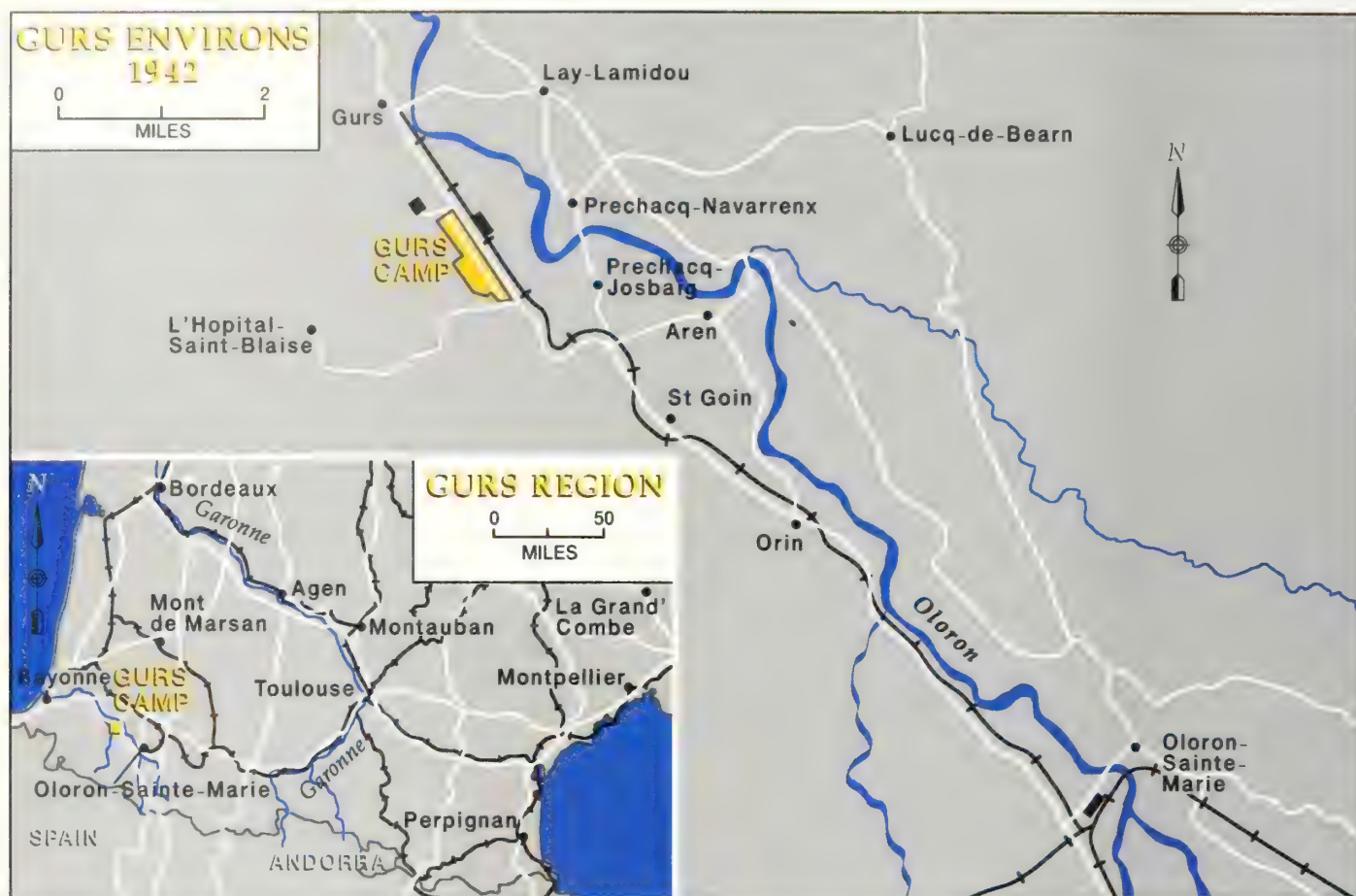
The persecution of the Jews in Paris began almost immediately after the German occupation. In October 1940, the Nazis exploded bombs in seven synagogues in central Paris, signifying their determination to take violent action against the Jews. The Central Consistory of French Jews, the Children's Aid Society, the Organization for Rehabilitation through Training (O.R.T.), and the Coordinating Committee of Jewish Welfare Societies all worked in Paris to alleviate the hardships caused by German and Vichy antisemitic legislation.

Between 1940 and 1941, the Germans arrested about 10,000 Jews in Paris. About the same number fled the city for the unoccupied zone in the south. In 1942, the Germans began systematic mass deportations of foreign and stateless Jews

from Paris. Only Jews with French citizenship or a valid German work permit were exempted. French police assisted in the roundups for these deportations. The Jews were deported to the transit camps of Pithiviers, Beaune-la-Rolande, and above all Drancy, and from there to the killing centers in occupied Poland. In mid-July 1942, nearly 13,000 Jews, most of them foreign or stateless, were rounded up and interned in the Velodrome d'Hiver, a sports arena in south-central Paris that became a makeshift assembly center. They were then deported through Drancy to Auschwitz.

In 1942, nearly 30,000 Jews were deported from Paris. Meanwhile, thousands of Jews fled Paris or went into hiding. By mid-1943, 60,000 Jews remained in the city. The Germans began deporting Jewish inhabitants of children's homes, homes for the aged, and the Rothschild Hospital. Even Jews with valid German work permits faced deportation. Early in 1944, the Germans also began the systematic deportation to Auschwitz-Birkenau of Jews with French citizenship.

Allied forces liberated Paris on August 25, 1944. Tens of thousands of Jews had fled Paris during the occupation and



hidden in the provinces or escaped to neutral Spain, Portugal, or Switzerland. More than 20,000 Jews had remained in hiding in Paris itself. At least 50,000, mostly foreign or stateless Jews, had been deported from Paris and killed.

Drancy Transit Camp

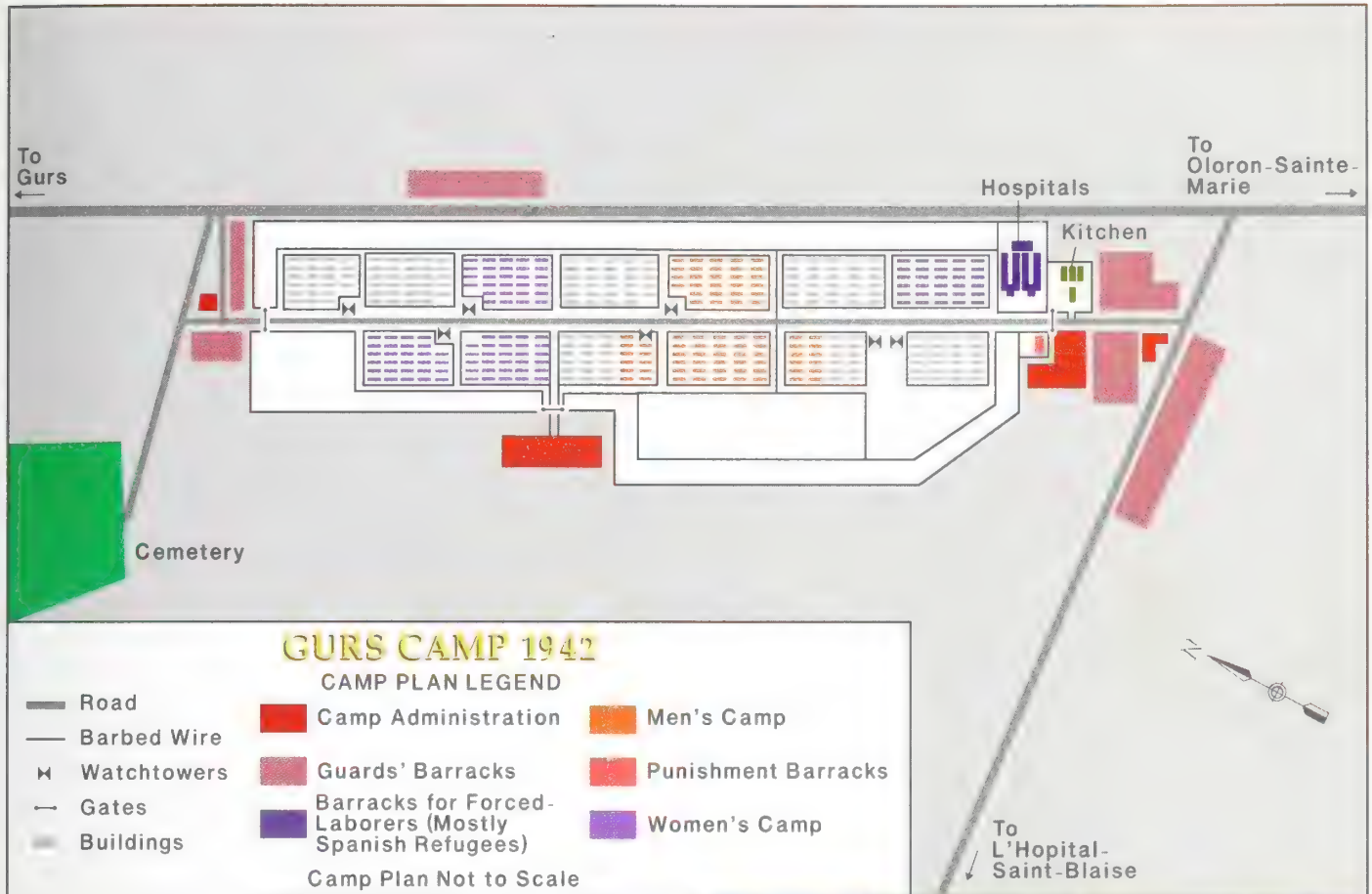
In August 1941, a transit camp was established in the northeastern Parisian suburb of Drancy, from which the camp took its name. The Germans initially used Drancy as an internment camp; it then became the major transit camp for the deportations of Jews from France. The camp was a multistory U-shaped building that had served as a police barracks for the city of Paris before the war. The entire building and the courtyard it enclosed were surrounded by barbed wire and guarded by French police. Until 1943, when the Germans took direct control of the camp, French officials staffed the camp under German SS supervision.

The Drancy camp could hold about 5,000 prisoners. Approximately 70,000 prisoners passed through the camp between 1941 and 1944. Five subcamps of Drancy were established in Paris: at the Austerlitz train station, the Hotel de Cahen d'Anvers, the Levitan furniture warehouse, the wharf

in Bercy, and the Rue de Faubourg. These were mostly warehouses for the storage of property confiscated from Jews before their deportation.

Systematic deportations from France began in March 1942, and ended in the summer of 1944; about 75,000 Jews were deported. The overwhelming majority of Jews deported from France were deported from the Drancy transit camp to the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center. In 1942, other transports left from Compiègne, Pithiviers, Beaune-la-Rolande, and the provincial town of Angers. All deportations from France in 1942 went to Auschwitz-Birkenau. In 1943, 17 transports left Drancy. Two left for Sobibor, two for both Majdanek and Sobibor, and the remaining 13 transports for Auschwitz-Birkenau. In 1944, 14 transports left Drancy. Eleven went to Auschwitz, one transport each went to the Bergen-Belsen and Buchenwald concentration camps, and one went to Kovno. In all, more than 65,000 Jews were deported to their deaths from Drancy.

In early August 1944, Allied forces reached Paris. In mid-August, when the Germans transferred the administration of Drancy to the Swedish Red Cross, only about 1,500 prisoners were still there.

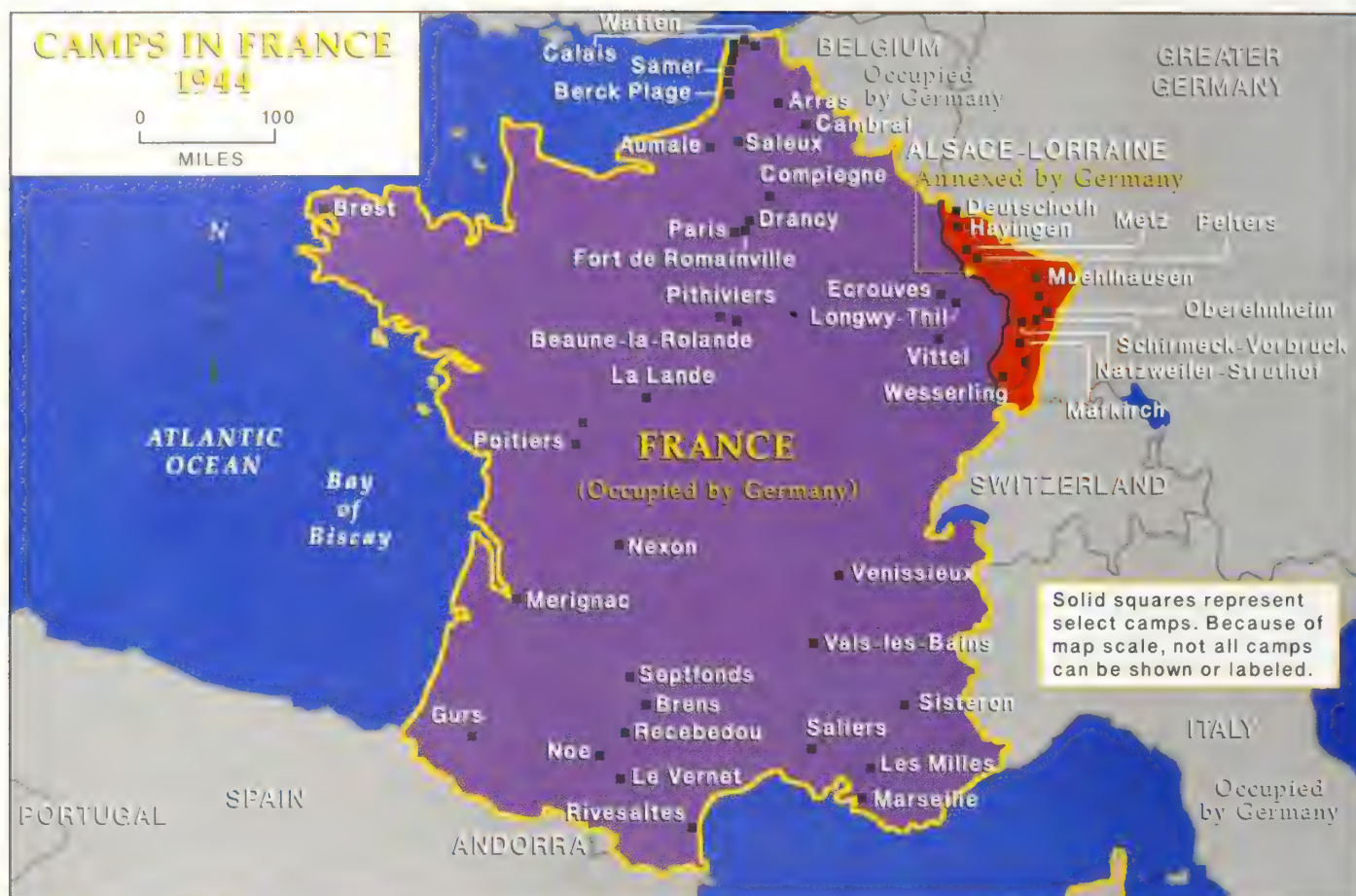


GURS INTERNMENT AND TRANSIT CAMP

The Gurs camp was one of the first and largest camps established in prewar France. It was located in the Basque region of southwestern France, just south of the village of Gurs. About 50 miles from the Spanish border, the camp was situated in the foothills of the Pyrenees Mountains northwest of Oloron-Sainte-Marie, along the road to Navarrenx.

The French government established the Gurs camp in April 1939, before war with Germany and well before the occupation of France in June 1940. Originally, Gurs served as an internment camp for Republican refugees and members of the International Brigade fleeing Spain after the victory of the Spanish nationalists under General Francisco Franco. The French government interned these refugees in Gurs and in similar Mediterranean internment camps. In early 1940, the French government also interned about 4,000 German Jewish refugees and many French leftist political leaders who opposed the war with Germany. After the French armistice with Germany in June 1940, Gurs became a Vichy internment camp. Conditions in the camp were very primitive. It was crowded and there was a constant shortage of fresh water, food, and clothing.





In October 1940, German authorities deported about 7,500 Jews from southwestern Germany across the border into the unoccupied zone of France. Vichy officials then interned most of them in Gurs. Between August 1942 and November 1943, Vichy authorities deported approximately 6,000 Jewish prisoners from Gurs, the majority of them directly to the Drancy transit camp outside Paris in northern France. From Drancy, they were deported to the killing centers in occupied Poland. Allied forces liberated Gurs in the summer of 1944.

THE CAMP SYSTEM IN FRANCE 1944

By 1944, Germany had expanded the number of forced-labor camps in France. The Germans assigned Jews to build military fortifications at sites along France's Atlantic coastline in preparation for an expected Allied amphibious invasion. These sites included Calais, Samer, Arras, Berck Plage, Watten, Cambrai, Saleux, and Pihen-les-Guines. Further, many camps were established as subcamps of the Natzweiler-Struthof concentration camp in Alsace. Among these were Hayling, Longwy-Thil, Deutschoth, Markkirch, Schwindratzheim, Sennheim, and Wesserling. Subcamps of Natzweiler-Struthof were also established near Metz and Muehlhausen.



NATZWEILER-STRUTHOF CONCENTRATION CAMP

The Germans established the Natzweiler-Struthof concentration camp near Natzweiler, about 31 miles southwest of Strasbourg, the capital of Alsace (in eastern France). It was one of the smaller concentration camps built by the Germans. Until construction was completed in May 1941, prisoners were housed in the nearby Hotel Struthof, hence the name Natzweiler-Struthof. The camp was designed to hold about 1,500 prisoners. Prisoners worked in nearby granite quarries, in construction projects, and in the maintenance of the camp.

Beginning in the summer of 1943, the Germans detained many "Night and Fog" prisoners in Natzweiler-Struthof. "Night and Fog" (Nacht und Nebel) referred to the German attempt to subdue growing anti-German resistance in western Europe. Suspected resistance fighters were arrested and their families were not notified; the prisoners simply disappeared into the "Night and Fog." Many of the prisoners in the Natzweiler-Struthof camp were members of the French Resistance.

In August 1943, a gas chamber was constructed in

Natzweiler-Struthof in one of the buildings that had formed part of the hotel compound. The bodies of more than 80 Jewish prisoners who were gassed at Natzweiler-Struthof were sent for study to the Strasbourg University Institute of Anatomy. The gas chamber was also used in pseudoscientific medical experiments involving poison gas. The victims of these experiments were primarily Roma (Gypsies) who had been transferred from Auschwitz. Prisoners were also used in experiments involving treatment for typhus and yellow fever.

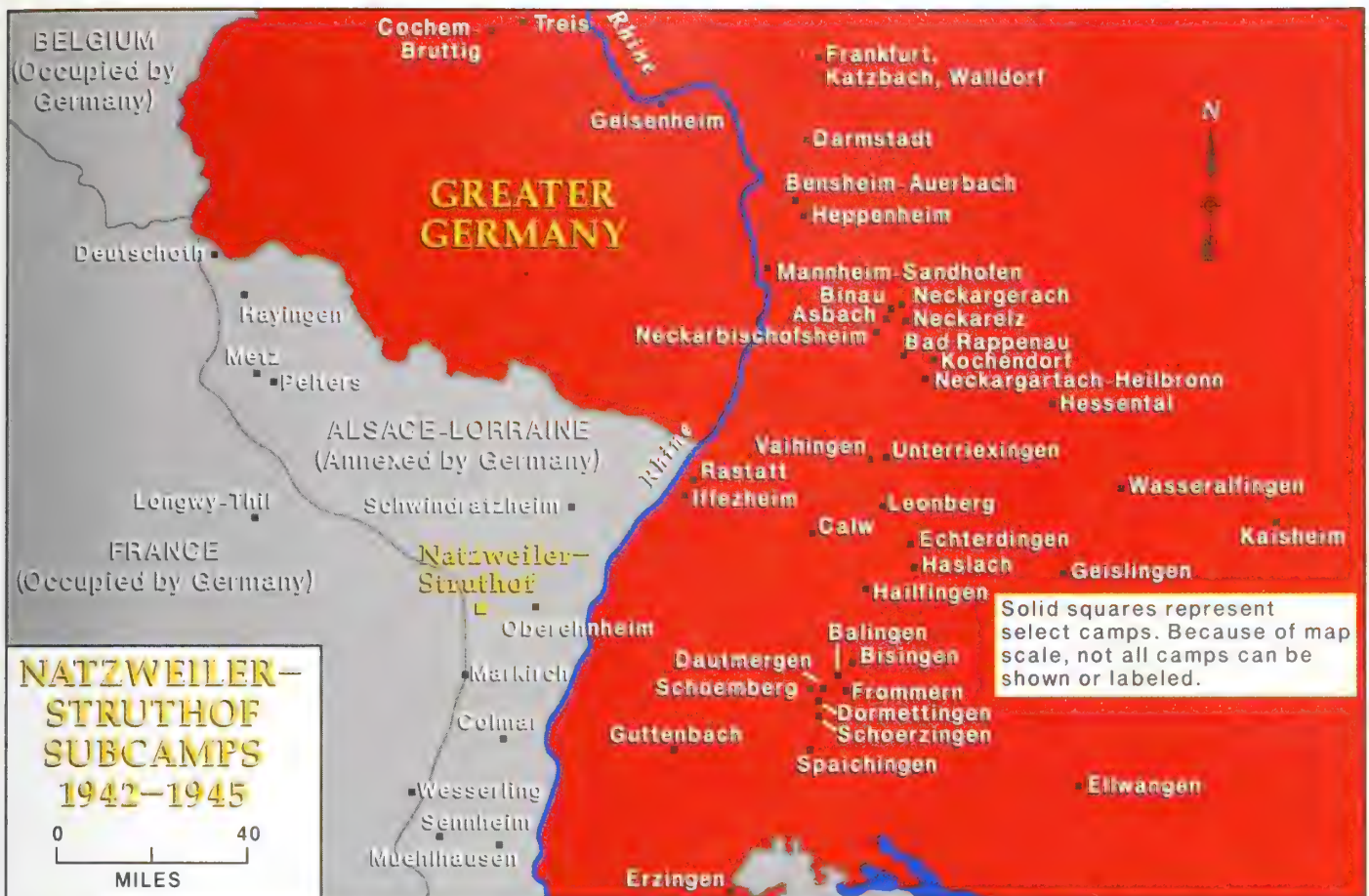
In 1944, concentration camp prisoners became increasingly important in German armaments production. The Germans used prisoners throughout the Natzweiler-Struthof camp system as forced laborers for the production of arms and the construction of underground manufacturing facilities. Allied air raids on industrial complexes necessitated the construction of such facilities.

There were about 50 subcamps in the Natzweiler-Struthof camp system, located mostly in Alsace and Lorraine and in the adjacent German provinces of Baden and Wuerttemberg. By the fall of 1944, there were about 7,000 prisoners in the main camp and more than 20,000 in subcamps.

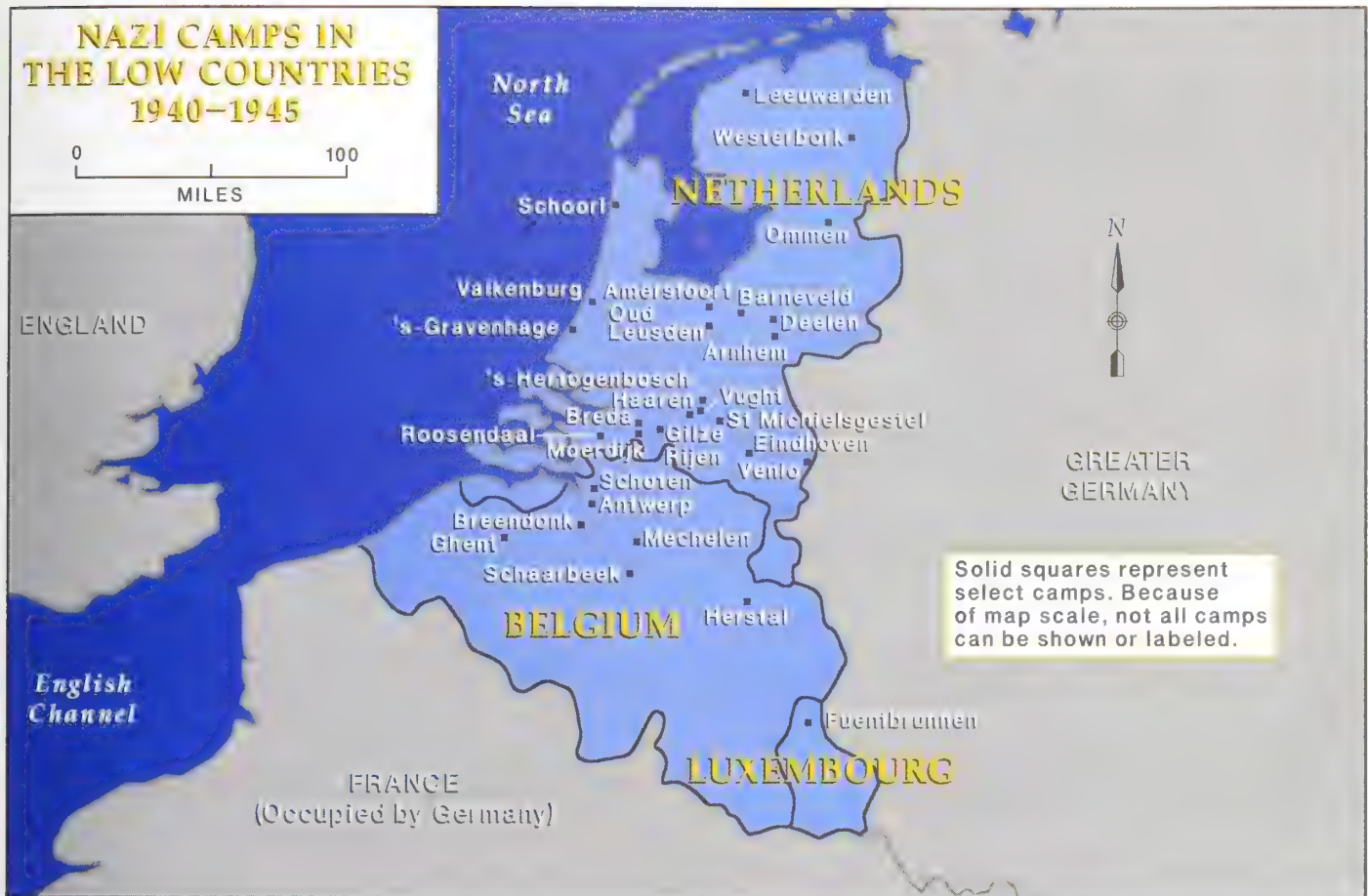


With the approach of Allied forces in September 1944, the main camp at Natzweiler-Struthof was evacuated and the prisoners distributed among the subcamps. In March 1945, the Germans evacuated the subcamps and sent most of the

prisoners on death marches—forced marches over long distances and under brutal conditions—toward the Dachau concentration camp in southern Germany. More than 17,000 people died in the Natzweiler-Struthof camp system.







THE DEPORTATION OF THE JEWS FROM THE LOW COUNTRIES

Germany invaded and occupied Luxembourg, Belgium, and the Netherlands—the Low Countries—in May 1940. In all three countries, the Germans instituted anti-Jewish laws and ordinances. They restricted the civil rights of Jews, confiscated their property and businesses, and banned them from certain professions. Jews were isolated from their fellow countrymen and forced to wear a yellow star on their clothing. Beginning in the summer of 1942, Jews in these countries faced deportation to the killing centers, mostly to Auschwitz-Birkenau.

LUXEMBOURG

After the German occupation in May 1940, the Grand Duchess of Luxembourg and her government fled to Great Britain. The Germans did not permit a native administration in Luxembourg and the country was instead administered directly by the German Reich. In August 1942, Germany formally annexed Luxembourg.

Before the war, more than 3,000 Jews lived in Luxembourg. More than 1,000 were foreign and stateless

Jews who had found refuge there after 1933. In 1941, Jews were interned in the Fuenfbrunnen camp near the city of Ulflingen in northern Luxembourg. This camp served as a transit camp for the deportation of the Jews. More than 1,000 Jews fled Luxembourg before the deportations began. Between 1941 and 1943, the remaining Jews were deported and Luxembourg was declared “free of Jews” (*judenfrei*). Some Jews survived, either in hiding or because they were married to non-Jews and exempted from the deportations. Almost 2,000 Jews from Luxembourg were killed in the camps.

BELGIUM

After the German invasion of Belgium in 1940, a Belgian government-in-exile that worked with the Allies was formed in London. King Leopold III, however, remained in Belgium during the German occupation. Thus, inside Belgium, a German military administration coexisted with a civilian Belgian administration.

Belgian Jews were rounded up, initially for forced labor. They worked primarily in the construction of military fortifications in northern France, and also in construction projects,



clothing and armaments factories, and stone quarries in Belgium.

The German administration was responsible for the deportation of the Jews in Belgium. Upon the German occupation, more than 65,000 Jews lived in Belgium, primarily in Antwerp and Brussels. The overwhelming majority of them were foreign and stateless Jews who had found refuge in Belgium after World War I. In the summer of 1940, some German Jews and political refugees were deported to camps in southern France, such as Gurs and St. Cyprien.

There was wide support in Belgium for resistance to German occupation. About 25,000 Jews avoided deportation by hiding from the German authorities. The Belgian civilian administration refused to cooperate in the deportations. The German military police (Feldgendarmarie) carried out the deportations largely without assistance from the Belgians. Between 1942 and 1944, more than 25,000 Jews from Belgium were deported to Auschwitz and killed. The

Breendonk and Mechelen camps served as collection centers for the deportations.

THE NETHERLANDS

In the Netherlands, a Dutch civilian administration continued to function, under German supervision, during the German occupation. However, Queen Wilhelmina and her government fled to Great Britain. German policy in the Netherlands was determined by a Nazi commissioner, Arthur Seyss-Inquart, who insisted on strict compliance with anti-Jewish measures. In January 1941, the Germans ordered all Jews to report for registration. More than 140,000 responded. In early 1942, the Germans sent more than 3,000 Jews to forced-labor camps in the Netherlands.

Deportations from the Netherlands began in 1942. The Germans required all Dutch Jews to move to Amsterdam, the country's largest city. Stateless and foreign Jews who had entered the Netherlands during the 1930s were sent to the Westerbork transit camp. Some Jews from the provinces were



concentrated in the Vught camp. In late June 1942, the Germans announced that Jews would be deported to labor camps in Germany. In reality, they were deported to the Auschwitz-Birkenau and Sobibor killing centers in occupied Poland.

The Dutch churches protested to the German occupation authorities. Public protests had little effect, however, since the Dutch civilian administration cooperated with the Germans. The Dutch police, with few exceptions, participated in roundups. Jews were concentrated in Westerbork and then deported to Auschwitz and also to Sobibor. In little more than two years, more than 100,000 Jews were deported; most were killed. Less than 25 percent of Dutch Jewry survived the war.

AMSTERDAM, THE NETHERLANDS

When the Germans occupied the Netherlands in May 1940, Amsterdam, the country's largest city, had a Jewish population of about 75,000. Nearly 10,000 were foreign Jews who had found refuge in Amsterdam in the 1930s.

In February 1941, the Germans arrested several hundred Jews and deported them first to Buchenwald and then to Mauthausen. Almost all of them were killed. The arrests and the brutal treatment shocked the city. In response, Communist activists organized a general strike on February 25. Major factories, the transportation system, and most public services came to a standstill in Amsterdam. The Germans brutally suppressed the strike after three days, crippling Dutch resistance organizations in the process. They also hardened their policies toward the Jews in the Netherlands.

In January 1942, the Germans ordered all Dutch Jews to relocate to Amsterdam. Within Amsterdam, Jews were restricted to certain fenced-off sections of the city. Foreign and stateless Jews were sent directly to the Westerbork transit camp. In July 1942, the Germans began mass deportations of Jews to the killing centers in occupied Poland, primarily to Auschwitz but also to Sobibor. The city administration, the Dutch municipal police, and Dutch railway workers all cooperated in the deportations. Jews were arrested in the

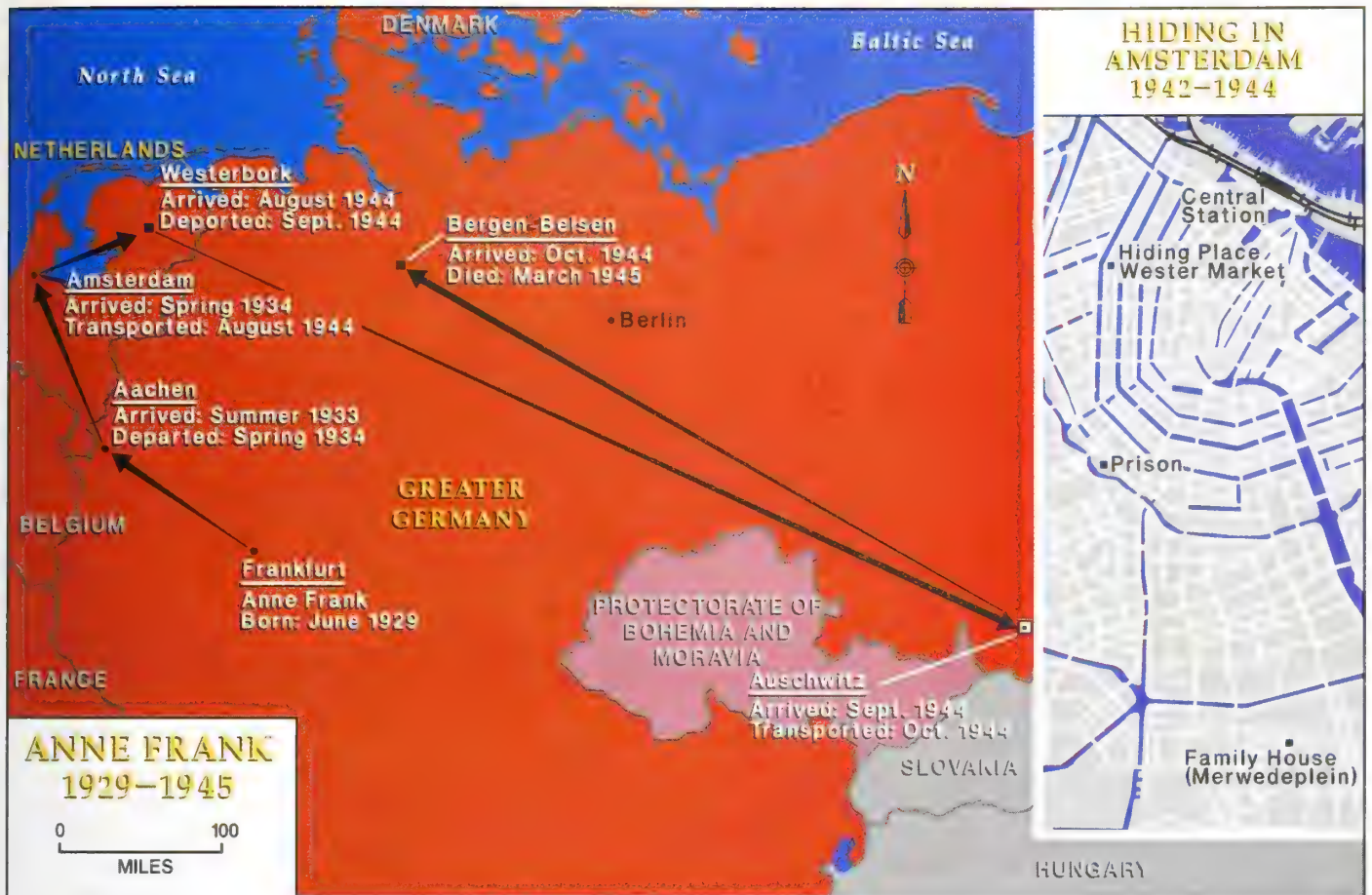


streets of Amsterdam and taken to the assembly point for deportations—the municipal theater building. When several hundred people were assembled in the building and in the back courtyard, they were transferred to Westerbork. In October 1942, the Germans transferred all Jews in forced-labor camps and their families to Westerbork. They were deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau within a few weeks.

In May 1943, 7,000 Jews, employees of the Jewish council in Amsterdam, were ordered to assemble in an Amsterdam city square for deportation. Only 500 people

complied. The Germans responded by sealing the Jewish quarter and rounding up Jews. From May through September 1943, the Germans launched raids to seize Jews in the city.

The Germans confiscated the property left behind by deported Jews. In 1942 alone the contents of nearly 10,000 apartments in Amsterdam were expropriated by the Germans and shipped to Germany. Some 25,000 Jews, including at least 4,500 children, went into hiding to evade deportation. About one-third of those in hiding were discovered, arrested, and deported.



ANNE FRANK

Anne Frank was one of the hundreds of thousands of Jewish children who died in the Holocaust. Born in Germany in 1929, she fled with her family to the Netherlands after the Nazi takeover of power in 1933.

The Germans occupied Amsterdam in May 1940. In July 1942, when Germany began the deportation of Jews from the Netherlands to the Auschwitz-Birkenau and Sobibor killing centers in occupied Poland, Anne and her family went into hiding with four other people. For two years, they lived in a secret attic apartment, constructed behind the office of the family-owned business at 263 Prinsengracht. Friends smuggled food and clothing to them, at great risk to their own lives. On August 4, 1944, they were discovered by the Gestapo.

The Franks were arrested and sent to the Westerbork transit

camp. They were deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau in September 1944. After a few weeks Anne and her sister, Margot, were transferred to the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp near Celle, in northern Germany. They died of typhus in March 1945, a month before the liberation of the camp. Anne's mother died in Auschwitz. Only Anne's father, Otto, survived the war. He was liberated at Auschwitz by Soviet forces in 1945.

While in hiding, Anne kept a diary in which she recorded her fears, hopes, and experiences. The diary was found in the secret apartment after the family was arrested and was kept for Anne by one of those who had helped hide the family. It was published after the war in many languages. Anne Frank has become a symbol for the lost promise of the children who died in the Holocaust.

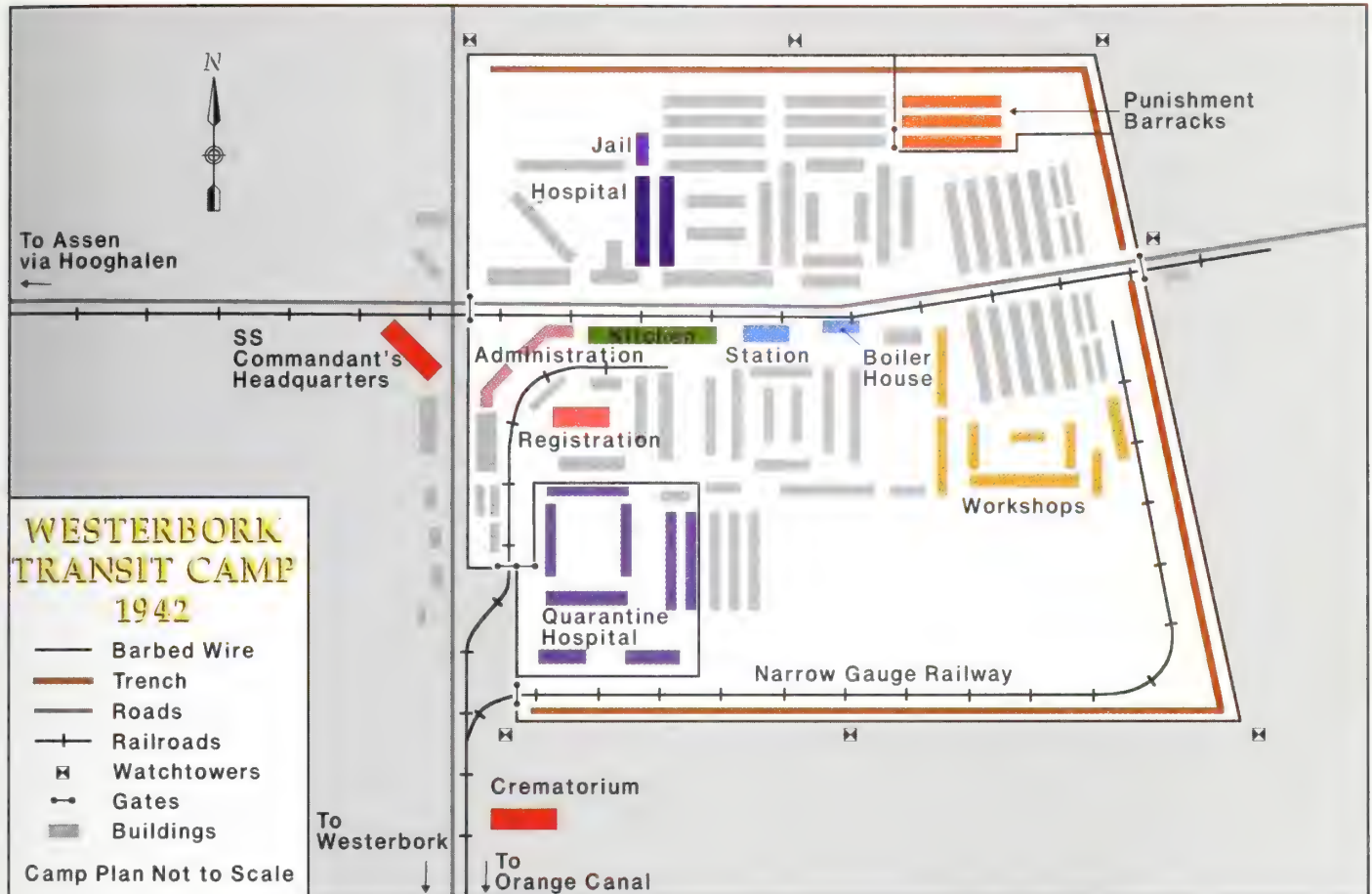


WESTERBORK TRANSIT CAMP, THE NETHERLANDS

The Westerbork camp was in the northeastern part of the Netherlands in the Dutch province of Drenthe, near the towns of Westerbork and Assen. The Dutch government established a camp at Westerbork in October 1939 to intern Jewish refugees who had entered the Netherlands illegally.

Germany invaded and occupied the Netherlands in May 1940. In early 1942, the German occupation authorities decided to enlarge Westerbork and convert it into a transit camp for Jews. The systematic concentration of Jews from the Netherlands in Westerbork began in July 1942. From Westerbork, they were deported to the killing centers in German-occupied Poland. The Germans deported more than 100,000 Jews from Westerbork: about 60,000 to Auschwitz, over 34,000 to Sobibor, almost 5,000 to the Theresienstadt ghetto, and nearly 4,000 to the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp. Most were killed.

The majority of Jews sent to Westerbork remained there only a short time before they were deported. However, Westerbork did have a resident population of Jews who worked in the camp and were thus exempt from deportation.



Many worked in the camp hospital, which was exceptionally large. Others worked in the camp administration, in the camp's workshops, in the fields and gardens, and in construction projects around the camp.

Dutch police guarded the camp, where conditions were relatively good. The Dutch provided the camp with supplies,

and the prisoners had adequate food, clothing, housing, and sanitary facilities.

In early April 1945, as Allied forces approached the camp, the Germans abandoned Westerbork. Fewer than 1,000 prisoners remained when Allied forces liberated the camp later that month.



MECHELEN TRANSIT CAMP, BELGIUM

In the summer of 1942, the Germans converted the Dossin military barracks in Mechelen (Malines), Belgium, into a transit camp in preparation for the deportation of Jews from Belgium. The Germans considered Mechelen an ideal location for a transit camp since it was situated about midway between the major Jewish population centers in Antwerp and Brussels and had good rail connections to the east. The camp was a single three-story building surrounded by barbed wire. It was located in a populated area of the town, near the Dijle River, and was connected to a rail line.

In late July 1942, the Germans ordered Jews to report to Mechelen, ostensibly to be sent to work camps in Germany. In reality they were to be deported to Auschwitz. Few Jews voluntarily reported to the camp. The Germans then began to arrest Jews throughout Belgium and intern them in Mechelen.

Between August and December 1942, two transports with about 1,000 Jews each left the camp every week for the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center. Between August 1942 and July 1944, 28 trains carrying more than 25,000 Jews were deported from Belgium via Mechelen, mostly to Auschwitz. Several transports of Roma (Gypsies) were also

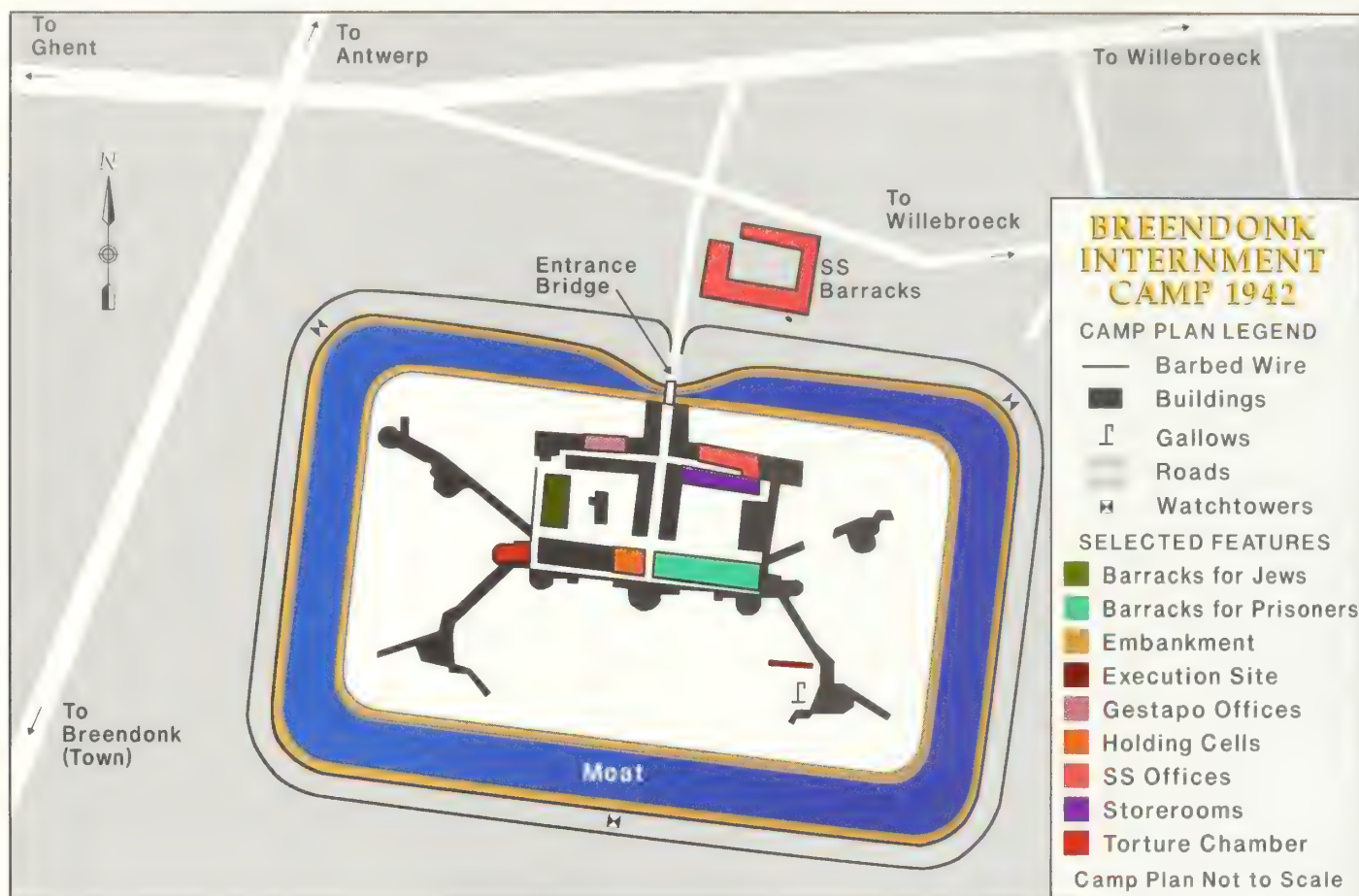


deported from Mechelen to Auschwitz.

The arrests of Jews and the beginning of deportations met with increasing resistance in Belgium. In 1942, the Jewish underground destroyed the registry of Belgian Jews, hindering their deportation. There were many escapes from the trains and in mid-April 1943, the Jewish underground, together with the Belgian resistance, derailed a train carrying

Jews from the Mechelen camp to Auschwitz. Most of the Jews on that transport were later deported. Thousands of Jews went into hiding or fled Belgium to neutral Switzerland or to Spain and Portugal via the unoccupied zone in southern France.

As Allied forces approached in 1944, the Germans closed the Mechelen camp.



BREENDONK INTERNMENT CAMP, BELGIUM

The Breendonk internment camp was originally a Belgian fortress built in the beginning of the twentieth century along the Antwerp-Brussels highway. It was one in a chain of fortresses constructed to defend Belgium against German attack. The fortress was near the town of the same name, about 12 miles southwest of Antwerp. It was surrounded by high walls and a water-filled moat, and measured 656 by 984 feet. In August 1940, the Germans, who had occupied Belgium in May 1940, turned the fortress into a detention camp.

Fewer than 4,000 prisoners were confined in Breendonk.

Most of the non-Jewish prisoners were members of the Belgian resistance or were held as hostages by the Germans. Approximately 800 people were killed in the camp.

Jewish prisoners in Breendonk were segregated from other prisoners until 1942. Thereafter, they were transferred to the Mechelen transit camp or deported to the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center.

With Allied forces approaching the camp, the Germans evacuated Breendonk in August 1944. The remaining prisoners were transferred to the Mechelen camp and then to camps in Germany.

SECTION 5

THE HOLOCAUST IN CENTRAL EUROPE





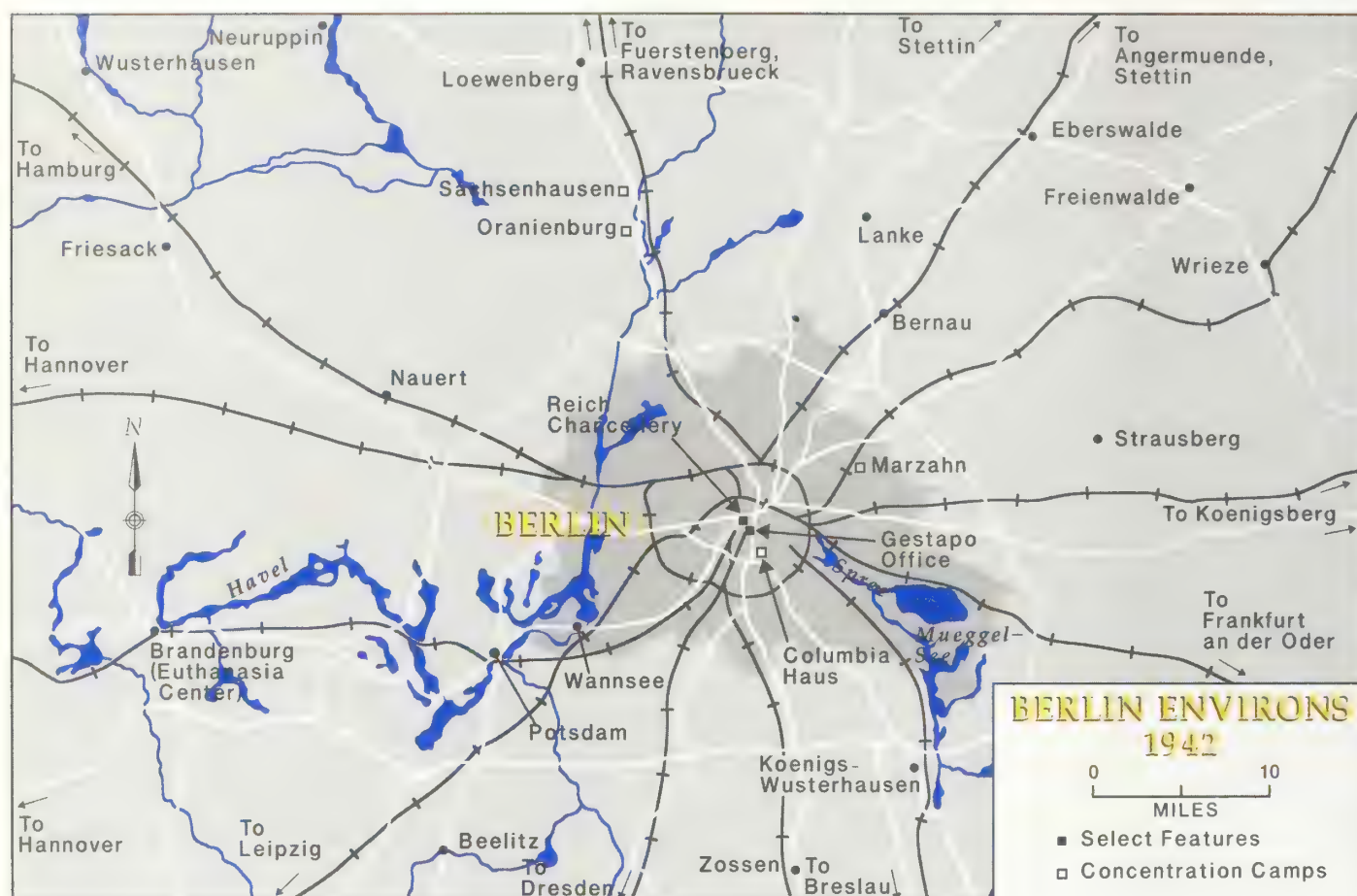
DEPORTATION OF JEWS FROM GERMANY

According to the *American Jewish Yearbook*, approximately 432,000 Jews emigrated from Greater Germany (Germany, Austria, and the Sudetenland) between 1933 and 1940. Still, over 200,000 Jews remained in Germany at the start of World War II. During the war, Jews in Germany, as in all areas of German-occupied Europe, were deported and killed as part of the "Final Solution."

In the early years of the war, new legislative restrictions were imposed on those Jews remaining in Germany. Jews became subject to a strict curfew and were excluded from certain areas of the cities in which they lived. Once food rationing was instituted, Jews received reduced rations and were forbidden to buy certain foods. Jews were ordered to turn in to the police their radios, electrical appliances, bicycles, and cars. As of September 1941, Jews were forbidden to use public transportation and all Jews over the age of six were ordered to wear yellow stars. While ghettos were generally not established in Germany, strict residence ordinances forced Jews into certain areas of German cities, concentrating them in "Jewish buildings."

The first deportations of Jews from Germany took place in February 1940 as part of the Nisko and Lublin Plan, which called for a Jewish reservation in the Lublin region of the Generalgouvernement. This plan failed since the town of Nisko was not fully equipped for a camp and German officials in the Generalgouvernement complained that there were so many Jews in Poland that it was impossible to absorb still more from Germany. In October 1940, local German officials in southwestern Germany deported 7,500 Jews to France. Most were interned in the Gurs camp.

Systematic deportations of Jews from Germany began in late September 1941, even before the killing centers were established in occupied Poland. Between October and December 1941, nearly 50,000 Jews were deported from Germany, mostly to the Lodz and Warsaw ghettos (Poland), the Minsk ghetto (Belorussia), the Kovno ghetto (Lithuania), and the Riga ghetto (Latvia). German Jews sent to Lodz and Warsaw were later deported along with Polish Jews to the extermination camps at Chelmno and Treblinka.



Some Jews deported from Germany to ghettos in the Baltic states and Belorussia were shot, shortly after arrival, by Einsatzgruppen. Jews surviving the initial slaughter were enclosed in special “German sections” of eastern ghettos, where they were segregated from local Jews. Such sections were established, for example, in Riga and Minsk. Most of the Jews from Germany were killed during the destruction of these ghettos. In 1942 and 1943, most of the Jews remaining in Germany were deported directly to the extermination camps, mainly Auschwitz-Birkenau.

Elderly or prominent Jews from Germany, Austria, and western Europe, as well as Jews from the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia, were deported to the Theresienstadt ghetto. For most Jews, deportation to Theresienstadt preceded deportation to the east. Jews were routinely deported from Theresienstadt to ghettos in Poland and the Baltic states, and also directly to the killing centers in occupied Poland. Tens of thousands also died in the Theresienstadt ghetto itself, mostly from starvation or during epidemics.

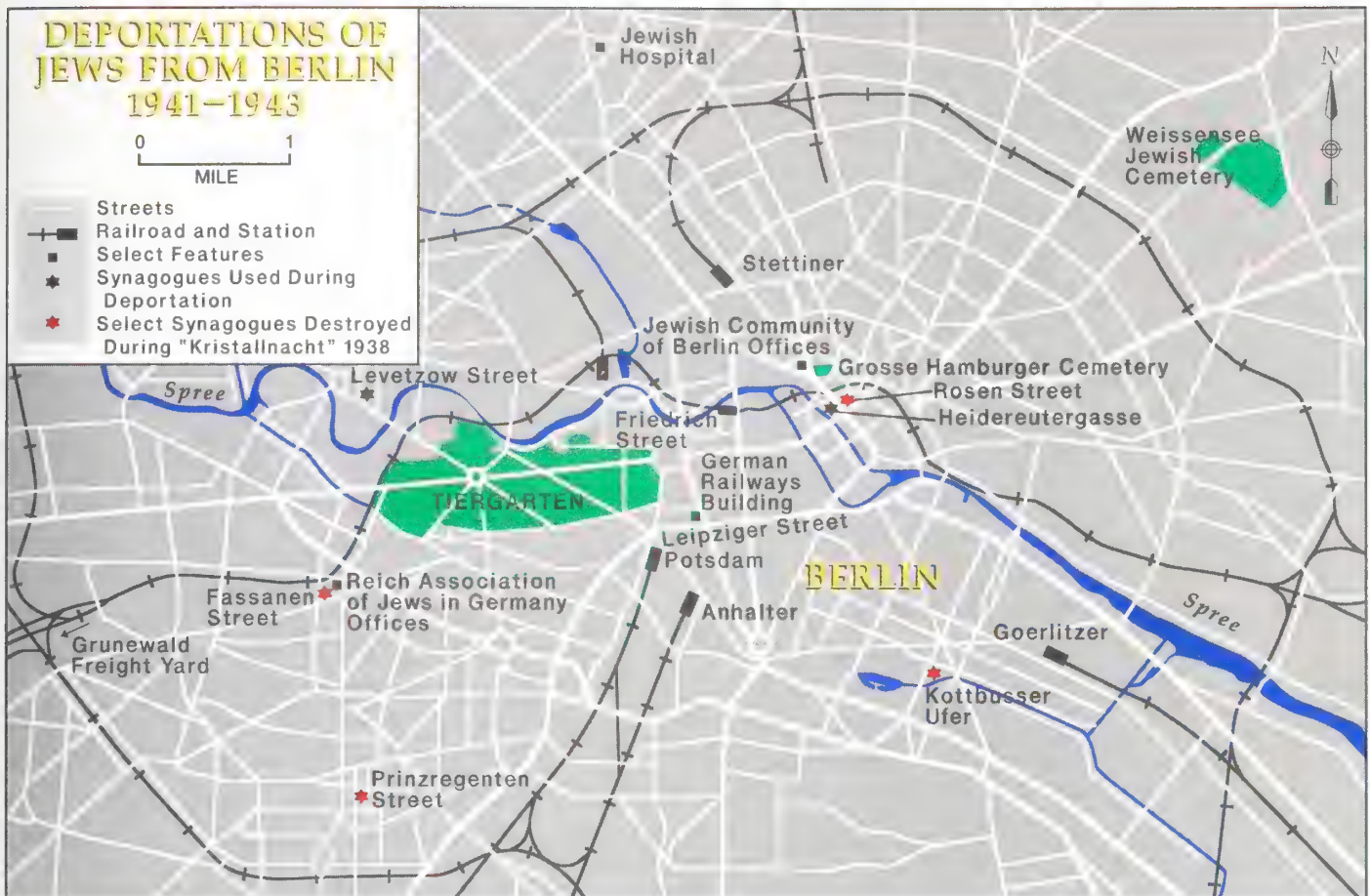
Only about 15,000 Jews remained in Germany and about 7,000 in Austria after the mass deportations ended in early 1943. Almost all the Jews deported from Germany were

killed. Most of the remaining Jews were married to non-Jews or were classified as part Jews and were thus exempt from deportation until 1944-1945. Thousands of Jews remained in hiding.

THE DEPORTATIONS OF JEWS FROM BERLIN

According to the census of June 16, 1933, the Jewish population of Berlin, Germany’s capital city, was about 160,000. Berlin’s Jewish community was the largest in Germany, comprising more than 32 percent of all Jews in the country. In the face of Nazi persecution, many Jews emigrated from Berlin. Berlin’s Jewish population fell to about 80,000 people as a result of emigration from Nazi Germany between 1933 and 1939, despite the movement of other German Jews to Berlin.

Like the Jews of Germany as a whole, the Jews of Berlin faced persecution and discrimination after 1933. In April 1933, Jewish stores and businesses were boycotted and most Jewish civil servants and professionals were summarily fired or pensioned. In May 1933, “un-German” books—those written by Jews, liberals, and leftists, among others—were publicly burned in front of the opera house.



During "Kristallnacht," the "Night of Broken Glass" pogrom on November 9-10, 1938, most of Berlin's synagogues were burned down and Jewish-owned stores and homes were looted and vandalized. The shattering of shop windows, especially along Leipziger Street, gave the pogrom its name. Dozens of Jews were killed and thousands were arrested and taken to concentration camps, particularly to Sachsenhausen.

Deportations of Jews from Berlin to ghettos and extermination camps in eastern Europe took place between October 1941 and April 1943. Assembly points for the deportations were established at synagogues on Levetzow Street and Heidereutergasse, at the Jewish cemetery on Grosse Hamburger Street, and on Rosen Street. Later, even the Jewish home for the aged, the community office building, and the Jewish hospital were used as assembly centers. After enough Jews for an entire transport (usually 1,000 people) had been assembled in these makeshift centers, they were taken to the rail station—usually the freight yards at Grunewald, sometimes the Anhalter or Putlitz Street train stations. They were then loaded onto passenger rail cars, or sometimes onto freight cars.

The first deportation of Jews from Berlin occurred in October 1941, when 1,000 Jews were transported to the Lodz ghetto in Poland. By January 1942, about 10,000 Jews had been deported from Berlin to ghettos in eastern Europe, mainly Lodz, Riga, Minsk, and Kovno. Elderly Jews from Berlin were deported to Theresienstadt in 1942 and 1943. Beginning in 1942, Jews were also deported from Berlin directly to the killing centers, primarily to Auschwitz-Birkenau. In 1943, most of the staff of the Reich Association of Jews in Germany, the central Jewish representative organization, was deported to Theresienstadt. All Jewish organizations and offices were disbanded. The majority of the remaining Jews in Berlin were deported by the end of April 1943.

More than 60,000 Jews were deported from Berlin: more than 10,000 to the ghettos in eastern Europe, about 15,000 to Theresienstadt, and more than 35,000 to the killing centers in occupied Poland. Hundreds of Jews committed suicide rather than submit to the deportations. Thousands of Jews remained in Berlin, mostly those who had gone into hiding and also part-Jews and Jews with a non-Jewish spouse, who were initially excluded from deportation.



Almost all of those deported were killed.

A center of Jewish life in Germany, Berlin was, as the capital of the Reich, also the center for the planning of the "Final Solution," the Nazi plan to kill the Jews of Europe. The Wannsee Conference, named for the resort district in southwest Berlin where it was held, took place in January 1942. Officials from the Nazi party, the SS, and the German state met to coordinate and finalize the "solution to the Jewish problem." At the conference, these officials were informed that the SS would be responsible for carrying out the "Final Solution," and that the Jews of Europe would be deported to occupied Poland and killed.

The city of Berlin surrendered to Soviet forces in early May 1945. Germany surrendered unconditionally to Allied forces on May 7, ending the "thousand-year Reich" after 12 bloody years.

THE DEPORTATION OF THE JEWS OF VIENNA

In 1936, the Jewish population of Vienna, the capital of Austria, was about 175,000, or about 9 percent of the city's population. Vienna had by far the largest Jewish community in Austria and was an important center of Zionism, Jewish

culture, and education. Jews also played an important role in the economic and cultural life of Austria.

Following the German incorporation of Austria (the "Anschluss") in March 1938, the Germans quickly extended Nazi anti-Jewish legislation to Austria. They expelled Jews from the country's economic, cultural, and social life. The Jewish community offices were closed and its board members sent to the Dachau concentration camp. By the summer of 1939, the Property Transfer Office had overseen the closure or confiscation of hundreds of Jewish-owned factories and thousands of businesses.

Over a hundred thousand Jews fled Austria after its incorporation and Vienna became a focal point of Jewish emigration from Austria. Those seeking exit visas and other documentation necessary for emigration were required to stand in long lines, night and day, in front of municipal, police, and passport offices. All emigrants were forced to pay an exit fee and their property was confiscated. The Central Office for Jewish Emigration, headed by the SS officer Adolf Eichmann, was established to accelerate Jewish emigration.

The November 1938 "Kristallnacht" pogrom was particularly brutal in Vienna. Most of the city's synagogues and



small prayerhouses were destroyed, burned out in full view of the fire departments and the public. Thousands of Jews were arrested and deported to the Dachau or Buchenwald concentration camps. Eichmann permitted their release only if they were able to produce documentation of their imminent emigration.

During the war, German policy regarding the Jewish population shifted from one of expropriation and Jewish emigration to forced deportation. Systematic mass deportations from Vienna began in October 1941. The Nazis established centers where Jews were to be assembled before their deportation. About 35,000 Jews were deported from Vienna to ghettos in eastern Europe, mostly to Minsk, Riga, Izbica, and Lodz, and to ghettos in the Lublin region of Poland. Most Jews sent to Minsk and Riga were shot by Einsatzgruppen detachments shortly after their arrival. Over 15,000 Viennese Jews were deported to Theresienstadt. Thousands of Jews were also sent to concentration camps in Germany. By November 1942 only about 7,000 Jews remained in Austria, most of whom were married to non-Jews. Some Jews remained in hiding.

In July 1944, more than 10,000 Hungarian Jews were



deported to Vienna. They arrived at the Strasshof railway station and were incarcerated in a nearby camp, where they were used for forced labor. Several of the forced-labor camps in Vienna were under the administration of the Mauthausen concentration camp.

Soviet forces liberated Vienna on April 13, 1945.

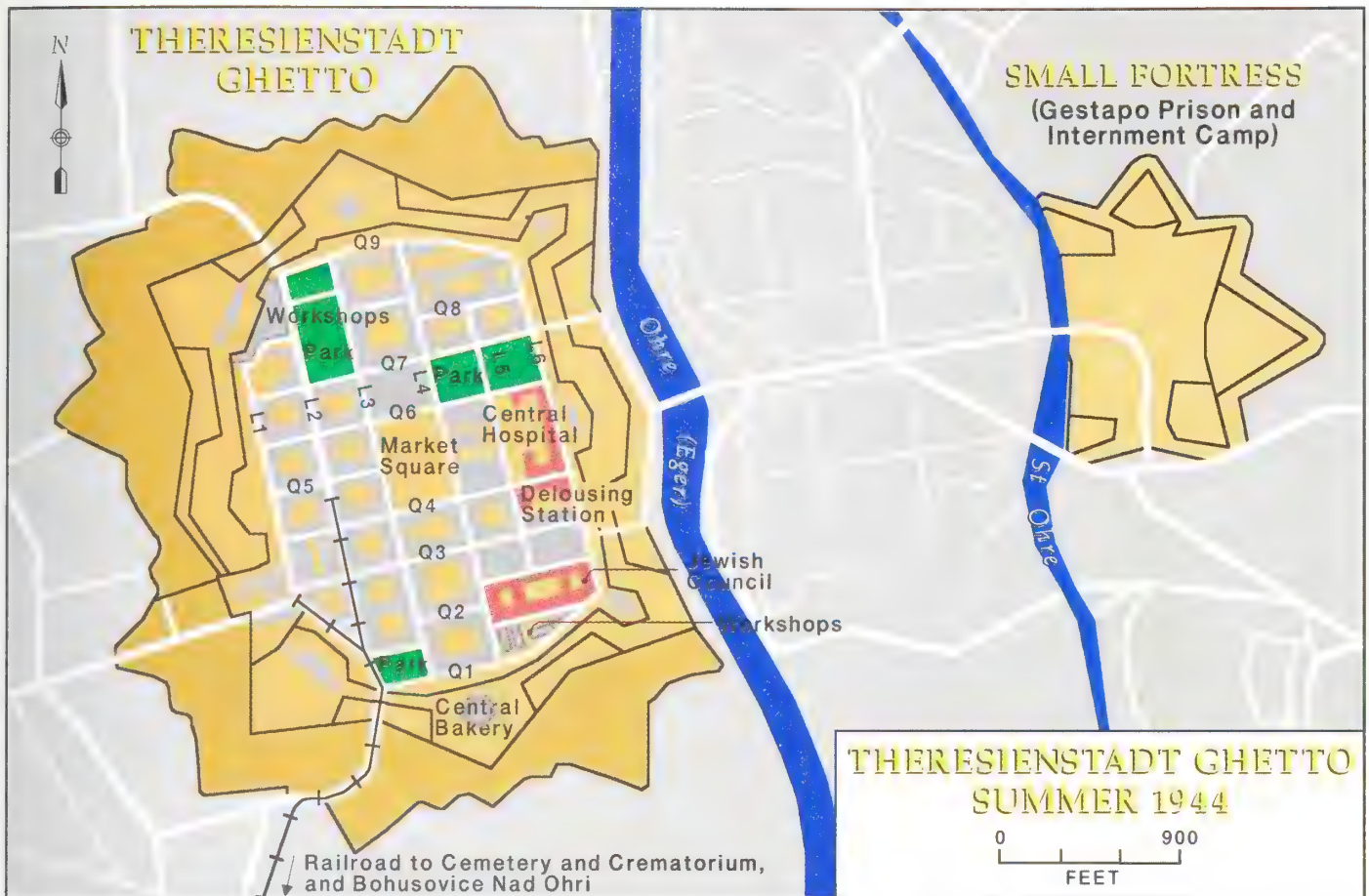
THERESIENSTADT

The fortress town of Terezin, located northwest of Prague, was established in the late eighteenth century by Joseph II, emperor of the Austrian empire. He named the town for his mother, the empress Maria Theresa. The town was built in the shape of a star and was surrounded with high walls. It consisted mainly of barracks, armories, and subterranean storerooms. After World War I, the Austrian empire was dissolved and several independent states formed, including Austria, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia. Terezin became part of Czechoslovakia. Following the 1939 partition of Czechoslovakia, the town was in the German Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia.

In November 1941, the Germans established the Theresienstadt ghetto in the old fortress town. The “small

fortress” located to the northeast of the town served as an internment camp and Gestapo prison for political prisoners, members of the resistance, and some Jews from the ghetto. The ghetto was administered by the Germans and guarded by Czech police. Tens of thousands of Jews from the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia were deported there. The majority of the Jews came from Prague as well as from Brno, Moravska Ostrava, Olomouc, and other towns of the Protectorate. In addition, tens of thousands of Jews from Germany and Austria—mostly elderly Jews and Jewish veterans of World War I—as well as Jews from Denmark, the Netherlands, Hungary, Slovakia, and Poland, were deported there.

Theresienstadt served an important propaganda function for the Germans. The publicly stated purpose for the deportation of the Jews from Germany was their “resettlement to the east,” where they would be employed in forced-labor projects. Since it would not seem plausible that elderly Jews were to be used for forced labor, the Nazis used the Theresienstadt ghetto to hide the nature of the deportations. In Nazi propaganda, Theresienstadt was a “retirement” ghetto where elderly German Jews could “retire” in safety. The deportations to Theresienstadt were, however, a cover



and the ghetto was in reality a collection center for deportations to locations further east.

Beginning in 1942, Jews from Theresienstadt were deported to the ghettos and killing centers in eastern Europe. Upon their arrival in the ghettos of Riga, Warsaw, Lodz, Minsk, and Bialystok, they were either massacred by German security police or deported along with other Jews to the extermination camps. Transports also left Theresienstadt directly for the Auschwitz, Treblinka, and Majdanek camps. In the ghetto itself, tens of thousands of people died, mostly from disease or starvation. In 1942, the death rate was so high that a crematorium capable of handling almost 200 bodies a day was built south of the ghetto.

As part of the attempt to use the Theresienstadt ghetto as a model ghetto for propaganda purposes, and to mask

German killing operations in the occupied eastern territories, the Germans permitted a visit by the International Red Cross in June 1944. But it was all an elaborate hoax. The Germans intensified deportations from the ghetto shortly before the visit, and the ghetto itself was spruced up. Gardens were planted, houses painted, and new barracks built. Social and cultural events were staged for the visiting dignitaries. Once the visit was over, the deportations resumed.

Toward the end of the war, thousands of concentration camp prisoners were evacuated to Theresienstadt as the Germans attempted to keep large numbers of camp inmates out of Allied hands.

In early May 1945, the Nazis turned the administration of the ghetto over to the International Red Cross. On May 8, 1945, Soviet forces entered Theresienstadt.

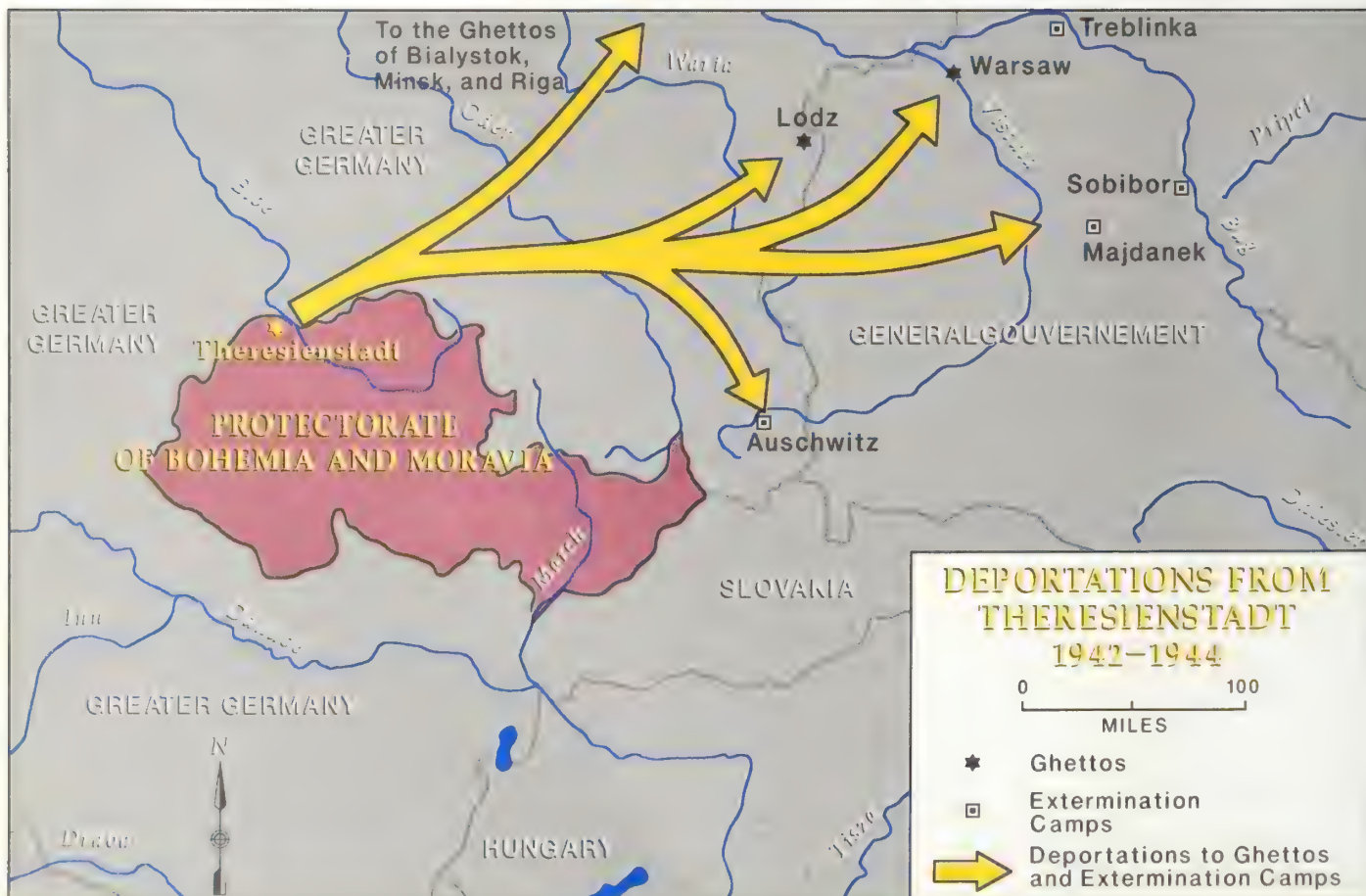
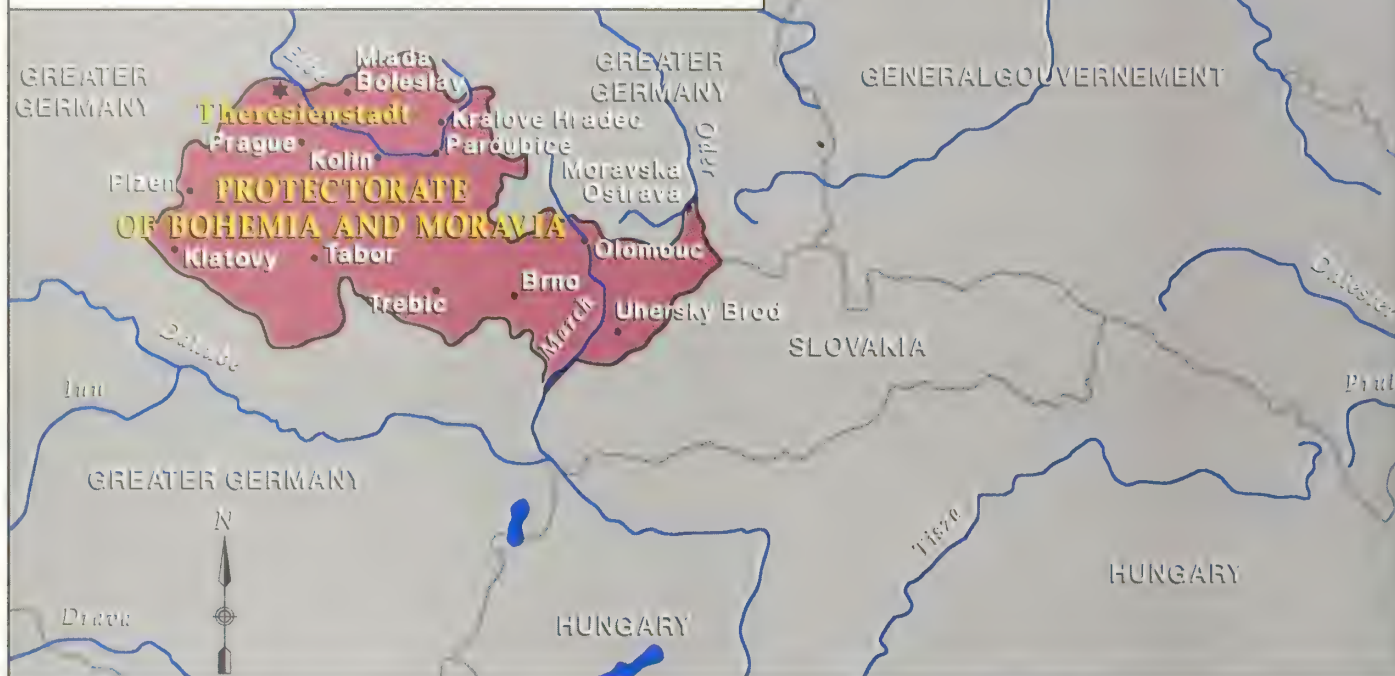
DEPORTATIONS TO THERESIENSTADT FROM BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA 1941

0 100

MILES

Select Places from which Jews were Deported to Theresienstadt

• Cities ★ Ghetto

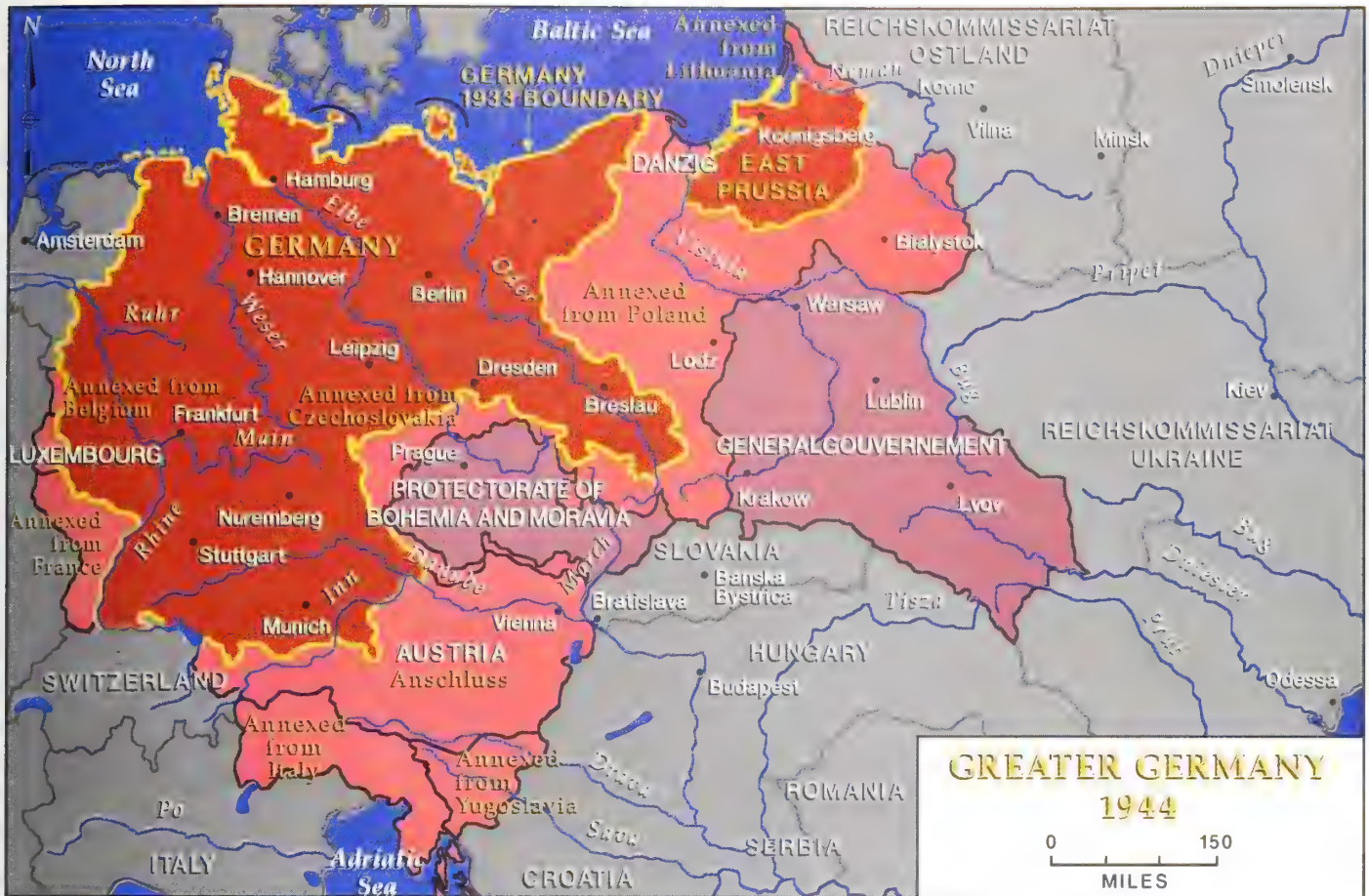


DEPORTATIONS FROM THERESIENSTADT 1942-1944

0 100

MILES

★ Ghettos
 □ Extermination Camps
 → Deportations to Ghettos and Extermination Camps



GREATER GERMANY 1944

Between 1938 and 1944, Germany annexed or incorporated vast tracts of territory from its neighbors. Before the war, Germany incorporated Austria, the Sudetenland (from Czechoslovakia), and the Memel territory (from Lithuania), and established a Protectorate over the Czech provinces of Bohemia and Moravia.

During the war, the expansion of German territory increased dramatically, keeping pace with German military victories. After the defeat of Poland in the fall of 1939, Germany annexed most of western Poland and the Danzig district. Central and southern Poland were organized into the Generalgouvernement (General Government) of Poland. After the invasion of the Soviet Union in 1941, the region around the city of Bialystok became a separate district under German civilian administration.

Germany defeated France in June 1940, occupying the Low Countries and most of northern France. Further, Germany seized the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine from

France, and Eupen and Malmedy from Belgium, incorporating them under a German civilian administration. In 1942, Germany officially annexed Luxembourg, despite that country's vigorous resistance.

Following the German invasion and the partition of Yugoslavia in the spring of 1941, Germany annexed part of northern Slovenia. After the Italian armistice with the Allies in 1943 and the subsequent German occupation of Italian-held areas, Germany incorporated southern Slovenia and a strip of territory along the Dalmatian coast. German forces also moved into northern Italy, engaging Allied forces south of Rome. The Tyrol and Trieste areas of northern Italy were also incorporated into Germany.

In early 1944, Greater Germany was at its largest. However, Allied military victory would soon reverse these gains. With the unconditional surrender of Germany in early May 1945, the Allies nullified all German territorial annexations. The Allies reduced, occupied, and partitioned Germany in 1945.





CONCENTRATION CAMP SYSTEM 1939-1945

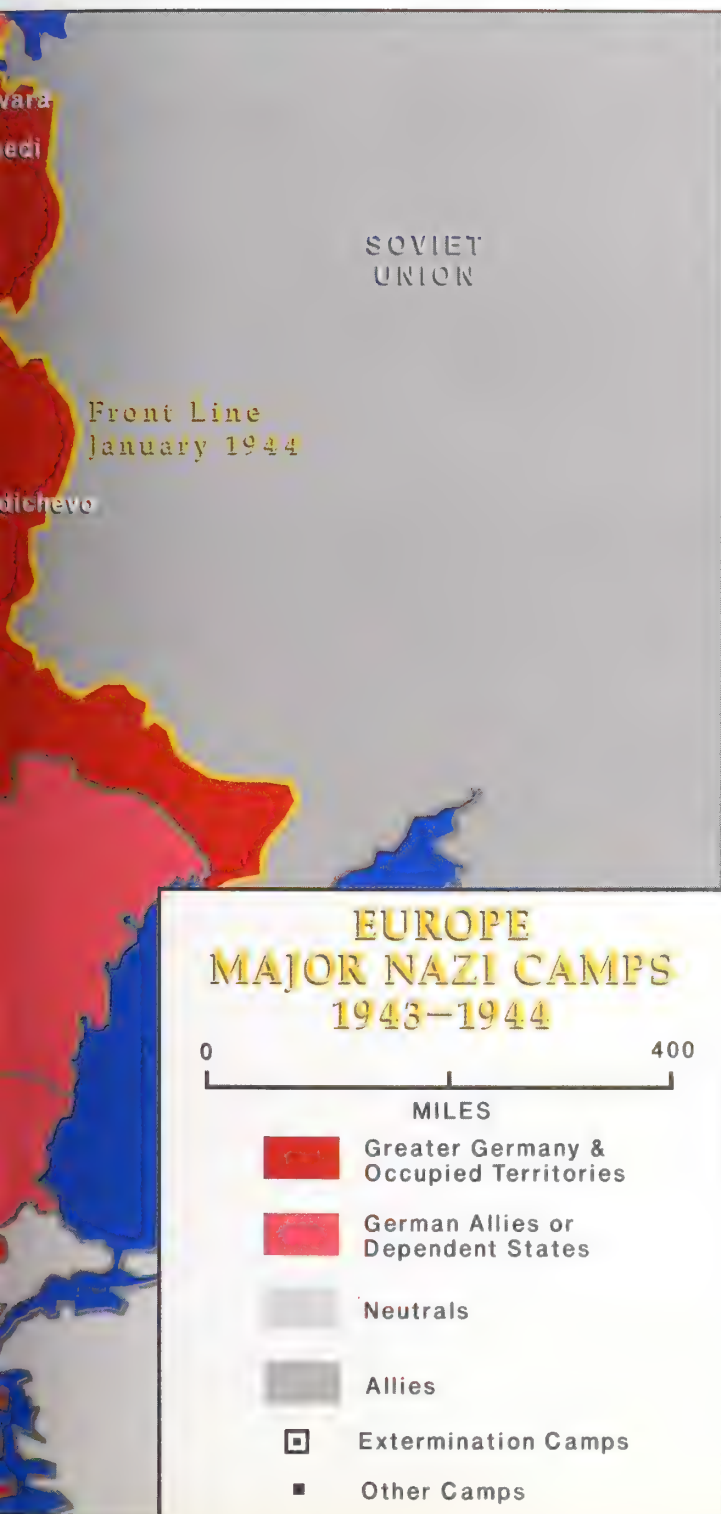
The Third Reich was a police state characterized by arbitrary arrests, the incarceration of people in concentration camps, and, during the war, systematic genocide. The Germans imprisoned people in concentration camps without regard for the accepted norms of legal procedure. They killed others outright, according to criteria established by Nazi racial and ideological doctrine.

The Nazi camp system began as one of repression against political adversaries of the Nazi state. In the early years of the Third Reich, the Nazis imprisoned primarily Communists and Socialists in concentration camps. In about 1935, the regime also began to imprison those whom it designated as racially or biologically inferior, especially Jews. During the war, the organization and scale of the Nazi camp system expanded rapidly and the purpose of the camps evolved beyond incarceration toward forced labor and outright murder.

Throughout German-occupied Europe, the Germans arrested those who resisted their domination and those they judged to be racially inferior or politically unacceptable. People arrested for resisting German rule were mostly sent to forced-labor or concentration camps. The war brought unprecedented growth in both the number of camps and the number of prisoners incarcerated in such camps. New concentration camps were established, including Stutthof, Auschwitz, Gross-Rosen, Plaszow, Dora-Mittelbau, Neuengamme, and Natzweiler-Struthof. Within three years the number of prisoners quadrupled, from about 25,000 before the war to about 100,000 in March 1942. The camp population came to include prisoners from almost every European nation.

The Germans deported Jews from all over occupied Europe to extermination camps in Poland, where they were systematically killed, and also to concentration camps, where they were drafted for forced labor—"extermination through work." Several hundred thousand Roma (Gypsies) and Soviet prisoners of war were also systematically murdered. Chelmino, constructed in December 1941, was the first killing center established. The Belzec, Sobibor, Treblinka, Auschwitz-Birkenau, and Majdanek camps were later added to the system





of mass murder. Transit camps such as Westerbork, Gurs, Mechelen, and Drancy in western Europe and concentration camps like Bolzano and Fossoli di Carpi in Italy were used as collection centers for Jews, who were then deported by rail to the extermination camps.

Labor shortages in the German war economy became critical after German defeat in the battle of Stalingrad in 1942-1943. This led to the increased use of concentration camp prisoners as forced laborers in German armaments industries. Especially in 1943 and 1944, hundreds of subcamps were established in or near industrial plants. Subcamps were administered by the major camps, which supplied them with the required number of prisoners. Camps such as Auschwitz in Poland, Buchenwald in central Germany, Gross-Rosen in eastern Germany, Natzweiler-Struthof in eastern France, Ravensbrueck near Berlin, and Stutthof near Danzig on the Baltic coast became administrative centers of huge networks of subsidiary forced-labor camps. In addition to SS-owned enterprises (the German Armament Works, for example), private German firms—such as Messerschmidt, Junkers, Siemens, and I.G. Farben—increasingly relied on forced laborers to boost war production. Many of their factories became subcamps of the major concentration camps. One of the most infamous of these was Auschwitz III, or Monowitz, which supplied forced laborers to a synthetic rubber plant owned by I.G. Farben. Prisoners in all the concentration camps were literally worked to death.

According to SS reports, there were more than 700,000 prisoners registered in the concentration camps in January 1945.



ROMA (GYPSIES)

Roma (Gypsies) were among the groups singled out on racial grounds for persecution by the Nazi regime and most of its allies. Judged to be “racially inferior,” Roma were subjected to internment, deportation, and forced labor, and were sent to extermination camps. The fate of the Roma closely paralleled that of the Jews. The Nazis incarcerated thousands of Roma in the Bergen-Belsen, Sachsenhausen, Buchenwald, Dachau, Mauthausen, and Ravensbrueck concentration camps in Germany. Many Roma were interned and killed by the Ustasa (Croatian fascists) at the Jasenovac concentration camp in Croatia.

Between 1940 and 1945, when the camp was liberated, at least 23,000 Roma were registered as inmates of Auschwitz-Birkenau. A special compound was built there to house Romani (Gypsy) prisoners, who continued to live together as

families. In the summer of 1944, the Germans closed the “Gypsy family camp” in Auschwitz-Birkenau. About 3,000 Roma were selected for forced labor. The remaining Romani prisoners—about 3,000—were sent to the gas chambers.

Some 5,000 Roma were deported from the Lodz ghetto to the Chelmo extermination camp, where they were killed in gas vans. Thousands of others were gassed in the extermination camps of Belzec, Sobibor, and Treblinka. Einsatzgruppen also killed tens of thousands of Roma in the German-occupied eastern territories.

Nazi physicians used Romani prisoners in medical experiments at Auschwitz, Ravensbrueck, Natzweiler-Struthof, and Sachsenhausen. It is not known precisely how many Roma were killed in the Holocaust. It is estimated that of the approximately one million Roma living in Europe before the war, between 250,000 and 500,000 were killed.



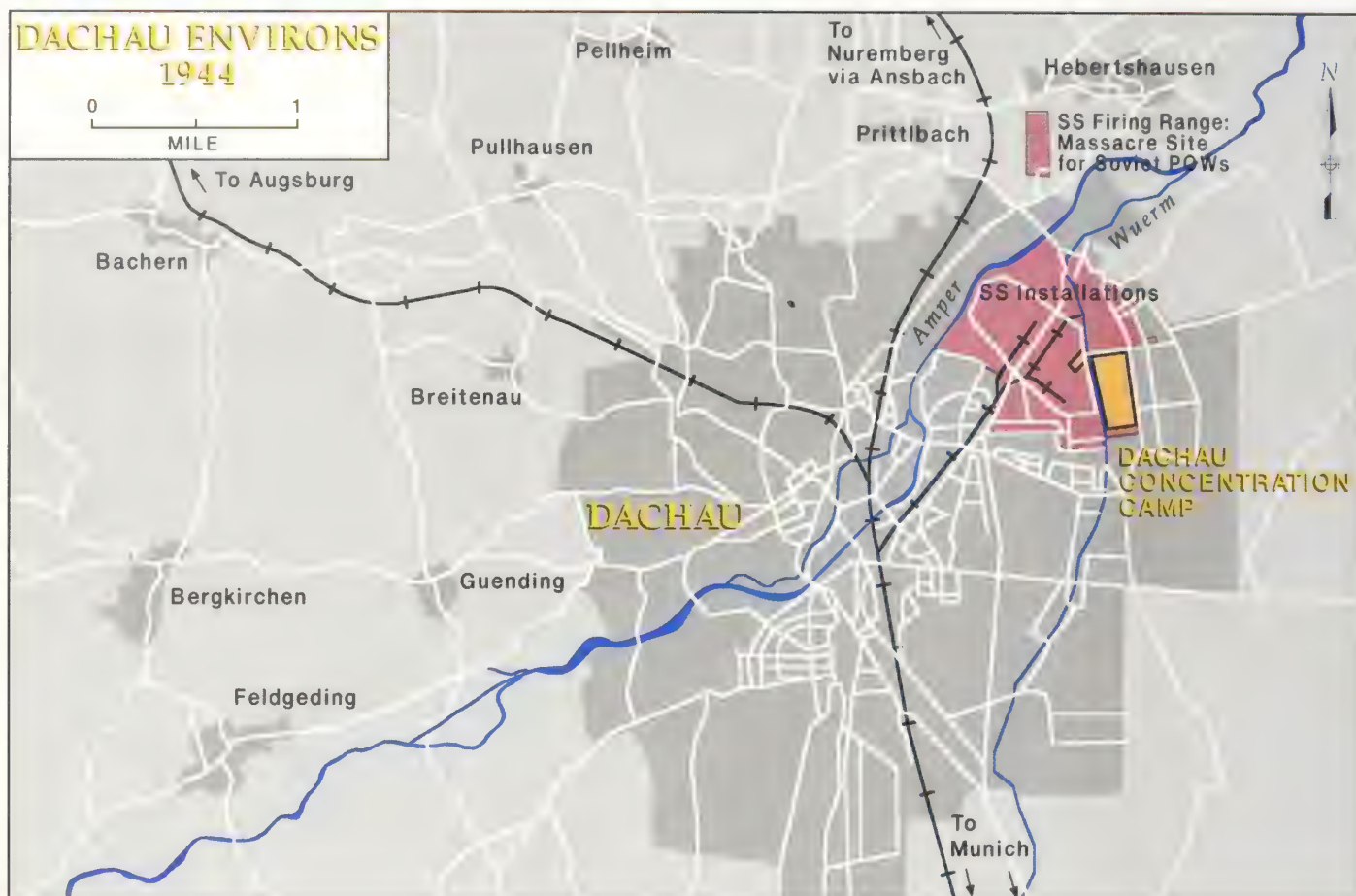
NAZI MEDICAL EXPERIMENTS

During World War II, some German physicians conducted pseudoscientific medical experiments in many different categories, utilizing thousands of concentration camp prisoners without their consent.

At Buchenwald, medical experiments involving typhus and other contagious diseases were carried out on prisoners. Hundreds died as a result. Also in Buchenwald, homosexual prisoners were used in artificial hormone and castration experiments. In Auschwitz I, SS physicians conducted pseudoscientific research on infants, twins, and dwarfs, forced sterilizations, castrations, and hypothermia experiments. In Mauthausen, prisoners were used in experiments involving testosterone, lice infestation, tuberculosis, and surgical procedures. More than 80 prisoners, mostly Jews, were gassed in Natzweiler-Struthof and their bodies sent to the Strasbourg University Institute of Anatomy for study. Poison gas and typhus experiments were also conducted at Natzweiler-Struthof.

In Ravensbrueck, medical experiments involved sterilization, the treatment of wounds with various substances (such as sulfanilamide) to prevent infections, and methods for treating broken bones in the arms and legs. In Dachau, SS doctors conducted experiments involving high altitudes (by using a decompression chamber), malaria, tuberculosis, and hypothermia. They also tested pharmaceutical products. Further, Dachau prisoners were used to test various methods of making seawater potable and methods of halting excess bleeding.

SS doctors carried out sterilization experiments on men, women, and children to discover a quick method by which to sterilize large numbers of people as part of Germany's population policy, and to facilitate the sterilization of part-Jews as proposed at the Wannsee Conference. Thousands of people, mainly women, were used in the experiments. Most were Jewish; the remainder were Roma (Gypsies). Thousands of prisoners died or were permanently crippled as a result of medical experiments.



DACHAU CONCENTRATION CAMP

Established in March 1933, the Dachau concentration camp was the first regular concentration camp established by the Nazis. At first, the camp was located in an ammunition factory in the northeastern part of the town of Dachau, about 10 miles northwest of Munich in southern Germany. Later that year, an expanded camp was constructed at Dachau using prisoner labor, replacing the makeshift camp. This new camp became one of the main training centers for SS concentration camp guards, and the camp's organization and routine became the model for all Nazi concentration camps. Dachau remained in operation until April 1945, thus existing for the entire period of the Third Reich.

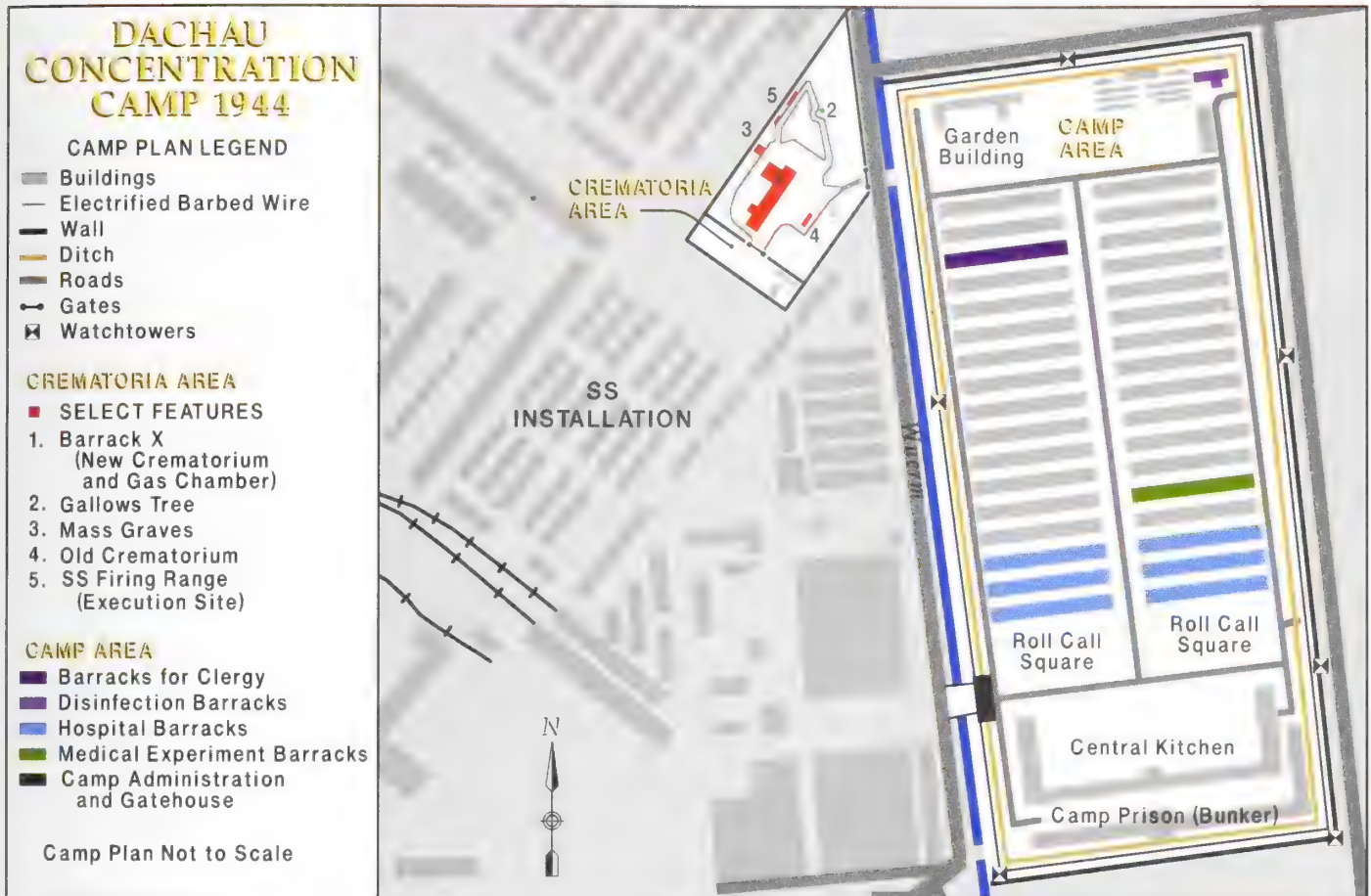
The Dachau camp was divided by the Wuerm River into two sections—the camp area and the crematoria area. The camp area consisted of 32 barracks, including one for clergy imprisoned for opposing the Nazi regime and one reserved for medical experiments. The camp administration was located in the gatehouse at the main entrance. The camp area had so-called farm buildings, containing the kitchen, herbiary, workshops, and a camp prison (Bunker). The courtyard between the prison and the central kitchen was an execution

site where prisoners were summarily shot. An electrified barbed-wire fence, a ditch, and a wall with seven guard towers surrounded the camp.

In 1942, the crematorium area was constructed next to the main camp. It included the old crematoria and the new crematorium (Barrack X) with a gas chamber. There is little evidence that the gas chamber in Barrack X was used. Instead, prisoners underwent selection; those who were judged too sick or weak to continue working were sent to the Hartheim “euthanasia” center near Linz, Austria. Several thousand Dachau prisoners were killed at Hartheim. Further, the SS used the firing range and the gallows tree in the crematoria area as execution sites for prisoners.

In Dachau, as in other Nazi camps, medical experiments were performed on prisoners. High-altitude experiments using a decompression chamber, malaria and tuberculosis experiments, hypothermia experiments, and experiments testing new medications were conducted. Prisoners were used to test methods of making seawater potable and of halting excessive bleeding. Hundreds of prisoners died or were permanently crippled as a result of these experiments.

Dachau prisoners were used as forced laborers. At first,



they were employed in the operation of the camp, in various construction projects, and in small handicraft industries established in the camp. Prisoners built roads, worked in gravel pits, and drained marshes. During the war, forced labor utilizing concentration camp prisoners became increasingly important to German armaments production. In the summer and fall of 1944, to increase war production, satellite camps under the administration of Dachau were established near armaments factories throughout southern Germany. Dachau alone had more than 30 large subcamps in which over 30,000 prisoners worked almost exclusively on armaments. Thousands of prisoners were worked to death.

As Allied forces advanced toward Germany, the Germans began to evacuate concentration camps near the front to prevent the liberation of large numbers of prisoners. Transports from the evacuated camps arrived continuously at Dachau, resulting in a dramatic deterioration of conditions. After days of travel, with little or no food or water, the

prisoners arrived weak and exhausted, near death. Typhus epidemics became a serious problem due to overcrowding, poor sanitary conditions, and the weakened state of the prisoners.

In April 1945, as American forces approached the Dachau camp, the Germans forced more than 7,000 prisoners, mostly Jews, on a death march from Dachau to Tegernsee far to the south. During the death march, the Germans shot anyone who could no longer continue; many also died of hunger, cold, or exhaustion. On April 29, 1945, American forces liberated Dachau. As they neared the camp, they found more than 30 coal cars filled with bodies brought to Dachau, all in an advanced state of decomposition. In early May 1945, American forces liberated the prisoners who had been sent on the death march. Approximately 30,000 prisoners were liberated when the American army entered Dachau. It is unlikely that the total number of victims who died in Dachau will ever be known.

DACHAU SUBCAMPS

1938-1945

0 50

MILES

Scale Approximate





BUCHENWALD CONCENTRATION CAMP

Buchenwald was one of the largest concentration camps established by the Nazis. The camp was constructed in 1937 in a wooded area on the northern slopes of the Ettersberg, about five miles northwest of Weimar in east-central Germany. Ironically, Weimar was known before the Nazi takeover of power as the home of Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, who embodied the German enlightenment of the eighteenth century, and as the birthplace of German constitutional democracy in 1919. During the Nazi regime, "Weimar" became associated with the Buchenwald concentration camp.

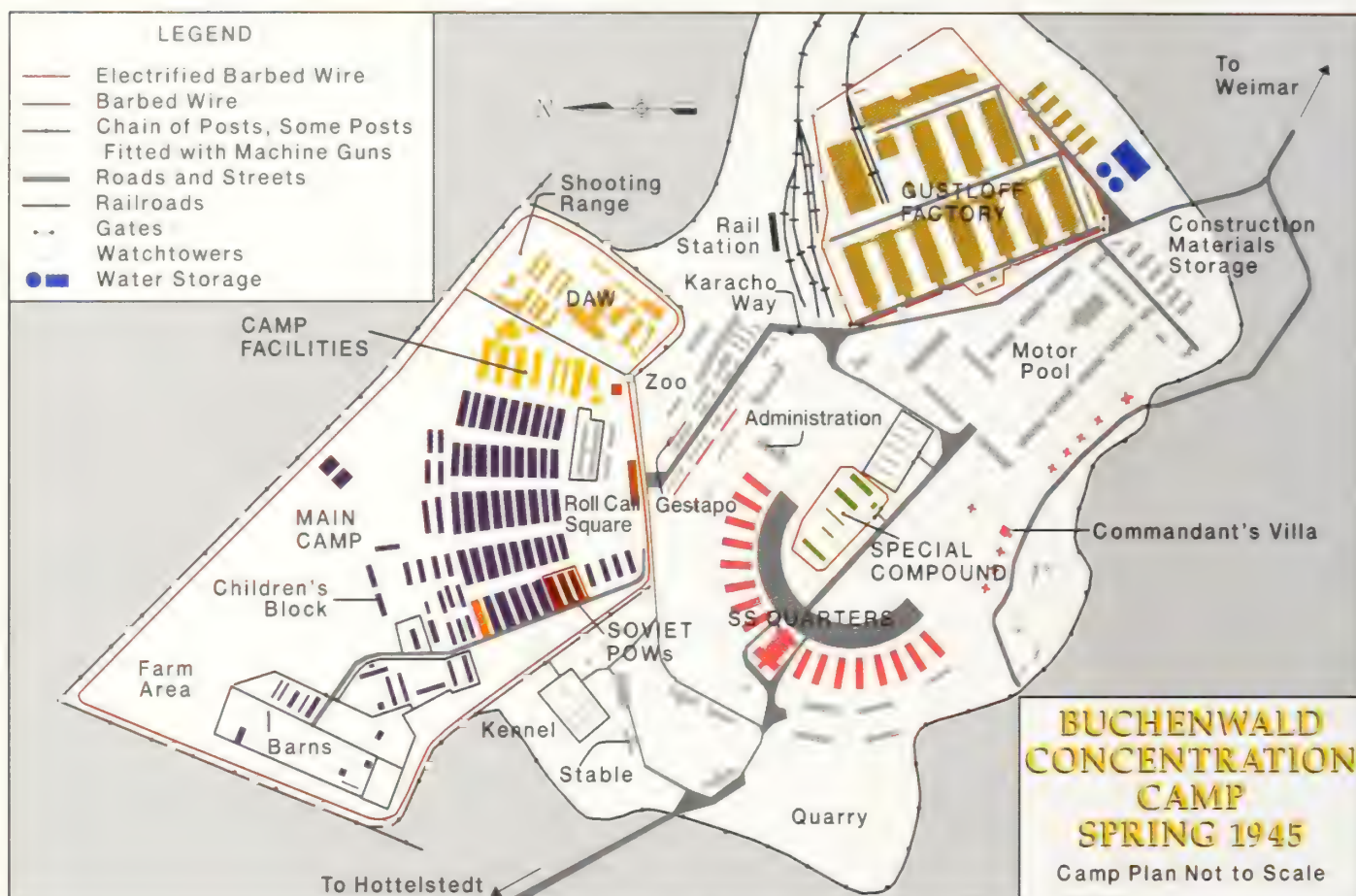
Buchenwald prisoners were confined in the northern part of the camp in an area called the main camp, while SS guard barracks and the camp administration compound were located in the southern part. The main camp was surrounded by an electrified barbed-wire fence, watchtowers, and a chain of posts outfitted with automatically activated machine guns. The jail, also known as the Bunker, was located at the entrance to the main camp. Shootings took place in the crematorium and in the stables.

Most of the early inmates at Buchenwald were political prisoners. However, in 1938, in the aftermath of

"Kristallnacht," almost 10,000 Jews were sent to Buchenwald, where they were subjected to extraordinarily cruel treatment.

During World War II, the Buchenwald camp system became an important source of forced labor; the prisoner population expanded rapidly, reaching more than 80,000 by 1945. Buchenwald prisoners were used in the German Armament Works (DAW), an enterprise owned and operated by the SS; in camp workshops; and in the camp's stone quarry. In March 1943 the Gustloff armament works, a large factory producing aircraft parts, was constructed in the western part of the camp. A rail siding completed in 1943 connected the camp with the freight yards in Weimar, facilitating the shipment of war supplies.

Buchenwald administered more than 100 subcamps located across central Germany, from Duesseldorf in the Rhineland to the border with the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia in the east. Prisoners in the satellite camps were put to work mostly in armaments factories, in stone quarries, and on construction projects. Periodically, prisoners throughout the Buchenwald camp system underwent selection. Those too weak or crippled to continue working were either sent to the Bernburg or Sonnenstein "euthanasia" centers and killed, or



were killed by phenol injections administered by the camp doctor.

Beginning in 1941, a broad program of involuntary medical experiments on prisoners was conducted at Buchenwald, in special barracks in the northern part of the main camp. Medical experiments involving viruses and contagious diseases such as typhus resulted in hundreds of deaths.

In 1944, a "special compound" for prominent German political prisoners was established near the camp administration building in Buchenwald. Ernst Thaelmann, chairman of the Communist Party of Germany before Hitler's rise to power in 1933, was brought there and executed in August 1944.

In January 1945, as Soviet forces swept through Poland, the Germans evacuated thousands of concentration camp prisoners from western Poland to Buchenwald. After long, brutal death marches, prisoners arrived at Buchenwald in a state of exhaustion. Among these prisoners were several hundred children and young people from Auschwitz. They were housed in a special block for children in the north of the camp.

In early April 1945, as American forces approached the

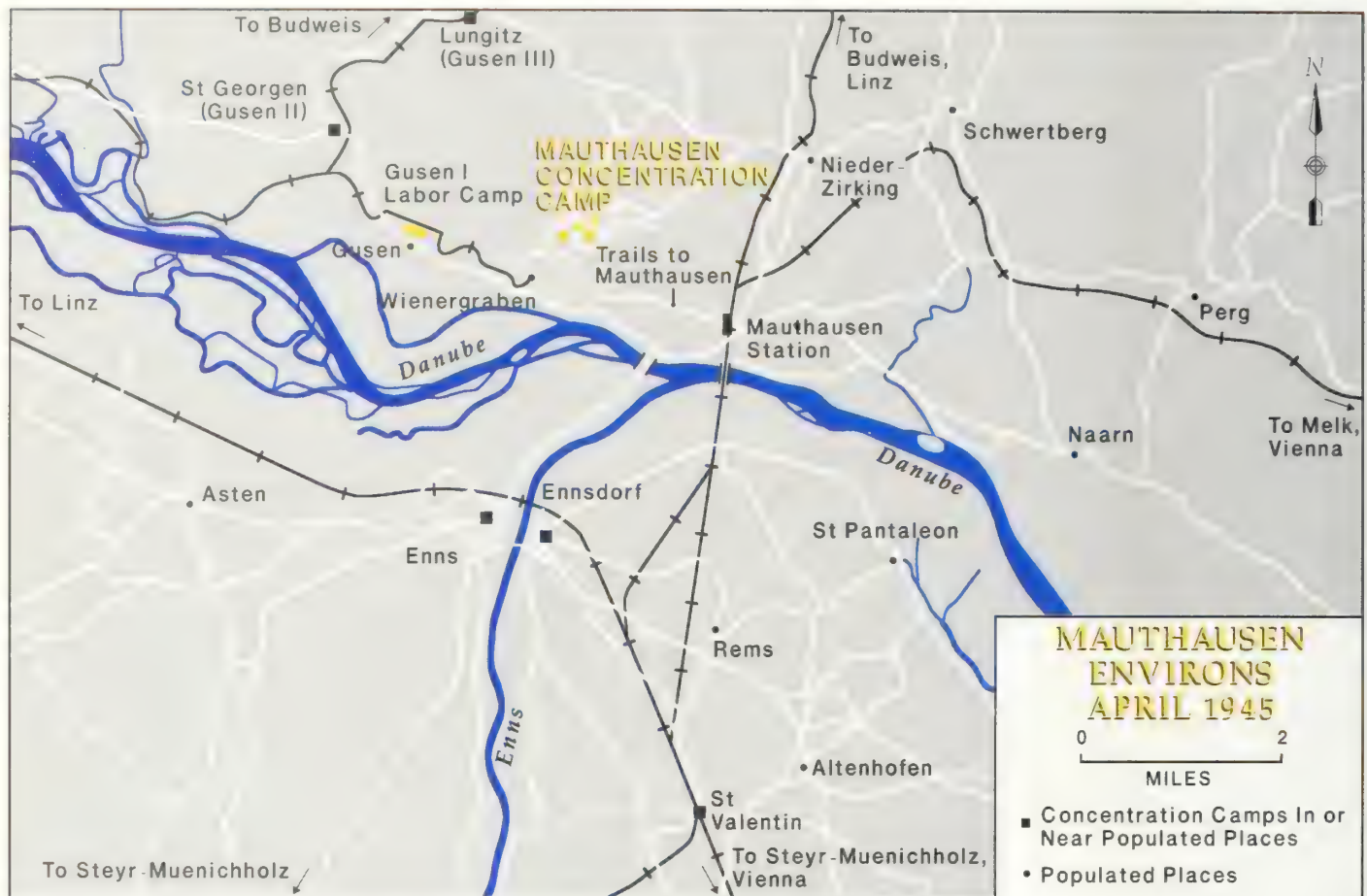
- SELECTED FEATURES**
- Main Entrance and Detention Center (Bunker)
 - Buildings
 - Camp Facilities, Storehouse, Kitchen, Disinfection
 - Crematorium
 - German Armament Works (DAW)
 - Gestapo Office
 - Gustloff Armament Factory
 - Main Camp
 - Medical Experiment Barracks
 - Soviet POWs' Barracks
 - Special Compound for Prominent Prisoners
 - SS Quarters

camp, the Germans began to evacuate almost 30,000 prisoners, mostly Jews, from Buchenwald. During the evacuation, about 8,000 prisoners died. Many lives were saved by the Buchenwald resistance, whose members held key administrative posts in the camp. They obstructed Nazi orders, delaying the evacuation. On April 11, 1945, starved and emaciated prisoners stormed the watchtowers, seizing control of the camp. Later that afternoon, American forces entered Buchenwald. They found more than 20,000 people in the camp.

BUCHENWALD SUBCAMPs 1938-1945

0 75
MILES





MAUTHAUSEN CONCENTRATION CAMP

The Mauthausen concentration camp, the main camp for Austria, was established shortly after Germany incorporated Austria in March 1938. It was built near an abandoned stone quarry, along the Danube River, about three miles from the town of Mauthausen in Upper Austria, 12.5 miles southeast of Linz.

The Germans designated the Mauthausen concentration camp a category III camp, indicating that it was a special penal camp with a harsh regimen. Inmates in the punishment detail were forced to carry heavy stone blocks up 186 steps from the camp quarry. The steps became known as the "Stairway of Death."

The main camp at Mauthausen had three main sections: Camp I, the residential prison camp; Camp II, the camp workshop area, where the prisoners were forced to work in SS enterprises; and Camp III, a quarantine camp built in the spring of 1944 to separate incoming prisoners from the main camp population.

Along the outer wall, opposite the roll call square (Appellplatz), were several stone buildings for camp services (kitchen, showers, and laundry). The camp prison (Bunker)

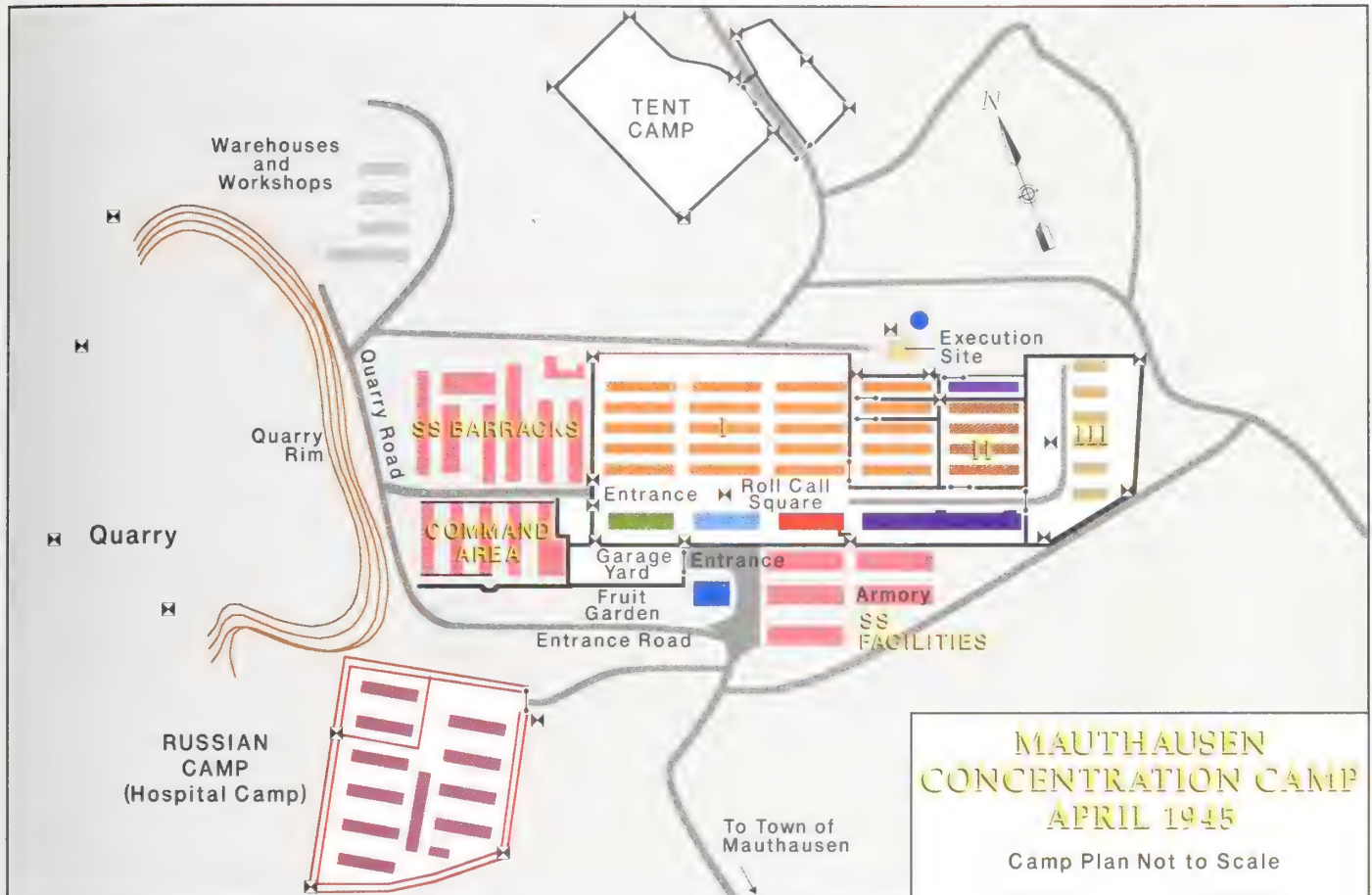
and gas chamber were also in these buildings. The crematorium was near the prison. In an area near the crematorium, prisoners selected for immediate execution were shot in the neck.

South of the main camp, off the entrance road to the camp, was the hospital camp, which was called the "Russian camp" since it was originally constructed for Russian prisoners of war. From the spring of 1943, ill or weak prisoners were kept in the hospital camp until they died.

As late as April 1945, a tent camp was set up outside the northern perimeter of the main camp to handle the influx of large numbers of prisoners, primarily Hungarian Jews, evacuated from camps along the Hungarian border with Austria.

The various camps were surrounded by a wall and/or an electrified wire. Watchtowers and SS guards surrounded the entire complex. The SS administration and barracks were located in the western area of the camp.

Mauthausen prisoners were used extensively as forced laborers. At first, prisoners were employed in the construction of the camp and in the neighboring quarry. During the war, forced labor utilizing concentration camp prisoners became



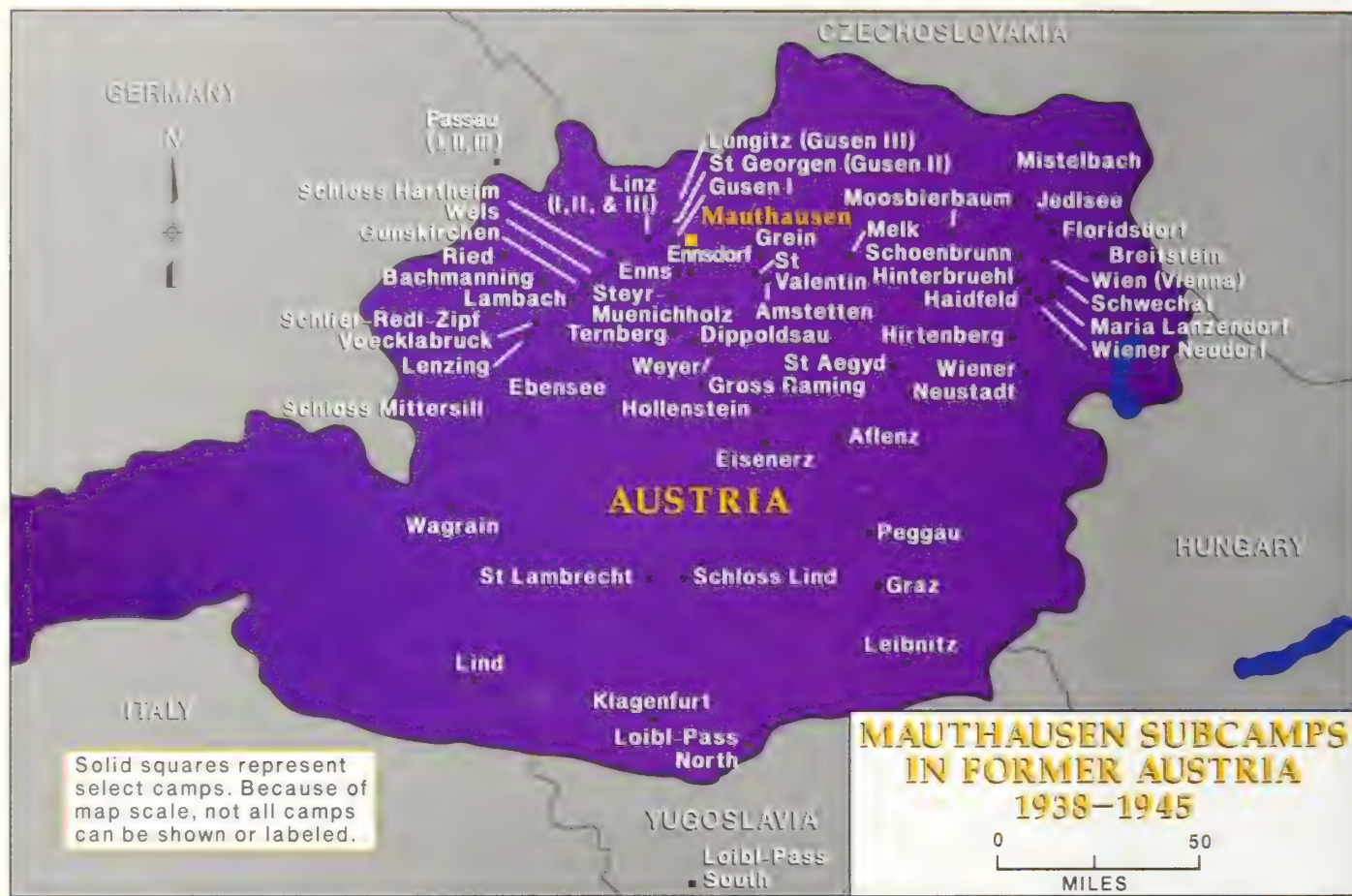
increasingly important to German armaments production. In the summer and fall of 1944, subcamps under the administration of Mauthausen were established near armaments factories throughout northern Austria. Mauthausen administered more than 60 subcamps, including Gusen, Gunskirchen, Melk, Ebensee, and Amstetten. Thousands of prisoners were worked to death.

Periodically, prisoners in the Mauthausen camp system underwent selection. Those the Nazis deemed too weak or sick to work were separated from the other prisoners and killed either in Mauthausen's own gas chamber, in mobile gas vans, or at the nearby Hartheim "euthanasia" killing center. Camp doctors in the infirmary used phenol injections to kill patients too weak to move. Nazi doctors also used Mauthausen prisoners in pseudoscientific medical experiments involving testosterone, lice infestation, tuberculosis, and surgical procedures.

As Allied forces advanced toward the interior of Germany, the Nazis began to evacuate concentration camps near the front lines in order to prevent the liberation of large numbers of prisoners. Transports from the evacuated camps, especially from Auschwitz, Sachsenhausen, and Gross-Rosen, began

CAMP PLAN LEGEND

- Electrified Barbed Wire
- Barbed Wire
- Wall
- Roads and Streets
- Gates
- Buildings
- Watchtowers
- Bunker: Execution Site, Crematorium, and Gas Chamber
- Camp I
- Camp II
- Camp III
- Death Barracks
- Hospital
- Kitchen
- Laundry
- Russian Camp
- SS Buildings
- Water Storage





arriving at Mauthausen in 1945. The camp became increasingly overcrowded, resulting in the serious deterioration of already difficult conditions. Many prisoners died from starvation or disease. Typhus epidemics further reduced the camp's population.

Toward the end of the war, the number of prisoners in the Mauthausen camp system grew to more than 80,000. Camp records indicated at least 70,000 deaths among registered prisoners between 1938 and 1945.

American forces liberated Mauthausen in early May 1945.

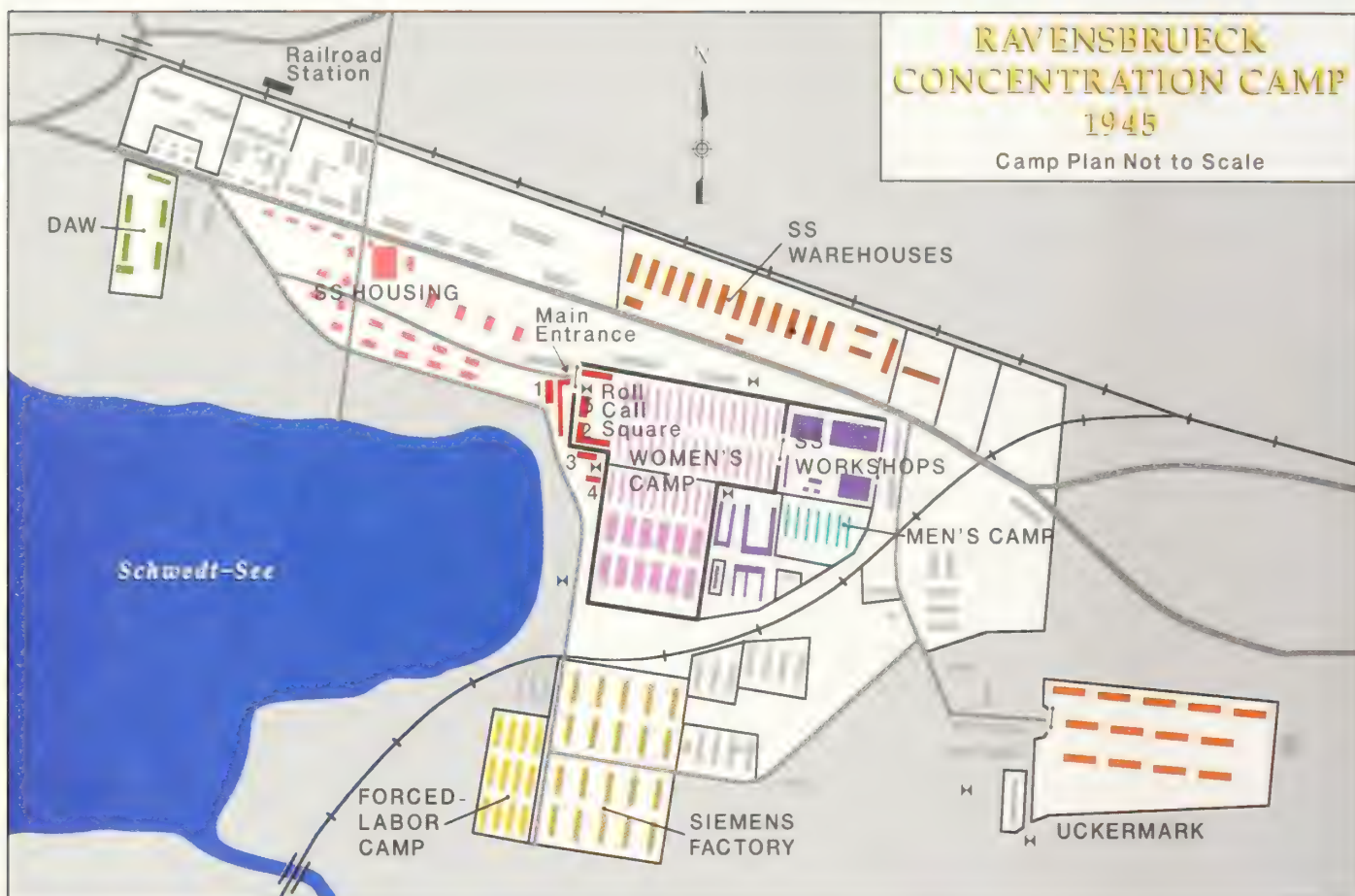
RAVENSBRUECK CONCENTRATION CAMP

The Ravensbrueck concentration camp was the largest concentration camp for women established by the Nazis. Construction of the camp began in November 1938, near the small village of Ravensbrueck in northern Germany. The village was just north of Fuerstenberg, about 56 miles north of Berlin. It was situated on the banks of the Schwedt-See. A small men's camp was joined to the women's camp in 1941. Located east of the women's camp, the men's camp was situated along the railway to Templin.

The first prisoners at Ravensbrueck were about 1,000

women, transferred from the Lichtenburg camp in Saxony in May 1939. By the end of 1942, the female inmate population of Ravensbrueck had grown to about 10,000. In January 1945 the camp had more than 45,000 prisoners, mostly women. In addition to the male Nazi administrators, the camp staff included more than 150 female SS guards assigned to oversee the prisoners. Ravensbrueck served as one of the main training camps for female SS guards. SS personnel lived in special housing to the west of the camp.

Prisoners were required to perform forced labor. Women in the camp worked in agricultural projects, farming, and local industry. In 1944, forced labor became increasingly important to Germany's armaments production efforts. Ravensbrueck became the administrative center of a system of more than 40 subcamps with more than 70,000 prisoners, predominantly women. These subcamps, most of which were established adjacent to armaments factories, were located throughout Greater Germany, from Austria in the south to the Baltic Sea in the north. Several camps provided labor for construction projects or for clearing rubble in cities damaged by Allied air attacks. The SS also built an armaments factory near Ravensbrueck. Further,



CAMP PLAN LEGEND

- Barbed Wire
- + Railroads
- Roads
- Wall
- Gates
- ⌘ Watchtowers
- Buildings
- German Armament Works (DAW)
- Forced-Labor Camp
- Men's Camp
- Siemens Factory
- Uckermark (Former Youth Camp)
- Women's Camp
- SS FACILITIES
- SS Housing
- SS Warehouses
- SS Workshops
- Command Area
- 1. Commandant
- 2. Prison Cells
- 3. Crematorium
- 4. Gas Chamber
- 5. Administration

there were textile factories and a Siemens plant at Ravensbrueck.

Periodically, prisoners in the camp underwent selection. The Germans removed those prisoners considered too weak or injured to work. At first, selected prisoners were shot. Beginning in 1942, they were transferred to "euthanasia" killing centers (particularly to the center in nearby Bernburg) or to Auschwitz. Some prisoners were also killed in the camp infirmary with lethal injections. The bodies of those killed in the camp were cremated in the Fuerstenberg crematorium until 1943, when a crematorium was built at a site near the camp prison, just west of the women's camp. In 1944/1945, a gas chamber was constructed near the crematorium. Several thousand prisoners were gassed before the camp's liberation in April 1945.

Beginning in the summer of 1942, Ravensbrueck concentration camp prisoners were used in pseudoscientific medical experiments. Experiments included the treatment of wounds with various substances (such as sulfanilamide) to prevent infections. Various methods of setting and transplanting bones were tested; such experiments included amputations. Close to





100 women, mostly Polish, were used in these experiments and most died as a result. The few surviving prisoners were crippled for the rest of their lives. SS doctors also carried out sterilization experiments on women and children, mostly Roma, in an attempt to discover a quick method of sterilizing large numbers of people as part of Germany's population policy.

In late March 1945, over 20,000 prisoners were forced on a death march toward Mecklenburg. Advancing Soviet forces liberated them during this march. Shortly before the camp's liberation, the Germans handed over several hundred female prisoners, mostly French, to the Swedish and Danish Red Cross. Soviet forces liberated Ravensbrueck on April 29-30, 1945. Only about 3,500 sick and weak female prisoners remained in the camp.

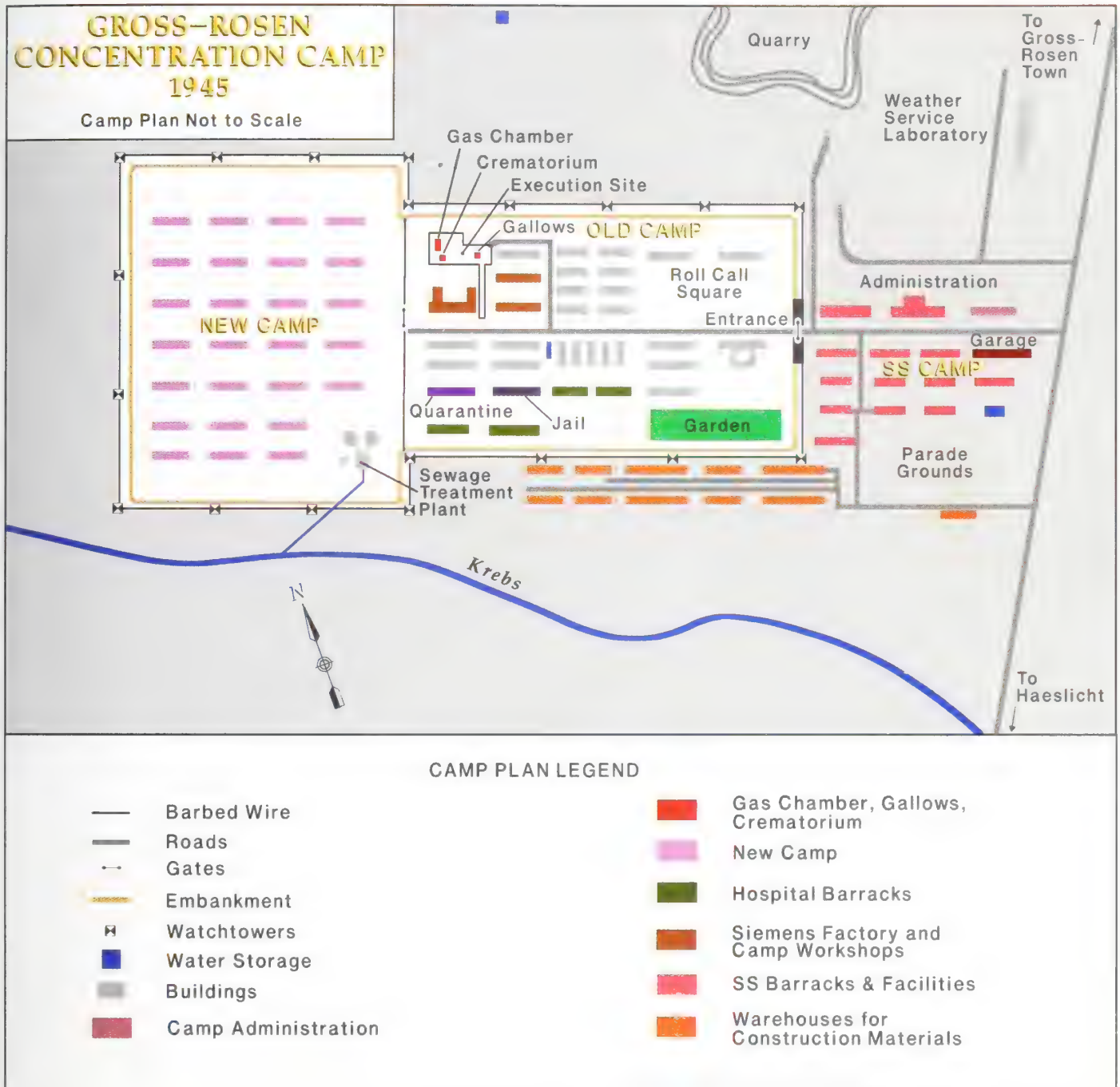
Between 1939 and 1945, more than 100,000 female prisoners passed through the Ravensbrueck camp system. They were deported to the camp from all over German-occupied Europe, especially from eastern Europe. Nearly 40 percent of the prisoners came from Poland and the German-occupied eastern territories. Almost 15 percent of the prisoners were Jews and almost 5 percent were Roma.

GROSS-ROSEN CONCENTRATION CAMP

The Gross-Rosen concentration camp was originally a labor camp, a subcamp of the Sachsenhausen concentration camp. In 1941, it was designated an autonomous concentration camp. The camp was built near the city of Striegau, just south of the town of Gross-Rosen (Rogoznica) in eastern Germany.

At first, the prisoners were employed primarily as forced laborers in the construction of the camp and in the SS-owned granite quarry nearby. The increasing emphasis on the use of concentration camp prisoners in armaments production led to the expansion of the Gross-Rosen camp, which became the center of an industrial complex and the administrative hub of a vast network of over 60 subcamps. The main camp held as many as 10,000 prisoners, and the subcamp system, spread across eastern Germany, as many as 80,000 prisoners, more than a third of them female. Gross-Rosen had an extremely high mortality rate. It is estimated that of the 120,000 prisoners who passed through the Gross-Rosen system, about 40,000 died.

Beginning in 1943, as many as 60,000 Jewish prisoners



were deported to Gross-Rosen. Most came from Poland and, after March 1944, from Hungary; some came from western and southern Europe. Incoming prisoners were distributed within the Gross-Rosen camp system. Some were used as forced laborers in the Krupp and I.G. Farben works. Two networks of forced-labor camps for Jews were attached to Gross-Rosen. The first included more than 20 Jewish forced-labor camps, which had been part of the Organisation Schmelt system in Silesia. The second was a series of subcamps holding more than 10,000 Hungarian Jews assigned to build

an underground stronghold for Hitler.

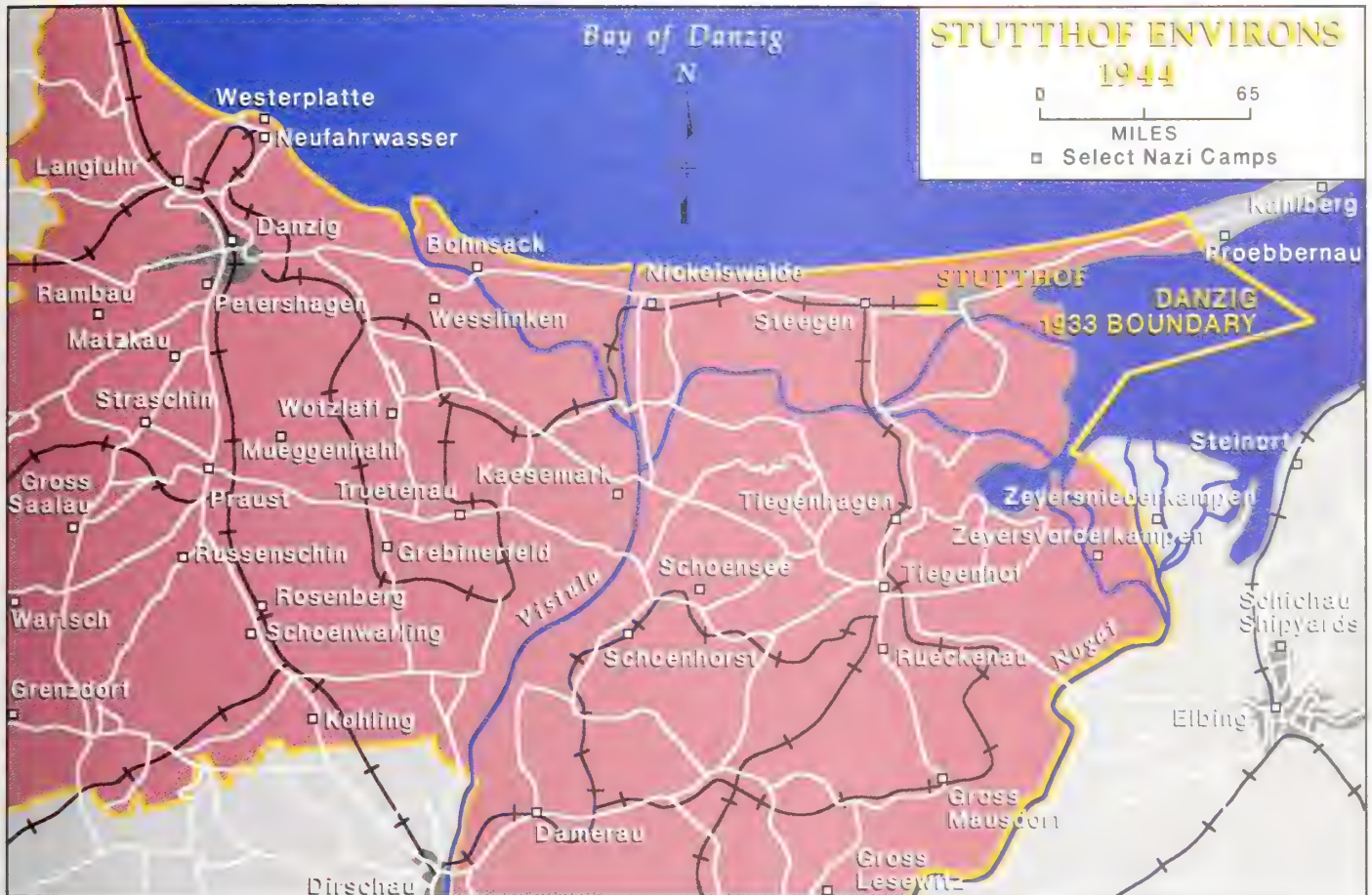
As Soviet forces approached the camps in January 1945, the Germans began to evacuate the Gross-Rosen complex. The subcamps on the eastern bank of the Oder River were dissolved. In early February 1945, the main camp was evacuated, followed by the remaining subcamps. About 40,000 prisoners, half of whom were Jews, were forced on death marches and then transported by rail to the Bergen-Belsen, Buchenwald, Dachau, Flossenbuerg, Mauthausen, Dora-Mittelbau, and Neuengamme concentration camps

GROSS-ROSEN SUBCAMP 1940-1945

0 50
MILES

GREATER GERMANY





inside Germany. Many prisoners died during the evacuations due to the lack of food and water. SS guards killed prisoners who became too weak to continue.

Soviet forces liberated the Gross-Rosen camp area in February 1945.

STUTTHOF CONCENTRATION CAMP

In September 1939, the Germans constructed the Stutthof camp in a wooded area west of Stutthof (Sztutowo), a town about 22 miles east of Danzig (Gdansk). The area was secluded: to the north was the Bay of Danzig, to the east the Vistula Bay, and to the west the Vistula River. The land was very wet, almost at sea level. The camp was situated along the Danzig-Elbing highway on the way to the popular Baltic Sea resort town of Krynica Morska.

Originally, Stutthof was a civilian internment camp under the Danzig police chief. In November 1941, it was designated a special SS camp. Finally, in January 1942, Stutthof became a regular concentration camp.

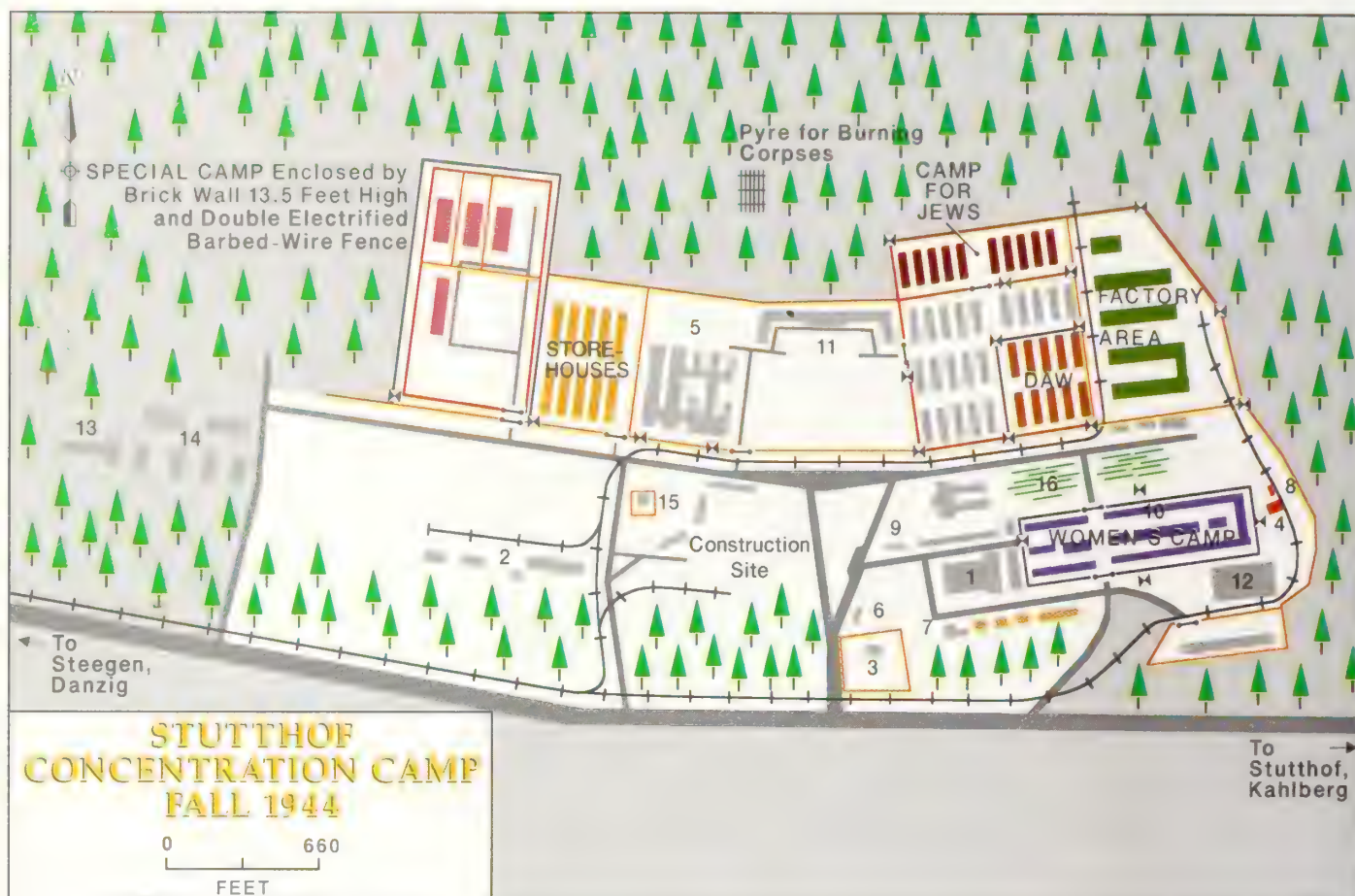
The original camp (known as the old camp) was surrounded by barbed-wire fences. In 1943, the camp was enlarged and a new camp was constructed alongside the

earlier one. It was surrounded by electrified barbed-wire fences. The camp staff consisted of SS men and Ukrainian auxiliaries.

Tens of thousands of people, perhaps as many as 100,000, were deported to the Stutthof camp. The prisoners were mainly non-Jewish Poles. There were also Polish Jews from Warsaw and Bialystok, as well as from forced-labor camps in the Baltic states, which were evacuated in 1944 as Soviet forces approached.

Conditions in the camp were brutal. Many prisoners died in typhus epidemics that swept the camp in the winter of 1942 and again in 1944. Those whom the SS guards judged too weak or sick to work were gassed in the camp's small gas chamber. Gassing with Zyklon B gas began in June 1944. Camp doctors also killed sick or injured prisoners in the infirmary with lethal injections. More than 60,000 people died in the camp.

The Germans used Stutthof prisoners as forced laborers. Some prisoners worked in SS-owned businesses such as the German Armament Works (DAW), located near the camp. Others labored in local brickyards, in private industrial enterprises, in agriculture, or in the camp's own workshops. In



CAMP PLAN LEGEND

- Roads
- +— Narrow Gauge Railroad
- Buildings
- ⊠ Watchtowers
- Gates
- Electrified Barbed Wire
- Barbed Wire
- ▲ Forested Area, Trees
- Camp for Special Prisoners, Mainly German Political Prisoners
- Camp for Jews
- German Armament Works (DAW)
- Factory Area
- Storehouses
- Women's Camp

SELECTED FEATURES

1. Camp Administration Building
2. Civilian Workers' Barracks
3. Commandant's Villa
4. Crematoria
5. Disinfection and Laundry
6. Dog Kennel
7. Garage
8. Gas Chamber
9. Guard House
10. Hospital
11. New Kitchen (Never Completed)
12. Rabbit Hutches
13. School for Ukrainian Policemen
14. SS Barracks
15. SS Clubhouse
16. Vegetable Garden

1944, as forced labor by concentration camp prisoners became increasingly important in armaments production, a Focke-Wulff airplane factory was constructed at Stutthof. Eventually, the Stutthof camp system became a vast network of forced-labor camps. More than 100 Stutthof subcamps were established throughout northern and central Poland. The major subcamps were Thorn and Elbing.

In late 1944 and early 1945, nearly 50,000 Stutthof prisoners were forced on death marches and evacuations by both land and sea. They were transferred to camps in the interior of the Third Reich, mainly to Dachau, Buchenwald, Neuengamme, and Flossenbuerg. Marching in dreadful winter conditions, over 25,000 prisoners died.

Soviet forces reached the main camp at Stutthof in early May 1945 and liberated about 100 prisoners who had managed to hide during the final evacuation of the camp.

STUTTHOF SUBCAMPS 1939-1945

0 50
MILES



Open squares represent select camps. Because of map scale, not all camps can be shown or labeled.



STUTTHOF 1944

0 150
MILES

1944 REGIONAL BOUNDARIES



DORA-MITTELBAU CONCENTRATION CAMP

The Dora-Mittelbau (also known as Dora-Nordhausen or Nordhausen) camp was established in central Germany near the southern Harz Mountains, north of the town of Nordhausen. Dora-Mittelbau was originally a subcamp of Buchenwald. Prisoners from Buchenwald were sent to the area in 1943 to begin construction of a large industrial complex. In October 1944, the SS elevated Dora-Mittelbau to an independent concentration camp with more than 30 subcamps of its own.

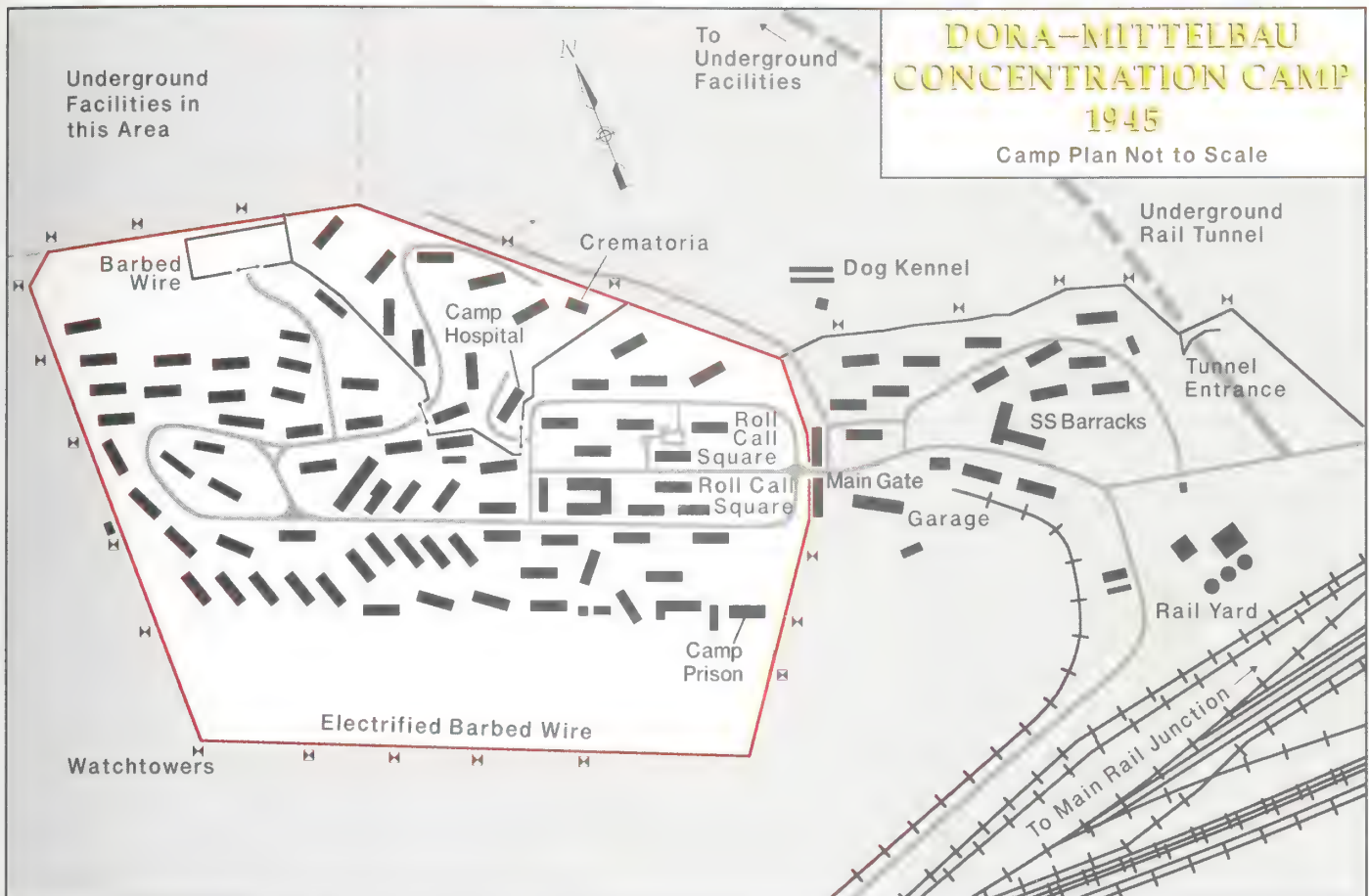
Allied air raids on industrial complexes in Germany necessitated the construction of underground production facilities. Concentration camp prisoners dug huge tunnels into the surrounding mountains to house the production and storage areas. In 1943, prisoners at Dora-Mittelbau began construction of huge underground factories and development facilities for the V-2 missile program and other experimental weapons. These so-called Vengeance Weapons (*Vergeltungswaffen*), as the Germans called them, were constructed and stored in the underground facilities and bomb-proof shafts.

Until the spring of 1944, prisoners were kept mostly

underground, deprived of daylight and fresh air, and enclosed in unstable tunnels. The mortality rate was higher than at most other concentration camps. Prisoners too weak or ill to work were sent to Auschwitz-Birkenau or Mauthausen to be killed. In 1944, a compound to house forced laborers was built above ground level south of the main factory area. Once full production of the missiles began in the fall of 1944, Dora-Mittelbau had a standing prisoner population of at least 12,000.

The Dora-Mittelbau camp was enclosed by an electrified barbed-wire fence, with the main entrance located in the east of the camp. To the west of the main entrance was the roll call area, where prisoners were assembled before they were marched off to forced labor. To the east, beyond the entrance, was the SS camp. The crematoria were in the north of the camp. The camp prison was in the south of the camp.

Dora-Mittelbau was the center of a vast network of forced-labor camps constructed in 1944-1945 throughout the Harz Mountain region, including those located in nearby Niedersachswerfen, Nordhausen, and Neusollstedt. Prisoners in the Dora-Mittelbau camp system quarried stone and worked in construction projects, munitions factories, the nearby



ammonia works, and other projects related to weapons development and production.

Dora-Mittelbau had a prisoner resistance organization, which sought mainly to delay production of the Vengeance Weapons and to sabotage the rockets that were produced. Prisoners suspected of sabotage were usually killed; more than 200 were publicly hanged for sabotaging production.

In early April 1945, the Nazis began to evacuate the prisoners from Dora-Mittelbau. Within days, most of the remaining prisoners were sent to Bergen-Belsen in northern Germany. Thousands were killed during death marches under horrendous conditions. When American forces liberated Dora-Mittelbau in April 1945, only a few prisoners were still in the camp.





BERGEN-BELSEN CONCENTRATION CAMP

The Bergen-Belsen concentration camp was established south of the small towns of Bergen and Belsen, about 11 miles north of Celle, Germany. Until 1943 Bergen-Belsen was a prisoner-of-war camp holding mostly Soviet POWs, many of whom were killed by starvation or disease. It was also an internment camp, housing several thousand Jewish prisoners who were to be exchanged for German nationals held by the Allies. Few of the Jewish detainees were ever actually exchanged. In 1944, the Germans permitted some 200 prisoners to leave for Palestine in exchange for German citizens, and more than 1,500 Hungarian Jews were permitted to enter Switzerland in return for payment. The Germans hoped that such exchanges would facilitate negotiations with American officials.

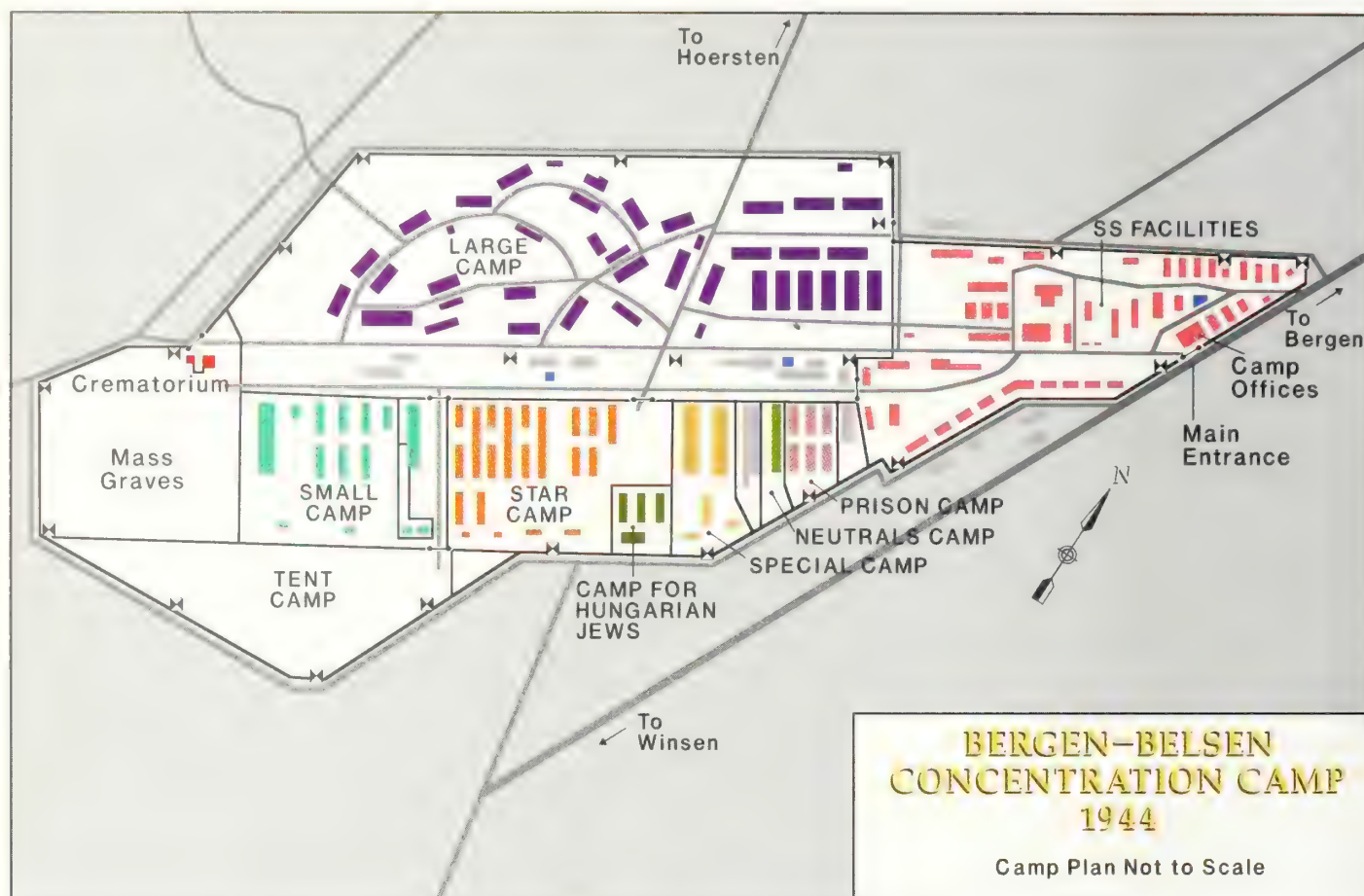
At first, prisoners in Bergen-Belsen were exempted from work. Beginning in 1944, they were subjected to forced labor, usually unloading trains, and excavation or construction projects. In December 1944, the Bergen-Belsen camp was redesignated a concentration camp.

The camp expanded to include eight sections: a detention camp, two camps for women, a special camp, neutrals camp,

“star camp,” Hungarian camp, and a tent camp. The detention camp housed those Jewish prisoners brought in from the Buchenwald and Natzweiler-Struthof concentration camps to construct the camp. The special camp housed Jews from Poland who held papers (passports, entrance visas, and the like) issued by foreign countries. The neutrals camp was reserved for several hundred Jews who were citizens of neutral countries. The “star camp” was reserved for about 4,000 Jewish prisoners, mostly from the Netherlands, who were to be exchanged for German nationals interned by the Allies. Prisoners in the “star camp” were not required to wear camp uniforms, but had the Star of David sewn onto their clothing, thus giving the camp its name. The Hungarian camp housed more than 1,600 Jews from Hungary.

Bergen-Belsen served as a collection camp for sick and injured prisoners who were sent there from other concentration camps. They were housed in a separate section, the hospital camp. After the hospital camp became overcrowded, sick female prisoners, among them Anne Frank, were held in the tent camp. Many seriously ill prisoners were killed with lethal injections in the camp infirmary.

As Allied forces advanced in late 1944 and early 1945,



CAMP PLAN LEGEND

- Barbed-Wire and Other Fences
- Roads
- Gates
- Buildings
- ⌘ Watchtowers
- Water Reservoir
- Camp Administration and SS Compound
- Prison Camp
- Camp for Hungarian Jews
- Large Camp for Women
- Neutrals Camp
- Small Camp for Women
- Special Camp
- Star Camp

Bergen-Belsen became a collection camp for thousands of Jewish prisoners evacuated from camps closer to the front. The arrival of thousands of new prisoners, many of them survivors of death marches, overcrowded the camp. Overcrowding, poor sanitary conditions, and the lack of adequate food and shelter led to a typhus epidemic. In the first few months of 1945, tens of thousands of prisoners, perhaps as many as 35,000 people, died.

On April 15, 1945, British forces liberated Bergen-Belsen. Sixty thousand prisoners, most of them seriously ill, were found in the camp. Thousands of corpses lay unburied on the camp grounds. More than 10,000 former prisoners, too ill to recover, died after liberation. British forces burned down the whole camp to prevent the spread of typhus. Later, a displaced persons' camp was established in the German military school barracks near the original concentration camp.

SECTION 6

THE HOLOCAUST IN SOUTHERN EUROPE AND HUNGARY



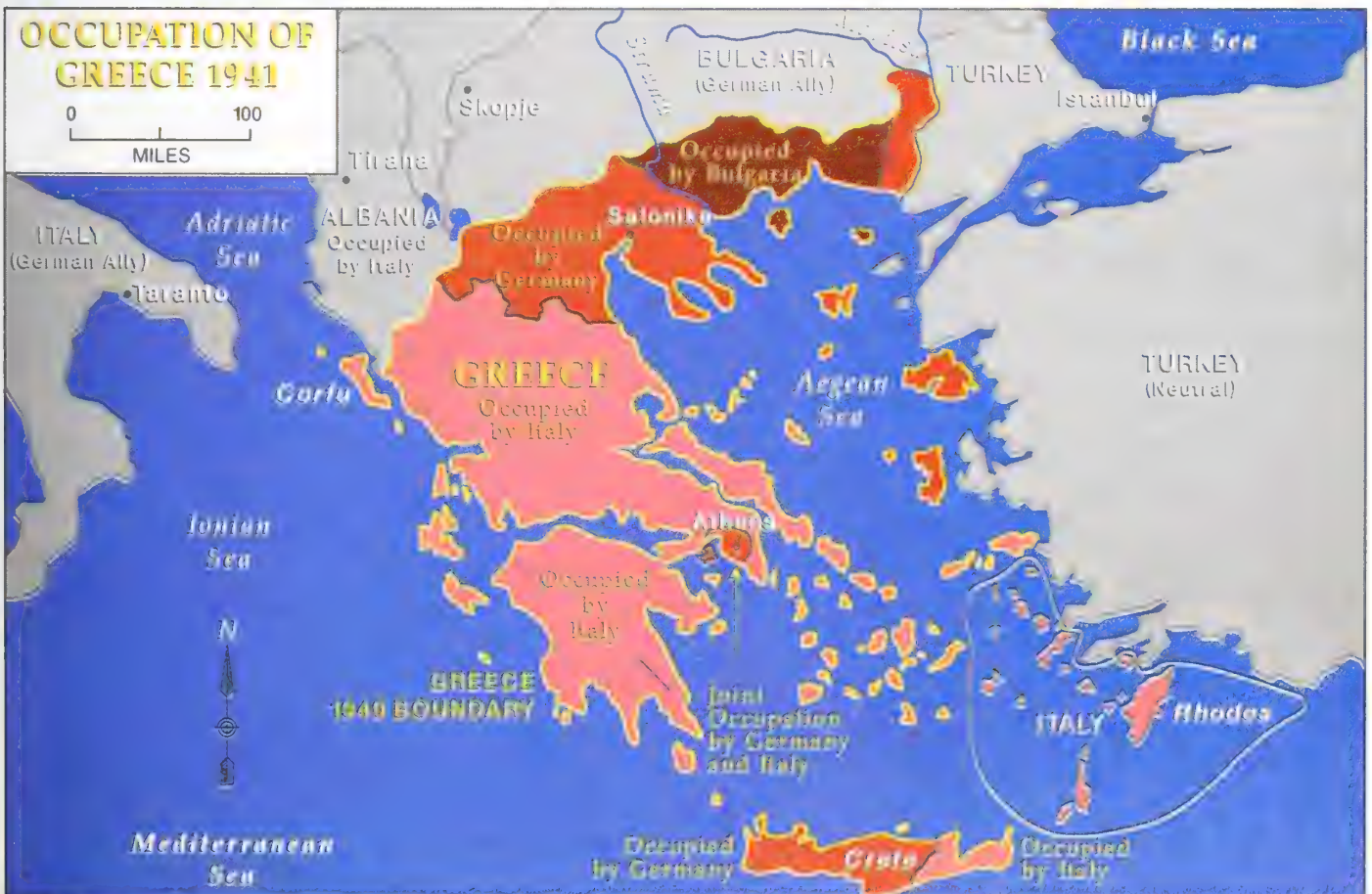
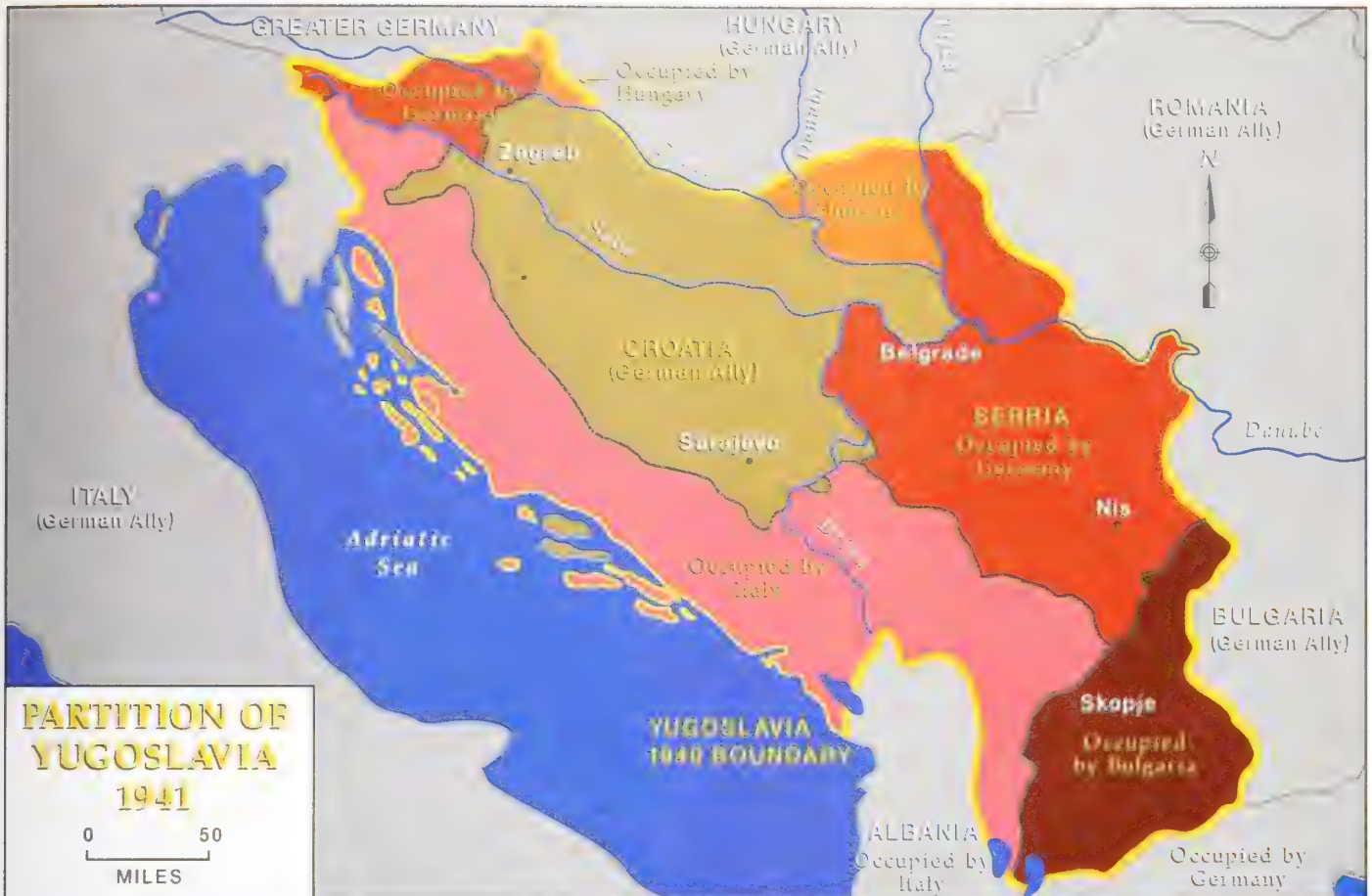
THE INVASION OF YUGOSLAVIA AND GREECE

Although Yugoslavia joined the Axis alliance with Germany, the Yugoslav government was toppled by an anti-German military coup in late March 1941. Further, an Italian attack on Greece was turned back and a Greek counterattack threatened Italian positions in the Balkans. Germany decided to intervene, securing the southern flank for the impending military operations against the Soviet Union.

Germany invaded Yugoslavia and Greece in early April 1941. Supported by contingents from Germany's allies (Italy, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Romania), German forces quickly subdued the Balkans. Once again a Blitzkrieg succeeded. British forces, sent to aid the Greeks, were forced to withdraw to the island of Crete. In mid-May, German paratroopers

landed on Crete and, after heavy fighting, defeated the British.

Yugoslavia and Greece were partitioned among the victors. Germany occupied northwestern Yugoslavia, Serbia, and the region around Salonika in northern Greece. Germany also established the pro-German, fascist state of Croatia in northern Yugoslavia. Hungary received Backa, the region around Subotica in northern Yugoslavia. Bulgaria annexed Yugoslavian Macedonia (the area between the cities of Skopje and Bitola in southern Yugoslavia) and most of Thrace, in northern Greece. Germany occupied a small area of Thrace bordering neutral Turkey. Italy occupied the coastal areas of Yugoslavia and most of the rest of Greece. Germany and Italy jointly occupied Athens, the Greek capital.





THE HOLOCAUST IN YUGOSLAVIA AND GREECE

At the time of the Axis occupation in 1941, about 80,000 Jews lived in Yugoslavia, including about 4,000 foreign or stateless Jews who had found refuge in the country in the 1930s. Half of all the Jews lived in the province of Croatia (including Bosnia-Herzegovina), 16,000 in Serbia, 16,000 in

the Backa region, and 8,000 in Macedonia. The largest Jewish population centers were in Sarajevo (Bosnia-Herzegovina), with 10,000, and Belgrade (Serbia) and Zagreb (Croatia), with 11,000 each. Approximately 100,000 Jews lived in Greece, almost half of them in Salonika in northern Greece. The fate of the Jews in Yugoslavia and Greece was influenced by the conflicting policies of Germany and its allies toward Jews.

Despite its alliance with Germany, Italy was not enthusiastic about the "Final Solution." Many Italians, including military officers and officials, protected Jews in the Italian occupation zones. Thousands of Jews seeking protection fled to Italian-controlled territory. It was not until the Italian armistice with the Allies in 1943—and the subsequent German occupation of northern Italy and the Italian occupation zones in Yugoslavia and Greece—that Jews there were included in the "Final Solution."

Initially, fascist Hungary, an ally of Germany, did not deport Jews from territory it occupied in Yugoslavia. But Hungarian army and police units went on a rampage and killed several thousand Jews and Serbs in the Yugoslav city of Novi Sad in January 1942. The deportation of most of the Jews from Hungarian-occupied territory began shortly after the Germans occupied Hungary in March 1944. The Germans concentrated the Jews of the Backa region (formerly part of Yugoslavia) in the Backa-Topolya, Baja, and Bacsalmas camps. From these camps they were deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau, where most were killed.

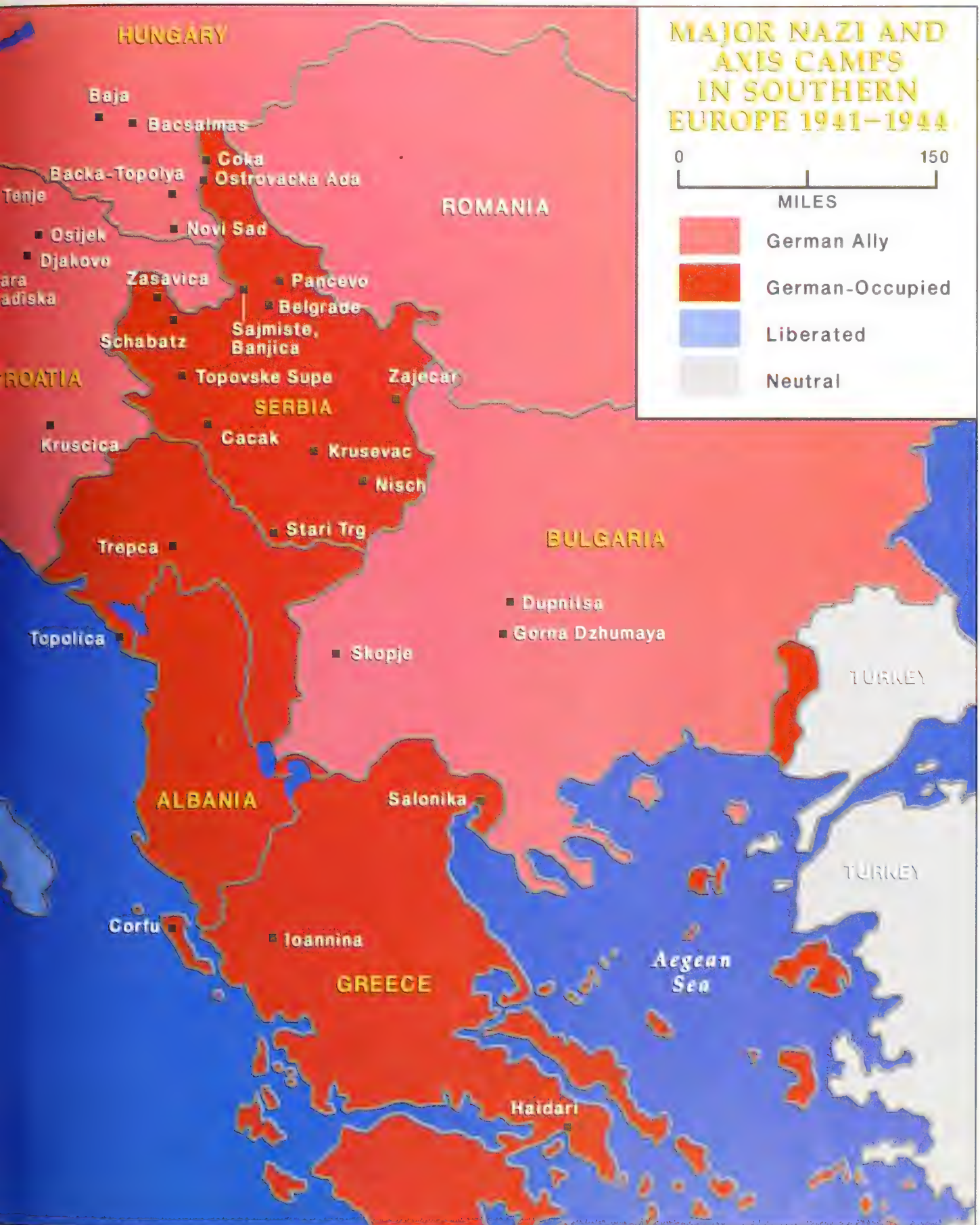
Bulgaria did not deport Bulgarian Jews, but did deport non-Bulgarian Jews from the territories it had annexed from Yugoslavia and Greece. In March 1943, Bulgaria arrested all the Jews in Macedonia, formerly part of Yugoslavia, and in Thrace, formerly part of Greece. In Macedonia, about 7,000 Jews were interned in a transit camp in Skopje. In Thrace, about 4,000 Jews were deported to Bulgarian assembly points at Gorna Dzhumaya and Dupnitsa, and handed over to the Germans. In all, Bulgaria deported more than 11,000 Jews to German-held territory, and by the end of the month, most of them had been deported to the Treblinka killing center.

Germany occupied Serbia (formerly part of Yugoslavia) and instituted a military government in 1941. Most of the Jews were interned in concentration camps—especially in Topovske Supe, Sajmiste, Schabatz, and Nisch. In August 1941, most of the interned male Jews were shot. In 1942, the SS brought a gas van—a truck with a hermetically sealed compartment that served as a gas chamber—to the Sajmiste camp, where most of the Jewish women and children

(continued on page 175)











had been interned. At least 8,000 Jewish women and children were killed by the end of May.

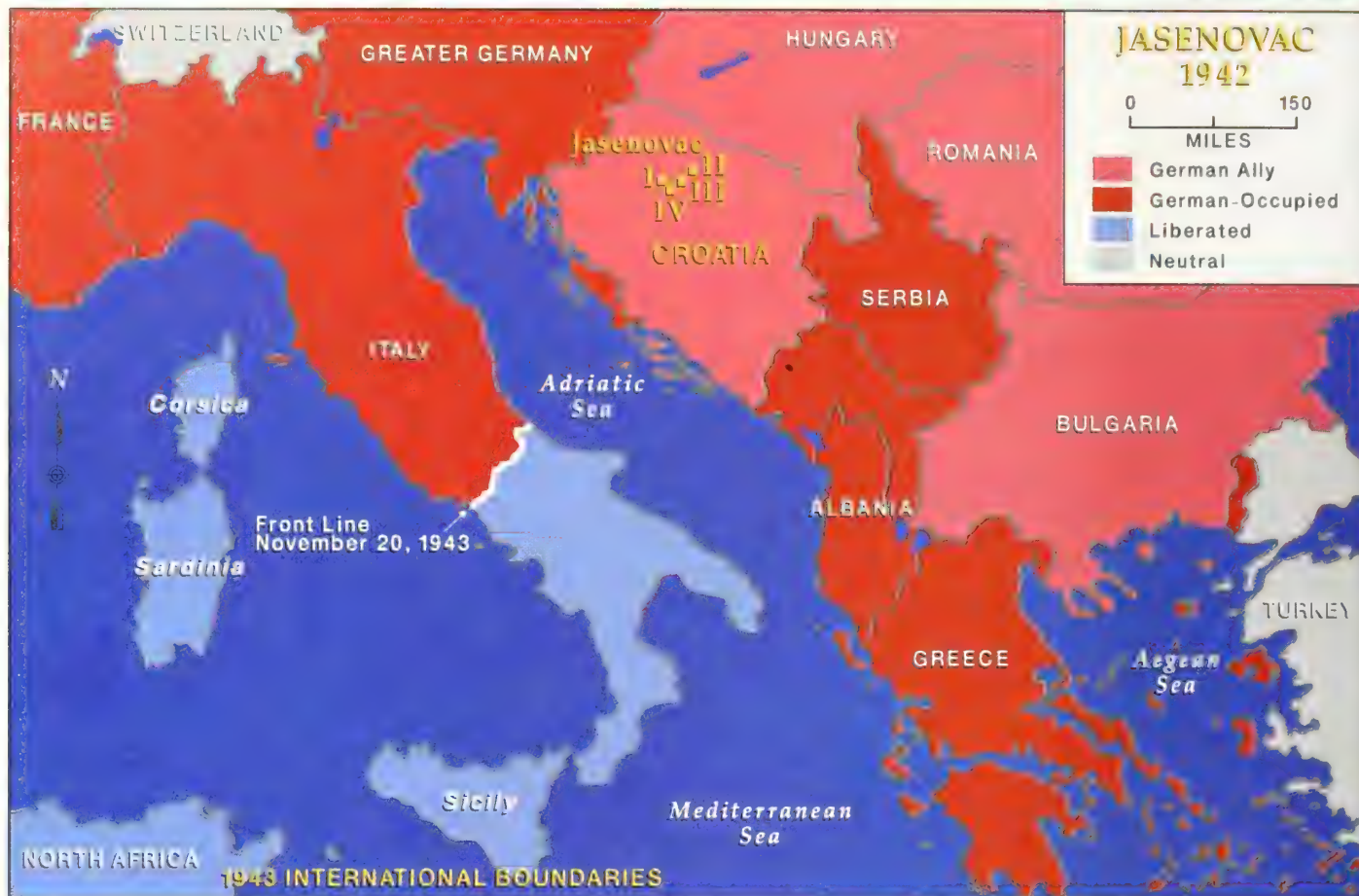
In the German puppet state of Croatia (established in April 1941), the Ustasa (Croatian fascists) instituted a reign of terror and began the systematic murder of Serbs, Jews, and Roma (Gypsies). The Ustasa killed hundreds of thousands of Serbs and expelled more than 200,000 from Croatia. They employed particularly cruel measures to terrorize the Serbs: whole villages were burned down and the inhabitants killed; Serb women were raped; Serb men were tortured.

About two-thirds of the Jews of Croatia were imprisoned in camps throughout Croatia (Jadovno, Kruscica, Loborgrad, Djakovo, Tenje, Osijek, and Jasenovac) by the end of 1941. The Ustasa killed more than 20,000 Jews in the Jasenovac concentration camp, near Zagreb. In 1942 and 1943, about 7,000 Jews were deported from Croatia to the killing centers in German-occupied Poland, mainly to Auschwitz-Birkenau.

Most of the Croatian Jews who survived the war were saved by seeking refuge in the Italian-occupied areas. Rejecting German demands to hand over Jews in these areas, the Italians instead assembled many of those in Italian-occupied Yugoslavia in the Rab island camp, which was in the Italian zone. After the Italian armistice with the Allies in September 1943, Germany occupied the Italian zone of Yugoslavia. Yugoslav partisans helped many former prisoners of Rab avoid capture by German forces.

The largest Jewish community in Greece was in Salonika, located in northern Greece in the German occupation zone. In February 1943, the Jews of Salonika were concentrated in the Baron de Hirsch quarter of the city. More than 40,000 were deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau between March and August 1943, and most were gassed on arrival. In 1944 the Germans began deportations from the former Italian zone in Greece: 800 Jews from Athens, almost 2,000 from the island of Corfu, and almost 2,000 from Rhodes were deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau. The vast majority were killed upon arrival.

In September 1944, the Germans withdrew from Yugoslavia and the Greek mainland. Approximately 60,000 Yugoslav Jews and more than 50,000 Greek Jews died in the Holocaust. Thousands of Greek and Yugoslav Jews survived by hiding with friends or neighbors or by joining the partisans.





JASENOVAC CONCENTRATION CAMP

Jasenovac was a complex of camps established in Croatia by the Croatian security police in 1941. It was built along the Sava River, about 62 miles south of the Croatian capital of Zagreb. Members of the Ustasa (Croatian fascists) staffed the camp. Stara Gradiska, a concentration camp for women, was attached to Jasenovac.

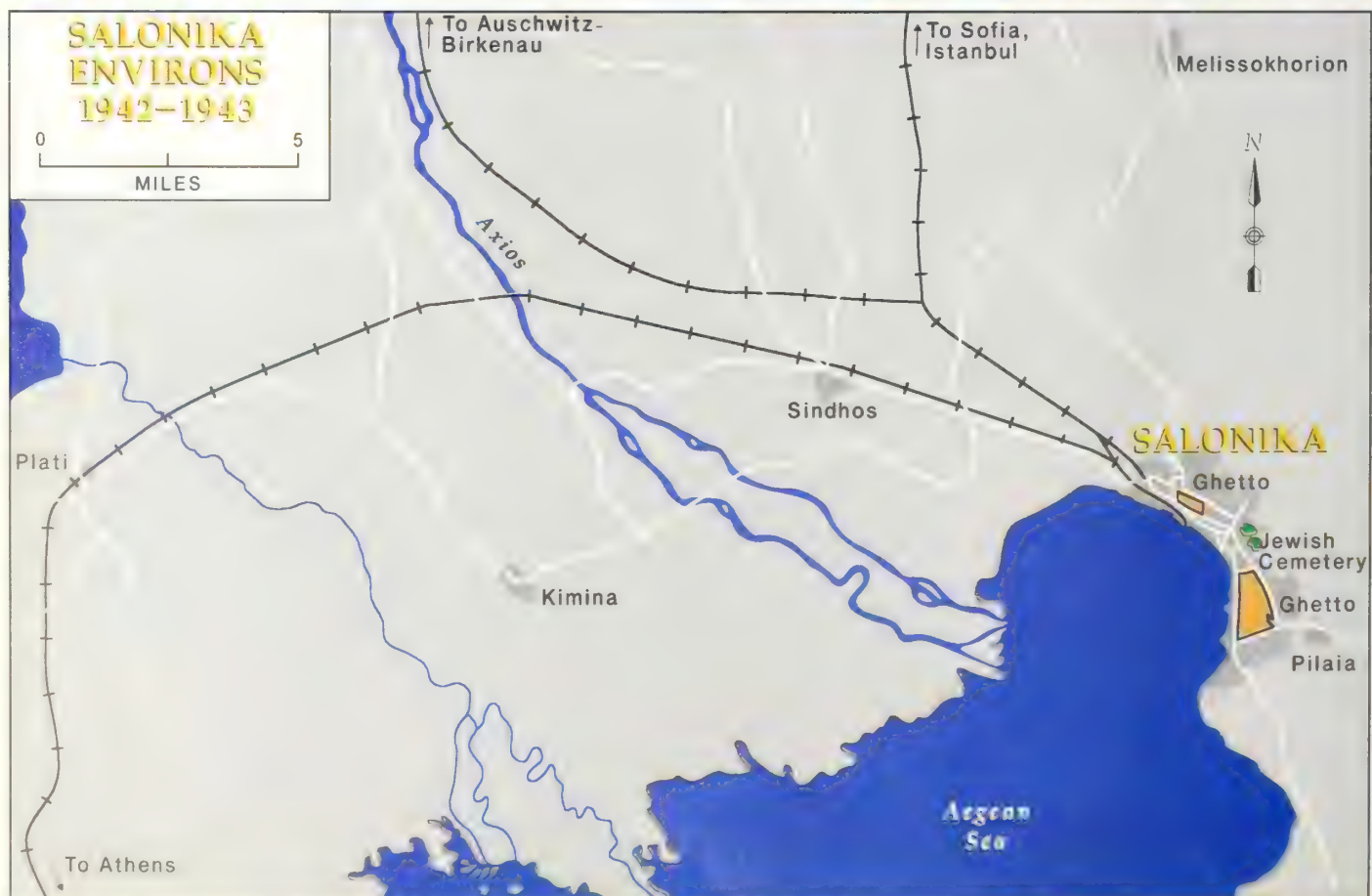
The largest camp in Croatia, Jasenovac was a center of the genocide perpetrated by the Ustasa. Tens of thousands of people, mostly Serbs, were killed at Jasenovac. Other victims included Jews, Roma (Gypsies), and political opponents of the Ustasa regime.

Jews from Croatia, Bosnia, and, after the Italian armistice, Dalmatia, were deported to Jasenovac. They were usually killed upon arrival at massacre sites, such as Granik and Gradina, near

the camp. Only those Jews with needed skills—for example, doctors, electricians, and carpenters—remained in the camp, where they were employed in camp services and workshops. More than 20,000 Jews were killed in Jasenovac, mostly in 1942.

Conditions in Jasenovac were very primitive. Prisoners received little food and poor shelter, and sanitary facilities were inadequate. Ustasa guards instituted a reign of terror in the camp, where killings and torture were a feature of daily life.

In April 1945, as Yugoslav partisan troops approached the camp, several hundred prisoners took part in an uprising against the Ustasa guards. Only a few prisoners managed to escape. The Ustasa demolished the camp and killed the remaining inmates. Yugoslav partisans liberated the camp area on April 30, 1945.





THE DEPORTATION OF THE JEWS OF SALONIKA

The city of Salonika (Thessaloniki) is located in northern Greece. After the invasion and occupation of Greece in April 1941, Salonika was included in the German occupation zone. The city was occupied by German forces in early April.

Before the war, Salonika had the largest Jewish community in Greece. At the time of the German occupation, the Jewish population was about 50,000. Within a week of the occupation, the Germans arrested the Jewish leadership, evicted hundreds of Jewish families and confiscated their apartments, and expropriated the Baron de Hirsch Jewish hospital for use by the German army.

In mid-July 1942, the Germans forced 9,000 Jewish men to assemble at Liberty Square (Plateia Eleftheria), where they were registered for forced-labor assignments. Two thousand of them were assigned to forced-labor projects for the German army. Their release was ransomed by the Jewish community in Salonika, which collected money in Salonika and Athens and sold the Jewish cemetery in Salonika to raise the required sum. (The cemetery was purchased by the city administration,

which broke up the headstones for construction materials and built a university at the site.)

In February 1943, the Jews of Salonika were concentrated in two ghettos: one in the east of Salonika and one in the western, Baron de Hirsch quarter of the city. Jews were concentrated in the Baron de Hirsch quarter, near the railway station, in preparation for impending deportations. Between March and August 1943, more than 40,000 Jews were deported from Salonika to the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center. Most of the deportees were gassed on arrival in Auschwitz.

Jews holding identity papers or visas issued by neutral governments were not deported. More than 300 Jews holding Spanish papers were transferred to Spain via the Bergen-Belsen camp in northern Germany. Some Jews escaped from German-occupied Greece to the Italian occupation zone or to Palestine. About 500 Jews from Salonika avoided the deportations by escaping to the nearby mountains, where they joined partisan units that fought the Germans.

Only about 1,000 Jews returned to Salonika after the war. The ancient Jewish community of Salonika was destroyed.





THE HOLOCAUST IN ITALY

In October 1922, King Victor Emmanuel III appointed the Italian Fascist leader, Benito Mussolini, prime minister of Italy. Shortly thereafter, Mussolini established a Fascist dictatorship.

The Italian Jewish community, one of the oldest in Europe, numbered about 50,000 in 1933. Jews had lived in Italy for more than 2,000 years; by the 1930s, Italian Jews were thoroughly assimilated into Italian culture and society. There was relatively little antisemitism among Italians. Italian Fascism was generally not an antisemitic ideology.

However, in 1938, Italy passed antisemitic laws. These laws forbade marriage between Jews and non-Jews and removed Jewish teachers from the public schools. Further, foreign refugee Jews living in Italy were confined in internment camps, although under relatively good conditions: families lived together and the camps provided schools, cultural activities, and social events.

Italy entered World War II in 1940 as a German ally, hoping to establish a new Italian empire. Italy occupied territory in Yugoslavia (1941), Greece (1941), and a small portion of southern France (1942). Although allied with

Germany, Fascist Italy did not willingly cooperate in the Nazi plan to kill the Jews of Europe. Italians generally refused to participate in genocide or permit deportations from Italy or the Italian occupation zones in Yugoslavia, Greece, and France to the Nazi killing centers. Italian military officers and officials usually protected Jews and Italian-occupied areas were relatively safe for Jews. Between 1941 and 1943, thousands of Jews escaped to Italy.

Military reversals in northern Africa and the Allied invasion of Sicily and southern Italy in 1943 contributed to the overthrow of Mussolini's dictatorship. The king ordered Mussolini imprisoned. Pietro Badoglio, the new prime minister, negotiated a cease-fire with the Allies in early September 1943. That same month, German paratroopers freed Mussolini from prison. German forces occupied most of northern and central Italy and installed Mussolini as the head of a pro-German puppet government. German forces also occupied the Italian zones in Yugoslavia, Greece, and France.

The German occupation of northern Italy radically altered the situation for Italian Jews, especially since most Italian Jews lived in the north. Deportations began almost immediately from both the German-occupied areas of Italy





and the former Italian occupation zones in southern Europe.

In October and November 1943, the Germans rounded up Jews in Rome, Milan, Genoa, Florence, Trieste, and other major cities in northern Italy. They were interned in transit camps, particularly the Fossoli di Carpi camp, originally an Italian-run internment camp approximately 12 miles north of Modena, and the Bolzano camp in northeastern Italy, established in late 1943. Periodically, trains carrying Jews left both camps for the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center. In Trieste, about 5,000 people, mostly non-Jews, were tortured to death or executed in La Risiera di San Sabba, which was primarily a police detention camp. Some Jews were deported from San Sabba and several dozen Jews were killed there. Mantua, Milan, and Borgo San Dalmazzo were other assembly points for Jews during the deportations from Italy.

During the German occupation, about 8,000 Jews were deported from Italy to Auschwitz-Birkenau and other Nazi camps. Almost 2,000 Jews were deported from Rhodes, an Aegean Sea island that had been part of Italy before the war. About 7,600 of those deported died.

Because Italian authorities obstructed the deportations and many Italian Jews were able to hide or escape southward

to Allied-occupied areas of Italy, more than 40,000 Jews in Italy survived the Holocaust.

In late April 1945, Communist partisans captured and executed Mussolini. German forces in Italy surrendered to the Allies in early May 1945.

THE DEPORTATION OF THE JEWS IN ROME

At the time of the German occupation of northern and central Italy in 1943, there were approximately 12,000 Jews living in Rome. Under German occupation, Italian Jews became subject to the "Final Solution."

The Gestapo levied a ransom on the Jews of Rome, demanding about 110 pounds of gold in exchange for the safety of the Jewish community. Although the ransom was delivered in late September 1943, the Germans still planned to deport Rome's Jews. The SS confiscated the registry of Roman Jews, which had been kept by the Jewish community at Rome's main synagogue, and deportations began in mid-October 1943. Wherever they lived, Jews were seized by the SS and taken to a military college in the center of Rome. After several days, more than 1,000 Jews were deported to the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center. Subsequent roundups

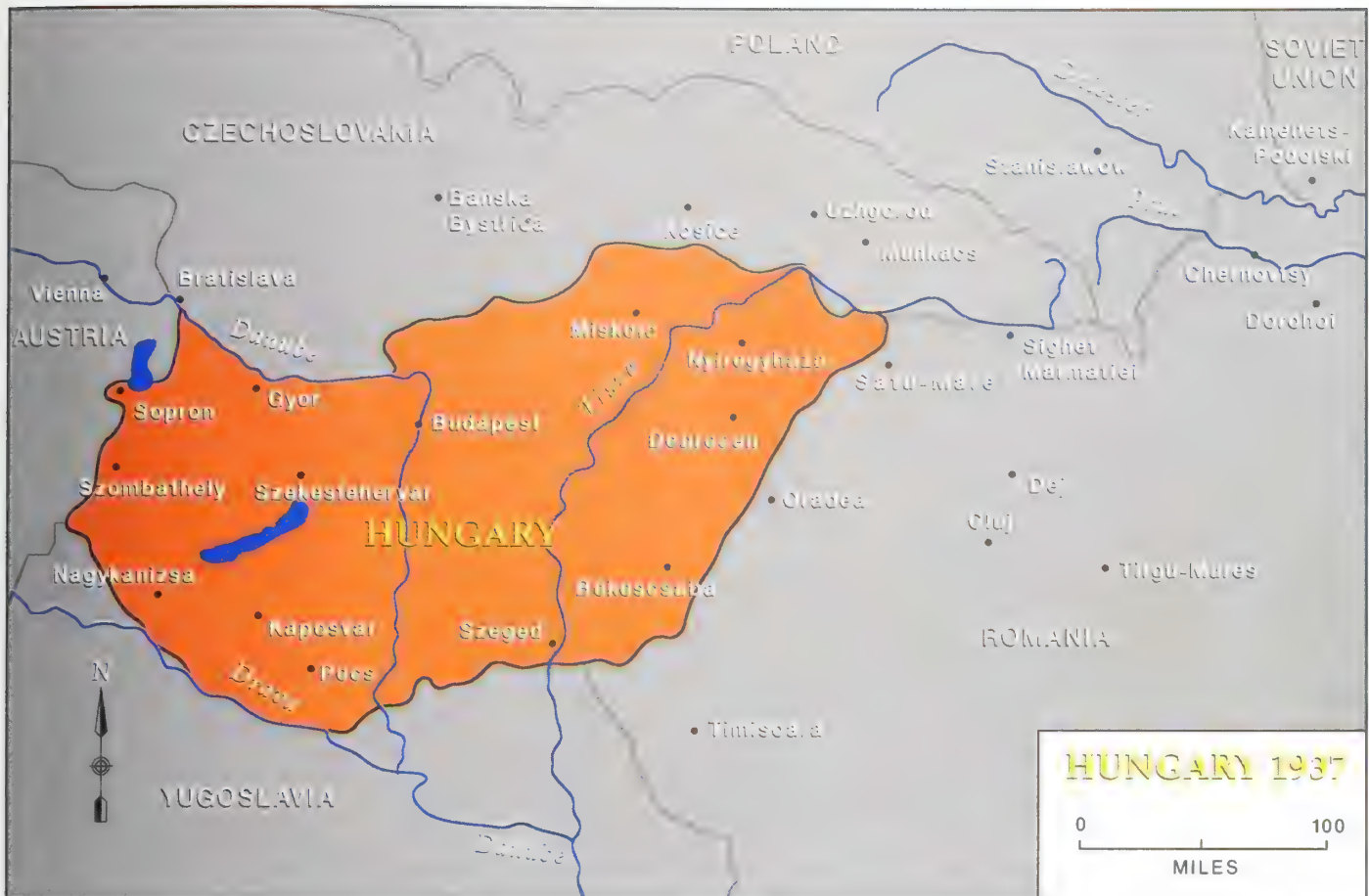


resulted in the arrest and deportation of about another 1,000 Roman Jews.

Because Italian police did not participate in these roundups and most Italians objected to the deportations, many Italian Jews were able to go into hiding. For every Jew caught by the Germans in Rome, at least 10 escaped and hid, many in the Vatican. Located in the heart of Rome, the Vatican was headed by Pius XII, pope of the Roman Catholic Church; it had the status of a neutral sovereign

state. During the occupation, Germany recognized and respected the neutrality of the Vatican. While Pope Pius XII refrained from any public denunciation of German policy toward the Jews, Catholic institutions in Rome aided the Jews.

The Germans occupied Rome for nine months. American forces liberated the city on June 5, 1944, and Jews came out of hiding to participate in the liberation ceremony held at Rome's main synagogue.



THE HOLOCAUST IN HUNGARY

Soon after World War I, Admiral Miklos Horthy came to power in Hungary, ruling as regent for the crown. In principle, Horthy ruled in the name of a monarchy with a vacant throne. In reality, Horthy was dictator.

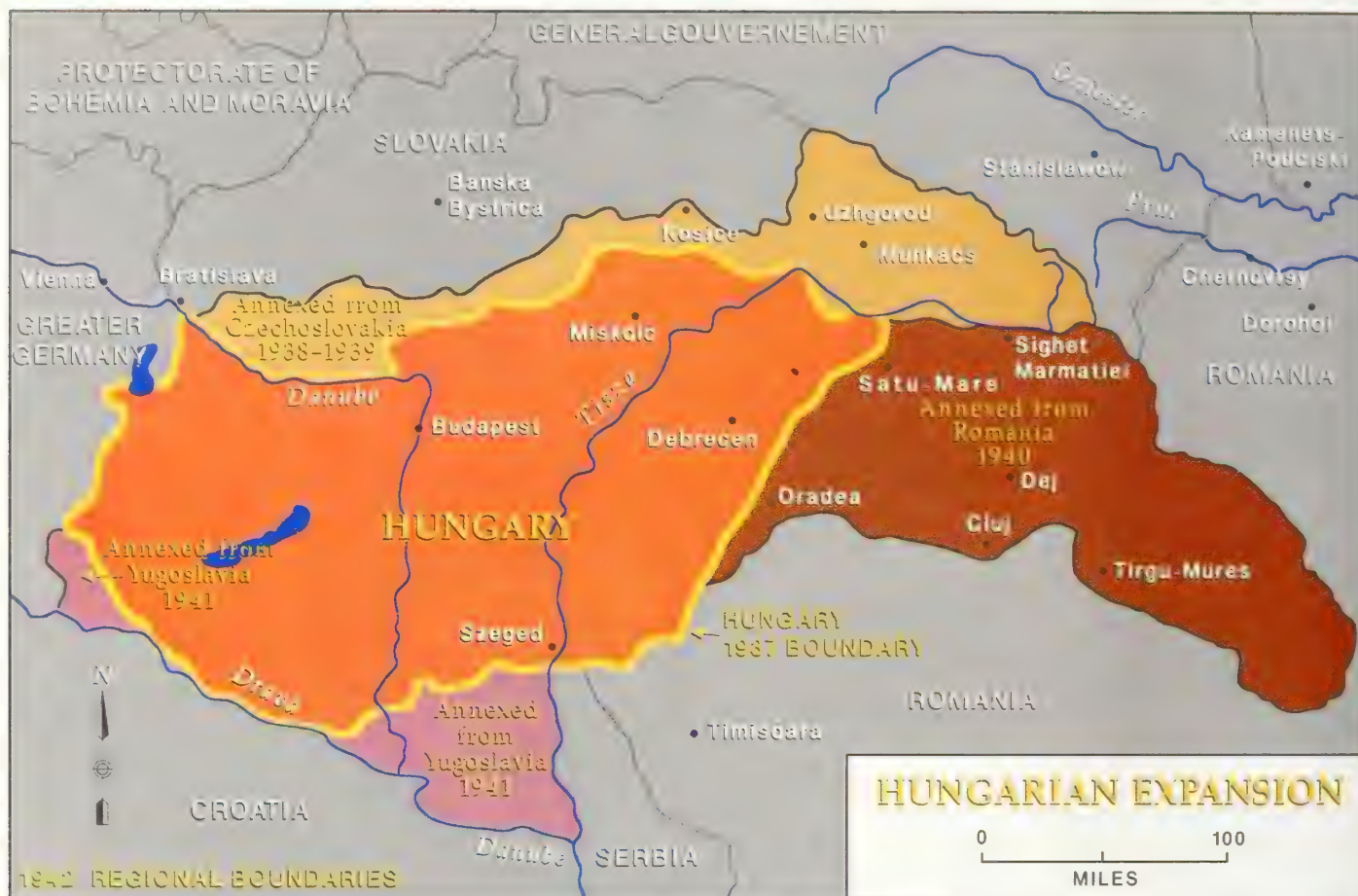
During World War II, Horthy allied Hungary with Germany. Hungary joined the Axis alliance in November 1940, declaring war on the Soviet Union in June 1941 and on Great Britain and the United States in December 1941. Germany enticed and then rewarded Hungary with territory, which allowed it to expand greatly—at the expense of its neighbors. With German backing, Hungary received the Transcarpathian Ukraine and sections of southern Slovakia from Czechoslovakia (1938-39), northern Transylvania from Romania (1940), and the Backa region from Yugoslavia (1941). Hungarian forces participated fully in the war in the Balkans and on the eastern front.

According to a 1941 census, Hungary, including the annexed territories, had a Jewish population of about 825,000, less than 6 percent of the total Hungarian population. This figure included 100,000 converts to Christianity who, under race laws, were classified as Jews. Between 1938 and 1941,

Hungary had introduced antisemitic legislation resembling Germany's Nuremberg Laws. Jews, defined in racial terms, were removed from public life and from the economy. In 1939, Hungary drafted all adult Jewish men for forced-labor service and assigned them to war-related construction work. About 40,000 Hungarian Jews died in the labor-service brigades before the German occupation of Hungary in March 1944.

Horthy generally did not deport Hungarian Jews to German-held territory, where they would have been included in the "Final Solution." However, about 20,000 "foreign" Jews from the territories annexed to Hungary—especially the Transcarpathian Ukraine—were deported in July and August of 1941 to Kamenets-Podolski, in the German-occupied Ukraine, where they were shot by German Einsatzgruppen detachments. Those Jews remaining in Hungary were relatively secure from deportation.

After the German defeat in the battle of Stalingrad of 1942-1943, and with Hungarian war casualties increasing, Horthy recognized that Germany would probably lose the war. He attempted to negotiate an armistice with the Allies. In response, German forces occupied Hungary on March 19,





1944, preventing such an armistice. Horthy remained as regent, but the Germans installed a pro-German government under Dome Sztojaj. Sztojaj committed Hungary to continuing the war against the Soviet Union and cooperated with Germany in the deportation of Jews in Hungary.

In April 1944, all Jews except those in Budapest were ordered into ghettos. Jews from the rural areas were sent to ghettos in Hungary's larger cities. The ghettos were enclosed areas, sometimes in a city's Jewish quarter, or in a nearby factory. In some places, Jews were compelled to live outdoors, without shelter or sanitary facilities. Jews were not permitted to leave the ghetto, and Hungarian police guarded its perimeter. Often, Jews were tortured and forced to turn over valuables to the Hungarian police. As in Poland, ghettoization was generally a temporary measure—but in this case for a matter of weeks, not months or years. Systematic deportations from the ghettos to Auschwitz-Birkenau began the next month, in May 1944.

Adolf Eichmann, the SS officer responsible for organizing the deportations, led a team of German specialists that worked with the Hungarians. The Hungarian police participated fully in the roundups. In less than three months,

nearly 440,000 Jews were deported from Hungary in more than 140 trains. By then, the only remaining Jewish community in Hungary was in Budapest, the capital.

Under Allied pressure and in light of the deteriorating military situation, Horthy halted the deportations of Jews from Hungary to Auschwitz-Birkenau, and in August 1944 dismissed Sztojaj's government. In October 1944, Horthy accepted terms for an armistice with the Soviet Union. Before the armistice was signed, the Germans arrested Horthy, took him to Germany, and installed a new Hungarian government dominated by the Hungarian fascist Arrow Cross. Under Ferenc Szalasi, the Arrow Cross regime began a reign of terror, especially against the Jews in Budapest.

Before the Arrow Cross regime, the Jews of Budapest, traditionally Hungary's largest Jewish community, had remained virtually untouched by ghettoization and deportations. Under the Arrow Cross, the killing of Jews in Budapest was a daily occurrence. Thousands of victims were taken to the banks of the Danube, shot, and thrown in the river. More than 70,000 Jews, most of them women, were forced on a death march to Austria, where they were used as forced laborers in Nazi concentration camps and in the construction



of fortifications around Vienna. As the Soviets approached Budapest, the Nazis ordered 70,000 Jews into a ghetto, where thousands died as a result of poor conditions.

Yet there were rescue attempts. Diplomat Raoul Wallenberg of neutral Sweden and other representatives of neutral states were able to rescue many thousands of Jews from the Arrow Cross and the Germans. These diplomats issued false citizenship papers and protective passes to save the Jews from deportation.

In January 1945, Hungary signed an armistice with the Soviet Union. Soviet forces liberated Budapest in February, and by early April all German troops had been forced out of Hungary.

Of the more than 800,000 Jews living in Hungary, more than 60,000 were killed before the German occupation. Almost 620,000 Jews living in Hungary died or were deported or killed before the liberation of Hungary in early 1945. At liberation, about 140,000 Jews remained in Hungary, mostly in Budapest under the protection of a neutral power.

BUDAPEST

Hungary's capital, Budapest, straddles both banks of the

Danube River and is the country's most populous city. Budapest was created by the union of three cities: Buda, Obuda, and Pest.

Before World War II, approximately 200,000 Jews lived in Budapest, making it the center of Hungarian Jewish cultural life. In the late 1930s and early 1940s, Budapest was a safe haven for Jewish refugees. Before the war some 5,000 refugees, primarily from Germany and Austria, arrived in Budapest. With the beginning of deportations of Jews from Slovakia in March 1942, as many as 8,000 Slovak Jewish refugees also settled in Budapest.

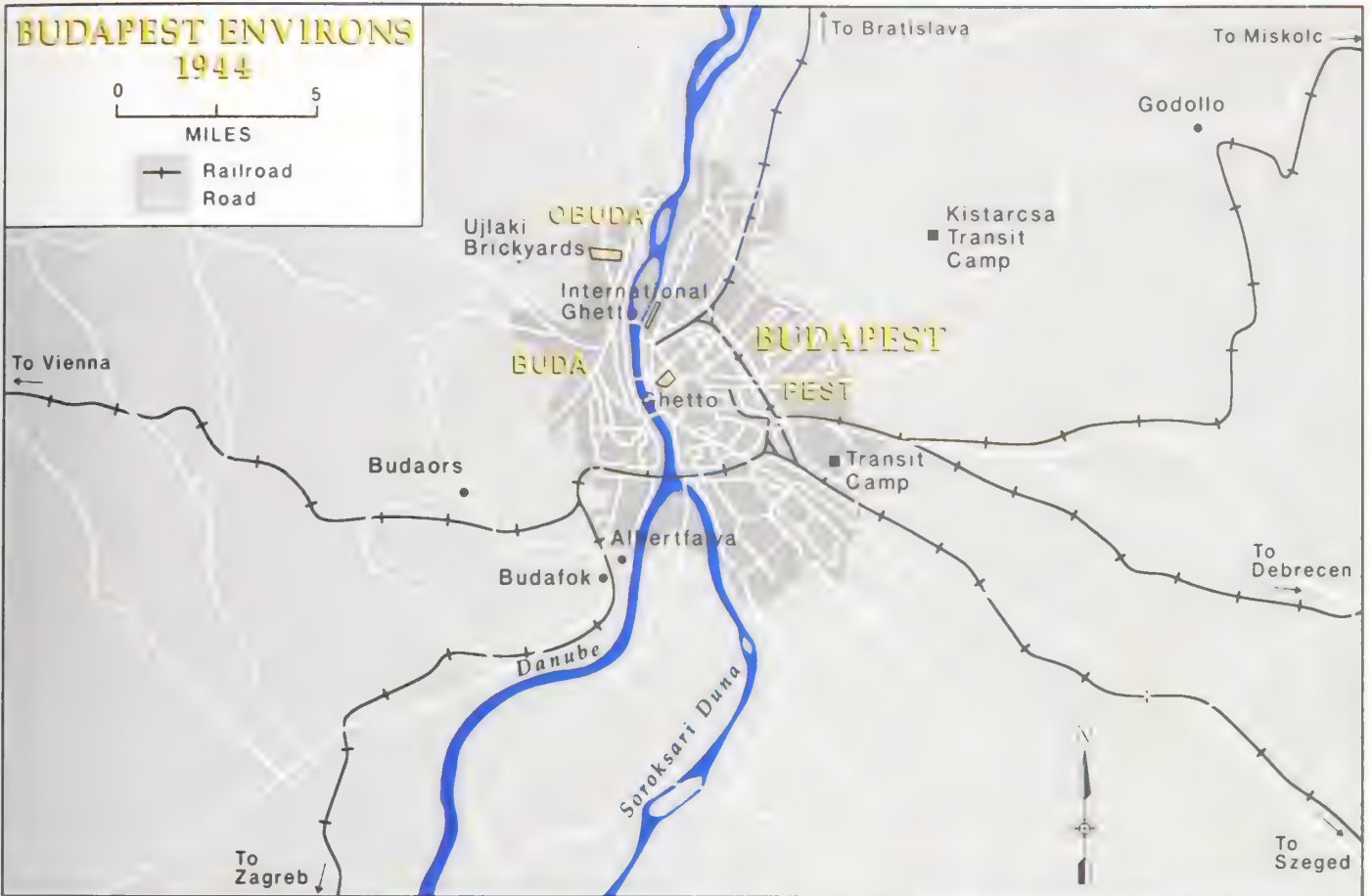
Despite discriminatory legislation against the Jews and widespread antisemitism, the Jewish community of Budapest was relatively secure until the German occupation of Hungary in March 1944. With the occupation, the Germans ordered the establishment of a Jewish council in Budapest and severely restricted Jewish life. Hundreds of apartments occupied by Jews were confiscated. Hundreds of Jews were rounded up and interned in the Kistarcsa transit camp, 15 miles northeast of Budapest.

Between April and July 1944, the Germans rounded up and deported Jews from the Hungarian provinces. By the end

BUDAPEST ENVIRONS 1944

0 5
MILES

—+— Railroad
— Road

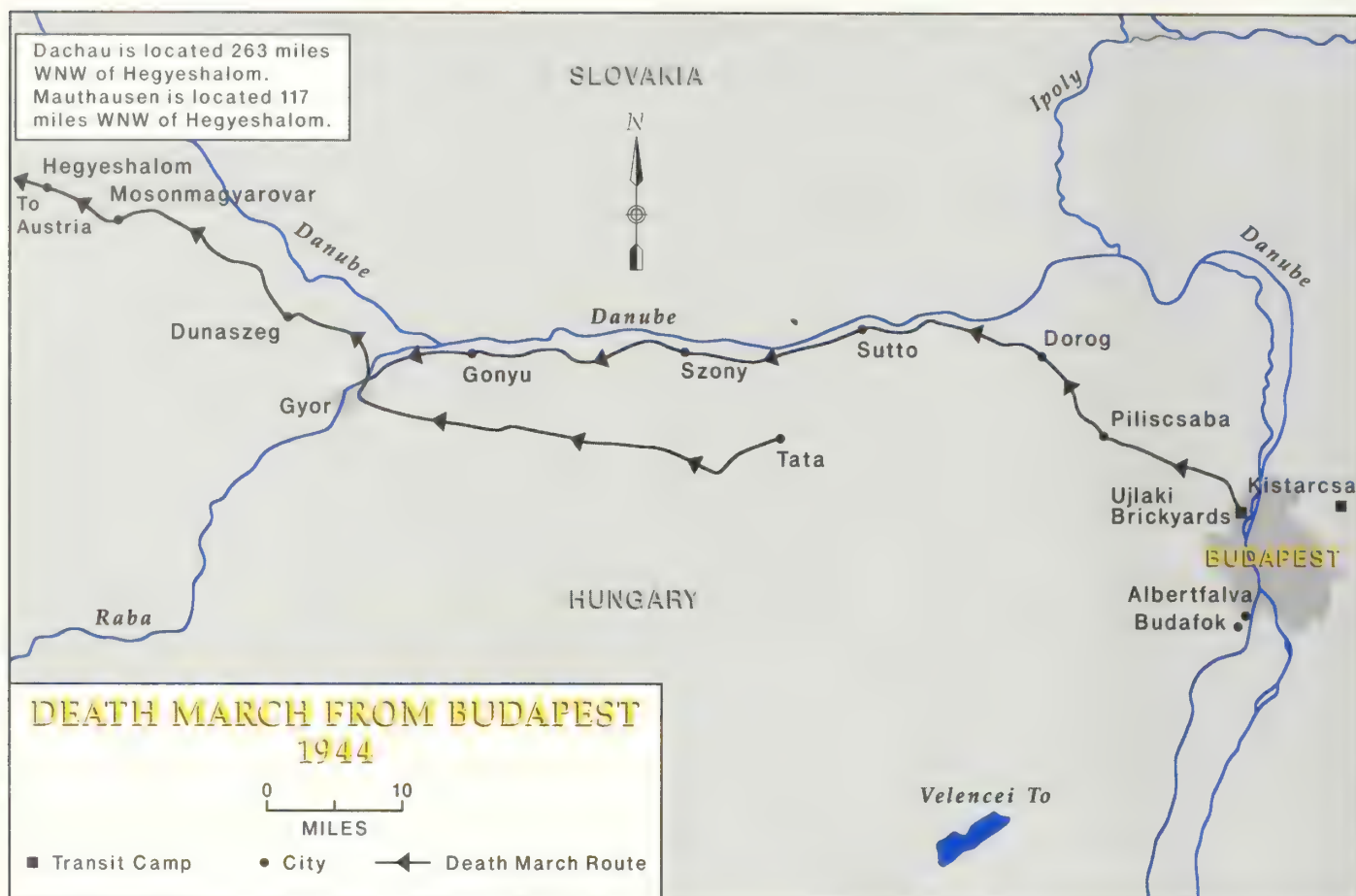


BUDAPEST GHETTO 1944

0 12
MILE

□ District Offices of the Jewish Council
— Ghetto Boundary
—+— Railroad
— Road
— Gate





of July, the Jews in Budapest were the only Jews remaining in Hungary. They were not immediately ghettoized. Instead, in June 1944, Hungarian authorities ordered the Jews into over 2,000 designated buildings scattered throughout the city. The buildings were marked with Stars of David. Further, about 25,000 Jews from the suburbs of Budapest were rounded up and deported to the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center. Hungarian authorities suspended the deportations in July 1944, sparing the remaining Jews of Budapest, at least temporarily.

Many Jews searched for places of hiding or for protection, should the deportations be renewed. They were aided by the Swedish diplomat Raoul Wallenberg and other diplomats who organized false papers and safe houses for them. These actions saved tens of thousands of Jews.

In October 1944, Germany installed a new Hungarian government dominated by the Hungarian fascist Arrow Cross. The remaining Jews of Budapest were again in grave danger. The Arrow Cross instituted a reign of terror in Budapest. Jews were drafted for forced labor, fortifying the city. Hundreds of Jews were shot.

On November 8, the Hungarians concentrated more than 70,000 Jews—men, women, and children—in the Ujlaki brickyards in Obuda, and from there forced them on a death march to camps in Austria. Thousands were shot along the way and thousands more died as a result of starvation or exposure to the bitter cold. The prisoners who survived the death march reached Austria in late December 1944. There, the Germans took them to various concentration camps, especially Dachau in southern Germany and Mauthausen in northern Austria, and to Vienna, where they were employed in the construction of fortifications around the city.

In November 1944, the Arrow Cross ordered the remaining Jews in Budapest into a closed ghetto. Jews who did not have protective papers issued by a neutral power were to move to the ghetto by early December. Between December 1944 and the end of January 1945, the Arrow Cross took as many as 20,000 Jews from the ghetto, shot them along the banks of the Danube, and threw their bodies into the river.

Soviet forces liberated Budapest on February 13, 1945. More than 100,000 Jews remained in the city at liberation.

SECTION 7

RESCUE AND JEWISH ARMED RESISTANCE

ESCAPE ROUTES FROM GERMAN- OCCUPIED EUROPE 1942

0 400

MILES

- Greater Germany & Occupied Territories
- German-Allied or Dependent States
- Neutrals
- Allies
- Cities
- Escape Routes





RESCUE AND ESCAPE

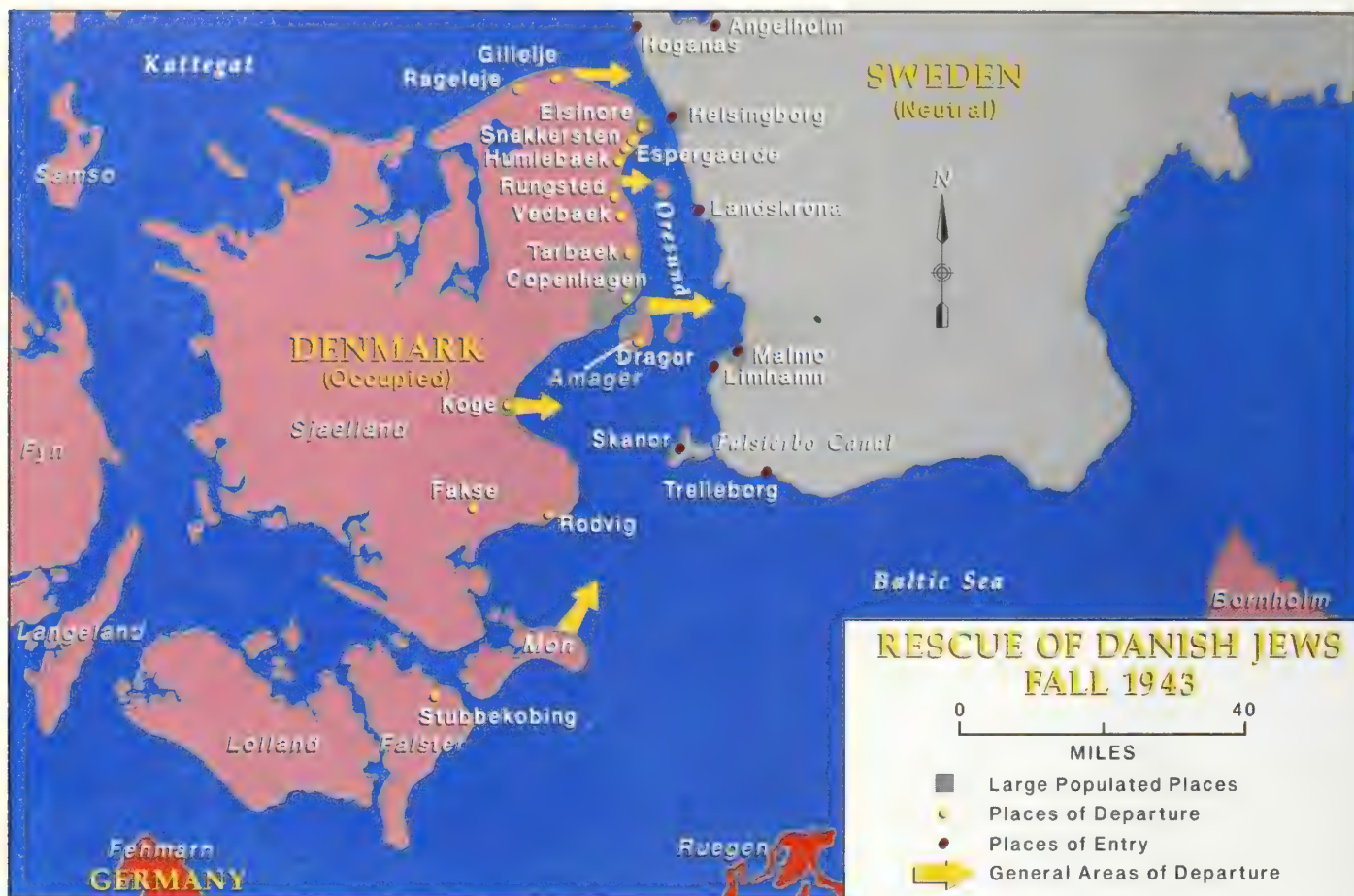
At its height, German-occupied Europe extended from the Pyrenees Mountains in the west to the city of Stalingrad on the Volga in the east; from the Arctic reaches of Norway in the north to the desert sands of Egypt in the south. Throughout most of German-occupied Europe, the Germans sought to round up and deport Jews to killing centers in occupied Poland. Some survived the “Final Solution” by hiding or escaping from German-controlled Europe.

Most non-Jews neither aided nor hindered the “Final Solution.” Relatively few people helped Jews escape. Those who did aid Jews were motivated by opposition to Nazi racism, by compassion, or by religious or moral principle. In a few rare instances, entire communities as well as individuals helped save Jews from the Nazis. They did so at tremendous risk. In many places, providing shelter to Jews was punishable by death.

Between 1941 and 1944, the residents of Le Chambon-sur-Lignon, a Protestant village in southern France, helped thousands of refugees, including about 5,000 Jews, escape Nazi persecution. Though the villagers’ actions placed them in grave danger, they were resolute, inspired by religious conviction and a sense of moral duty. Refugees were hidden in private homes throughout the community. Nearby Catholic convents and monasteries also provided shelter. Beginning in 1943, the townspeople also helped smuggle refugees to neutral Switzerland.

Some escape routes out of occupied Europe led to belligerent states (such as the Soviet Union), neutral states (such as Switzerland, Spain, Sweden, and Turkey), and even to states allied with Germany (such as Italy and Hungary before they were occupied by Germany).

Between 1939 and 1941 nearly 300,000 Polish Jews, almost 10 percent of the entire Polish-Jewish population, fled German-held western Poland and crossed into Soviet-occupied Poland. Soviet authorities deported tens of thousands of Jews from Poland and the Baltic states to Siberia far to the east. Although these Jews faced extreme hardship, remaining in the Soviet Union meant that they survived the “Final Solution.” After the German attack on the Soviet



Union, more than a million Soviet Jews escaped eastward, fleeing the advancing German army and again avoiding almost certain death.

During World War II, close to 30,000 Jews managed to enter neutral Switzerland. Although most were interned in Swiss detention camps, thousands more were turned back into German-occupied territory. Tens of thousands of Jews escaped to Spain and Portugal. Spain usually permitted refugees escaping from France, many of whom came across the Pyrenees Mountains, to enter the country. However, it sought to ensure the immediate emigration of Jewish refugees to other countries. Most Jews who escaped to Spain continued on to the Portuguese port of Lisbon, hoping to leave from there for other countries of refuge. Thousands went on to the United States.

In the north, neutral Sweden provided sanctuary for Jews fleeing German-occupied Denmark and Norway. More than 7,000 Danish Jews fled from Denmark to Sweden in October 1943.

Thousands of Jews managed to leave Black Sea ports in Bulgaria and Romania. To reach Palestine, their ultimate destination, the boats needed to refuel in Turkish ports.

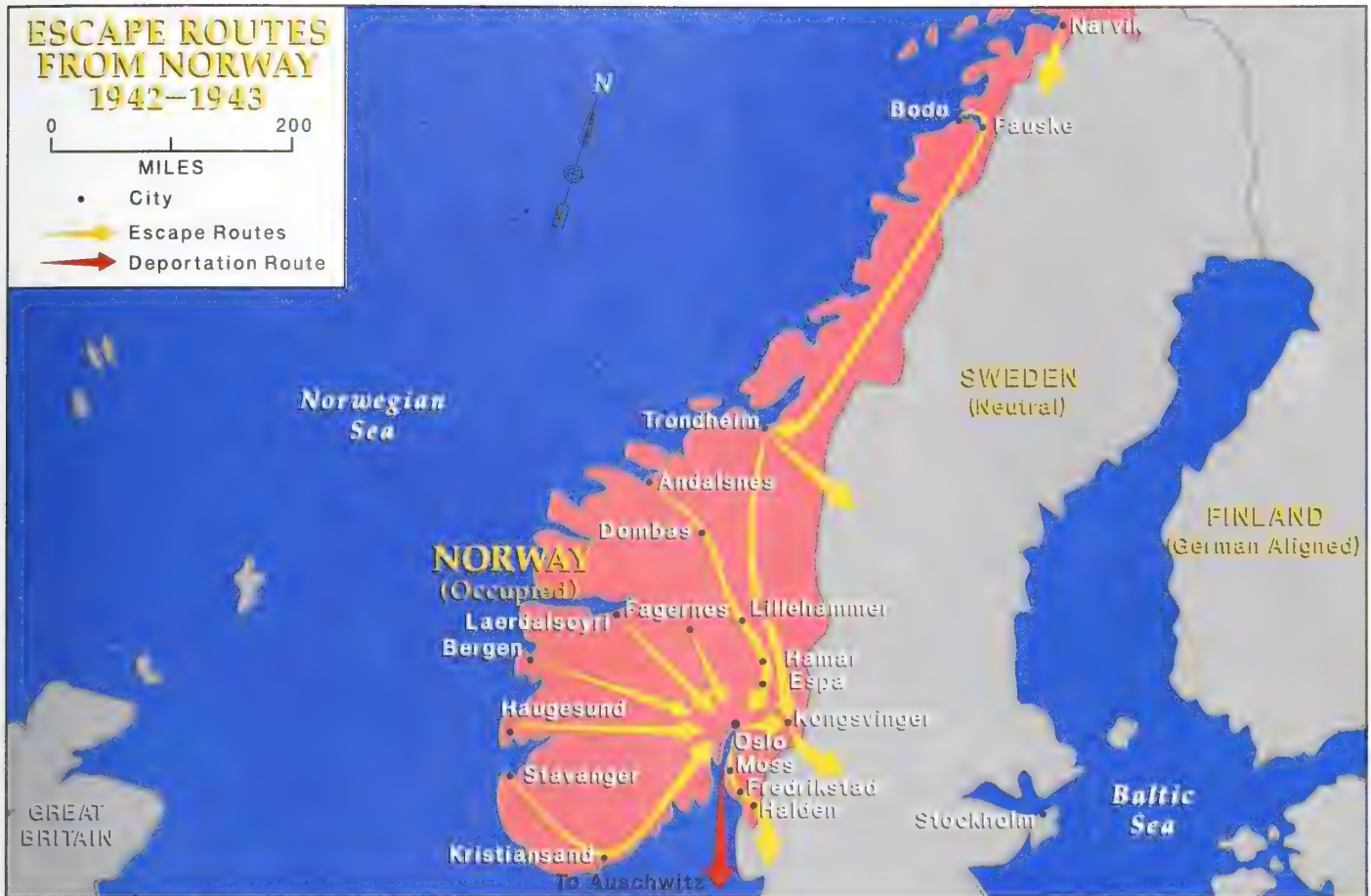
Turkey, however, sought to prevent these boats from using its ports and Jews from entering Turkey. Thus, Turkish policy was an obstacle to the rescue of Jews and ultimately led to tragedy. The most poignant instance was the sinking, off the Turkish coast, of the *Struma*, one of the boats that carried refugees attempting to reach Palestine.

Italian forces protected Jews in the Italian occupation zones in Yugoslavia, Greece, and France, and avoided deporting Jews to German-occupied territory. Not until Germany occupied Italy and the Italian territories did Jews there become subject to deportation. Hungary tolerated the entry of Jewish refugees from neighboring Poland and Slovakia and generally did not deport Hungarian Jews to German-occupied territory. After the German occupation of Hungary in 1944, Jews there were subject to deportation.

THE RESCUE OF DANISH JEWS

When Germany occupied Denmark in 1940, the Jewish population was approximately 7,500. About 6,000 of them were Danish citizens and about 1,500 were Jewish refugees. Most of them lived in the country's capital, Copenhagen.

Until 1943, the German occupation of Denmark was



relatively benign. The Danish government continued to rule the country, but Germany dominated Danish foreign policy. Considering the relatively small Jewish population and the steadfast support Danes gave to their fellow Jewish citizens, Germany decided not to make a major issue of the “Jewish question” in Denmark.

The situation changed dramatically in 1943. Allied victories convinced some Danes that Germany could be defeated and they decided to resist the Germans. Strikes and acts of sabotage strained relations with Germany. The Danish government resigned in August 1943 rather than yield to new German demands to halt the resistance. When the Germans decided to deport Jews from Denmark, a German officer leaked word of the planned deportations and the Danes informed the Jewish community.

German police began arresting Jews in early October 1943, without the help of the Danish police, who refused to cooperate. Danes spontaneously organized a rescue operation and helped Jews reach the coast; fishermen then ferried them to neutral Sweden. The rescue operation expanded to include participation by the Danish resistance, the police, and the government. In little more than three weeks, the Danes ferried

more than 7,000 Jews and close to 700 of their non-Jewish relatives to Sweden, which accepted the Danish refugees.

The Germans seized about 500 Jews in Denmark and deported them to the Theresienstadt ghetto in Bohemia. The Danes demanded information on their whereabouts and Danish government officials visited them in the summer of 1944. Danish Jews remained in Theresienstadt until 1945. As the war ended, the Germans handed them over to the Swedish Red Cross. The vigor of Danish protests perhaps prevented their deportation to the killing centers in occupied Poland.

NORWEGIAN JEWRY IN THE HOLOCAUST

There were approximately 1,700 Jews in Norway, part of Scandinavia, when Germany invaded in April 1940. This included several hundred foreign Jews who had found refuge in Norway in the 1930s.

Mass arrests of Jews began in the fall of 1942. Norwegian police assisted the SS units assigned to round up Jews. In early October, all male Jews in Trondheim, a major Norwegian city, were arrested. In October and November 1942, Jews were arrested in Oslo, Norway’s capital. Those caught by the Germans were interned in camps throughout



southern Norway and then deported to the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center. Many Jews, however, received warnings of the roundups from Norwegian policemen and members of the underground. The Norwegian underground helped about 900 Jews escape to neutral Sweden. Many others went into hiding. Despite the protests of Norwegian church leaders and the Norwegian population, the deportation of Jews from Norway continued sporadically.

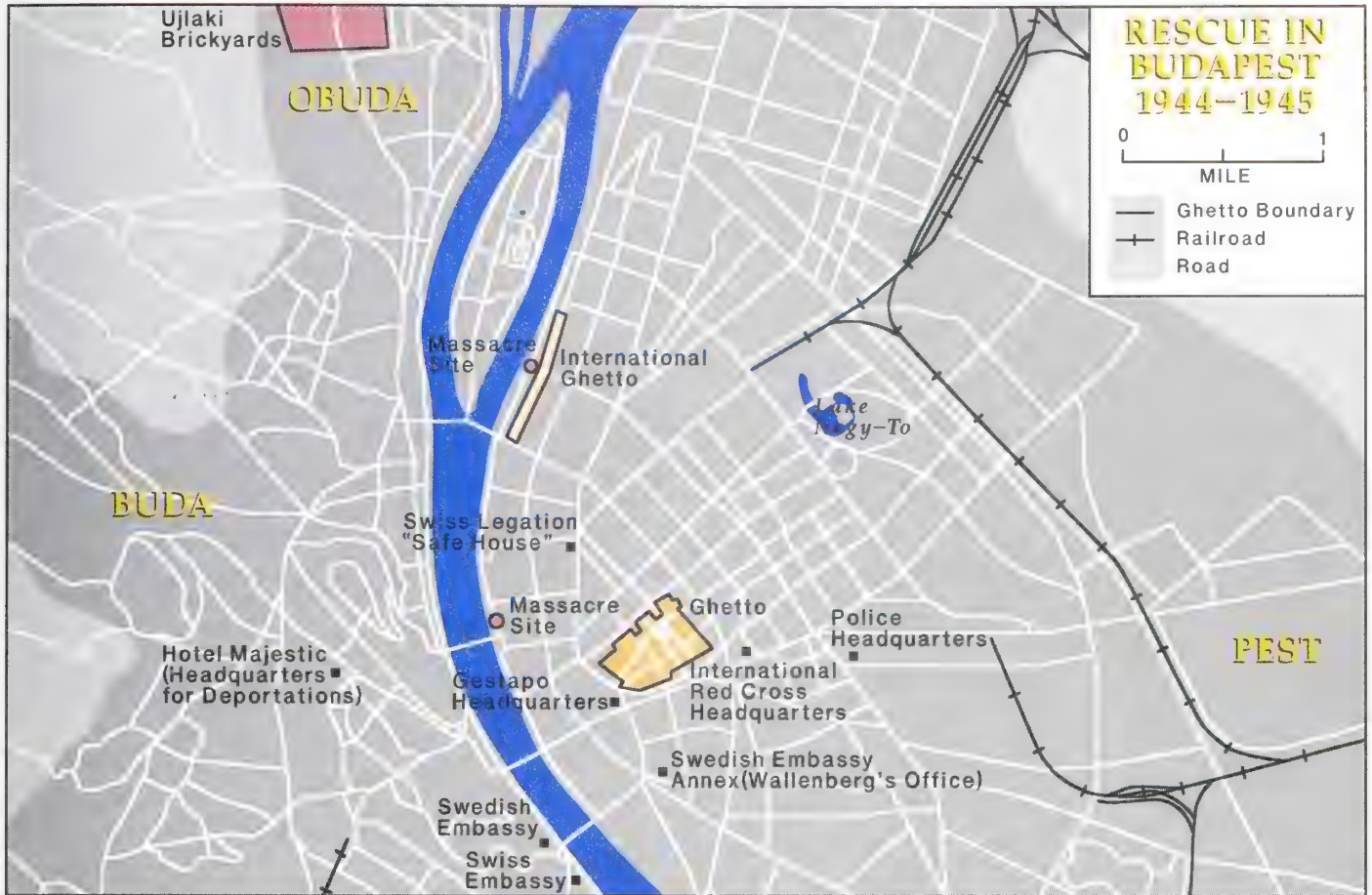
Between 1940 and 1945, the Germans deported more than 750 Jews from Norway; only about 25 returned after the war. The others died in Auschwitz. In early May 1945, German forces in Norway surrendered to the Allies and a civilian Norwegian government was restored.

THE SINKING OF THE *STRUMA*

The Romanian port of Constanta, on the Black Sea, was a major embarkation point for Jews attempting to leave Europe for Palestine. Thousands of Jews, desperate to escape the Germans, took the route by boat from Constanta via Turkey to

Palestine, despite British immigration restrictions. In December 1941, in Constanta, more than 750 Jews boarded a boat named the *Struma*. They planned to travel to Istanbul, apply for visas to Palestine, and then sail to Palestine. The *Struma* was unsafe and overcrowded, and lacked adequate sanitary facilities. Despite engine problems, it reached Istanbul. There, the passengers were informed they would not get visas to enter Palestine and, furthermore, would not be permitted entry into Turkey.

The boat was kept in quarantine in Istanbul's harbor for more than two months. Turkish authorities denied the passengers permission to land without British agreement to their continued journey to Palestine. On February 23, 1942, the Turkish police towed the boat out to sea and abandoned it. Within hours the boat sank. Although the cause of the sinking is not definitively known, it is assumed that it was mistakenly torpedoed by a Soviet submarine. Only one passenger survived. The sinking of the *Struma* led to widespread international protest against Britain's policy on immigration into Palestine.



RESCUE IN BUDAPEST

Raoul Wallenberg led one of the most extensive and successful rescue efforts during the Holocaust. A Swedish diplomat, Wallenberg was assigned to the embassy in Budapest, Hungary. He worked with the United States War Refugee Board (WRB) and the World Jewish Congress to protect tens of thousands of Hungarian Jews from deportation to the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center.

Hungary had been an ally of Germany, but German defeats and mounting Hungarian losses led Hungary to seek an armistice with the Soviet Union. German forces occupied Hungary in March 1944 to prevent Hungary from leaving the war and negotiating such an armistice. Shortly after the occupation, Germany began deporting Hungarian Jews to Auschwitz. By July 1944, the Germans had deported nearly 440,000 Jews from Hungary. Two hundred thousand Jews remained in Budapest, and they too faced deportation.

Wallenberg began distributing Swedish protective passports to the Jews in Budapest in July 1944. He

established hospitals, nurseries, and a soup kitchen, and set up more than 30 safe houses that together formed the core of the international ghetto in Budapest. The international ghetto was reserved for those Jews and their families holding protective papers from a neutral country. In November 1944, during the death march of Hungarian Jews from Budapest to labor camps in Austria, Wallenberg secured the release of bearers of protective passports, and forged papers to save as many as possible.

Diplomats from other neutral countries joined the rescue effort. Carl Lutz, a Swiss diplomat, issued certificates of emigration so that nearly 50,000 Jews in Budapest were under Swiss protection as potential emigrants to Palestine. Italian businessman Giorgio Perlasca posed as a Spanish diplomat; he issued forged Spanish visas and established safe houses, including one for Jewish children. When Soviet forces liberated Budapest in February 1945, more than 100,000 Jews remained, mostly because of the efforts of Wallenberg and his colleagues.



JEWISH ARMED RESISTANCE IN OCCUPIED EUROPE

Despite enormous obstacles, many Jews throughout German-occupied Europe attempted armed resistance against the Germans. Individual Jews or groups of Jews engaged in planned or spontaneous opposition to the Germans and their allies. Jewish partisan units operated in France, Belgium, the Ukraine, Belorussia, Lithuania, and Poland. Large numbers of Jews also fought in non-Jewish French, Italian, Yugoslav, Greek, and Soviet resistance organizations.

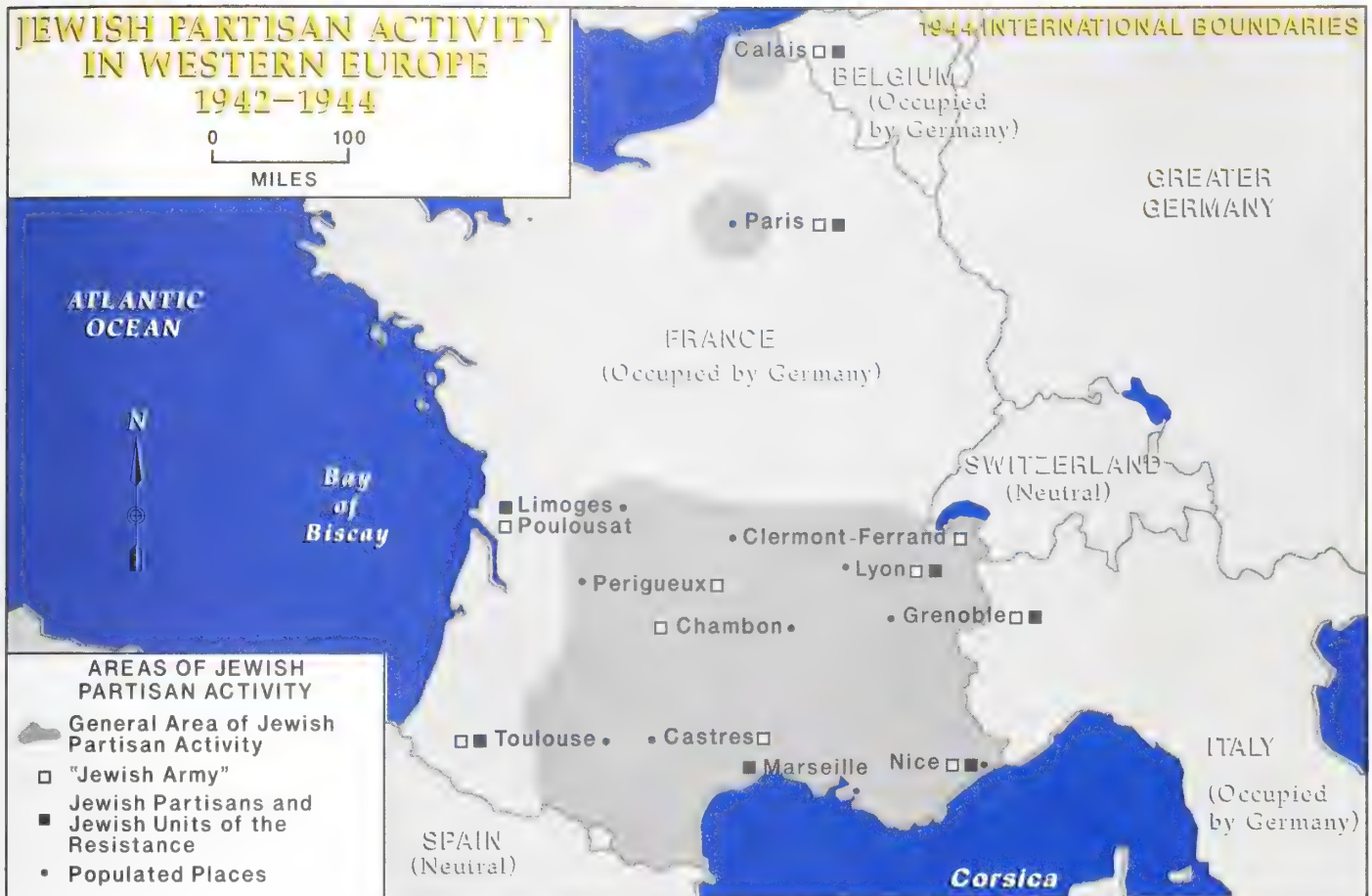
Jewish partisans were especially active in the east, where they fought the Germans from bases established behind the front lines in the forests and ghettos. Because antisemitism was widespread, they found little support among the surrounding population. Even so, as many as 20,000 Jews fought the Germans in the forests of eastern Europe.

Jews from Minsk, for example, established seven different partisan units. Thousands of Jews escaped from ghettos such as Bialystok, Kovno, Riga, and Vilna and joined partisan groups operating in the nearby forests. In Krakow, Jewish fighters used the ghetto as a base from which to attack targets throughout Krakow city. Their most important

attack was at the Cyganeria cafe, which was frequented by German officers.

Thousands of Jews—including whole families with women and children—took refuge in the extensive forests of eastern Europe. Jewish partisans established camps for non-combatants deep in the forests and swamps surrounding major Jewish population centers. These camps were mostly located in western Belorussia (in the Naliboki Forest) and in the western Ukraine, but also in eastern Poland. In 1943, many of the camps became bases for Soviet partisan operations. Jewish civilians repaired weapons, made clothing, and cooked for the fighters. As many as 10,000 Jews survived the war by taking refuge with Jewish partisan units.

In western Europe, Jewish partisans were particularly active in France. The "Jewish Army," a French Jewish partisan group, was founded in Toulouse in January 1942 and operated especially in Toulouse, Nice, Lyon, and Paris. Members of the "Jewish Army" smuggled millions of francs from Switzerland into France to distribute to Jewish relief organizations. This money helped thousands of Jews who had gone into hiding. The "Jewish Army" assassinated some



of those who collaborated with the Germans and safely smuggled about 500 Jews and non-Jews alike across the border into neutral Spain. "Jewish Army" units also took part in the 1944 uprisings against the Germans in Paris, Lyon, and Toulouse.

A partisan group of Jews and non-Jews assassinated a collaborationist general in the Netherlands. In Belgium, a Jewish and Belgian partisan group ("Solidarity") derailed a

deportation train in April 1943.

Organized armed resistance was the most direct form of Jewish opposition to the Nazis. In many areas of German-occupied Europe, Jewish resistance instead focused on aid, rescue, and spiritual resistance. The preservation of Jewish cultural institutions and the continuance of religious observance were acts of spiritual resistance to the Nazi policy of genocide.



JEWISH RESISTANCE IN GHETTOS AND CAMPS

Between 1941 and 1943, underground resistance movements developed in about 100 Jewish ghettos in Nazi-occupied eastern Europe, especially in Poland, Lithuania, Belorussia, and the Ukraine. Their main goals were to organize uprisings, break out of the ghettos, and join partisan units in the fight against the Germans.

The Jews knew that uprisings would not stop the Germans and that only a handful of fighters would succeed in escaping to join with partisans. Still, Jews made the decision to resist. The ghettos of Vilna, Mir, Lachva, Kremenets, Czestochowa, Nesvizh, Sosnowiec, and Tarnow, among others, rebelled when the Germans announced deportations. In Bialystok, the underground staged an uprising just prior to the final destruction of the ghetto in September 1943. Most of the ghetto fighters, who were young men and women, died during the fighting.

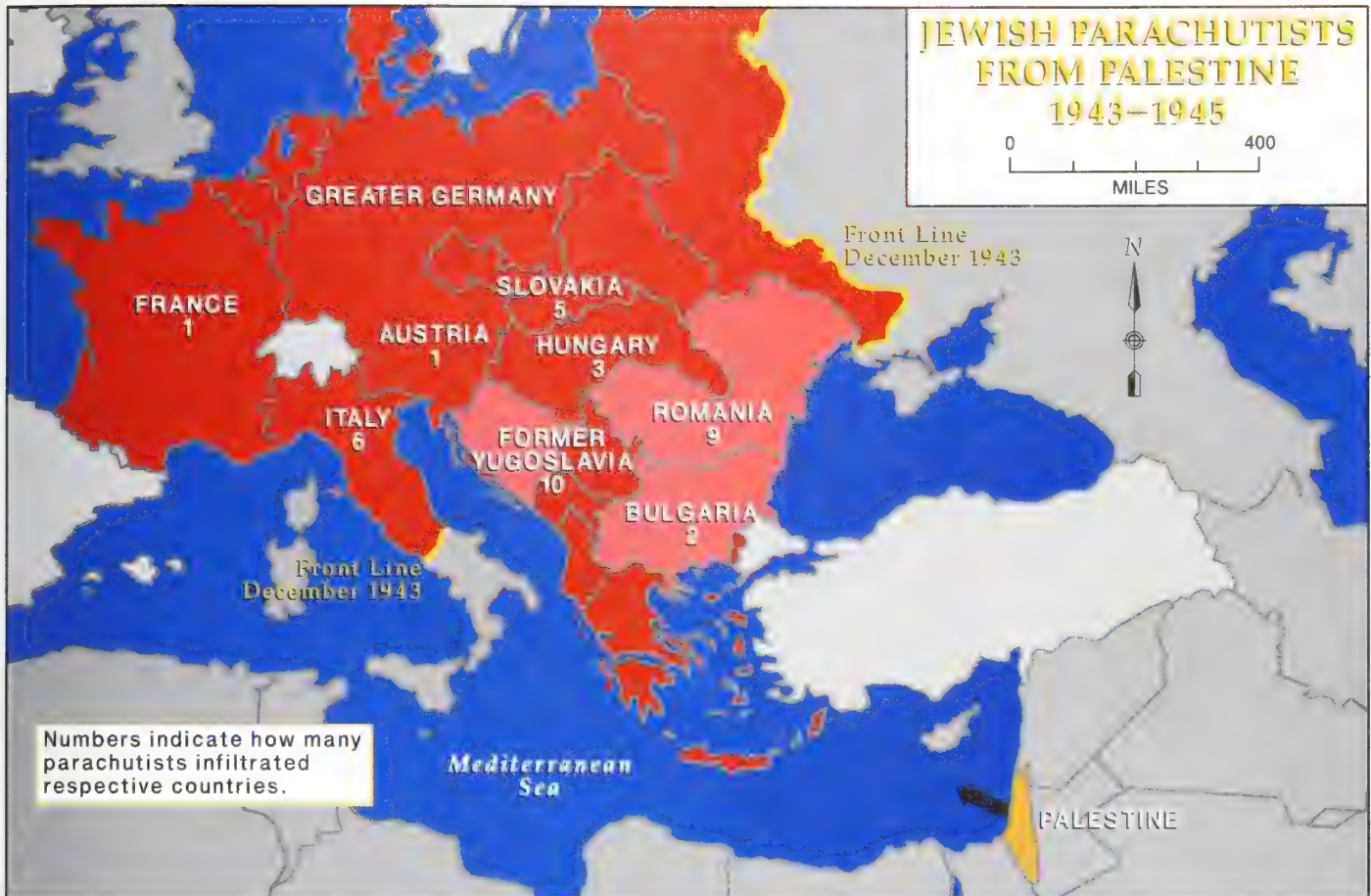
The Warsaw ghetto uprising in the spring of 1943 was the largest single revolt by Jews. Hundreds of Jews fought the Germans and their Ukrainian auxiliaries in the streets of the ghetto. Thousands of Jews refused to obey German orders to

report to an assembly point for deportation. In the end the Nazis burned the ghetto to the ground to force the Jews out. Although they knew defeat was certain, Jews in the ghetto fought desperately and valiantly.

Under the most adverse conditions, Jewish prisoners succeeded in initiating resistance and uprisings in some Nazi concentration camps, and even in the killing centers of Treblinka, Sobibor, and Auschwitz. About 1,000 Jewish prisoners took part in the revolt in Treblinka. On August 2, 1943, they seized what weapons they could find—picks, axes, and some firearms stolen from the camp armory—and set fire to the camp. About 200 managed to escape. The Germans recaptured and killed about half of them almost immediately.

On October 14, 1943, prisoners in Sobibor killed 11 SS guards and set the camp on fire. About 300 prisoners escaped, breaking through the barbed wire and risking their lives in the minefield surrounding the camp. Over 100 were recaptured and later shot.

On October 7, 1944, prisoners assigned to Crematorium IV at Auschwitz-Birkenau rebelled after learning that the Germans were going to kill them. During the uprising, the prisoners killed three guards and blew up the crematoria and connecting



gas chamber. The prisoners used explosives smuggled into the camp by Jewish women who had been assigned to forced labor in a nearby armaments factory. The Germans crushed the revolt and killed almost all the several hundred prisoners involved in the rebellion. The Jewish women who had smuggled the explosives into the camp were hanged.

Other camp uprisings took place in the Kruszyna (1942), Minsk Mazowiecki (1943), and Janowska (1943) camps. In several dozen camps prisoners organized escapes to join partisan units. Successful escapes occurred, for example, from the Lublin-Lipowa camp.

JEWISH PARACHUTISTS FROM PALESTINE

Between 1943 and 1945, a select group of Jewish men and women from Palestine who had volunteered to join the British army parachuted into German-occupied Europe. Their mission was to organize resistance to the Germans and aid in the rescue of Allied personnel. Of the 250 original volunteers, 110 underwent training. Thirty-two eventually parachuted into Europe and five infiltrated the target countries by other routes. Most of those selected for training

were emigres from Europe, with intimate knowledge of the countries to which they would be sent.

Three of the parachutists infiltrated Hungary, five participated in the Slovak national uprising, and six operated in northern Italy. Ten parachutists served with the British liaison missions to the Yugoslav partisans. Nine parachutists operated in Romania. Two others entered Bulgaria, and one each operated in France and Austria.

The Germans captured 12 and executed 7 of the 37 parachutists sent into occupied Europe. Three of those executed were captured in Slovakia. Two were captured in Hungary and one in northern Italy. The Jewish parachutist who entered France was captured and killed after seven missions.

Hannah Szenes, one of the most well-known of the parachutists, was seized in German-occupied Hungary and executed in Budapest in November 1944, at the age of 23. Szenes was a talented poet and her songs are still sung in Israel.

After the war, remains of the seven parachutists who lost their lives during the war, including Szenes, were interred in the National Military Cemetery overlooking Jerusalem in Israel.



THE JEWISH BRIGADE GROUP

In light of opposition to a Jewish homeland in Palestine, the British were at first reluctant to establish, in the framework of the British army, a fighting unit of Jewish volunteers from Palestine. However, the requirements of war led to the formation of Palestinian Jewish units incorporated into the British army as early as September 1940. Many Jews volunteered to serve, and demanded to be transferred to the front. Over 30,000 Jewish volunteers from Palestine served with the British army during the war. Of these, more than 700 were killed on active duty.

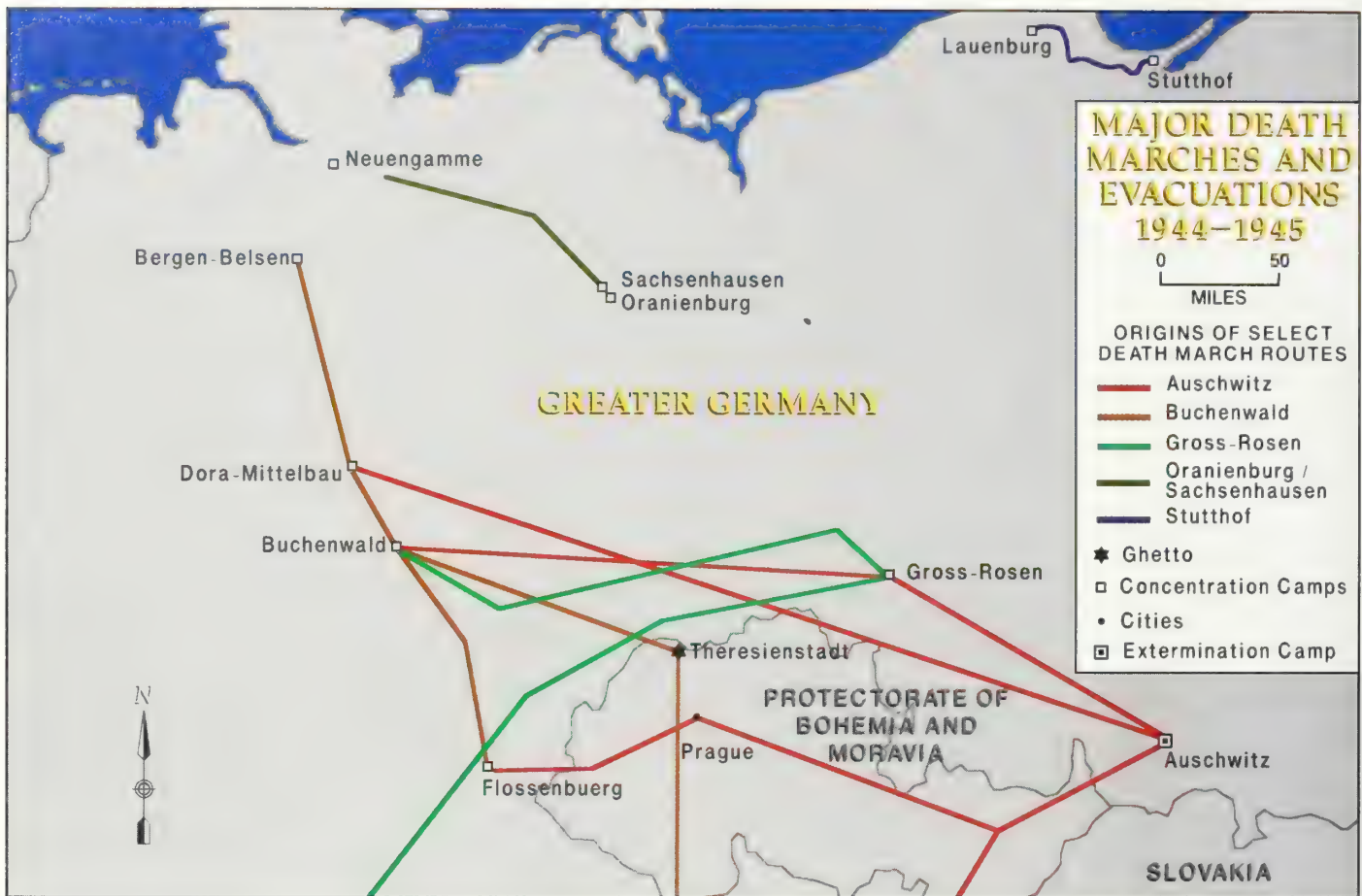
The Jewish Brigade Group, the only Jewish unit in the British army to fight under the Jewish flag, was formed in September 1944. It included more than 5,000 Jewish volunteers from Palestine who were organized into three

infantry battalions and supporting units. The Jewish Brigade Group fought against the Germans in Italy from March 1945 until the end of the war in May 1945. About 30 soldiers were killed in action and about 70 were wounded.

After Germany's surrender, the Brigade was stationed along the Italian border with Austria and Yugoslavia, and later in Belgium and the Netherlands. Some soldiers from the Brigade helped organize displaced persons' camps for Jewish survivors of the Holocaust. Others became involved in organizing the flight of Jewish refugees from eastern Europe and in the "illegal" immigration of Jews to Palestine. Some soldiers also acquired arms for the Hagana, a Jewish underground organization in Palestine. Britain disbanded the Jewish Brigade Group in the summer of 1946.

SECTION 8

DEATH MARCHES AND LIBERATION



THE EVACUATION OF NAZI CAMPS AND THE DEATH MARCHES OF PRISONERS

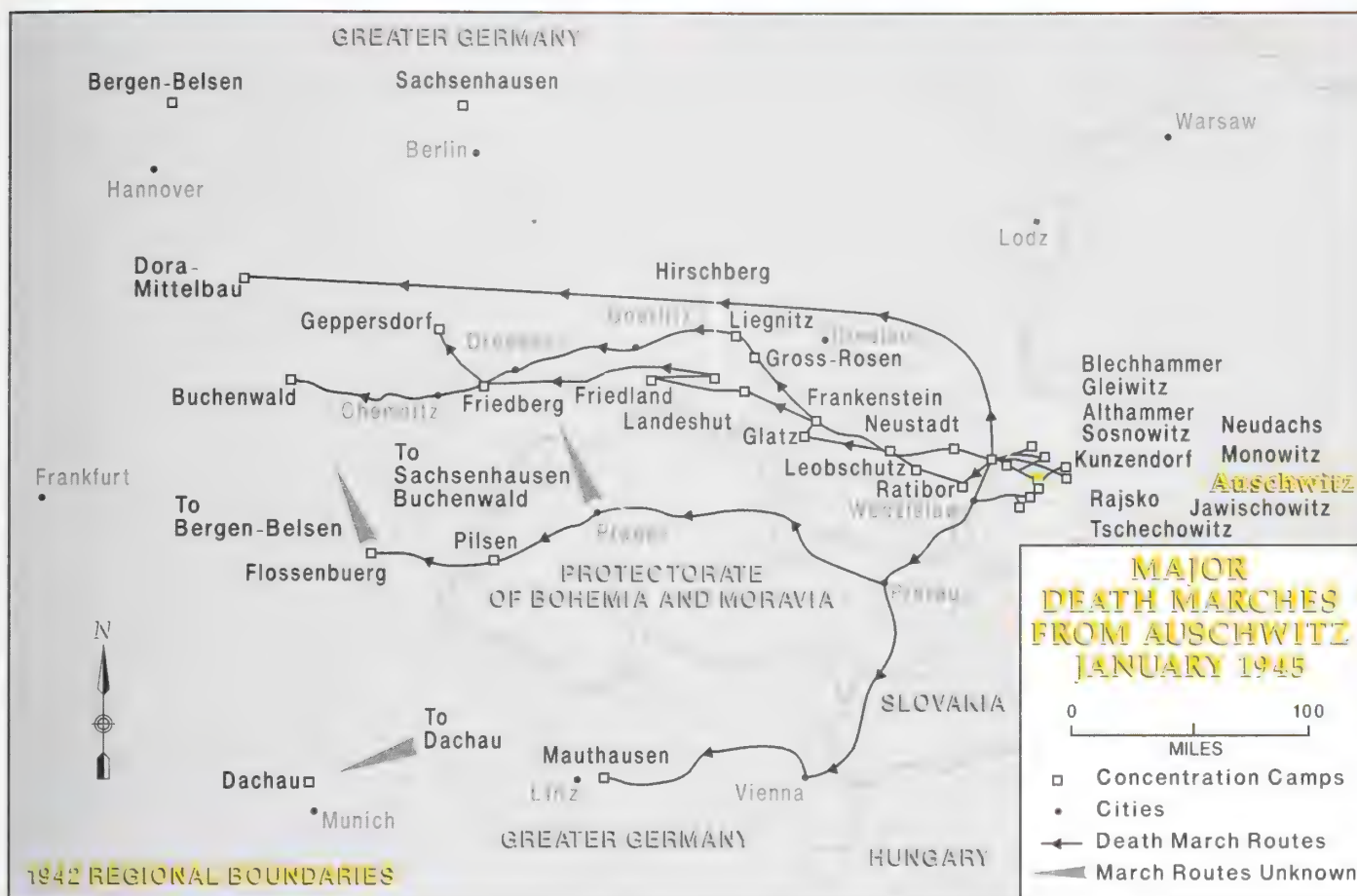
In January 1945, the Third Reich stood on the verge of military defeat. Soviet forces stretched across eastern Europe from the cities of Tilsit in the north, Warsaw in the center, and Budapest in the south. After the failure of the surprise German offensive through the Ardennes in December 1944, Allied forces in the west were poised for the invasion of Germany. As Allied forces approached Nazi camps, the SS organized death marches of concentration camp inmates.

The term "death march" was probably coined by concentration camp prisoners. It referred to forced marches of concentration camp prisoners over long distances under heavy guard and extremely harsh conditions. During death marches, SS guards brutally mistreated the prisoners and killed many. Death marches were held throughout the war but were especially common between 1944 and 1945, as the Nazis attempted to prevent significant numbers of prisoners from

falling into the hands of the advancing Allied armies. The largest death marches were launched from Auschwitz and Stutthof. There was also a large death march from the Hungarian city of Budapest.

Soviet forces were the first to reach a major camp, the Majdanek camp near Lublin, Poland, in July 1944. The rapid Soviet advance surprised the Germans, who attempted to demolish the camp in order to destroy evidence of mass murder. However, in the hurry to evacuate the camp, the gas chambers were left standing. Liberated prisoners testified about Nazi crimes before hastily formed tribunals.

In mid-January 1945, the Soviet army began a major offensive into central Poland. Soviet forces advanced toward the city of Königsberg, threatening the Stutthof camp system. In the south, Soviet troops advanced toward the city of Krakow, threatening the Auschwitz camp system. The Nazis began to evacuate these and other remaining camps in Poland.



DEATH MARCHES FROM THE AUSCHWITZ CAMP SYSTEM

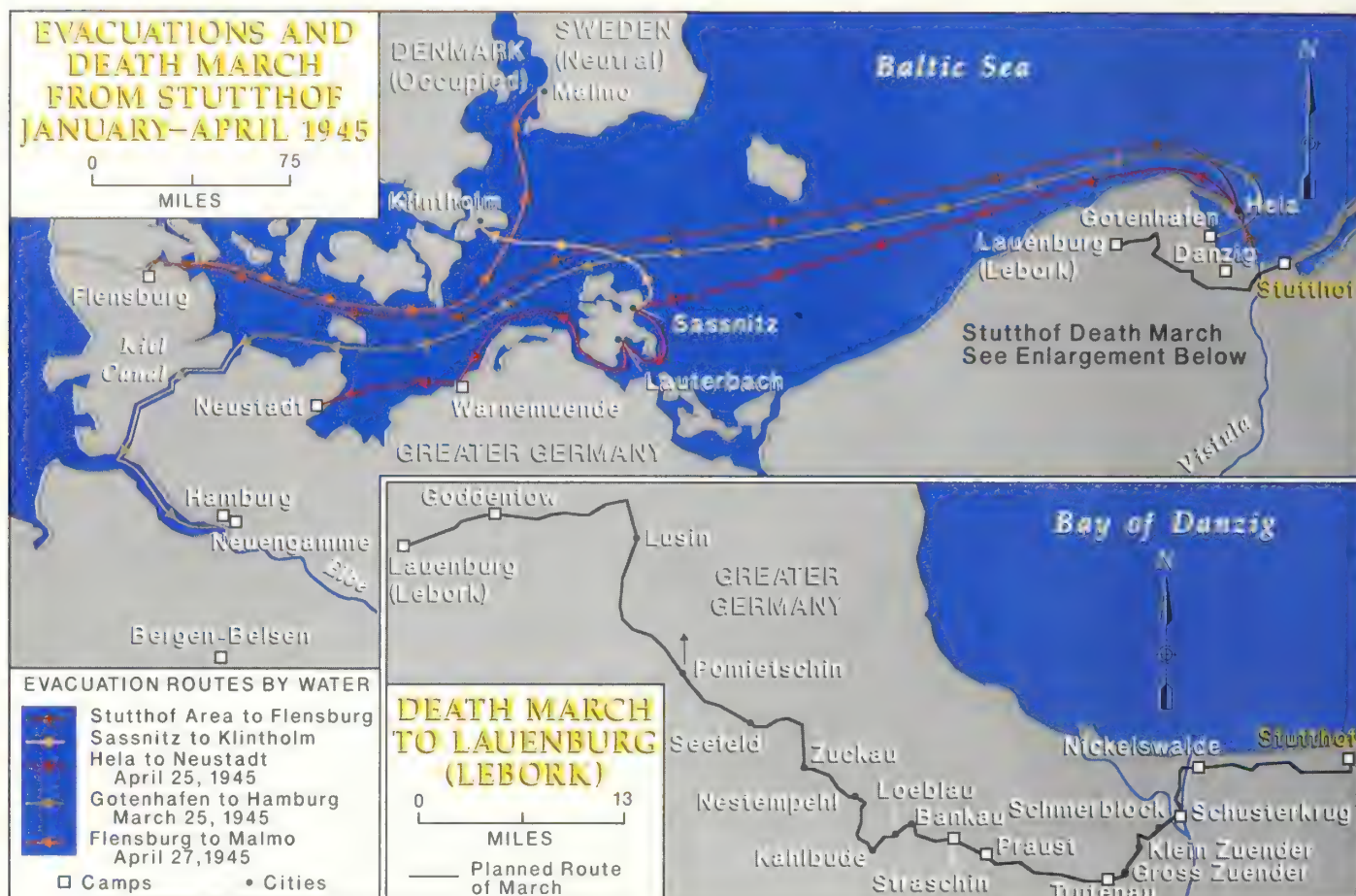
The SS began evacuating Auschwitz and its satellite camps in mid-January 1945. Nearly 60,000 prisoners were forced on death marches from the Auschwitz camp system. Thousands had been killed in the camps in the days before the death march. Tens of thousands of prisoners, mostly Jews, were forced to march to the city of Wodzislaw in the western part of Upper Silesia. SS guards shot anyone who fell behind or could not continue. More than 15,000 died during the death marches from Auschwitz.

Upon arrival in Wodzislaw, the prisoners were put on unheated freight trains and transported to concentration camps

in Germany, particularly to Flossenbuerg, Sachsenhausen, Gross-Rosen, Buchenwald, Dachau, and Mauthausen. The rail journey lasted for days. Without food or water, shelter or blankets, many prisoners did not survive the transport.

In late January 1945, 4,000 prisoners were forced on a death march from Blechhammer, a subcamp of Auschwitz. About 1,000 prisoners died during the march to the Gross-Rosen concentration camp. After a brief delay, the remaining prisoners were moved to the Buchenwald camp in eastern Germany.

On January 27, 1945, the Soviet army entered Auschwitz and liberated over 7,000 remaining prisoners, who were mostly ill and dying.



THE EVACUATION AND DEATH MARCH FROM STUTTHOF CONCENTRATION CAMP

The evacuation of prisoners from the Stutthof camp system in northern Poland began in January 1945. When the final evacuation was launched, there were nearly 50,000 prisoners, the overwhelming majority of them Jews, in the Stutthof camp system. About 5,000 prisoners from Stutthof subcamps were marched to the Baltic Sea coast, forced into the water, and machine gunned. The rest of the prisoners were put on a death march to Lauenburg in eastern Germany, where they were cut off by advancing Soviet forces. The Germans forced the surviving prisoners back to Stutthof. Marching in severe winter conditions and treated brutally by SS guards, thousands died during the death march.

In late April 1945, the remaining prisoners were removed from Stutthof by sea, since Stutthof was completely encircled by Soviet forces. Again, hundreds of prisoners were forced into the sea and shot; over 4,000 were sent by small boat to Germany, some to the Neuengamme concentration camp near Hamburg, and some to camps along the Baltic coast. Many drowned along the way. Shortly before the German surrender, some prisoners were transferred to Malmo, Sweden, and

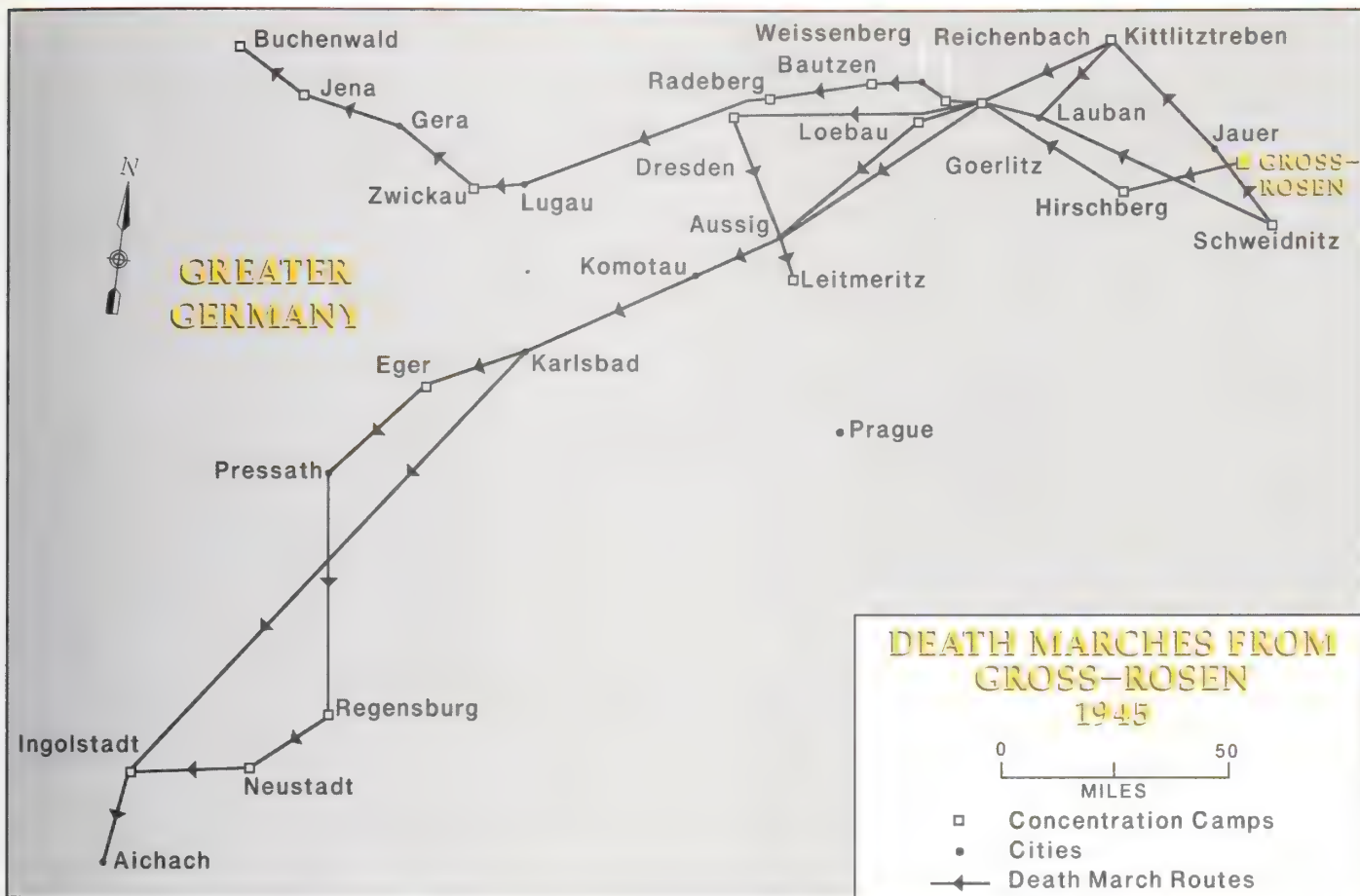
released to the care of that neutral country. It has been estimated that over 25,000 prisoners, one in two, died during the evacuation from Stutthof and its subcamps. Soviet forces liberated Stutthof on May 9, 1945.

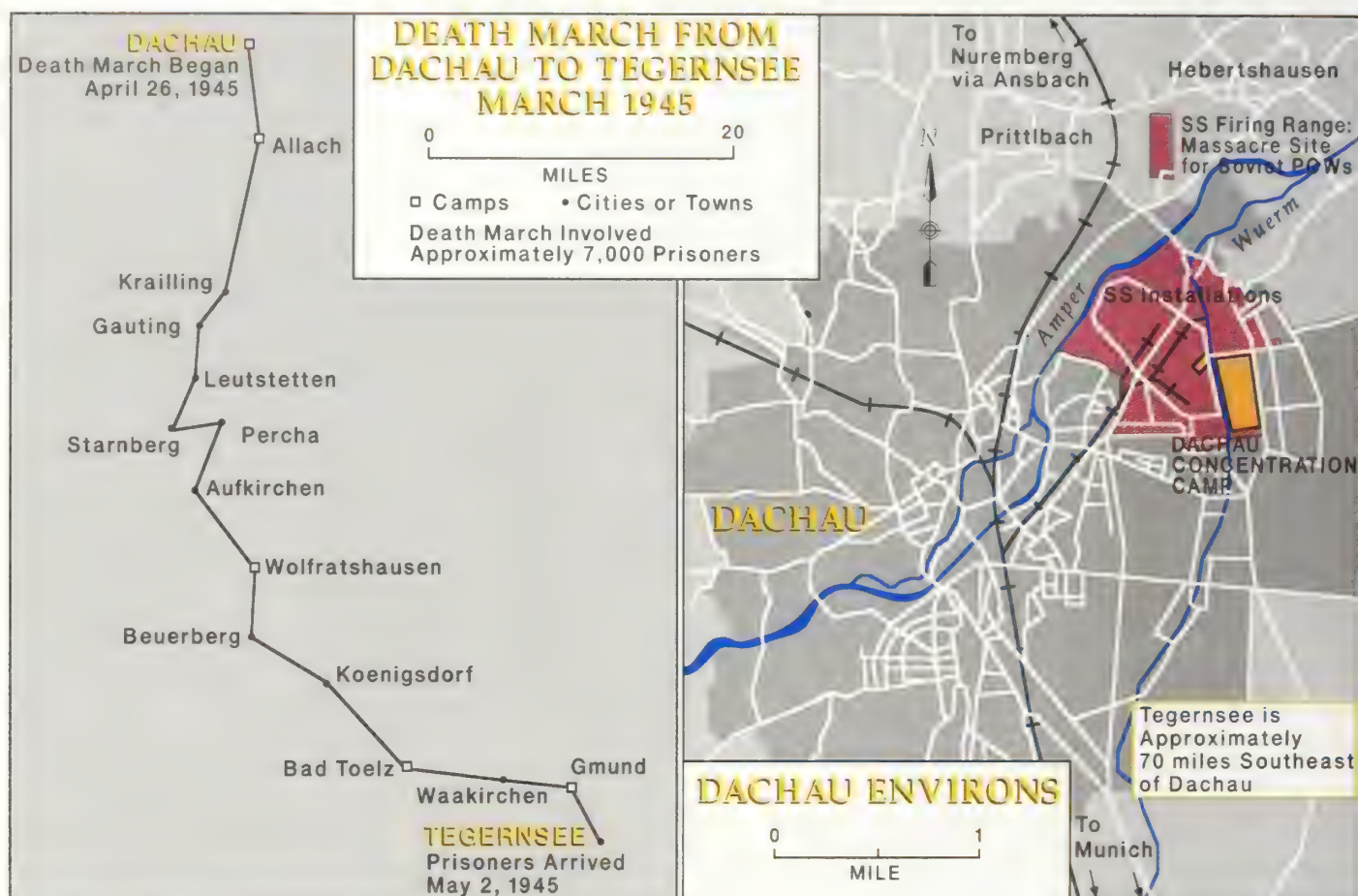
THE EVACUATION AND DEATH MARCH FROM GROSS-ROSEN CONCENTRATION CAMP

In late January 1945, with Soviet forces approaching the Oder River, Gross-Rosen subcamps to the east of the Oder were closed and the prisoners forced on death marches. Prisoners from the main camp were evacuated by rail early in February 1945. Many died en route because little if any food or water was provided. Prisoners from Gross-Rosen and its subcamps were sent to the Bergen-Belsen, Buchenwald, Dachau, Flossenbuerg, Mauthausen, Dora-Mittelbau, and Neuengamme concentration camps.

THE DEATH MARCH FROM BUCHENWALD CONCENTRATION CAMP

In late March and early April 1945, as American forces approached, the Nazis began a mass evacuation of prisoners from the Buchenwald concentration camp and its subcamps.





More than 30,000 prisoners were forced on death marches away from advancing American forces. About 8,000 died during the marches. On April 11, 1945, the surviving prisoners took control of the camp, shortly before American forces entered on the same day.

THE DEATH MARCH FROM DACHAU CONCENTRATION CAMP

In late April 1945, just three days before the liberation of the Dachau camp, the SS forced about 7,000 prisoners on a death march from Dachau south to Tegerndorf. During the six-day death march, anyone who could not keep up or could no longer continue was shot. Many others died of exposure, hunger, or exhaustion. American forces liberated the Dachau concentration camp on April 29, 1945. In early May 1945, American troops liberated the surviving prisoners from the death march to Tegerndorf.

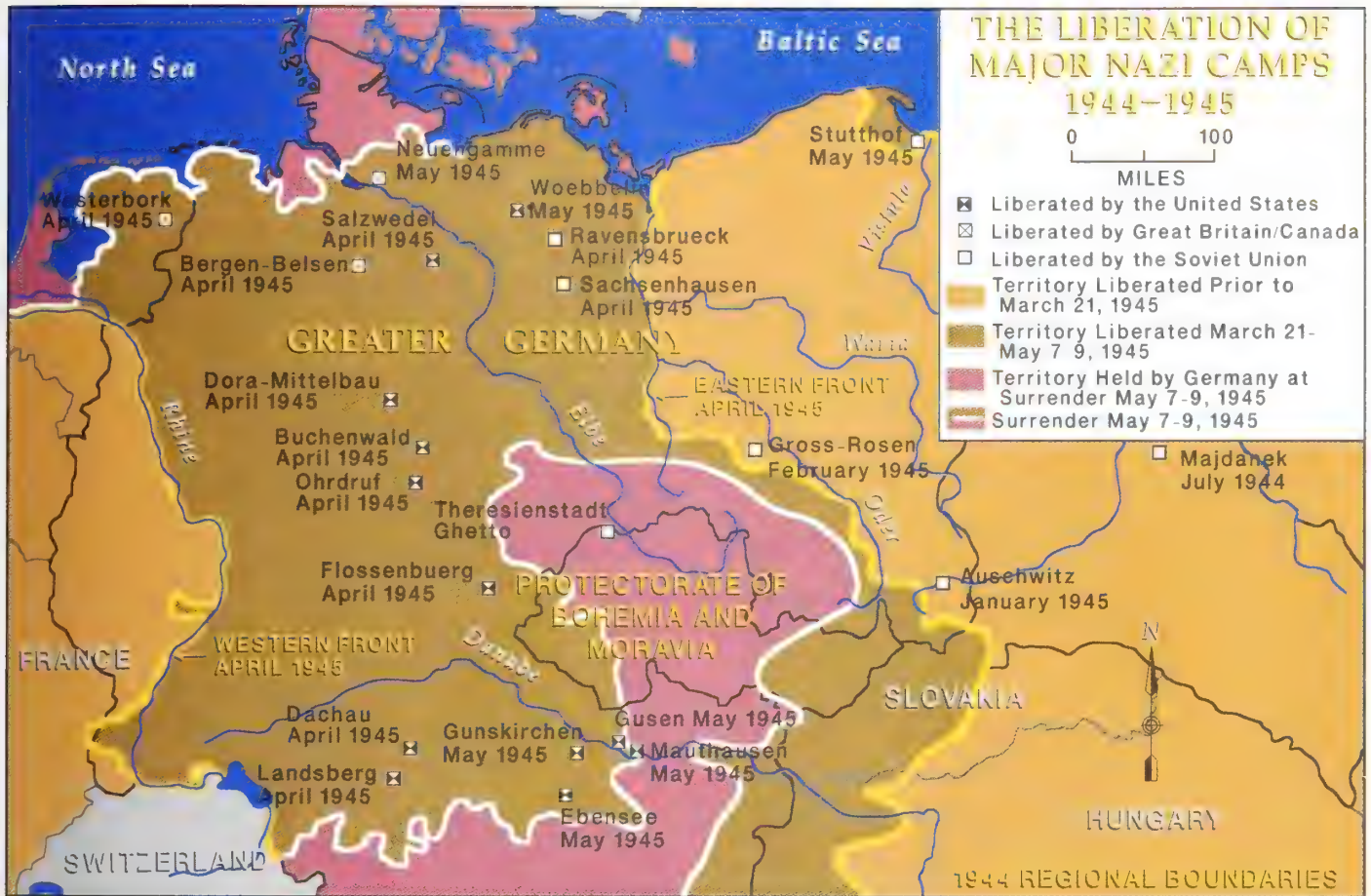
THE LIBERATION OF NAZI CAMPS

As Allied troops moved across Europe in a series of offensives on Germany, they began to encounter and liberate concentration camp prisoners, many of whom had survived

death marches into the interior of Germany.

Soviet forces were the first to approach a major Nazi camp, reaching the Majdanek camp near Lublin, Poland, in July 1944. Surprised by the rapid Soviet advance, the Germans attempted to demolish the camp in an effort to hide the evidence of mass murder. The camp staff set fire to the large crematorium, but because of the hasty evacuation, the gas chambers were left standing. The Soviets also overran the sites of the killing centers of Belzec, Sobibor, and Treblinka in the summer of 1944. The Germans had dismantled these camps in 1943, after most of the Jews of Poland had been killed.

The Soviets liberated Auschwitz, the largest extermination and concentration camp, in January 1945. The Nazis had forced almost all of the prisoners of Auschwitz on death marches. Soviet soldiers found only several thousand emaciated prisoners alive when they entered the camp. There was abundant evidence of mass murder in Auschwitz. The retreating Germans had destroyed most of the warehouses in the camp, but in the remaining ones the Soviets found personal belongings of some of the victims killed there. They discovered, for example, hundreds of thousands of men's



suits, more than 800,000 women's outfits, and more than 14,000 pounds of human hair.

In the following months, the Soviets liberated additional camps in the Baltic states and in Poland. Shortly before Germany's surrender, Soviet forces liberated the main camps of Stutthof, Sachsenhausen, and Ravensbrueck.

U.S. forces liberated the Buchenwald concentration camp near Weimar, Germany, in April 1945, a few days after the Nazis began evacuating the camp. On the day of liberation, an underground prisoner resistance organization seized control of Buchenwald to prevent atrocities by the retreating camp guards. American forces liberated more than 20,000 prisoners at Buchenwald. They also liberated the main camps of Dora-Mittelbau, Flossenbuerg, Dachau, and Mauthausen.

British forces liberated camps in northern Germany,

including Neuengamme and Bergen-Belsen. They entered the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp, near Celle, Germany, in mid-April 1945. Some 60,000 prisoners, most in critical condition because of a typhus epidemic, were found alive. More than 10,000 died of malnutrition or disease within a few weeks.

Only after the liberation of the Nazi camps was the full scope of Nazi horrors exposed to the world. Liberators confronted unspeakable conditions in the camps, where piles of corpses lay unburied. Those who survived resembled skeletons because of forced labor and the lack of food. Many were so weak that they could hardly move. Disease remained an ever-present danger, and many of the camps had to be burned down to prevent the spread of epidemics. Survivors of the camps faced a long and difficult road to recovery.





THE DEFEAT OF GERMANY 1942-1945

The Eastern Front 1942-1944

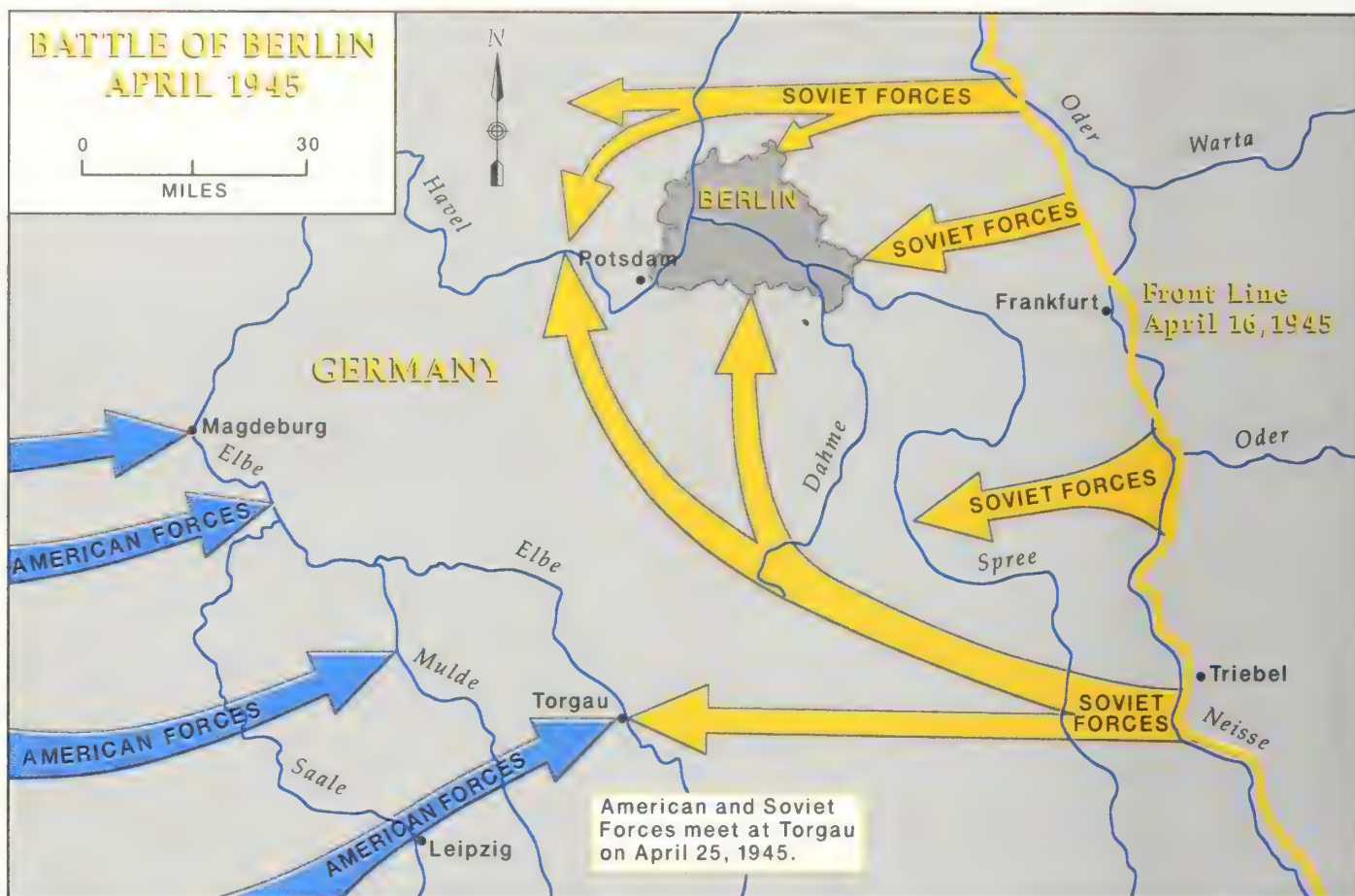
Until the winter of 1942-1943, the German army was victorious, achieving an almost unbroken chain of successes. Europe lay under German domination, from France in the west to the Volga River in the east; from northern Norway to the shores of North Africa. The battle for the city of Stalingrad proved a decisive turning point, ending the German series of victories and campaign of conquest in the east. After defeat at Stalingrad, German troops were forced on the defensive, beginning the retreat westward that was to end with Germany's surrender in May 1945, some three years later.

The Soviet army launched a counteroffensive at Stalingrad in mid-November 1942. They quickly encircled an entire German army, some 250,000 soldiers. In February 1943, after months of fierce fighting and heavy casualties, the surviving German forces, now only about 91,000 soldiers, surrendered. After Stalingrad, the Soviet army remained on the offensive, despite some temporary setbacks. Soviet forces pushed the Germans back to the banks of the Dnieper in 1943 and then, by the end of 1944, to the borders of East Prussia. In January 1945, a new offensive brought Soviet forces to the banks of the Oder, in eastern Germany. From their bridgehead across the Oder River, they launched the final offensive on Berlin in mid-April 1945.

D-Day: The Normandy Invasion and the Battle for France

On June 6, 1944 (known as D-Day), more than 150,000 Allied soldiers under the command of U.S. General Dwight D. Eisenhower landed on the beaches of Normandy, France, opening a long-awaited second front against the Germans in Europe. After the beachhead was secured, more than two million Allied soldiers poured into France. In July, Allied forces broke out of the Normandy beachhead, forcing a German withdrawal. The Allies entered Paris on August 25, 1944, and liberated most of France by the end of the month.

The western Allies were surprised in December 1944 when German forces attacked through the Ardennes Forest in Belgium in an attempt to divide and destroy Allied forces.



Allied air forces, together with a fierce American defense, blocked the advance of German troops and forced them into a general retreat. The Allies won a decisive victory in what became known as the Battle of the Bulge, and continued the attack into Germany itself, occupying the left bank of the Rhine in February 1945. In March 1945, Allied forces crossed the Rhine, advancing into the heart of Germany.

The Battle of Berlin and the Surrender of Germany

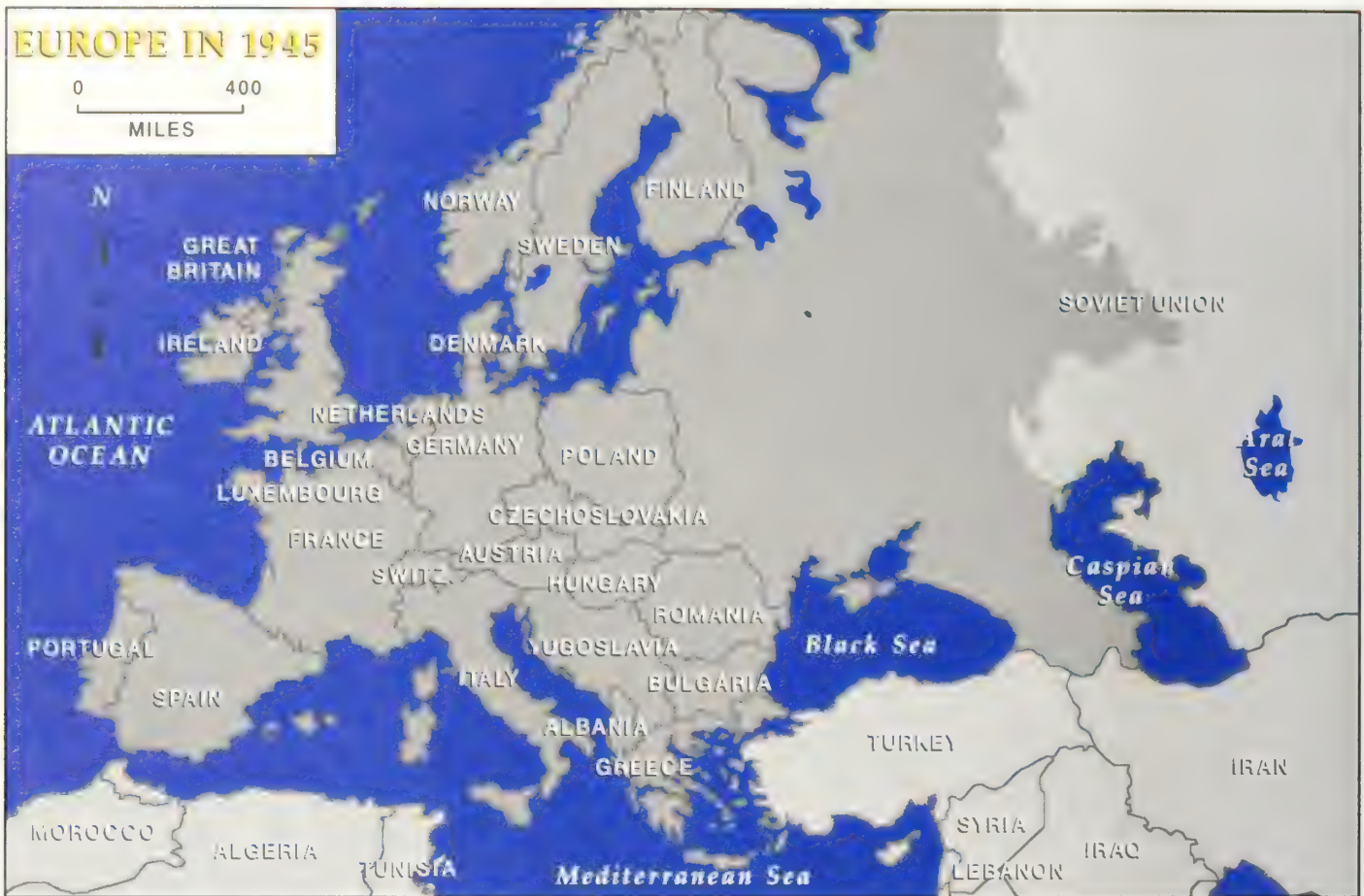
In mid-April 1945, Soviet forces launched a massive offensive toward Berlin, which was encircled on April 25.

That same day, Soviet forces linked up with American forces attacking from the west at Torgau, on the Elbe River in central Germany. In Berlin, heavy fighting took place in the northern and southern suburbs of the city. As Soviet forces neared his command bunker in central Berlin on April 30, 1945, Adolf Hitler committed suicide. Berlin surrendered to Soviet forces on May 2, 1945.

World War II ended in Europe when the German armed forces surrendered unconditionally in the west on May 7 and in the east on May 9, 1945. May 8, 1945, was proclaimed Victory in Europe Day (V-E Day).

SECTION 9

POSTWAR EUROPE 1945-1950



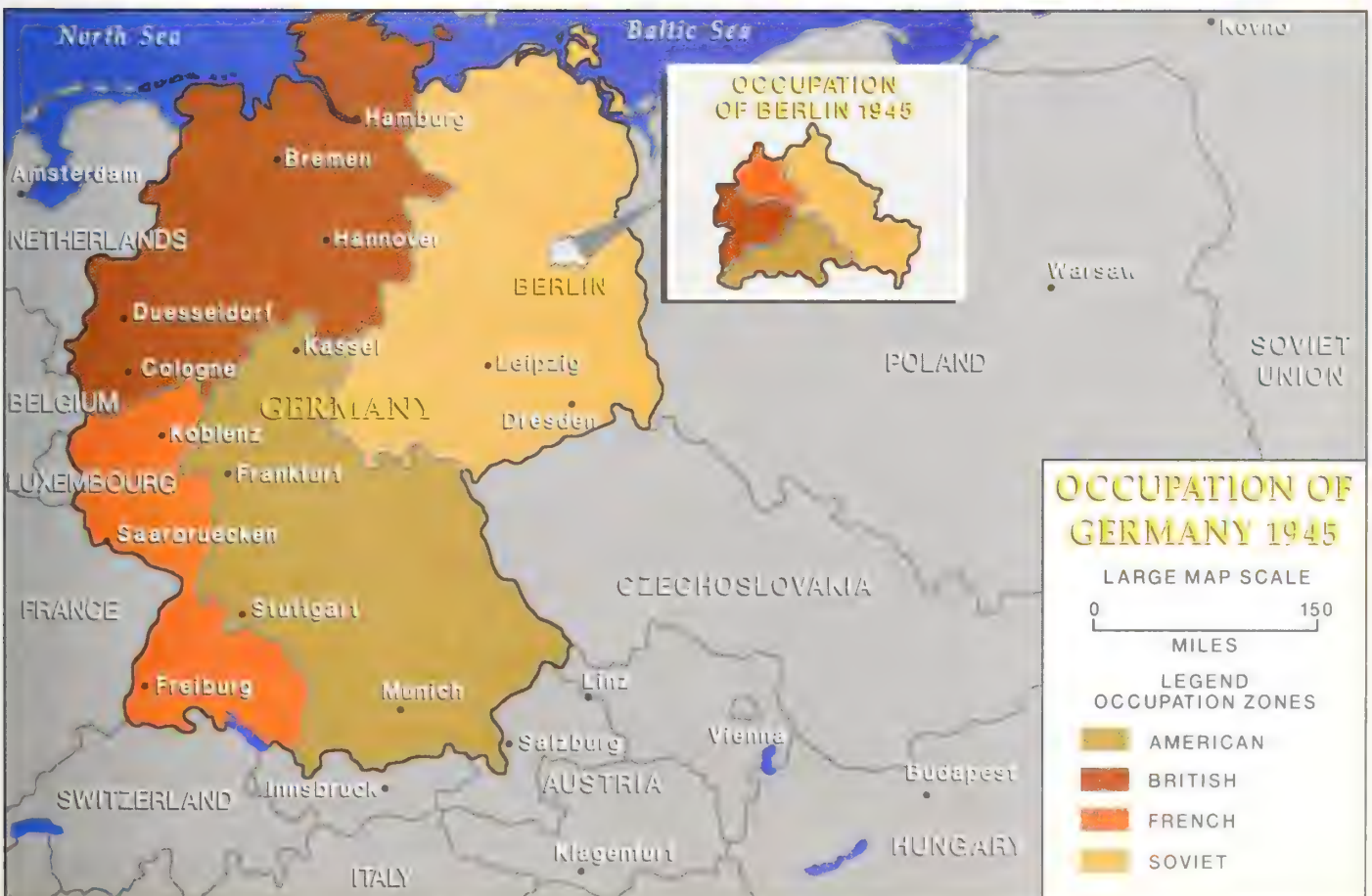
EUROPE IN 1945

Continental Europe emerged from German domination in 1945, shattered and transformed. After the German surrender, Great Britain, the United States, France, and the Soviet Union divided Germany and Austria into four occupation zones, each to be administered by a victorious power. The cities of Berlin and Vienna were similarly divided and occupied. Poland occupied and later annexed German territory east of the Oder-Neisse rivers.

The Allies ended the occupation of Austria in 1955 and Austria pledged unconditional neutrality. Germany remained under Allied occupation. In 1949, the western zones were combined into the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany), and the Soviet zone became a Soviet-style dictatorship, the German Democratic Republic (East Germany). In 1989, the East German government collapsed and in 1990, West Germany and East Germany were united into one state. The newly united Germany formally recognized the Polish

annexation of Germany's former eastern territories and pledged to be a force for peace and stability in Europe.

The year 1945 also marked the rapid expansion of Soviet power and influence in Europe. The Soviet Union retained and added to the gains made in eastern Europe under the terms of the German-Soviet Pact of 1939. The Soviets annexed the Baltic states (Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia), most of eastern Poland, the Transcarpathian Ukraine, northern Bukovina, and Bessarabia. Further, they gradually installed pro-Soviet Communist regimes in Poland, Romania, Hungary, Bulgaria, and East Germany. By 1946, they were opposed by democratic states in Western Europe, under the leadership of the United States. Europe became a major battleground during this period of heightened tension, known as the cold war, between East and West. Beginning in the mid 1970s, East-West tensions lessened under the policy of detente, but the cold war continued until the collapse of Soviet power and the breakup of the Soviet Union in 1989.



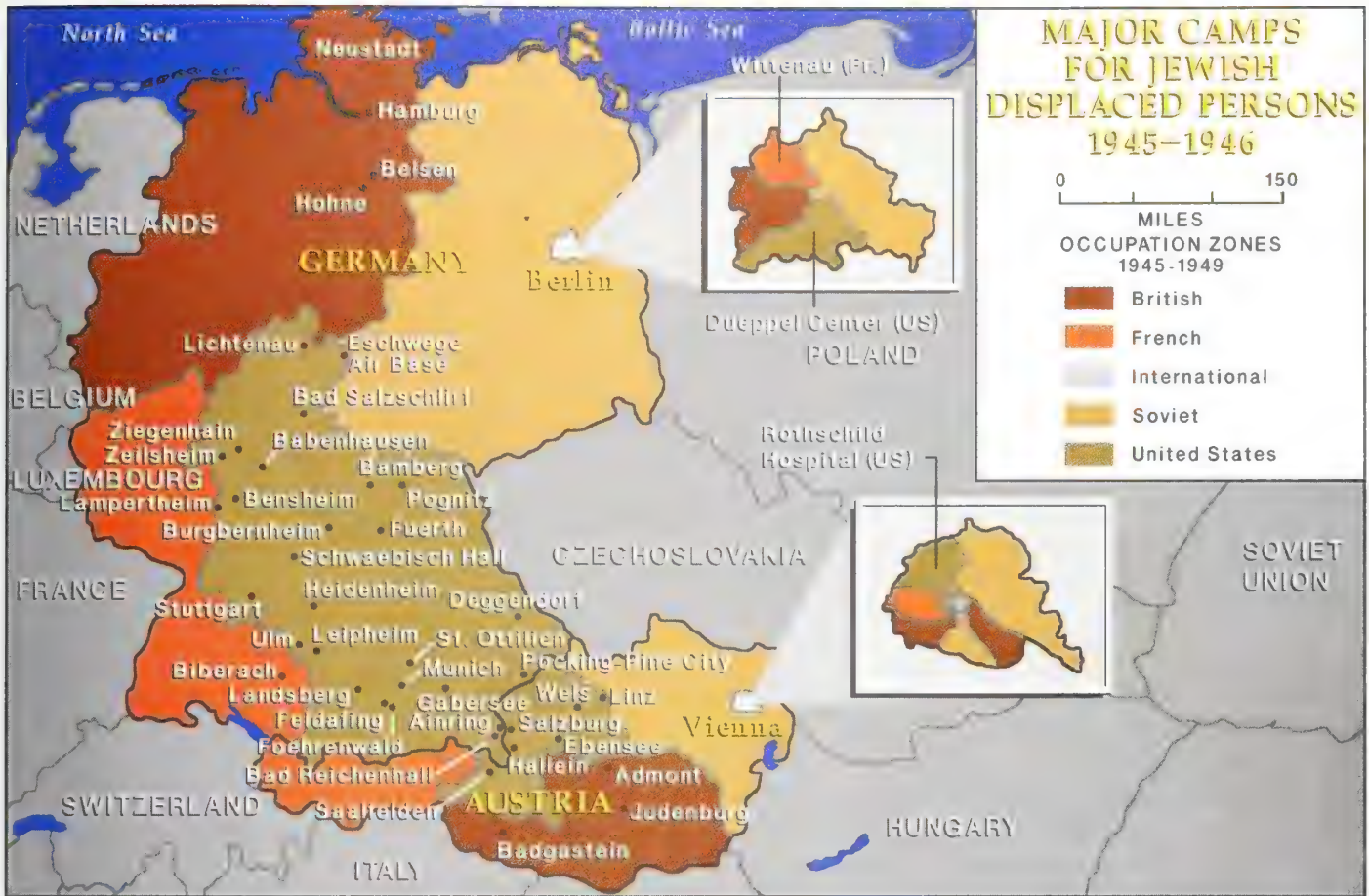


TRIALS OF WAR CRIMINALS IN EUROPE

Even before the end of World War II, some of those accused of war crimes stood trial in a variety of courts. Following the war, the best known war crimes trial was the trial of "major" war criminals in Nuremberg, Germany. These leading German officials were tried before the International Military Tribunal (IMT), which consisted of judges from Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States. Between October 18, 1945, and October 1, 1946, the IMT tried 22 "major" war criminals on charges of conspiracy, crimes against peace, war crimes, and crimes against humanity. Twelve of the defendants were sentenced to death; three were sentenced to life imprisonment; and four

received prison terms ranging from 10 to 20 years. The IMT acquitted three of the defendants.

The overwhelming majority of post-1945 war crimes trials involved lower-level officials and officers. They included concentration camp guards and commandants, police officers, members of the Einsatzgruppen, and doctors who participated in medical experiments. These war criminals were tried by military courts in the British, American, French, and Soviet zones of occupied Germany and Austria; and in Italy. Others were tried by the courts of those countries where they had committed their crimes. Many war criminals, however, were never brought to trial or punished.



THE POSTWAR REFUGEE CRISIS AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE STATE OF ISRAEL

Between seven and nine million Europeans were uprooted during World War II. Within several months, the Allies repatriated to their countries of origin more than six million displaced persons (DPs; wartime refugees). Between 1.5 million and two million DPs refused to return to their home countries. Several hundred thousand Jewish survivors gathered in camps for displaced persons. The Allies established such camps in Allied-occupied Germany, Austria, and Italy for refugees waiting to leave Europe. Most Jewish DPs preferred to emigrate to Palestine but many also sought entry into the United States. They decided to remain in the DP camps until they could leave Europe. At the end of 1946 the number of Jewish DPs was estimated at 250,000, of whom 185,000 were in Germany, 45,000 in Austria, and 20,000 in Italy. Most of the Jewish DPs were refugees from Poland, many of whom had fled the Germans into the interior of the Soviet Union during the war. Other Jewish DPs came from Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and Romania.

While most Jewish DPs sought to emigrate to Palestine, Great Britain sharply restricted Jewish entry there. In 1920,

Britain had received a mandate from the League of Nations to administer Palestine and continued to administer the territory after World War II. Despite British restrictions, about 70,000 Jewish Holocaust survivors risked the trip across the Mediterranean Sea in the attempt to enter Palestine between 1945 and May 1948.

Beginning in August 1946, the British attempted to halt this "illegal" immigration by deporting would-be immigrants to the island of Cyprus. By 1948, the British had intercepted and deported about 50,000 Jews to 12 detention camps established on Cyprus. Five of these camps were tent camps while the remaining camps housed prisoners in tin huts. The British use of detention camps as a deterrent failed, and the flood of immigrants attempting entry into Palestine continued unabated. Further, the internment of Jewish refugees—most of them Holocaust survivors—turned world opinion against the British policy. Jewish detainees remained in the camps until after the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948.

The fate of the refugee ship *Exodus* dramatized the plight of Holocaust survivors in the DP camps. In July 1947, the *Exodus* left southern France for Palestine, carrying 4,500 Jewish refugees from the DP camps in Germany. The British



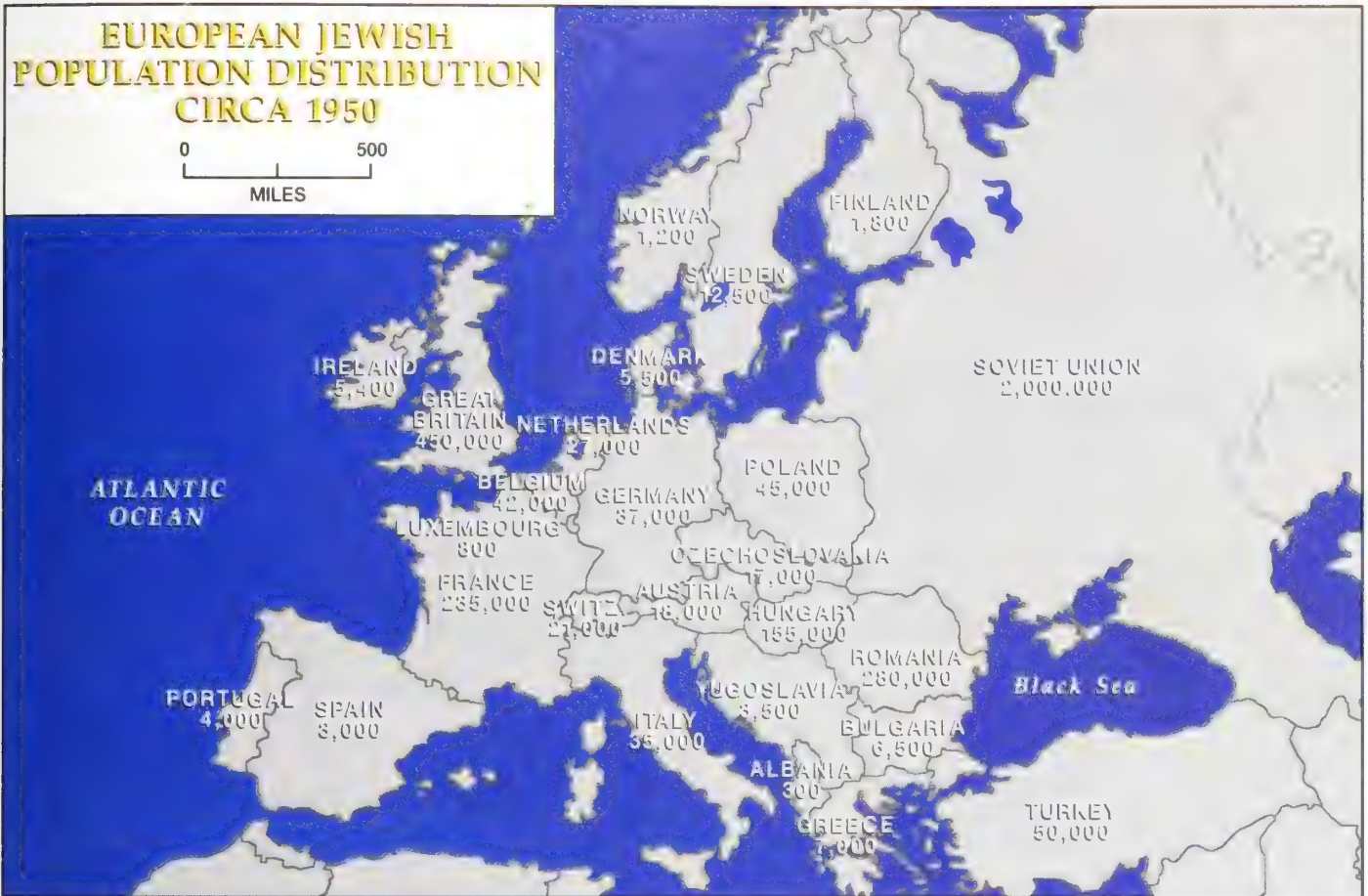


intercepted the ship even before it entered territorial waters off the coast of Palestine. Three Jews died during the forcible transfer of the passengers to British ships. The passengers were deported not to the Cyprus camps but back to their port of origin in France. For almost a month the British held the refugees aboard ship, at anchor off the French coast, because the French rejected the British demand to land the passengers. Ultimately, the British took the refugees to Hamburg, Germany, and forcibly returned them to DP camps. This sparked massive protests against British policy and its brutal application. Great Britain came under increasing international pressure to allow unrestricted Jewish immigration into Palestine and to create a homeland for Jewish displaced persons of Europe.

In a special session, the United Nations General Assembly voted on November 29, 1947, to partition Palestine into two new states, one Jewish and the other Arab. In early April 1948, Great Britain began the withdrawal of British forces from Palestine. On May 14, 1948, prominent Zionist leader David Ben-Gurion announced the establishment of the State of Israel and declared that Jewish immigration to the new state would be unrestricted.

Ships carrying Jewish refugees began landing in Haifa, Israel. Holocaust survivors, the passengers from the *Exodus*, DPs from central Europe, and Jewish detainees from the British detention camps on Cyprus were welcomed to the Jewish homeland. Between 1948 and 1951, almost 700,000 Jews emigrated to Israel, including more than two-thirds of the Jewish displaced persons in Europe.





THE JEWISH POPULATION OF EUROPE 1950

About six million Jews died in the Holocaust. Jewish communities across Europe were shattered. Many of those who survived were determined to leave Europe and start new lives in Israel or the United States. The population shifts brought on by the Holocaust and by Jewish emigration were astounding.

According to the *American Jewish Yearbook*, the Jewish population of Europe was about 9.5 million in 1933. In 1950, the Jewish population of Europe was about 3.5 million. In 1933, 60 percent of all Jews lived in Europe. In 1950, most Jews (51 percent) lived in America (North and South combined), while only a third of the world's Jewish population lived in Europe.

The Jewish communities of eastern Europe were devastated. In 1933, Poland had the largest Jewish population in Europe, numbering about three million. By 1950, the Jewish population of Poland was reduced to about 45,000. The Soviet Union had the largest remaining Jewish population, with some two million Jews. Romania's Jewish population fell from about 980,000 in 1933 to about 280,000 in 1950.

The Jewish population of central Europe was also decimated. Germany had a Jewish population of 565,000 in 1933 and just 37,000 in 1950. Hungary had a Jewish population of 445,000 in 1933 and 155,000 in 1950. Czechoslovakia's Jewish population was reduced from about 357,000 in 1933 to 17,000 in 1950 and Austria's from about 250,000 to just 18,000.

In western Europe, the largest Jewish communities remained in Great Britain, with approximately 450,000 Jews (300,000 in 1933) and France, with 235,000 (225,000 in 1933). In southern Europe, the Jewish population fell dramatically: in Greece from about 100,000 in 1933 to just 7,000 in 1950; in Yugoslavia from about 70,000 to 3,500; in Italy from about 48,000 to 35,000; and in Bulgaria from 50,000 in 1933 to just 6,500 in 1950.

Before the Nazi takeover of power in 1933, Europe had a vibrant and mature Jewish culture. By 1945, most European Jews—two out of every three—had been killed. Most of the surviving remnant of European Jewry decided to leave Europe. Hundreds of thousands established new lives in Israel and the United States.

EUROPEAN REGIONS AND GERMAN ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

0 400
MILES



MAP KEY

1. Free City of Danzig
2. Germany 1933
3. Austria
4. Sudetenland
5. Reich Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia
6. Slovakia
7. Western Poland, Annexed by Germany 1939
- 7(a). Eastern Upper Silesia
- 7(b). Warthegau
8. Memel Territory
9. Bialystok District
10. Generalgouvernement of Poland
11. Reichskommissariat Ukraine
12. Reichskommissariat Ostland
13. Soviet Territory-German Military Government
14. Transnistria
15. Bessarabia
16. Northern Bukovina
17. Hungarian-Occupied Yugoslavia
18. Northern Transylvania
19. Hungarian-Occupied Slovakia
20. Transcarpathian Ukraine
21. Southern Dobruja
22. Bulgarian-Occupied Thrace
23. Bulgarian-Occupied Macedonia
24. Serbia and the Banat
25. Northern Slovenia
26. Croatia 1941 (including Bosnia and Herzegovina)
27. Italian-Occupied Yugoslavia 1941
- 27(a). Southern Slovenia
- 27(b). Dalmatia
28. Italian-Occupied Greece 1941
29. German-Occupied Greece 1941
30. German-Occupied France 1940
31. Southern Zone of France, Occupied 1942
32. Italian-Occupied France 1942-1943
33. Alsace-Lorraine
34. Eupen and Malmedy
35. Italy
36. Romania
37. Bulgaria
38. Netherlands
39. Belgium
40. Luxembourg
41. Albania
42. Hungary



Aktion 1005 (Operation 1005): Code name for the German plan to obliterate evidence of mass murder. The Germans forced prisoners to reopen mass graves and cremate the bodies.

Aktion Reinhard (Operation Reinhard): Code name for the German plan to kill more than two million Jews living in the Generalgouvernement.

Alsace-Lorraine: Territories in eastern France along the border with Germany. They were incorporated de facto into Germany in 1940. After World War II, they were returned to France.

American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee (JDC or Joint): Organization founded in 1914 by American Jews to provide financial and material aid to Jews overseas. During World War II, the JDC sought to aid Jews across German-occupied Europe. After the war, it cared for Jewish displaced persons, detainees on Cyprus, and emigrants to Israel.

Anschluss (Union): German term referring to the incorporation of Austria into Germany in March 1938.

Arrow Cross Party: Pro-German Hungarian fascist party founded by Ferenc Szalasi in 1937.

“Aryanization”: Term referring to the seizure of Jewish-owned property, businesses, and other economic enterprises, and the transfer of such property from Jews to non-Jews.

B.C.E.: Abbreviation for “Before the Common Era.” Also referred to as B.C.

Bessarabia: Territory in eastern Romania located between the Prut and Dniester rivers; occupied by the Soviet Union in 1940.

Bialystok District: Territory in northern Poland established after the German invasion of the Soviet Union in 1941 (the Soviet Union had previously annexed the region under the terms of the German-Soviet Pact of 1939).

Blitzkrieg (Lightning War): Term referring to military tactics that entailed the concentration of offensive weapons to breach enemy defenses and the swift advance deep into enemy territory.

Bukovina: Territory in northeastern Romania, along the Carpathian Mountains. The Soviet Union occupied the northern part of Bukovina in 1940.

C.E.: Abbreviation for “Common Era.” Also referred to as A.D.

Concentration camps (Konzentrationslager; KL): Places of incarceration in which people are detained without regard to due process and the legal norms of arrest and detention. The extensive German camp system also included labor camps, transit camps, prisoner-of-war camps, and extermination camps.

Croatia: Before World War II, Croatia was a province of Yugoslavia. After the German invasion in 1941, Germany and Italy established the fascist satellite state of Croatia. It included the provinces of Croatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina and was ruled by the Ustasa (Croatian fascists) under Ante Pavelic.

Death marches: Term probably coined by concentration camp prisoners, referring to forced marches of prisoners over long distances, under heavy guard and extremely harsh conditions.

Einsatzgruppen (sing., Einsatzgruppe): Mobile killing units; German special duty squads, composed mainly of SS and police personnel, assigned to kill Jews in eastern Europe following the German invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941.

“Erntefest” (“Harvest Festival”): Code name for the German operation to kill Jews in the Generalgouvernement in November 1943.

Eupen and Malmedy: Territories in western Belgium, annexed de facto by Germany in 1940.

Extermination camps: The six killing centers—Chelmno, Belzec, Sobibor, Treblinka, Auschwitz-Birkenau, and Majdanek—established by the Germans in occupied Poland.

“Final Solution”: Nazi euphemism referring to the Nazi plan to kill the Jews of Europe.

Gas Van: Truck with a hermetically sealed compartment that served as a mobile gas chamber. Gas vans were used especially in the Chelmno killing center.

Generalgouvernement (General Government):

Territory in central and southern Poland established after the defeat of Poland in September 1939; it had a German civilian administration.

German Armament Works (Deutsche Ausruestungswerke; DAW):

An SS-owned company that utilized forced labor from concentration camps for armament production. DAW plants were built at Dachau, Sachsenhausen, Buchenwald, Auschwitz, Janowska, Ravensbrueck, Stutthof, and elsewhere.

Gestapo (Geheime Staatspolizei):

German secret state police, responsible for state security and the consignment of individuals to concentration camps. Members of the Gestapo were often also members of the SS.

Ghetto:

An enclosed district of a city where the Germans forced the Jewish population to live. Ghettos were established in Poland, the Baltic states, the Soviet Union, the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia, and Hungary.

Greater Germany:

Term referring to Germany and its annexed territories. It came into common German usage after the incorporation of Austria in 1938.

Iron Guard:

Romanian fascist and antisemitic organization sympathetic to the Nazis.

Jewish councils (Judenraete; sing., Judenrat):

Governing bodies established on German orders in the Jewish communities of occupied Europe.

“Judenfrei” (free of Jews):

Nazi euphemism used to describe areas from which all Jews had been deported or killed.

“Kristallnacht” (“Crystal Night” or “Night of Broken Glass”):

The violent anti-Jewish pogrom of November 9 and 10, 1938, in Germany, Austria, the Sudetenland, and the Free City of Danzig.

Low Countries:

Region of northwestern Europe consisting of the small states of Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg.

Munich agreement:

International agreement sanctioning the German annexation of the Sudetenland in western

Czechoslovakia, signed September 29-30, 1938, in Munich, Germany.

Nacht und Nebel Decree (Night and Fog Decree):

Order establishing the German policy of arrest and deportation to Germany of those individuals suspected of anti-German resistance activities in western Europe. Those arrested were not permitted to contact family members and simply disappeared into the “night and fog.”

Nazi party:

Abbreviated term for the National Socialist German Workers’ Party (Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei; NSDAP), the party headed by Hitler and the only political party legally permitted in Germany from 1934 to 1945.

Northern Transylvania:

Region in northwestern Romania transferred to Hungary in 1940 as part of the Vienna Arbitration Awards. It reverted to Romanian rule following World War II.

Nuremberg Laws:

Antisemitic legislation enacted at the Nuremberg Nazi Party Congress in September 1935, depriving Jews of civil rights and prohibiting marriage or sexual relations between German non-Jews and Jews.

Operation 14f13 (also called “Invalid Operation”):

Code name for the killing of concentration camp prisoners deemed by the Germans “unfit” to perform forced labor.

Operation Reinhard: *see* Aktion Reinhard**Organisation Schmelt:**

System of forced-labor camps that operated from 1940 to 1944 for Jews in Eastern Upper Silesia, a small territory annexed by Germany from Poland in 1939.

Palestine:

Area of the Middle East bordered today by Egypt, Jordan, Syria, and Lebanon; a province of the Ottoman Empire from the sixteenth century until 1920. After the defeat and collapse of the Ottoman Empire in World War I, the League of Nations granted Great Britain a mandate to govern Palestine. In May 1948, Britain ended the mandate and withdrew from Palestine, leading to the proclamation of the State of Israel that same month.

Pogrom:

Violent, organized attack on helpless civilians, usually with the connivance of government officials.

Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia: German protectorate established after the partition of Czechoslovakia in 1939, in violation of the Munich agreement.

Reichskommissariat Ostland: Territory established after the German invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941. It encompassed Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, most of Belorussia, and part of northeastern Poland, and had a German civilian administration.

Reichskommissariat Ukraine: Territory established after the German invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941. It encompassed part of eastern Poland and most of the Ukraine, as far east as the area around the cities of Kiev and Dnepropetrovsk, and had a German civilian administration.

SA (Sturmabteilung; Storm Troopers): Street fighters of the Nazi party before Hitler's rise to power; after 1934, the SS supplanted the SA as the paramilitary organization of the Nazi party. The SA played a key role in "Kristallnacht."

SD (Sicherheitsdienst des Reichsfuehrers-SS): Security Service of the SS and the intelligence gathering agency of the Nazi party. The SD played an important role in carrying out the "Final Solution"; SD officers served in Einsatzgruppen, police, and other security units.

Sonderkommando: German term for a prisoner forced-labor detachment assigned to work in the killing area of an extermination camp.

Southern Dobruja: Region in southeastern Romania transferred to Bulgaria in 1940 as part of the Vienna Arbitration Awards. It reverted to Romanian rule following World War II.

SS (Schutzstaffel; Protection Squad): Originally Hitler's bodyguard, it became the elite guard of the Nazi state, responsible for carrying out the "Final Solution."

Statut des Juifs (Jewish Law): Two laws in Vichy France, one passed in October 1940 and the second in June 1941. The legislation provided the legal foundation for the persecution of Jews in France.

Subcamp: Work detail or auxiliary forced-labor camp linked administratively to one of the major concentration

camps. Subcamps were usually established near factories or mining operations and functioned anywhere from a few weeks to several years.

Sudetenland: Border region of Czechoslovakia with a large ethnic German population. It was transferred to Germany by international agreement (the Munich agreement) in 1938. It reverted to Czechoslovakia following World War II.

Transcarpathian Ukraine: Region in eastern Czechoslovakia annexed by Hungary according to the first Vienna Award of November 1938. It became part of the Soviet Union after World War II.

Transnistria: Territory transferred to Romanian rule after the invasion of the Soviet Union in 1941. It was located between the Bug and Dniester rivers in the western Ukraine.

Ustasa: Croatian fascists allied with Germany. The Ustasa instituted a reign of terror in Croatia after the establishment of the independent pro-German state of Croatia in April 1941.

Vichy France: Nationalist regime established in the French spa town of Vichy after the defeat of France in June 1940. Headed by Marshal Henri Philippe Petain, the Vichy regime declared neutrality in the war, but cooperated closely with Germany.

Vienna Arbitration Awards: Settlement of Hungarian demands for territory from Czechoslovakia and Hungarian and Bulgarian demands for Romanian territory. Sponsored by Germany and Italy, the first Vienna Award in November 1938 gave Hungary the Transcarpathian Ukraine and a strip of territory from southern Slovakia. In the second Vienna Award in August and September 1940, Romania was forced to cede northern Transylvania to Hungary and southern Dobruja to Bulgaria.

Wehrmacht (literally, military or defense power): Term referring to Germany's military forces from 1935 to 1945.

Zyklon B: Commercial name for crystalline hydrogen cyanide gas; used normally as an insecticide but employed, especially at the Auschwitz-Birkenau killing center, as the killing agent in gas chambers.

MAPPING AGENCIES

Following is a select list of organizations that issued maps used in the compilation of this atlas.

U.S.

United States Army, Corps of Engineers
 United States Army Map Service
 United States Defense Mapping Agency
 United States Department of State, Division of Map Intelligence
 United States Office of Strategic Service (OSS)
 United States War Office, General Staff, Geographical Section

GERMAN

Bayerisches Landesvermessungsamt, Muenchen
 Generalstab der Luftwaffe, Berlin
 Kriegskarten- und Vermessungsamt, Berlin
 Kursbuchburo der Generalbetriebsleitung Ost
 Lithographisches Institut, Berlin
 Militargeographisches Institut, Wien
 Niedersaechsischen Landesverwaltungsamt-Landesvermessung
 OKH, GenStdH, Abteilung Fuer Kriegskarten- und Vermessungswesens
 Preussischen Landesaufnahme, Berlin
 Reichsamt fuer Landesaufnahme, Berlin
 Reichsbahnzentrale fuer den Deutschen Reisverkehr
 Reichsministerium des Innern, Publikationsstelle, Berlin-Dahlem
 Stadtvermessungsamt, Riga
 Statistisches Reichsamt, Berlin
 Vermessungskommissar fuer die Reichshauptstadt, Berlin
 Vermessungswesen (Landesaufnahme), Wien
 Wehrmacht, Militar-Geographische, Gruppe Radom
 Wirtschaftsstab Ost, Chefgruppe Berlin

POLISH

Generalne Przedstawicielstwo Sprzedazy
 Polish General Staff, Geographic Section
 Polskie Tow, Ksiegarni Kolejowych, Warszawa
 Rzeczpospolita Polska
 Sekcja Geograficzna Towarzystwa Wiedzy Wojskowej w Warszawie
 Wojskowy Instytut Geograficzny, Warszawa
 Wydawnictwo A. J. Ostrowski Lodz-Warszawa
 Wydawnictwo Min, Komunikacji W Warszawie
 Wydawnictwo Wojskowego Instytutu Naukowo-Wydawniczego-Lodz
 Zarzad Miejski m Lodzi

OTHER

Instituto Geografico d'Agostini, Novara
 Institut Cartographique Militaire
 Ukrainischen geodatischen Institut

SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adler, H. G. *Die verheimlichte Wahrheit: Theresienstaedter Dokumente*. Tuebingen: Mohr, 1958.

—. *Theresienstadt, 1941-1945: das Antlitz einer Zwangsgemeinschaft; Geschichte, Soziologie, Psychologie*. Tuebingen: Mohr, 1960.

Adler, Jacques. *The Jews of Paris and the Final Solution: Communal Response and Internal Conflicts, 1940-1944*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1987.

Ainsztein, Reuben. *Jewish Resistance in Nazi-Occupied Eastern Europe, with a Historical Survey of the Jew as Fighter and Soldier in the Diaspora*. New York: Barnes & Noble, 1974.

—. *The Warsaw Ghetto Revolt*. New York: Holocaust Library, 1979.

American Jewish Committee. *American Jewish Yearbook*. Philadelphia: American Jewish Committee, 1933-1951.

Arad, Yitzhak. *Ghetto in Flames: The Struggle and Destruction of the Jews in Vilna in the Holocaust*. Jerusalem: Yad Vashem, Martyrs' and Heroes' Remembrance Authority, 1981.

—. *Belzec, Sobibor, Treblinka: The Operation Reinhard Death Camps*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987.

Arad, Yitzhak, Shmuel Krakowski, and Shmuel Spector, eds. *The Einsatzgruppen Reports: Selections from the Dispatches of the Nazi Death Squads' Campaign against the Jews, July 1941-January 1943*. Translated by Stella Schossberger. New York: Holocaust Library, 1989.

Archivdirektion Stuttgart. *Die Opfer der nationalsozialistischen Judenverfolgung in Baden-Wuerttemberg, 1933-1945: ein Gedenkbuch*. Stuttgart: W. Kohlhammer, 1969.

Auschwitz Hefte. *Die Auschwitz-Hefte: Texte der polnischen Zeitschrift "Przeglad Lekarski" ueber historische, psychische und medizinische Aspekte des Lebens und Sterbens in Auschwitz*. Weinheim: Beltz, 1987.

Avni, Haim. *Spain, the Jews and Franco*. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, 1982.

Bartel, Walter, Pierre Durand, Paul Gruenewald, Wojtech Holecek, Nikolai Kjung, Henryk Sokolak, Rudi Supek, and Ferdinanda Zidar, eds. *Buchenwald: Mahnung und Verpflichtung: Dokumente und Berichte*. Berlin: Deutscher Verlag der Wissenschaften, 1983.

- Bauminger, Arieh L. *The Fighters of the Cracow Ghetto*. Jerusalem: A.L. Bauminger, 1986.
- Bensimon, Doris, and Sergio Della Pergola. *La population juive de France: socio-demographie et identite*. Jerusalem: Institute of Contemporary Jewry, Hebrew University of Jerusalem; Paris: Centre national de la recherche scientifique, 1984.
- Benz, Wolfgang, ed. *Die Juden in Deutschland, 1933-1945: Leben unter nationalsozialistischer Herrschaft*. Munich: Beck, 1988.
- , ed. *Dimension des Voelkermords: die Zahl der juedischen Opfer des Nationalsozialismus*. Munich: Oldenbourg, 1991.
- Berenbaum, Michael. *The World Must Know: The History of the Holocaust as Told in the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum*. Boston: Little, Brown, 1993.
- Berlin Museum. *Synagogen in Berlin: zur Geschichte einer zerstorten Architektur*. Berlin: Verlag Willmuth Arenhoevel, 1983.
- Bialystoker Center. *The Bialystoker Memorial Book*. New York: Bialystoker Center, 1982.
- Bierman, John. "How Italy Protected the Jews in the Occupied South of France, 1942-1943." In *The Italian Rescue: Rescue of Jews During the Holocaust*, edited by Ivo Herzer. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press, 1989.
- Boas, Jacob. *Boulevard des Miseres: The Story of Transit Camp Westerbork*. Hamden, Conn.: Archon, 1985.
- Botz, Gerhard, Ivar Oxaal, and Michael Pollak, eds. *Eine zerstorte Kultur: Juedisches Leben und Antisemitismus in Wien seit dem 19. Jahrhundert*. Buchloe: Obermeyer, 1990.
- Braham, Randolph L. *The Politics of Genocide: The Holocaust in Hungary*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1981.
- . *Studies on the Holocaust in Hungary*. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Monographs, 1990.
- , ed. *The Destruction of Hungarian Jewry: A Documentary Account*. New York: Pro Arte for the World Federation of Hungarian Jews, 1963.
- Bridgman, Jon. *The End of the Holocaust: The Liberation of the Camps*. Portland, Oregon: Areopagitica Press, 1990.
- Bromberger, Barbara, Hanna Elling, Julta von Freyberg, and Ursula Krause-Schmitt. *Schwestern, vergesst uns nicht. Frauen im Konzentrationslager: Moringen, Lichtenburg, Ravensbrueck, 1933-1945*. Frankfurt am Main: VAS-Verlag fuer Akademische Schriften, 1988.
- Buchheim, Hans, Martin Broszat, Hans-Adolf Jacobsen, and Helmut Krausnick. *Anatomie des SS-Staates*. Munich: Deutscher Taschenbuch Verlag, 1967.
- Buechner, Howard A. *Dachau: The Hour of the Avenger (An Eyewitness Account)*. Metairie, La.: Thunderbird, 1986.
- Bullinger, Thomas, ed. *Gurs, 1939-1943: ein Internierungslager in Suedfrankreich: Zeichnungen, Aquarelle, Fotografien*. Hamburg: Hamburger Stiftung zur Foerderung von Wissenschaft und Kultur, 1993.
- Burleigh, Michael and Wolfgang Wippermann. *The Racial State: Germany, 1933-1945*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1991.
- Butnaru, I. C. *The Silent Holocaust: Romania and Its Jews*. New York: Greenwood, 1992.
- . *Waiting for Jerusalem: Surviving the Holocaust in Romania*. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1993.
- Carlebach, Emil, Paul Gruenewald, Helmut Roder, and Willy Schmidt. *Buchenwald: ein Konzentrationslager*. Berlin: Dietz, 1986.
- Carp, Matatias. *Holocaust in Romania: Facts and Documents on the Annihilation of Romania's Jews, 1940-44*. Budapest: Primor, 1994.
- Cohen, Marcel, Diane Kolnokoff, Jacques Kolkikoff, Robert Linhart, Genevieve Mouillaud-Fraisie, Sylvia Ostrowiecki, Eric Didier, and Gerard Conio. *Les camps en Provence: exil, internement, deportation, 1933-1944*. Aix-en-Provence: Editions Alinea et L.L.C.G., 1984.
- Comite national pour l'erection et la conservation d'un memorial de la deportation au Struthof. *Natzweiler Struthof*. Paris: Commission executive du comite national du Struthof, 1964.
- Czech, Danuta. *Auschwitz Chronicle, 1939-1945*. New York: Henry Holt, 1990.
- Czerniakow, Adam. *The Warsaw Diary of Adam Czerniakow: Prelude to Doom*. New York: Stein and Day, 1979.
- Dachauer Hefte. *Dachauer Hefte*. Dachau: Verlag Dachauer Hefte, 1985-1995.
- Dekel, Ephraim. *B'riha: Flight to the Homeland*. New York: Herzl, 1973.

- Diamant, David. *Les juifs dans la resistance francaise, 1940-1944*. Paris: Le Pavillon, 1971.
- Diamant, Adolf, ed. *Deportationsbuch der von Frankfurt am Main aus gewaltsam verschickten Juden in den Jahren 1941 bis 1944*. Frankfurt am Main: Juedische Gemeinde Frankfurt am Main, 1984.
- , ed. *Deportationsbuch der in den Jahren 1942 bis 1945 von Leipzig aus gewaltsam verschickten Juden*. Frankfurt am Main: Selbstverlag, 1991.
- Distel, Barbara, and Ruth Jakusch, eds. *Concentration Camp Dachau, 1933-1945*. Brussels: Comite International de Dachau, 1978.
- Dobroszycki, Lucjan, ed. *The Chronicle of the Lodz Ghetto, 1941-1944*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1984.
- Donati, Giuliana. *Ebrei in Italia: Deportazione, Resistenza*. Milano: Centro di Documentazione Ebraica Contemporanea, 1974.
- Durand, Pierre. *La chienne de Buchenwald*. Paris: Temps actuels, 1982.
- Durin, Jacques. *Drancy, 1941-1944*. Le Bourget: GM imprimerie, 1988.
- Ehmann, Annegret, Wolf Kaiser, Christiane Klingspor, Michael Metto, Horst Neumann, Pim Richter, Ewa M. Runge, and Martina Voigt. *Die Grunewald-Rampe: die Deportation der Berliner Juden*, 2d ed. Berlin: Edition Colloquium, 1993.
- Eisfeld, Rainer. *Die unmenschliche Fabrik: V2-Produktion und KZ "Mittelbau-Dora"*. Nordhausen: KZ-Gedenkstaette Mittelbau-Dora, 1991.
- Elazar, Daniel Judah. *The Jewish Communities of Scandinavia—Sweden, Denmark, Norway, and Finland*. Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 1984.
- Encyclopedia Judaica*. Vol. 14, 699-707. New York: Macmillan, 1972.
- Exenberger, Herbert. *Guide to Vienna in Resistance, 1938-1945*. Vienna: Austria Today, 1985.
- Fayol, Pierre. *Le Chambon-sur-Lignon sous l'occupation*. Paris: Editions l'Harmattan, 1990.
- Fein, Erich, and Karl Flanner. *Rot-weiss-rot in Buchenwald. Die oesterreichischen politischen Haeflinge im Konzentrationslager am Ettersberg bei Weimar 1938-1945*. Vienna: Europaverlag, 1987.
- Fittko, Lisa. *Escape through the Pyrenees*. Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press, 1991.
- Flender, Harold. *Rescue in Denmark*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1963.
- Frank, Anne. *Anne Frank: The Diary of a Young Girl*. New York: Pocket Books, 1972.
- Frank, Anne. *The Diary of Anne Frank: The Critical Edition*. New York: Doubleday, 1989.
- Fuellberg-Stolberg, Claus, Martina Jung, Renate Riebe, and Martina Scheitenberger, eds. *Frauen in Konzentrationslagern: Bergen-Belsen; Ravensbrueck*. Bremen: Edition Temmen, 1994.
- Genee, Pierre. *Synagogen in Oesterreich*. Vienna: Loecker, 1992.
- Genee, Pierre, Ruth Burstyn, and Walter Lindner. *Wiener Synagogen 1825-1938*. Vienna: Loecker, 1987.
- Goldberger, Leo. *The Rescue of the Danish Jews: Moral Courage under Stress*. New York: New York University Press, 1987.
- Grabitz, Helge. *Letzte Spuren: Ghetto Warschau, SS-Arbeitslager Trawniki, Aktion Erntefest: Fotos und Dokumente ueber Opfer des Endloesungswahns im Spiegel der historischen Ereignisse*. Berlin: Edition Hentrich, 1988.
- Grabowska, Janina. *K.L. Stutthof. Ein historischer Abriss*. Translated by Leon Lendzion. Bremen: Edition Temmen, 1990.
- Graf, Malvina. *The Krakow Ghetto and the Plaszow Camp Remembered*. Tallahassee: Florida State University Press, 1989.
- Greiss, Thomas, ed. *Atlas for the Second World War: Europe and the Mediterranean*. Wayne, N.J.: Avery Publishing Group, n.d.
- Grynberg, Anne. *Les camps de la honte: les internes juifs des camps francais (1939-1944)*. Paris: La Decouverte, 1991.
- Gutman, Israel. *The Jews of Warsaw, 1939-1943: Ghetto, Underground, Revolt*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1982.
- . *Resistance: The Warsaw Ghetto Uprising*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1994.
- , ed. *Encyclopedia of the Holocaust*. 4 vols. New York: Macmillan, 1990.

- Gutman, Israel, and Efraim Zuroff, eds. *Rescue Attempts during the Holocaust; Proceedings of the Second Yad Vashem International Historical Conference, Jerusalem, April 8-11, 1974*. New York: Ktav, 1978.
- Gutman, Israel, and Michael Berenbaum, eds. *Anatomy of the Auschwitz Death Camp*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press in association with the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, 1994.
- Hahn, Joachim. *Synagogen in Baden-Wuerttemberg*. Stuttgart: K. Theiss, 1987.
- Herzer, Ivo, Klaus Voigt, and James Burgwyn, eds. *The Italian Refuge: Rescue of Jews during the Holocaust*. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press, 1989.
- Hilberg, Raul. *The Destruction of the European Jews*. New York: Holmes & Meier, 1985.
- Hohmann, Joachim Stephan. *Geschichte der Zigeunerverfolgung in Deutschland*. New York: Campus Verlag, 1988.
- Houwaart, Dick. *Westerbork: Het Begon in 1933*. The Hague: Omniboek, 1983.
- International Tracing Service. *Verzeichnis der Haftstaetten unter dem Reichsfuehrer-SS (1933-1945)*. 2 vols. Arolsen, Germany: International Committee of the Red Cross, 1979.
- Jewish Historical Museum of Amsterdam. *Documents of the Persecution of the Dutch Jewry, 1940-1945*. Amsterdam: Athenaeum-Polak & Van Gennep, 1979.
- Jong, Louis de. *The Netherlands and Nazi Germany*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1990.
- Katz, Robert. *Black Sabbath: A Journey through a Crime against Humanity*. New York: Macmillan, 1969.
- Kaufmann, Max. *Die Vernichtung des Juden Lettlands: Churbn Lettland*. Munich: Im Selbstverlag, 1947.
- Kermish, Joseph, ed. *To Live with Honor and Die with Honor!: Selected Documents from the Warsaw Ghetto Underground Archives "O.S." ("Oneg Shabbath")*. Jerusalem: Yad Vashem, 1986.
- Klarsfeld, Serge. *Le memorial de la deportation des juifs de France*. Paris: Klarsfeld, 1978.
- . *The Children of Izieu: A Human Tragedy*. New York: Harry N. Abrams, 1985.
- . *Le calendrier de la persecution des juifs en France, 1940-1944*. Paris: L'association "Les fils et filles des deportes juifs en France" and the Beate Klarsfeld Foundation, 1993.
- Klarsfeld, Serge, and Maxime Steinberg. *Memorial de la deportation des juifs de Belgique*. New York: Beate Klarsfeld Foundation, 1982.
- Klee, Ernst, Willi Dressen, and Volker Reiss, eds. *"The Good Old Days": The Holocaust as Seen by Its Perpetrators and Bystanders*. New York: Free Press, 1991.
- Knout, David. *Contribution a l'histoire de la resistance juive en France: 1940-1944*. Paris: Editions du centre, 1947.
- Koenig, Ulrich. *Sinti und Roma unter dem Nationalsozialismus: Verfolgung und Widerstand*. Bochum: N. Brockmeyer, 1989.
- Kogon, Eugen. *Nationalsozialistische Massentoetungen durch Giftgas: eine Dokumentation*. Frankfurt am Main: S. Fischer, 1983.
- Kolb, Eberhard. *Bergen-Belsen: Geschichte des "Aufenthaltslager," 1943-1945*. Hannover: Verlag fuer Literatur und Zeitgeschehen, 1962.
- . *Bergen-Belsen: vom "Aufenthaltslager" zum Konzentrationslager, 1943-1945*. Goettingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 1985.
- Konieczny, Alfred. "Das Konzentrationslager Gross-Rosen." *Dachauer Hefte* 5. Jahrgang, Heft 5 (November 1989): 15-27.
- Kowalski, Isaac, ed. and comp. *Anthology on Armed Jewish Resistance*. Vol. 2. Brooklyn, N.Y.: Jewish Combatants Publisher's House, 1984.
- Krakowski, Shmuel. "Massacre of Jewish Prisoners on the Samland Peninsula—Documents." *Yad Vashem Studies* 24 (1994): 349-387.
- Kugelmass, Jack, and Jonathan Boyarin, eds. *From a Ruined Garden: The Memorial Books of Polish Jewry*. New York: Schocken, 1983.
- Laharie, Claude. *Le camp de Gurs: 1939-1945. Un aspect meconnu de l'histoire du Bearn*. Biarritz: Societe Atlantique d'impression, 1985.
- Lasry, Jean-Claude, and Claude Tapia. *Les Juifs du Maghreb: diasporas contemporaines*. Paris: Editions l'Harmattan, 1989.
- Latour, Anny. *The Jewish Resistance in France, 1940-1944*. New York: Schocken, 1981.

- Laub, Morris. *Last Barrier to Freedom: Internment of Jewish Holocaust Survivors on Cyprus, 1946-1949*. Berkeley, Calif.: J.L. Magnes Museum, 1985.
- Levy, Claude. *La grande rafle du Vel d'Hiv (16 Juillet 1942)*. Paris: R. Laffont, 1967.
- Lichtenstein, Heiner. *Mit der Reichsbahn in den Tod: Massentransporte in den Holocaust 1941 bis 1945*. Koeln: Bund-Verlag, 1985.
- Lindwer, Willy. *The Last Seven Months of Anne Frank*. New York: Pantheon, 1991.
- Lipschitz, Chaim U. *Franco, Spain, the Jews, and the Holocaust*. New York: Ktav, 1984.
- Madajczyk, Czeslaw. *Die Okkupationspolitik Nazideutschlands in Polen, 1939-1945*. Translated by Berthold Puchert. Berlin: Akademie-Verlag, 1987.
- Marrus, Michael Robert, and Robert O. Paxton. *Vichy France and the Jews*. New York: Basic, 1981.
- Marsalek, Hans. *Die Geschichte des Konzentrationslagers Mauthausen: Dokumentation*. Vienna: Oesterreichische Lagergemeinschaft Mauthausen, 1980.
- . *Die Vergasungsaktionen im Konzentrationslager Mauthausen: Gaskammer, Gaswagen, Vergasungsanstalt Hartheim, Tarnnamen*. Vienna: Dokumentation, 1988.
- Marshall, Robert. *In the Sewers of Lvov: A Heroic Story of Survival from the Holocaust*. New York: Maxwell Macmillan International, 1991.
- Marszalek, Jozef. *Majdanek: The Concentration Camp in Lublin*. Warsaw: Interpress, 1986.
- Mogilanski, Roman, ed. *The Ghetto Anthology: A Comprehensive Chronicle of the Extermination of Jewry in Nazi Death Camps and Ghettos in Poland*. Los Angeles: American Congress of Jews from Poland and Survivors of Concentration Camps, 1985.
- Mokotoff, Gary, and Sallyann Amdur Sack. *Where Once We Walked: A Guide to the Jewish Communities Destroyed in the Holocaust*. Teaneck, N.J.: Avotaynu, 1991.
- Molho, Michael. *In Memoriam: Hommage aux victimes juives des nazis en Grece*. Thessalonique: Communaute israelite de Thessalonique, 1973.
- Mueller-Hill, Benno. *Murderous Science: Elimination by Scientific Selection of Jews, Gypsies, and Others; Germany, 1933-1945*. Translated by George R. Fraser. New York: Oxford University Press, 1988.
- Novitch, Miriam. *The Passage of the Barbarians*. Hull, England: Wilberforce Council, 1989.
- Ofer, Dalia. *Escaping the Holocaust: Illegal Immigration to the Land of Israel, 1939-1944*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1990.
- Office of Geography, Department of the Interior. *Official Standard Names Gazetteer: Approved by the U.S. Board on Geographic Names*. Washington, D.C.: Department of the Interior, 1960-1988.
- Pehle, H., ed. *November 1938: From "Reichskristallnacht" to Genocide*. New York: Berg, 1991.
- Peleg, Miryam. *Witnesses: Life in Occupied Krakow*. New York: Routledge, 1991.
- Poliakov, Leon, and Jacques Sabille. *Jews under the Italian Occupation*. New York: Howard Fertig, 1983.
- Press, Bernhard. *Judenmord in Riga, 1941-1945*. Berlin, 1988.
- Presser, Jacob. *The Destruction of the Dutch Jews*. New York: E.P. Dutton, 1969.
- Proudfoot, Malcolm Jarvis. *European Refugees: 1939-1952. A Study in Forced Population Movement*. Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press, 1956.
- Puvogel, Ulrike. *Gedenkstaetten fuer die Opfer des Nationalsozialismus: eine Dokumentation*. Bonn: Bundeszentrale fuer Politische Bildung, 1987.
- Rol, Rund van der. *Anne Frank: Beyond the Diary—A Photographic Remembrance*. New York: Viking, 1993.
- Rueter, C.F., and Adelheid L. Rueter-Ehlermann, eds. *Justiz und NS-Verbrechen: Sammlung deutscher Strafurteile wegen Nationalsozialistischer Toetungsverbrechen*. 22 vols. Amsterdam: University Press, 1968-81.
- Sacerdoti, Annie. *Guide to Jewish Italy*. Brooklyn, N.Y.: Israelowitz, 1989.
- Sanders, Ronald. *Shores of Refuge: A Hundred Years of Jewish Emigration*. New York: Henry Holt, 1988.
- Schmid, Kurt, and Robert Streibel, eds. *Der Pogrom 1938: Judenverfolgung in Oesterreich und Deutschland: Dokumentation eines Symposiums der Volkshochschule Brigittenau*. Vienna: Picus, 1990.

- Schneider, Gertrude. *Journey into Terror: The Story of the Riga Ghetto*. New York: Ark House, 1979.
- , ed. *Muted Voices: Jewish Survivors of Latvia Remember*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1987.
- , ed. *The Unfinished Road: Jewish Survivors of Latvia Remember*. New York: Praeger, 1991.
- Schroeter, Kurt. *Tage, die so quaelend sind: Aufzeichnungen eines juedischen Buergers aus Groebenzell im besetzten Amsterdam, September 1942-Januar 1943*. Munich: R. Kovar, 1993.
- Schur, Maxine. *Hannah Szenes: A Song of Light*. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, 1986.
- Schwarz, Gudrun. *Die nationalsozialistischen Lager*. New York: Campus, 1990.
- Schwarz, Stefan. *Die juedische Gedenkstaette in Dachau*. Munich: Landesverband der Israelitischen Kultusgemeinden in Bayern, 1972.
- Smolar, Hersh. *The Minsk Ghetto: Soviet-Jewish Partisans against the Nazis*. New York: Holocaust Publications, 1989.
- Steen, Juergen, and Wolf von Wolzogen. *Anne aus Frankfurt: Leben und Lebenswelt Anne Franks*. Frankfurt am Main: Historisches Museum Frankfurt am Main, 1990.
- Stein, Harry. *Juden in Buchenwald, 1937-1942*. Weimar: Gedenkstaette Buchenwald, 1992.
- Steinbacher, Sybille. *Dachau—die Stadt und das Konzentrationslager in der NS-Zeit. Die Untersuchung einer Nachbarschaft*. (Muenchner Studien zur neueren und neuesten Geschichte, Band 5), Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, 1994.
- Stock, Ernest. *Chosen Instrument: The Jewish Agency in the First Decade of the State of Israel*. New York: Herzl, 1988.
- Thomas, Gordon. *Voyage of the Damned*. Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett, 1974.
- Tillion, Germaine. *Ravensbrueck*. Garden City, N.Y.: Anchor, 1975.
- Tory, Avraham. *Surviving the Holocaust: The Kovno Ghetto Diary*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1990.
- Trial of the Major War Criminals before the International Military Tribunal, Nuremberg 14 November 1945-1 October 1946*. Nuremberg: 1947-1949.
- Trials of War Criminals before the Nuernberg Military Tribunals under Control Council Law no. 10. October 1946-April 1949*. Washington, D.C.: U.S.G.P.O., 1949-1953.
- Trunk, Isaiah. *Judenrat: The Jewish Councils in Eastern Europe under Nazi Occupation*. New York: Stein and Day, 1977.
- Warmbrunn, Werner. *The German Occupation of Belgium, 1940-1944*. New York: Peter Lang, 1993.
- Weglein, Resi. *Als Krankenschwester im KZ Theresienstadt: Erinnerungen einer Ulmer Juedin*. Stuttgart: Silberburg-Verlag, 1988.
- Weinberg, Gerhard L. *A World at Arms: A Global History of World War II*. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994.
- Weinmann, Martin, ed. *Das nationalsozialistische Lagersystem*. Frankfurt am Main: Zweitausendeins, 1990.
- Wiehn, Erhard, ed. *Oktoberdeportation 1940: die sogenannte "Abschiebung" der badischen und saarpfaelzischen Juden in das franzoesische Internierungslager Gurs und andere Vorstationen von Auschwitz: 50 Jahre danach zum Gedenken*. Konstanz: Hartung-Gore, 1990.
- Wistrich, Robert S., ed. *Austrians and Jews in the Twentieth Century: From Franz Joseph to Waldheim*. New York: St. Martin's, 1992.
- Yahil, Leni. *The Rescue of Danish Jewry: Test of a Democracy*. Translated by Morris Gradel. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, 1969.
- . *The Holocaust: The Fate of European Jewry, 1932-1945*. Translated by Ina Friedman and Haya Galai. New York: Oxford University Press, 1990.
- Zentner, Christian, and Friedemann Beduerftig, eds. *The Encyclopedia of the Third Reich*. 2 vols. New York: Macmillan, 1991.
- Zoerner, G. *Frauen-KZ Ravensbrueck*. Berlin: Deutscher Verlag der Wissenschaften, 1982.
- Zucotti, Susan. *The Holocaust, the French, and the Jews*. New York: Basic, 1993.

This gazetteer is a comprehensive listing of place names found on the maps in the *Historical Atlas of the Holocaust*. Cities and towns are generally named according to the language of the country in which they were located before World War II. However, because national boundaries shifted radically before, during, and after World War II, extensive cross referencing with alternate spellings of many eastern European places is also included. German designations are used for Nazi concentration camps; in cases where a camp is listed by its German name and the nearby town by another name, *see also* references direct the reader from one term to the other. Many alternate place-name spellings come from sources such as the United States Board on Geographic Names *Official Standard Names Gazetteer* for each European country covered and from Gary Mokotoff and Sallyann Amdur Sack's *Where Once We Walked: A Guide to the Jewish Communities Destroyed in the Holocaust*. Camp names come largely from *Verzeichnis der Haftstaetten unter dem Reichsfuehrer-SS (1933-1945)* of the International Committee of the Red Cross.

The gazetteer uses the following conventions for ease of use. Alternate spellings appear in parentheses after a term; for example, *Belchatow*, (*Belchatov*, *Belkhatov*) 36, 42, 54-55, 82.

Where the same term actually refers to more than one location, the entries are distinguished from each other by a bracketed term identifying the larger town or camp with which each distinct location is associated in the atlas; for example, *Breziny* [*Belzec*] 84 and *Breziny* [*Lodz*] 42-43.

The letter *t* following a page reference indicates that the term will be found on the map at the top of that page; the letter *b* that it will be found on the map at the bottom of the page.

The extensive Table of Contents found at the front of this atlas is a thematic and regional guide to the maps.

A

- | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
| Aachen, (Aix la Chapelle)
121 | Alexandru-Cel-Bun, 71 | Andrikhov, <i>see</i> Andrychow | Asti, 172-173 |
| Aalst, 116, 124 | Alexoten, 65 | Andrychow, (Andrichov,
Andrikhov, Yendrikhov)
98 | Athens, 99t, 168, 169b, 170-
171, 174-175, 180b-181,
218-219 |
| Aarschot, 124 | Alkmaar, 116, 119 | Angelholm, 194 | Aufkirchen, 208 |
| Acre, 220b | Allach, 146, 208 | Angers, 99t, 107 | Augsburg, 24, 146 |
| Adamczuki, 87 | Allendorf, (Allendorf an der
Lumda) 149 | Anninmuiza, 66 | Augsburg-Pfersee, 146 |
| Admont, 217 | Allendorf an der Lumda, <i>see</i>
Allendorf | Antwerp, 25, 99t, 116-117, 124 | Augustov, <i>see</i> Augustow |
| Aflenz, 152 | Allenstein, (Olsztyn) 24 | Apeldoorn, 116 | Augustow, (Agustov,
Augustov, Oygstova,
Yagestov, Yagistov,
Yagustova) 58 |
| Agen, 110 | Alsace-Lorraine, 106, 112, 115 | Apolda, 147 | Aumale, 112 |
| Agram, <i>see</i> Zagreb | Alsobudak, <i>see</i> Bistrita | Aqaba, 220b | Auschwitz, 45, 76-77, 93-99,
121, 128-129, 136b, 138-
143, 188, 200, 204-205,
209, 216 |
| Agustov, <i>see</i> Augustow | Alt Lesle, <i>see</i> Wloclawek | Aranzenii Vechi, <i>see</i> Bratislava | Auschwitz I, 93-95 |
| Aichach, 207t | Alt Ofen, <i>see</i> Budapest | Aren, 110 | Auschwitz II (Birkenau), 93-94,
96 |
| Ainring, 217 | Altdamm, <i>see</i> Dabie | Argenau, (Gnevkovy,
Gniewkowo, Nefcover)
161 | Auschwitz III (Monowitz), 93-
94, 97, 205 |
| Aix la Chapelle, <i>see</i> Aachen | Altdorf, 99b | Argentina, 26-27 | Aushvits, <i>see</i> Oswiecim |
| Akhmetchetka, 71, 72b | Altenburg, 155 | Arnhem, 116-117 | Aussig, (Usti nad Labem) 207t |
| Akovo, <i>see</i> Djakovo | Altenhofen, 150 | Arnstadt, 147 | Austria, 14-16, 18t, 20, 24, 201,
216-219, 221 |
| Albania, 14, 16, 170-71,
180-181, 221 | Althammer, 99b, 205 | Arolsen, 149 | |
| Albertfalva, 189t, 190 | Amager, 194 | Arras, 112 | |
| Alexsander, <i>see</i> Aleksandrow | Amersfoort, 117, 119 | Artern, 164 | |
| Aleksandrov, <i>see</i> Aleksandrow | Amman, 220b | Asbach, 115 | |
| Aleksandrow, (Aleksander,
Aleksandrov, Aleksandrow
Lodzki) 43 | Ampermochung, 146 | Aschersleben, 149 | |
| Aleksandrow Lodski, <i>see</i>
Aleksandrow | Ampfing, 146 | Aseri, 65 | |
| Aleksat, <i>see</i> Aleksotas | Amsterdam, 78-79, 116, 119-
121 | Ashkelon, 220b | |
| Aleksotas, (Aleksat) 68 | Amstetten, 152 | Aslau, 158 | |
| | Andalsnes, 195 | Assen, 116 | |
| | Andrespol, 43 | Asten, 150 | |
| | Andrichov, <i>see</i> Andrychow | | |

B

Babenhausen, 217

- Babi Yar, 51, 53
 Babitz, 93-94, 99b
 Bachern, 144
 Bachmanning, 152
 Backa-Topolya, 172-173
 Bacsalmás, 172-173, 186b
 Bad Berka, 147, 149
 Bad Gandersheim,
 (Gandersheim) 149
 Bad Ischl, 146
 Bad Lauchstadt, *see*
 Langensalza
 Bad Oberdorf, 146
 Bad Rappenau, (Rappenau) 115
 Bad Reichenhall, 217
 Bad Salzbrunn, 158
 Bad Salzschlirf, (Salzschlirf)
 217
 Bad Salzungen, 149
 Bad Toelz, 146, 208
 Bad Warmbrunn, 158
 Badgastein, 217
 Baeumenheim, 146
 Baia Mare, *see* Nagyanya
 Baja, 172-173, 186b, 188
 Balashadzharmat, *see*
 Balassagyarmat
 Balassagyarmat,
 (Balashadzharmat,
 Boloshodyormot,
 Dyormot, Dzhormot) 188
 Balchik, 196
 Balf, 186b
 Balingen, 115
 Ballenstedt, 164
 Balti, (Beltsy, Beltz, Belzy,
 Bielce) 71, 72b
 Baltic countries, 64-65
 Baltoja Voke, *see* Biala Waka
 Bamberg, 217
 Banjica, 172-173
 Bankau, 206
 Banska Bystrica,
 (Besztercebanya, Neusohl)
 18b-19
 Bar, (Ber) 71
 Baranovich, *see* Baranovichi
 Baranovichi, (Baranovich,
 Baranovitsh, Baranovitsh,
 Baranowicze) 51, 54-56,
 198
 Baranovitsh, *see* Baranovichi
 Baranovitsh, *see* Baranovichi
 Baranowicze, *see* Baranovichi
 Bardichev, *see* Berdichev
 Bari, 218-219
 Barneveld, 117
 Barsad, *see* Bersad
 Barth, 155
 Barzan, *see* Berezhany
 Bastogne, 116
 Bauschowitz, *see* Bohusovice
 nad Ohri
 Bautzen, 207t
 Baven, 165
 Bayonne, 110
 Bayrischzell, 146
 Beaune-la-Rolande, 99t, 106-
 107, 112
 Beckedorf, 165
 Becklingen, 165
 Bedzin, (Bendin, Bendzin) 36,
 54-55, 98, 200
 Beelitz, 130
 Beersheba, 220b
 Beilen, 122
 Bekescsaba, 185, 188
 Belaya Vaka, *see* Biala Waka
 Belchatov, *see* Belchatow
 Belchatow, (Belchatov,
 Belkhatov) 36, 42, 54-55,
 82
 Belgium, 14, 16-17, 25-27, 33,
 104-105, 116-118, 221
 Belgrade, (Beograd,
 Nandorfehvar) 32, 168-
 169t, 170-175, 216
 Belkhatov, *see* Belchatow
 Belmont, 113
 Belorussia, 56, 215t
 Belostok, *see* Bialystok
 Belsen, 165, 217
 Beltsy, *see* Balti
 Beltz, *see* Balti
 Belzec, (Belzhets, Belzhetz) 45,
 76-77, 83-86, 128-129,
 140-142
 Belzhets, *see* Belzec
 Belzhetz, *see* Belzec
 Belzig, 155
 Belzy, *see* Balti
 Bendin, *see* Bedzin
 Bendzin, *see* Bedzin
 Bensheim, 217
 Bensheim-Auerbach, 115
 Beograd, *see* Belgrade
 Ber, *see* Bar
 Berchan, *see* Briceni
 Berck Plage, 112
 Berdichev, (Bardichev,
 Berditchev, Berditchov,
 Berdyczow) 51, 54-55, 78-
 79
 Berdichev, *see* Berdichev
 Berditchov, *see* Berdichev
 Berdyczow, *see* Berdichev
 Beregovo, *see* Beregszasz
 Beregszasz, (Beregovo,
 Berehovo, Berehowo,
 Sachsisch-Bereg) 188
 Berehovo, *see* Beregszasz
 Berehowo, *see* Beregszasz
 Beresovka, *see* Berezovka
 Berezany, *see* Berezhany
 Berezhany, (Barzan, Berezany,
 Berson, Berzhan, Brezan,
 Brzesciany, Brzezany,
 Brzezahny, Bzezan,
 Bzhezhani) 51, 54-55, 86
 Berezovca, *see* Berezovka
 Berezovka, (Beresovka,
 Berezovca, Berozovka) 71
 Berg, 140-141
 Bergen, 165, 195
 Bergen-Belsen, 121, 138-142,
 165-166, 204-206, 207b,
 209, 218-219
 Bergkirchen, 144
 Berlin, 15, 24, 42, 78-79, 99t,
 128-130, 212, 215b, 217-
 219
 Berlstedt, 147
 Bernau, 130
 Bernburg, 28, 149
 Bernsdorf, 158
 Berozovka, *see* Berezovka
 Bersad, (Barsad, Bershad,
 Berszad, Berszada) 71
 Bersdorf, 156
 Bershad, *see* Bersad
 Berson, *see* Berezhany
 Berszad, *see* Bersad
 Berszada, *see* Bersad
 Berzhan, *see* Berezhany
 Bessarabia, 31, 72
 Bestercze, 188
 Besztece, *see* Bistrita
 Besztercebanya, *see* Banska
 Bystrica
 Besztrecz, 187
 Beuerberg, 208
 Biala D'lita, *see* Biala Podlaska
 Biala Gadol, *see* Biala Podlaska
 Biala Podlaska, (Biala D'lita,
 Biala Gadol, Podlyashe)
 89
 Biala Waka, (Baltoja Voke,
 Belaya Vaka) 65
 Bialistok, *see* Bialystok
 Bialystok, (Belostok, Bialistok)
 31, 34, 50-51, 54-55, 58-
 59, 92, 98, 102, 128-129,
 142, 198, 200, 215t, 216
 Bialystok District, 34-35, 58,
 198
 Bialystok Forest, 198
 Biberach, (Biberach an der
 Riss) 217
 Biberach an der Riss, *see*
 Biberach
 Bidgoshch, *see* Bromberg
 Bielany, 94
 Bielawa Dolna, *see*
 Langenbielau
 Bielce, *see* Balti
 Bielsk Podlaski, (Bielsko
 Podlaskie, Biłsk, Byelsk,
 Byelsk Podlaski) 58

- Bielsko Podlaskie, *see* Bielsk Podlaski
- Bikernieki, 66
- Billroda, 149
- Bilsk, *see* Bielsk Podlaski
- Binau, 115
- Birkenau, *see* Auschwitz II (Birkenau); Brzezinka
- Bischofferode, 162, 164
- Bisingen, 115
- Bismarckhuetten, 99b
- Bistrita, (Alsobudak, Besztece) 70
- Bitola, (Bitolj, Bitolja, Monastir) 168
- Bitolj, *see* Bitola
- Bitolja, *see* Bitola
- Blagoevgrad, *see* Gorna Dzhumaya
- Blaichach, 146
- Blankenburg, 149. *See also* Blankenburg am Harz
- Blankenburg am Harz, 164. *See also* Blankenburg
- Blankenhain, 147
- Blechhammer, 99b, 205
- Bleckmar, 165
- Bledov, *see* Bledow
- Bledow, (Bledov, Blendov) 39
- Bleicherode, 164
- Blendov, *see* Bledow
- Blonie, (Bloyna) 39
- Bloyna, *see* Blonie
- Bobrek, (Bobrek Karf) 99b
- Bobrek Karf, *see* Bobrek
- Bochnia, (Bokhnia, Kolanow, Salzberg) 98
- Bochum, 149
- Bockfliess, 132
- Bodo, 195
- Bogdanovka, 71, 72b
- Bohnsack, 159
- Bohrauseifersdorf, 156
- Bohusovice nad Ohri, 134
- Bohusowice, *see* Bohusovice nad Ohri
- Bojewo, 90
- Bokhnia, *see* Bochnia
- Bolderaja, 66
- Bolechov, *see* Bolekhov
- Bolechow, *see* Bolekhov
- Bolechow Ruski, *see* Bolekhov
- Bolekhov, (Bolechov, Bolechow, Bolechow Ruski) 198
- Bolimov, *see* Bolimow
- Bolimow, (Bolimov) 39
- Bolivia, 26-27
- Bolkenhain, 158
- Bologna, 180t, 182
- Boloshodyormot, *see* Balassagyarmat
- Bolshoi Trostinets, 56
- Bolzano, 99t, 140-141, 172-175, 180t, 182
- Bonn, 24
- Bonstorf, 165
- Bordeaux, 110
- Borgo San Dalmazzo, 174-175, 182
- Born, 155
- Bornholm, 194
- Borshchev, (Borshchov, Borshtchev, Borszczow) 198
- Borshchov, *see* Borshchev
- Borshtchev, *see* Borshchev
- Borszczow, *see* Borshchev
- Bosanska Gradiska, 176b
- Bosna Serai, *see* Sarajevo
- Boszormeny, *see* Hajduboszormeny
- Brandenburg, 28, 130
- Brandhofen, 158
- Bransk, (Braynsk, Breinsk) 58
- Braslav, *see* Braslaw
- Braslav, (Braslav, Breslav, Breslev) 200
- Bratislava, (Aranzenii Vechi, Bratislava, Pozsony, Pressburg) 18b-19, 99t, 216, 218-219
- Bratislava, *see* Bratislava
- Braunschweig, *see* Brunswick
- Braynsk, *see* Bransk
- Brazil, 26-27
- Breda, 116-117
- Bredtveit, 140-141
- Breendonk, 99t, 117-118, 124, 126, 140-141
- Breinsk, *see* Bransk
- Breitenau, 21, 144
- Breitestin, 152
- Bremen, 24, 207b, 215b
- Brens, 106, 112
- Breslau, (Bresslau, Wroclaw) 15, 24, 128-129, 158, 205, 215t
- Breslav, *see* Braslaw
- Breslev, *see* Braslaw
- Bresslau, *see* Breslau
- Brest, 104t, 112
- Brest Kujavsk, *see* Brzesc Kujawski
- Brest Litovsk, *see* Brest-Litovsk
- Brest-Litovsk, (Brest Litovsk, Brest Litowsk, Brisk, Brisk D Lita, Brisk Dlita, Brist nad Bugie, Brzesc Litewski, Brzesc nad Bugiem, Bzheshch nad Bugiem) 51, 54-55, 198
- Brest Litowsk, *see* Brest-Litovsk
- Brezan, *see* Berezhany
- Briceni, (Berchan, Briceni Sat, Briceni Targ, Brichany, Bricheni, Bricheni Sat, Bricheni Targ, Britshan, Britshani, Britsiteni) 71, 72b
- Briceni Sat, *see* Briceni
- Briceni Targ, *see* Briceni
- Brichany, *see* Briceni
- Bricheni, *see* Briceni
- Bricheni Sat, *see* Briceni
- Bricheni Targ, *see* Briceni
- Brieg, (Brzeg, Bzheg) 158
- Brisk, *see* Brest-Litovsk
- Brisk D Koya, *see* Brzesc Kujawski
- Kujawski
- Brisk D Lita, *see* Brest-Litovsk
- Brisk Dlita, *see* Brest-Litovsk
- Brisk Kuyavsk, *see* Brzesc Kujawski
- Brist nad Bugie, *see* Brest-Litovsk
- Britshan, *see* Briceni
- Britshani, *see* Briceni
- Britsiteni, *see* Briceni
- Brno, (Bruenn, Brunn) 136t
- Brocice, 176
- Brod, *see* Brody
- Brod Uhersky, *see* Uhersky Brod
- Broda, *see* Uhersky Brod
- Brody, (Brod, Prode) 51, 54-55, 86, 102
- Brok, 90
- Bromberg, (Bidgoshch, Bydgoszcz) 161
- Brueckhofen, 142
- Bruenn, *see* Brno
- Bruennlitz, 158
- Brugge, 116
- Brunn, *see* Brno
- Brunswick, (Braunschweig) 216
- Brussels, 116, 124
- Brzeg, *see* Brieg
- Brzeg Dolny, *see* Dyhernfurth
- Brzegi, *see* Dyhernfurth
- Brzesc Kujawski, (Brest Kujavsk, Brisk D Koya, Brisk Kuyavsk) 42
- Brzesc Litewski, *see* Brest-Litovsk
- Brzesc nad Bugiem, *see* Brest-Litovsk
- Brzesciany, *see* Berezhany
- Brzeszcze, 94
- Brzezany, *see* Berezhany
- Brzezany, *see* Berezhany
- Brzezinka (Birkenau), 93-94. *See also* Auschwitz II (Birkenau)
- Brzeziny [Belzec] 84

Brzeziny [Lodz] 42-43,
 Bucharest, (Bucuresti) 70, 78-79, 196, 216
 Buchenwald, 22, 138-143, 147-149, 204-205, 207, 209
 Buchwald-Hohenwiese, 158
 Bucuresti, *see* Bucharest
 Buda, *see* Budapest
 Budafok, 189-190
 Budaors, 189t
 Budapest, (Alt Ofen, Buda, Budon, Kobanya, Obuda, Ofen, Pest) 78-79, 99t, 185-190, 197, 216
 Budi, *see* Budy
 Budon, *see* Budapest
 Budy, (Budi) 93-94, 99b
 Budzhin, *see* Budzyn
 Budzin, *see* Budzyn
 Budzyn, (Budzhin, Budzin) 45, 140-141
 Buialyk, 73
 Bukachevtsy, (Bukaczowce, Bukotchovitz, Bukshevitz) 198
 Bukaczowce, *see* Bukachevtsy
 Bukotchovitz, *see* Bukachevtsy
 Bukovina, (Gugel) 72
 Bukshevitz, *see* Bukachevtsy
 Bulgaria, 14, 16, 30, 33, 169b-175, 196, 201, 218-219, 221
 Bullenhof, 66
 Bumsla, *see* Mlada Boleslav
 Bunzlau, 158
 Burdujeni, 71
 Burg el Arab, 202
 Burgas, 196
 Burgau, 146
 Burgbernheim, 217
 Buttelstedt, 147, 149
 Bydgoszcz, *see* Bromberg
 Byelsk, *see* Bielsk Podlaski
 Byelsk Podlaski, *see* Bielsk Podlaski
 Bzezan, *see* Berezhany
 Bzheg, *see* Brieg

Bzheshch nad Bugyem, *see* Brest-Litovsk
 Brest-Litovsk
 Bzhezhan, *see* Berezhany
C
 Cacak, 172-173
 Cagliari, 180t
 Calais, 112, 199
 Calarasi, (Calarasi Sat, Calarasi Targ, Kalaras, Kalarash, Tuzora) 71
 Calarasi Sat, *see* Calarasi
 Calarasi Targ, *see* Calarasi
 Calw, 115
 Cambrai, 112
 Cannstatt, *see* Stuttgart
 Caracal, 71
 Carlsbad, (Karlovy Vary, Karlsbad, Karlzbad) 24, 207t
 Carpathian Ruthenia, *see* Transcarpathian Ukraine
 Carpi, 180t
 Cassel, *see* Kassel
 Castres, 199
 Catania, 180t
 Celle, 207b
 Central America, 26-27
 Central Europe, *see* Europe, central
 Cernauti, *see* Chernovtsy
 Cernovcy, *see* Chernovtsy
 Cernowitz Bukovina, *see* Chernovtsy
 Ceske Kopisty, 134
 Channel Islands, 104t
 Charkow, *see* Kharkov
 Charleroi, 116
 Charlottengrube, 99b
 Chechinov, *see* Ciechanow
 Chekhanov, *see* Ciechanow
 Chekhanove, *see* Ciechanow
 Chelem, *see* Chelm
 Chelm, (Chelem, Khelem, Khelm, Kholm) 89
 Chelmek, 99b
 Chelmno, 45, 76-77, 80-82,

138-142
 Chelodz, *see* Czeladz
 Chemnitz, (Karl-Marx-Stadt) 21, 24, 205, 207b
 Chenstchov, *see* Czystochowa
 Chenstochov, *see* Czystochowa
 Chenstokhov, *see* Czystochowa
 Cherbourg, 25
 Chernovitsy, *see* Chernovtsy
 Chernovitz, *see* Chernovtsy
 Chernovtsky, *see* Chernovtsy
 Chernovtsy, (Cernauti, Cernovcy, Cernowitz Bukovina, Chernovitsy, Chernovitz, Chernovtsky, Czerniowce, Czernovitz, Czernowitz) 51, 54-55, 70-72, 78-79
 Cherson, *see* Kherson
 Chervonoarmeyskoye, *see* Cubei
 Chestokhova, *see* Czystochowa
 Chile, 26-27
 Chisinau, *see* Kishinev
 Chmelnitski, *see* Proskurov
 Chmielnicki, *see* Proskurov
 Chomutov, *see* Komotau
 Chortkev, *see* Chortkov
 Chortkov, (Chortkev, Czortkow, Czortkow Stary) 54-55, 198
 Chortkow, 86
 Chrastava, *see* Kratzau
 Christianstadt, (Krzystkowice) 158
 Chruscin, 80
 Chrzanow, (Hrycowola, K Shonev, Keshanov, Khshanov, Khshanuv, Krashanov, Kreshanov, Kshanev, Kshanov) 98
 Chust, *see* Huszt
 Cichow, 80
 Ciechanow, (Chechinov, Chekhanov, Chekhanove, Tshekhanov, Ziechenau) 98

Clermont-Ferrand, 199
 Clervaux, 116
 Cluj, (Cluj Napoca, Klausenberg, Klausenburg, Kluyzenburg, Kluzh, Kolozhvar, Kolozsvar, Kolozvar) 70, 99t, 185-188, 215t
 Cluj Napoca, *see* Cluj
 Coblenz, *see* Koblenz
 Cochem-Bruttig, 115
 Coka, 172-173
 Colditz, 21
 Colmar, 115
 Coln, *see* Cologne
 Cologne, (Coln, Keln, Keln, Klunya, Koeln, Koln) 15, 24, 42, 128-129, 215b
 Colonia Umberto I di Tonezza, 172-173
 Columbia Haus, 21, 130
 Compiègne, 99t, 106-107, 112, 140-141
 Constanta, (Kuestendje) 196, 218-219
 Copenhagen, 194, 216
 Corfu, (Kerkira) 99t, 169b-175, 180-181
 Corsica, 170-171, 180-181
 Cracow, *see* Krakow
 Crawinkel, 147, 149
 Cremenciuc, *see* Kremenchug
 Crete, 32, 169b
 Croatia, 33, 169t, 170-175, 186
 Csepel, 186b, 188
 Cuba, 25, 26-27
 Cubei, (Chervonoarmeyskoye) 71
 Cuneo, 180t, 182
 Cyprus, 218-220t
 Czechoslovakia, 14-15, 17, 18b-20, 185, 216, 218-219, 221
 Czeladz, (Chelodz) 98
 Czerniowce, *see* Chernovtsy
 Czernovitz, *see* Chernovtsy
 Czernowitz, *see* Chernovtsy

Czestochowa, (Chenstchov,

Chenstochov,

Chenstokhov,

Chestokhova,

Tshenstokhov)

36, 54-55, 92, 198, 200

Czortkow, *see* Chortkov

Czortkow Stary, *see* Chortkov

D

Dabelow, 155

Dabie, (Altdamm, Dabie

Miasto, Dambia, Dambye,

Dombe, Dombie, Dombye)

80

Dabie Miasto, *see* Dabie

Dachau, 21-22, 138-146, 205,

208-209, 216

Daetzdorf, 156

Dakovo, *see* Djakovo

Dalnik, 72b-73

Dambia, *see* Dabie

Dambye, *see* Dabie

Damerau, 159

Damshoehe, 155

Danica, 172-173

Daniszew, 80

Danzig, (Gdansk) 14-15, 17, 24,
31, 159, 161, 206

Danzig-West Prussia, 34-35

Darmstadt, 115t

Daugapils, *see* Dvinsk

Daugava, *see* Dvinsk

Daugavgriva, 66

Daugavpils, *see* Dvinsk

Dautmergen, (Schomberg

Dautmergen) 115

Debrecen, (Debretsín) 99t, 185-
188

Debretsín, *see* Debrecen

Deelen, 117

Deggendorf, 217

Dej, (Des) 70, 99t, 185-188

Dendermonde, 124

Denmark, 14, 32, 194, 216, 221

Derechin, (Dereczyn,

Deretchin, Derhichin,

Dretchin) 51, 54-55, 198

Dereczyn, *see* Derechin

Deretchin, *see* Derechin

Derhichin, *see* Derechin

Derpt, *see* Tartu

Des, *see* Dej

Dessau, 149

Deutsch Wagram, 132

Deutschoth, 112, 115

Dhekelia, 220t

Dhidhimotikhon, 174-175

Diatlovo, 51, 54-55, 198

Diekirch, 116

Diesten, 165

Dinaburg, *see* Dvinsk

Dinskivola, *see* Zdunska Wola

Dippoldsau, 152

Dirchau, *see* Dirschau

Dirschau, (Dirchau, Dirschaw,

Strzewo, Tczew) 159

Dirschaw, *see* Dirschau

Djakovo, (Akovo, Dakovo)

172-173

Dnepropetrovsk,

(Dniepropetrovsk,

Ekaterinoslav,

Jekaterynoslav,

Keterinoslav, Secheslav,

Siczslaw, Yekaterinoslav)

35, 50-51, 54-55, 215t

Dnepropetrovsk, *see*

Dnepropetrovsk

Doaga, 71

Dobrovlyany, *see* Drogobych

Dobrow, 80

Dobrowlany, *see* Drogobych

Dodecanese Islands, 180

Domanevka, (Domanovca,

Domonovca, Dumanovka)

71, 72b

Domanovca, *see* Domanevka

Dombas, 195

Dombe, *see* Dabie

Dombie, *see* Dabie

Dombye, *see* Dabie

Domonovca, *see* Domanevka

Dondangen, 65

Dora-Mittelbau, 138-142, 162-

164, 204-205, 207b, 209

Dormettingen, 115

Dornberg, 156

Dornburg, 149

Dorog, 190

Dorohoi, 70

Dorpa, *see* Tartu

Dorpat, 65. *See also* Tartu

Dortmund, 149

Dragor, 194

Drancy, 99t, 106-109, 112,

140-141

Drenov Bok, 176b

Dresden, (Drezden) 24, 205,

207t, 215b

Dretchin, *see* Derechin

Drezden, *see* Dresden

Drobich, *see* Drogobych

Droegen, 155

Drogobich, *see* Drogobych

Drogobych, (Dobrovlyany,

Dobrowlany, Drobich,

Drogobich, Drogobycz,

Drohobich, Drohobitch,

Drohobycz) 54-55, 86

Drogobycz, *see* Drogobych

Drohobich, *see* Drogobych

Drohobitch, *see* Drogobych

Drohobycz, *see* Drogobych

Dubeczno, (Dubetchna) 87

Dubetchna, *see* Dubeczno

Dubica, 176b

Duenaburg, 65. *See also* Dvinsk

Duenawerke, 65

Dueppel Center, 217

Duesseldorf, (Dusseldorf) 24,

42, 128-129, 149, 215b

Duffel, 124

Dumanovka, *see* Domanevka

Dunaberg, *see* Dvinsk

Dunaburg, *see* Dvinsk

Dunaszeg, 190

Dunkerque, 104t

Dupnitsa, (Marek, Stanke

Dimitrov) 172-175

Dusseldorf, *see* Duesseldorf

Dvart, *see* Warta

Dvinsk, (Daugapils, Daugava,

Daugavpils, Dinaburg,

Duenaburg, Dunaberg,

Dunaburg, Dwinsk,

Dzvinsk) 51, 54-55, 64

Dvurt, *see* Warta

Dwinsk, *see* Dvinsk

Dwory, 93-94

Dyhernfurth, (Brzeg Dolny,

Brzegi) 158

Dyormot, *see* Balassagyarmat

Dzhormot, *see* Balassagyarmat

Dzvinsk, *see* Dvinsk

E

East Prussia, 21, 24, 34-35

Eastern Europe, *see* Europe,

eastern

Ebensee, 142, 152, 209, 217

Eberswalde, 130, 155

Echterdingen, 115

Ecrouves, 107, 112

Edineti, (Edineti Sat, Edineti

Targ, Edinita, Edinita

Targ, Jedincy, Yedinets,

Yedintsy) 70-72

Edineti Sat, *see* Edineti

Edineti Targ, *see* Edineti

Edinita, *see* Edineti

Edinita Targ, *see* Edineti

Eger, 207t

Egypt, 202

Eilat, 220b

Eindhoven, 116-117

Eintrachthuetten, 99b

Eisenerz, 152

Eisenhuttenstadt, *see*

Fuerstenberg

Ekaterinoslav, *see*

Dnepropetrovsk

Elba, 180, 182

Elberfeld, *see* Wuppertal

Elbing, (Elblag) 159, 161

Elblag, *see* Elbing

Elkush, *see* Olkusz

Eller-Meiten, 65

Ellrich, 164
 Ellwangen, 115
 Elp, 122
 Elsdorf, 156
 Elsinore, 194
 Emden, 24
 England, *see* Great Britain
 Enkhuizen, 119
 Enns, 150, 152
 Ennsdorf, 150, 152
 Enschede, 116
 Erfurt, 147
 Ersekujvar, (Nove Zamky) 188
 Erzingen, 115
 Eschershausen, 149
 Eschwege, 217
 Espa, 195
 Espergaerde, 194
 Esseg, *see* Osijek
 Essen, 149
 Esterwegen, 21
 Estonia, 14, 16, 31-32, 56, 64-65, 215t
 Eszek, *see* Osijek
 Europe, 12-14, 30, 32-33, 78-79, 99t, 140-141, 192-193, 214, 216, 221
 Europe, central 15, 129, 209
 Europe, eastern, 31, 35, 50-51, 54-55, 198, 215t
 Europe, southern, 168-175
 Europe, western, 104-105, 199
 Eutin, 21
 Eversen, 165

F

Faenza, 202
 Fagernes, 195
 Fakse, 194
 Falkenberg, 158
 Falster, 194
 Falticeni, (Palticeni) 71
 Famagusta, 220t
 Fauske, 195
 Fehebeutel, 156
 Feldafing, 146, 217
 Feldberg, 155

Feldgeding, 144
 Ferrara, 180t
 Festerevo, 73
 Finland, 14, 30, 221
 Finow, 155
 Fischamend Markt, 132
 Fischbachau, 146
 Fischen, 146
 Fischhorn, 146
 Fiuggi, 202
 Flensburg, 206
 Florence, 170-171, 174-175, 180-182
 Floridsdorf, 152
 Flossenbuerg, 22, 138-142, 204-205, 207b, 209
 Focsani, 71
 Foehrenwald, 217
 Foggia, 180t
 Fort de Romainville, 106, 108t, 112
 Fossoli di Carpi, 99t, 140-141, 172-175, 182
 Fouday, 113
 France, 14, 16-17, 25-27, 32-33, 104-107, 112, 180b-181, 199, 201, 216, 218-219, 221
 Frankenstein, 205
 Frankfurt am Main, 15, 24, 42, 115, 121, 128-129, 215b
 Frankfurt an der Oder, 212
 Frankfurt on the Main, *see* Frankfurt am Main
 Fredrikstad, 195
 Freiburg, (Freiburg im Breisgau) 24, 158, 215b
 Freiburg im Breisgau, *see* Freiburg
 Freienwalde, 130
 Freising, 146
 Freudendorf, 161
 Freudenthal, 99b
 Friedberg, 205
 Friedland, (Korfantow) 158, 205
 Friedrichshafen, 146

Friesack, 130
 Frommern, 115
 Fuenfbrunnen, 117-118, 140-141
 Fuerstenberg, (Eisenhutenstadt) 155
 Fuerstenberg, (Furstenberg) 153
 Fuerstengrube, 99b
 Fuerth, (Furth) 217
 Funfkirchen, *see* Pecs
 Furstenberg, *see* Fuerstenberg
 Furth, *see* Fuerth
 Fyn, 194

G

Gabersdorf, 158
 Gabersee, 217
 Gablingen, 146
 Gablonz, 158
 Galati, (Galatz) 71
 Galatz, *see* Galati
 Gandersheim, *see* Bad Gandersheim
 Garmisch-Partenkirchen, 146
 Gassen, 158
 Gauting, 208
 Gawesen, 65
 Gaza, 220
 Gdansk, 216. *See also* Danzig
 Geisenheim, 115
 Geislingen, 115
 Gelsenkirchen, 149
 Gendorf, 146
 Generalgouvernement, 34-36, 39, 49, 54-55, 77, 83, 86, 89, 92, 102, 128-129, 198, 200
 Genoa, 170-171, 180-182
 Genthin, 155
 Geppersdorf, 158, 205
 Ger, *see* Gora Kalwaria
 Gera, 207
 Germany, 14-22, 26-27, 30, 32, 138-139, 215b-219, 221. *See also* Greater Germany
 Ghent, 116-117
 Gier, *see* Gora Kalwaria

Giessen, 149
 Gillelje, 194
 Gilze Rijen, 117
 Girlachsdorf, 156
 Glatz, (Klodzko) 205
 Glauchau, 207b
 Glayvits, *see* Gleiwitz
 Glebokie, (Glebokoye, Glembokie, Glubokie) 200
 Glebokoye, *see* Glebokie
 Gleiwitz, (Glayvits, Gliwice) 24, 99b, 205
 Glembokie, *see* Glebokie
 Gliwice, *see* Gleiwitz
 Glogna, *see* Glowno
 Glogno, *see* Glowno
 Glowno, (Glovna, Glogno) 39
 Glubczyce, *see* Leobschutz
 Glubokie, *see* Glebokie
 Gmund, 146, 208
 Gnevkovy, *see* Argenau
 Gniewkowo, *see* Argenau
 Gniliakova, 73
 Goddentow, 206
 Godollo, 189
 Goeding, *see* Hodonin
 Goerlitz, (Goorlitz, Gorlitz, Zgorzelec) 158, 205, 207t
 Goettingen, (Göttingen) 149, 164
 Golleschau, 99b
 Golt, (Halta) 71
 Gomel, (Homel, Homiyah) 51, 54-55, 215t
 Gonyu, 190
 Goorlitz, *see* Goerlitz
 Gora Kalwaria, (Ger, Gier, Gora Kalwarja, Gur, Gura Kalwaria) 39
 Gora Kalwarja, *see* Gora Kalwaria
 Gorki, 215t
 Gorlitz, *see* Goerlitz
 Gorna Dzhumaya, (Blagoevgrad) 172-175
 Gorodenka, (Horodenka) 51, 54-55, 86

- Goslar, 149
 Gospic, 172-173
 Gostinin, *see* Gostynin
 Gostynin, (Gostinin) 42
 Gotenhafen, 161, 206
 Gotha, 147
 Gottingen, *see* Goettingen
 Gouda, 119
 Grabina Wielka, 80
 Grabow, 87
 Grabowiec, 89
 Graeben, 158
 Grafeneck, 28
 Graslitz, 155
 Graudenz, (Grudziadz) 161
 Graz, 24, 152
 Great Britain, 14, 25-27, 221
 Greater Germany, 24, 28, 33, 128-129, 137, 143, 209, 210-211. *See also* Germany
 Grebnerfeld, 159
 Greci, 71
 Gredani, 176b
 Greece, 14, 32, 168, 169b-175, 180b-181, 218-219, 221
 Grein, 152
 Grenoble, 199
 Grenzdorf, 159
 Grimbergen, 124
 Grini, 140-141
 Gritsa, *see* Grojec
 Gritza, *see* Grojec
 Gritze, *see* Grojec
 Grodek, 58
 Grodne, *see* Grodno
 Grodno, (Grodne, Horodne, Hurodno) 51, 54-55, 58, 92, 98, 198
 Grodzhisk, *see* Grodzisk Mazowiecki
 Grodzhisk Mazovyets, *see* Grodzisk Mazowiecki
 Grodzisk Mazowiecki, (Grodzhisk, Grodzhisk Mazovyets, Grozitsk) 39
 Grojec, (Gritsa, Gritza, Gritze, Grutse, Gruyets) 39, 94
 Groningen, 116
 Gross Lesewitz, 159, 161
 Gross Mausdorf, 159, 161
 Gross Menow, 153
 Gross Raming, 152
 Gross-Rosen, (Rogoznica) 138-142, 156-158, 204-205, 207t, 209
 Gross Saalau, 159
 Gross Zuender, 206
 Grosswardein, *see* Oradea
 Grosswerther, 164
 Grozitsk, *see* Grodzisk Mazowiecki
 Grudziadz, *see* Graudenz
 Gruenberg, (Grunberg, Zielona Gora) 158
 Grulich, 158
 Grunberg, *see* Gruenberg
 Grutse, *see* Grojec
 Gruyets, *see* Grojec
 Guben, (Wilhelmpieckstadt Guben) 158
 Gudehausen, 165
 Gudersleben, 162
 Guending, 144
 Guenthergrube, 99b
 Gugel, *see* Bukovina
 Gunskirchen, 152, 209
 Gur, *see* Gora Kalwaria
 Gura Kalvaria, *see* Gora Kalwaria
 Gurs, 106-107, 110-112, 140-141
 Gurske, 161
 Gusen, 142, 150, 152, 209
 Gutschdorf, 156
 Guttau, 161
 Guttentbach, 115
 Guty, 90
 Gyor, (Gyorsziget, Raab) 185, 188, 190
 Gyorsziget, *see* Gyor
 Haarlem, 116, 119
 Hadamar, 28
 Haeslicht, 156
 Hagen, 165
 Hague, The, 116, 119, 216. *See also* 's-Gravenhage
 Haidari, 172-173
 Haidfeld, 152
 Haifa, 218-219, 220
 Hailfingen, 115
 Hajduboszormeny, (Boszormeny) 186b
 Hajduhadhaz, (Hajduhodkaz) 186b
 Hajduhodkaz, *see* Hajduhadhaz
 Halbau, 158
 Halberstadt, 149
 Halbstadt, 158
 Halden, 195
 Hall, *see* Schwaebisch Hall
 Halle, (Halle an der Saale) 149, 207b
 Halle an der Saale, *see* Halle
 Hallein, 146, 217
 Halta, *see* Golta
 Hamar, 195
 Hamburg, 15, 24-25, 42, 99t, 128-129, 206, 207b, 215b-217
 Hamme, 124
 Hannover, (Hanover) 15, 24, 128-129, 215b
 Hanover, *see* Hannover
 Harka, 65
 Harmense, 93-94, 99b
 Hartheim, 28, 152
 Hartmannsdorf, 158
 Harzungen, 162, 164
 Haslach, 115
 Hassel, 165
 Hatvan, 188
 Haugesund, 195
 Hausdorf, 158
 Havana, 25
 Hayingen, 112, 115
 Hebertshausen, 144, 208
 Hebron, 220b
 Hegyeshalom, (Strass Somerein) 190
 Heidemuhle, *see* Kowale Panskie
 Heidenheim, 146, 217
 Heiligenbeil, 161
 Hela, 206
 Helmbrechts, 155
 Helsingborg, 194
 Hennigsdorf, 155
 Heppenheim, (Heppenheim an der Bergstrasse) 115
 Heppenheim an der Bergstrasse, *see* Heppenheim
 Hermannsburg, 165
 Herreden, 162
 Herstal, 117
 Herzogenbusch, 117, 142. *See also* 's-Hertobensbosch
 Herzogswaldau, 156
 Hessental, 115
 Hilversum, 119
 Himberg, 132
 Hindenburg, (Zabrze) 99b
 Hinterbruehl, 152
 Hirschberg, (Jelenia Gora) 158, 205, 207t
 Hirtenberg, 152
 Hochstedt, 162
 Hodmezovasarhely, 188
 Hodonin, (Goeding, Hudonin) 142
 Hoerningen, 162
 Hoersten, 165
 Hoganass, 194
 Hoheneck, 161
 Hohenlychen, 155
 Hohlstedt, 164
 Hohne, 165, 217
 Hollenstein, 152
 Homel, *see* Gomel
 Homiyah, *see* Gomel
 Hooghalen, 122
 Hoorn, 119
 Hopfgarten, 142
 Horodenka, *see* Gorodenka
 Horodne, *see* Grodno

H

Haaren, 117

Horseroed, 140-141
 Hotin, 72b
 Hottelstedt, 147
 Hrubieszow, (Hrubishov,
 Hrbyeshuv, Rubashov,
 Rubeshov, Rubischoff,
 Rubishov, Rubishoyv) 89
 Hrubishov, *see* Hrubieszow
 Hrubyeshuv, *see* Hrubieszow
 Hrycowola, *see* Chrzanow
 Hubertushuette, 99b
 Hudonin, *see* Hodonin
 Humlebaek, 194
 Hungary, 14, 16, 19, 30-31, 33,
 52, 172-173, 185-188, 190,
 201, 216, 221
 Hurodno, *see* Grodno
 Husi, 71
 Hust, *see* Huszt
 Huste, *see* Huszt
 Hustedt, 165
 Huszt, (Chust, Hust, Huste,
 Khust) 52, 188

I

Iacob Deal, 71
 Iasi, (Jasi, Jassy) 70, 72b, 78-
 79, 215t
 Iasin, *see* Korosmezo
 Iasinia, *see* Korosmezo
 Idunum, *see* Judenburg
 Iffezheim, 115
 Ilfeld, 164
 Ilinka, 73
 Ilsenburg, 164
 Ingolstadt, 207t
 Innsbruck, 24, 146
 Ioannina, (Janina, Joanina,
 Yanina) 99t, 172-175
 Ireland, 14, 221
 Israel, 220b
 Istanbul, 196
 Italy, 14, 16, 30, 33, 170-175,
 180-182, 201-202, 216,
 218-219, 221
 Ivano Frankovsk, *see*
 Stanislawow

Iwano Frankowsk, *see*
 Stanislawow
 Izaslaw, *see* Zaslavl
 Izbica, (Izbica Lubelska, Izbica
 Lubelski) 128-129
 Izbica Lubelska, *see* Izbica
 Izbica Lubelski, *see* Izbica
 Iziaslav, *see* Zaslavl

J

Jablanac, 176
 Jadovno, 172-173
 Janina, *see* Ioannina
 Janinagrube, 99b
 Janischken, 65
 Janowska, 45, 62-63, 140-141,
 200
 Japan, 30
 Jarak, 172-173
 Jarczow, (Yartchovka) 84
 Jasenovac, 172-177
 Jasi, *see* Iasi
 Jasienowka, *see* Jasionowka
 Jasina, *see* Korosmezo
 Jasionowka, (Jasienowka,
 Yashinovka, Yashinovke,
 Yashinowka) 198
 Jassy, *see* Iasi
 Jauer, (Jawor) 207t
 Jaunzeen, 66
 Jawischowitz, 94, 99b, 205
 Jawor, *see* Jauer
 Jedincy, *see* Edineti
 Jedlsee, 152
 Jedrzejewo, *see* Putzig
 Jekaterynoslaw, *see*
 Dnepropetrovsk
 Jelenia Gora, *see* Hirschberg
 Jena, 147, 149, 207
 Jerusalem, 202, 220
 Jesau, 161
 Jezierna, 84
 Jezow, (Yezhov) 39
 Jitomir, *see* Zhitomir
 Joanina, *see* Ioannina
 Judenburg, (Idunum) 217
 Jungbunzlau, *see* Mlada

Boleslav
 Juriew, *see* Tartu
 Jurjew, *see* Tartu

K

K Shonev, *see* Chrzanow
 Kaesemark, 159
 Kahlberg, 159, 161
 Kahlbude, 206
 Kaidan, *see* Kedainiai
 Kaiserwald, (Mezapark,
 Mezaparks) 65-66,
 140-141
 Kaisheim, 115
 Kalaras, *see* Calarasi
 Kalarash, *see* Calarasi
 Kalinin, (Tver) 215t
 Kaliningrad, *see* Koenigsberg
 Kalisch, *see* Kalisz
 Kalisz, (Kalisch, Kolish) 42
 Kalisz Pomorski, *see* Kallies
 Kalleten, 65
 Kallies, (Kalisz Pomorski) 155
 Kalocsa, 188
 Kalthaus, 156
 Kaltwasser, 158
 Kamenets Podolsk, *see*
 Kamenets-Podolski
 Kamenets-Podolski,
 (Kamenets Podolsk,
 Kamenets Podolskiy,
 Kamieniec Podolski,
 Komenitz Podolsk) 35,
 50-52, 215t
 Kamenets Podolskiy, *see*
 Kamenets-Podolski
 Kamenz, 158
 Kamieniec Podolski, *see*
 Kamenets-Podolski
 Kamienna, *see* Skarzysko-
 Kamienna
 Kamienna Gora, *see* Landeshut
 Kampen, 116
 Kapoli, *see* Kopyl
 Kapolia, *see* Kopyl
 Kaposvar, 185, 187-188
 Kapulye, *see* Kopyl

Karczew, (Kartchev, Kartshev)
 39
 Karl-Marx-Stadt, *see* Chemnitz
 Karlovy Vary, *see* Carlsbad
 Karlsbad, *see* Carlsbad
 Karlshagen, 155
 Karlzbad, *see* Carlsbad
 Karsfeld, 146
 Kartchev, *see* Karczew
 Kartshev, *see* Karczew
 Kaschau, *see* Kosice
 Kasha, *see* Kosice
 Kashau, *see* Kosice
 Kashov, *see* Kosice
 Kashoy, *see* Kosice
 Kassa, *see* Kosice
 Kassel, (Cassel) 24, 149, 164,
 215b
 Katowice, *see* Kattowitz
 Kattowice, 142. *See also*
 Kattowitz
 Kattowitz, (Katowice,
 Stalinogrod) 99b. *See also*
 Kattowice
 Katzbach, 115
 Kauen, *see* Kovno
 Kaufbeuren, 146
 Kaufering, 146
 Kaunas, *see* Kovno
 Kazimierz, 46
 Kazlu Ruda, (Kozlova Ruda,
 Kozlowa Ruda) 65
 Kedainai, *see* Kedainiai
 Kedainiai, (Kaidan, Kedainai,
 Keidan, Keidany, Keydan,
 Kiejdany, Kuidany) 51,
 54-56, 64-65
 Keidan, *see* Kedainiai
 Keidany, *see* Kedainiai
 Kelbra, 164
 Kelin, *see* Cologne
 Keln, *see* Cologne
 Kelts, *see* Kielce
 Keltz, *see* Kielce
 Kemna, 21
 Kempten, 146
 Kerkira, *see* Corfu

- Kerstenhof, 65
 Keshanov, *see* Chrzanow
 Keshenev, *see* Kishinev
 Keshinov, *see* Kishinev
 Keterinoslav, *see*
 Dnepropetrovsk
 Keydan, *see* Kedainiai
 Kharkov, (Charkow) 35, 50-51,
 54-55, 78-79, 215t, 216
 Khelem, *see* Chelm
 Khelm, *see* Chelm
 Kherson, (Cherson) 51, 54-55
 Khisinau, *see* Kishinev
 Khmel'nitski, *see* Proskurov
 Khmel'nitskii, *see* Proskurov
 Khmel'nitskiy, *see* Proskurov
 Kholm, *see* Chelm
 Khshanov, *see* Chrzanow
 Khshanuv, *see* Chrzanow
 Khust, *see* Huszt
 Kiejdany, *see* Kedainiai
 Kiel, 24
 Kielce, (Kelts, Keltz, Kilts,
 Kiltz) 36, 54-55, 92, 98,
 128-129
 Kiemieli'szki, *see* Proskurov
 Kierno'zia, 39
 Kiev, (Kiyev, Kijew, Kijow,
 Kjew) 35, 50-51, 53, 78-
 79, 215t, 216
 Kijew, *see* Kiev
 Kijow, *see* Kiev
 Kilts, *see* Kielce
 Kiltz, *see* Kielce
 Kimina, 178
 Kimlishuk, *see* Proskurov
 Kiralymajor, 186b
 Kircholm, *see* Salaspils
 Kishinev, (Chisinau, Keshenev,
 Keshinov, Khisinau,
 Kiszyniow) 51, 54-55, 70-
 72, 78-79, 215t
 Kishvarda, *see* Kisvarda
 Kislau, 21
 Kispest, 188
 Kistarc'sa, 99t, 189-190
 Kisvarda, (Kishvarda,
 Klaynvardayn,
 Kleinwardein,
 Virdayn Katan) 188
 Kiszyniow, *see* Kishinev
 Kittlitztreben, 158, 207t
 Kivioli, 65
 Kiyev, *see* Kiev
 Kjew, *see* Kiev
 Klagenfurt, 24, 152
 Klatovy, (Klattau) 136t
 Klattau, *see* Klatovy
 Klausenberg, *see* Cluj
 Klausenburg, *see* Cluj
 Klaynvardayn, *see* Kisvarda
 Kleck, *see* Klet'sk
 Klein Radisch, 158
 Klein Zuender, 206
 Kleinbodungen, 164
 Kleinwardein, *see* Kisvarda
 Klenik, 176
 Klesov, (Klesow, Klisov,
 Klosova) 198
 Klesow, *see* Klesov
 Klet'sk, (Kleck, Kletzk, Klezk)
 200
 Kletzk, *see* Klet'sk
 Klezk, *see* Klet'sk
 Klintholm, 206
 Klisov, *see* Klesov
 Klodzko, *see* Glatz
 Klooga, 65, 140-141
 Klosova, *see* Klesov
 Klosterneuburg, 132
 Kluetzow, 155
 Klunya, *see* Cologne
 Kluyzenburg, *see* Cluj
 Kluzh, *see* Cluj
 Knishin, *see* Knyszyn
 Knisin, *see* Knyszyn
 Knyszyn, *see* Knyszyn
 Knyszyn, (Knishin, Knisin,
 Knyszyn) 58, 198
 Kobanya, *see* Budapest
 Kobier, 99b
 Koblenz, (Coblenz) 24, 149,
 215b
 Kochendorf, 115
 Koeln, *see* Cologne
 Koenigs-Wusterhausen, 130
 Koenigsberg, (Kaliningrad) 24,
 161
 Koenigsberg [Ravensbrueck]
 155
 Koenigsdorf, 208
 Koenigszelt, 158
 Koge, 194
 Kohling, 159
 Kolanow, *see* Bochnia
 Koldichevo, 45, 140-141
 Kolimeya, *see* Kolomyia
 Kolimia, *see* Kolomyia
 Kolin, (Neukollin) 136t
 Kolish, *see* Kalisz
 Koln, *see* Cologne
 Kolna, *see* Kolno
 Kolne, *see* Kolno
 Kolno, (Kolna, Kolne) 58
 Kolodzia, 90
 Kolomai, *see* Kolomyia
 Kolomea, *see* Kolomyia
 Kolomey, *see* Kolomyia
 Kolomyia, (Kolimeya, Kolimia,
 Kolomai, Kolomea,
 Kolomey, Kolomyja,
 Kolomyia) 52, 54-
 55, 86
 Kolomyja, *see* Kolomyia
 Kolomyia, *see* Kolomyia
 Kolonie Wertizany, *see*
 Vertujeni
 Kolozhvar, *see* Cluj
 Kolozsvar, *see* Cluj
 Kolozvar, *see* Cluj
 Komarom, (Ujvaros) 188
 Komenitz Podolsk, *see*
 Kamenets-Podolski
 Komotau, (Chomutov) 207
 Kongsvinger, 195
 Konigsberg, *see* Koenigsberg
 Konstancin-Jeziorna, 39
 Konstantynow, (Konstantynow
 Lodzki) 43
 Konstantynow Lodzki, *see*
 Konstantynow
 Kopil, *see* Kopyl
 Kopisty, 134
 Kopyl, (Kapoli, Kapolia,
 Kapulye, Kopyl) 200
 Korben, 161
 Korfantow, *see* Friedland
 Korneuburg, 132
 Korosmezo, (Iasin, Iasinia,
 Jasina, Yasinya) 52
 Koschedaren, 65
 Koshnik, *see* Krasnik
 Kosice, (Kaschau, Kasha,
 Kashau, Kashov, Kashoy,
 Kassa) 18b-19, 99t, 185-
 188
 Kosintin, *see* Konstantynow
 Kosminek, 100
 Kosnitin, *see* Konstantynow
 Kosow, 90
 Kostantin Yashan, *see*
 Konstantynow
 Kostentin, *see* Konstantynow
 Koszeg, 99t
 Kottern, 146
 Kovel, (Kovla, Kovle, Kowel)
 51, 54-55
 Kovla, *see* Kovel
 Kovle, *see* Kovel
 Kovno, (Kauen, Kaunas,
 Kowno) 31, 50-51, 54-55,
 64-65, 68-69, 89, 128-129,
 198, 200, 215t
 Kowale Panskie, (Heidemuhle)
 42
 Kowel, *see* Kovel
 Kowno, *see* Kovno
 Kozhany Forest, 198
 Kozlova Ruda, *see* Kazlu Ruda
 Kozlowa Ruda, *see* Kazlu Ruda
 Kozminek, (Kozminka) 42
 Kozminka, *see* Kozminek
 Krailling, 208
 Krakau, *see* Krakow
 Krako, *see* Krakow
 Krakow, (Cracow, Krakau,
 Krako, Krakoy, Krakuv,
 Kroke) 31, 34, 36, 46-47,

- 54-55, 78-79, 86, 98, 128-129, 142, 198, 200, 215t, 216
- Krakoy, *see* Krakow
- Krakuv, *see* Krakow
- Kraljevica, 172-173
- Kralove Hradec, 136t
- Kranichfeld, 147
- Krapje, 176
- Krashanov, *see* Chrzanow
- Krashnik, *see* Krasnik
- Krasnik, (Koshnik, Krashnik, Kroshnik, Krushnik) 89
- Krasnodar, (Yekaterinodar) 51, 215t, 216
- Krasnogvardeisk, 51
- Kratzau, (Chrastava) 158
- Kremenchug, (Cremenciuc, Kremenchuk, Krementchug, Kremieniczuk, Krzemieniczuk) 51, 215t
- Kremenchuk, *see* Kremenchug
- Kremenets, (Kremenits, Kremenitz, Krzemieniec, Kshemyenyets) 200
- Kremenits, *see* Kremenets
- Kremenitz, *see* Kremenets
- Krementchug, *see* Kremenchug
- Kremieniczuk, *see* Kremenchug
- Kreshanov, *see* Chrzanow
- Kretinga, *see* Krottingen
- Kretingale, *see* Krottingen
- Kretinge, *see* Krottingen
- Kretingen, *see* Krottingen
- Krettingen, *see* Krottingen
- Krienek, *see* Kryнки
- Krimderode, 162
- Krinek, *see* Kryнки
- Krinki, *see* Kryнки
- Krinok, *see* Kryнки
- Kristiansand, 195
- Kroke, *see* Krakow
- Kroshnik, *see* Krasnik
- Krottingen, (Kretinga, Kretingale, Kretinge, Krettingen, Krettingen) 65
- Krumau, 161
- Kruscica, 172-175
- Krusevac, 172-173
- Krushnik, *see* Krasnik
- Kruszyna, 200
- Krynki, (Krienek, Krinek, Krinki, Krinok) 58
- Krzemieniczuk, *see* Kremenchug
- Krzemieniec, *see* Kremenets
- Krzystkowice, *see* Christianstadt
- Kshanev, *see* Chrzanow
- Kshanov, *see* Chrzanow
- Kshemyenyets, *see* Kremenets
- Kubanka, 73
- Kudeb, 65
- Kuestendje, *see* Constanta
- Kuidany, *see* Kedainiai
- Kunda, 65
- Kunzendorf, 99b, 205
- Kursk, 215t
- Kutuzova, 73
- Kwiatkow, 80
- Kwidzyn, *see* Marienwerder
- L**
- La Grand' Combe, 110
- La Lande, 106-107, 112
- La Spezia, 180t, 218-219
- Lachovici, *see* Lachowicze
- Lachowicze, (Lachovici, Lechovich, Lechovicz, Lechowitz, Liachovitch, Lyakhoviche, Lyakhovich) 200
- Lachva, (Lachwa, Lakhva, Lakhwa) 51, 54-55, 200
- Lachwa, *see* Lachva
- Lackenbach, (Lakompak) 142
- Ladorudz, 80
- Laerdal soyri, 195
- Lagedi, 65, 140-141
- Lagischa, 99b
- Laibach, *see* Ljubljana
- Lakhva, *see* Lachva
- Lakhwa, *see* Lachva
- Lakompak, *see* Lackenbach
- Lambach, 152
- Lampertheim, 217
- Landeshut, (Kamienna Gora) 158, 205
- Landsberg, 146, 209, 217
- Landshut, 146
- Landskröna, 194
- Langeland, 194
- Langenbielau, (Bielawa Dolna) 158
- Langensalza, (Bad Lauchstadt) 147, 149
- Langfuhr, 159
- Lanke, 130
- Lapi, *see* Lapy
- Lapy, (Lapi) 58
- Larnaca, 220t
- Lask, (Laski, Lusk) 42
- Laski, *see* Lask
- Latvia, 14, 16, 31-32, 56, 64-65, 215t
- Lauban, (Luban) 207t
- Lauenberg, *see* Lauenburg
- Lauenburg, (Lauenberg, Lebork) 161, 204, 206
- Lauingen, 146
- Laurahuette, 99b
- Lauterbach, 206
- Lay-Lamidou, 110
- Layptsig, *see* Leipzig
- Layptsik, *see* Leipzig
- Le Chambon-sur-Lignon, 199
- Le Vernet, 106-107, 111-112
- Lebork, *see* Lauenburg
- Lechovich, *see* Lachowicze
- Lechovicz, *see* Lachowicze
- Lechowitz, *see* Lachowicze
- Leeuwarden, 116-117
- Legnica, *see* Liegnitz
- Legnizewo, *see* Liegnitz
- Leibnitz, 152
- Leiden, 119
- Leipheim, 217
- Leipzig, (Layptsig, Layptsik) 15, 24, 128-129, 149, 212, 215b-216
- Leipzig-Schoenefeld, 155
- Leitmeritz, 207. *See also* Litomerice
- Leki, 94
- Lemberg, *see* Lvov
- Leningrad, (Peterburg, St. Petersburg) 32, 35, 50, 78-79, 215t
- Lenzing, 152
- Leobschuetz, *see* Leobschutz
- Leobschutz, (Glubczyce, Leobschuetz) 205
- Leonberg, 115
- Leopol, *see* Lvov
- Leopoldsdorf, (Leopoldsdorf im Marchfelde) 132
- Leopoldsdorf im Marchfelde, *see* Leopoldsdorf
- Leopoldskron, 142
- Les Milles, 106-107, 112
- Leskie Zasole, 94
- Leslau, *see* Wloclawek
- Leslo, *see* Wloclawek
- Lesluya, *see* Wloclawek
- Leszcze, 80
- Lety, 142
- Leustetten, 208
- Leuven, 116, 124
- Leva, (Levice) 188
- Levice, *see* Leva
- L'Hopital-Saint-Blaise, 110
- Liachovitch, *see* Lachowicze
- Liban, *see* Liepaja
- Libau, *see* Liepaja
- Libava, *see* Liepaja
- Libawa, *see* Liepaja
- Liboi, *see* Liepaja
- Libova, *see* Liepaja
- Liboya, *see* Liepaja
- Lichtenau, 217
- Lichtenburg, 21
- Lichtewerden, 99b
- Lida, 51, 54-56, 89, 102, 198
- Lidice, 18b-19
- Liebau, *see* Liepaja
- Liebau [Gross-Rosen] 158
- Liebisch, 161

- Liege, 116
 Liegnitz, (Legnica, Legnieszewo) 205
 Liepaja, (Liban, Libau, Libava, Libawa, Liboi, Libova, Liboya, Liebau) 51, 54-56, 64
 Lier, 124
 Lillehammer, 195
 Limbeni Novi, 71
 Limhamn, 194
 Limoges, 199
 Lind, 152
 Linz, 24, 152, 205, 217
 Lipiczany Forest, 198
 Lipisko, 84
 Lippstadt, 149
 Liskovitz, *see* Lyszkowice
 Lithuania, 14, 16-17, 20, 31-32, 56, 64-65, 215t
 Lititov, *see* Lututow
 Litomerice, 134. *See also* Leitmeritz
 Litzmannstadt, *see* Lodz
 Litzmanstadt, *see* Lodz
 Ljubljana, (Laibach, Lubiana) 216
 Lobograd, 99t, 172-175
 Lochau, 146
 Lodensee, 65
 Lodz, (Litzmannstadt, Litzmanstadt, Lodzh) 31, 34, 36, 42-44, 54-55, 78-79, 82, 98, 128-129, 136b, 142, 215t, 216
 Lodzh, *see* Lodz
 Loebau, 207t
 Loebblau, 206
 Loewenberg, 130
 Loibl-Pass North, 152
 Loibl-Pass South, 152
 Lokeren, 124
 Lolland, 194
 Lomza, (Lomzha) 58
 Lomzha, *see* Lomza
 Londerzeel, 124
 London, 32, 78-79
 Longwy-Thil, 112, 115
 Lovich, *see* Lowicz
 Low Countries, 116-118
 Lowicz, (Lovich, Loyvitch, Luyvich) 39
 Loyvitch, *see* Lowicz
 Luban, *see* Lauban
 Lubeck, *see* Luebeck
 Lubiana, *see* Ljubljana
 Lublin, 31, 34, 36, 54-55, 83, 86, 100, 102, 128-129, 198, 215t, 216
 Lublin-Lipowa, 45, 200
 Lubycza Krolewska, 84
 Luck, *see* Lutsk
 Lucq-de-Bearn, 110
 Ludwigsdorf, 158
 Luebeck, (Lubeck) 24
 Lueneburg, (Luneburg) 216
 Luetzkendorf, 149
 Lugau, 207t
 Lugo, 71
 Luneburg, *see* Lueneburg
 Lungitz, 150, 152
 Lusin, 206
 Lusk, *see* Lask
 Luta, 87
 Lutsk, (Luck, Lutzk, Luytsk, Luytsk Vilka, Luzk) 51, 54-55
 Lututov, *see* Lututow
 Lututow, (Lititov, Lututov) 42
 Lutzk, *see* Lutsk
 Luxembourg, 14, 16, 42, 104, 116-118, 221
 Luytsk, *see* Lutsk
 Luytsk Vilka, *see* Lutsk
 Luyvich, *see* Lowicz
 Luzk, *see* Lutsk
 Lviv, *see* Lvov
 Lvov, (Lemberg, Leopold, Lviv, Lwow) 31, 34, 50-51, 54-55, 62, 78-79, 86, 89, 98, 215t
 Lwow, *see* Lvov
 Lyakhoviche, *see* Lachowicze
 Lyakhovich, *see* Lachowicze
 Lyon, 99t, 199
 Lyszkowice, (Liskovitz, Lyszkowice) 39
 Lyszkowice, *see* Lyszkowice
- M**
 Maastricht, 116
 Machnow, 84
 Maehrisch Ostrau, *see* Moravska Ostrava
 Magdeburg, 149, 155, 212
 Magnusholm, 66
 Magyarovar, *see* Mosonmagyarovar
 Mahrish Ostrau, *see* Moravska Ostrava
 Majdan Tatarski, (Maydan Tatarski) 100
 Majdanek, 45, 49, 76-77, 100-102, 136b, 138-142, 209
 Majdany, 80-81
 Malchow, 155
 Malic, 134
 Maliszewa Nowa, 90
 Malken, (Malki) 161
 Malki, *see* Malken
 Malkinia, (Malkinia Gorna) 90
 Malkinia Gorna, *see* Malkinia
 Malmedy, 116
 Malmo, 194, 206
 Malta, 182
 Maly, 87
 Maly Trostinets, (Maly Trostenets, Maly Trostinec, Maly Trostyanets, Maly Trostenets) 51, 56
 Maly Trostinets, *see* Maly Trostinets
 Maly Trostinec, *see* Maly Trostinets
 Maly Trostyanets, *see* Maly Trostinets
 Malyy Trostenets, *see* Maly Trostinets
- Manderode, 162
 Mangalia, 196
 Manhorn, 165
 Mannheim-Sandhofen, 115
 Mantua, 182
 Marcinkance, (Marcinkonys) 200
 Marcinkonys, *see* Marcinkance
 Marculesti, 71, 72
 Marek, *see* Dupnitsa
 Margit Island, 189
 Maria Lanzendorf, 152
 Marienwerder, (Kwidzyn) 161
 Markgrafneusiedl, 132
 Marki, 39
 Markirch, 112, 115
 Markkleeberg, 149
 Markt Schwaben, 146
 Markushev, *see* Markuszow
 Markushov, *see* Markuszow
 Markuszow, (Markushev, Markushov) 200
 Marseille, 106, 112, 199, 218-219
 Marzahn, 130, 142
 Mateszalka, 188
 Matzkau, 159
 Mauthausen, 22, 138-143, 150-152, 205, 209
 Maydan Tatarski, *see* Majdan Tatarski
 Mechelen, 99t, 116-118, 124-125, 140-141
 Medininkai, *see* Varna
 Meissersdorf, 165
 Melissokhorion, 178
 Melk, 152
 Merchtem, 124
 Merignac, 106-107, 112
 Merzdorf, 158
 Merzen, 161
 Metz, 112, 115
 Meuselwitz, 149
 Mezapark, *see* Kaiserwald
 Mezaparks, *see* Kaiserwald
 Mezo Telegd, *see* Telegd
 Mezotelegd, *see* Telegd

- Miami, 25
 Midia, 196
 Miedniki, *see* Varna
 Mikaliskes, 54-55, 64
 Milan, 170-171, 174-175, 180-182, 218-219
 Mildenberg, 155
 Milgravis, 66
 Minsk, 50-51, 54-57, 78-79, 89, 128-129, 198, 200, 215t
 Minsk Khadash, *see* Minsk Mazowiecki
 Minsk Mazovyets, *see* Minsk Mazowiecki
 Minsk Mazovyetsk, *see* Minsk Mazowiecki
 Minsk Mazowiecki, (Minsk Khadash, Minsk Mazovyets, Minsk Mazovyetsk, Novo Minsk, Novominsk) 36, 54-55, 92, 200
 Mir, 51, 54-55, 200
 Mirnoe, 73
 Miskolc, (Miskolcz) 185-188
 Miskolcz, *see* Miskolc
 Missler, 21
 Mistelbach, (Mistelbach an der Zaya) 152
 Mistelbach an der Zaya, *see* Mistelbach
 Mittelsteine, 158
 Mlada Boleslav, (Bumsla, Jungbunzlau) 136t
 Mlaka, 176
 Modena, 180
 Modrzejow, 98
 Moedling, 132
 Moerbeke, 124
 Moerdijk, 117
 Mogelnitsa, *see* Mogielnica
 Mogelnitse, *see* Mogielnica
 Mogelnitza, *see* Mogielnica
 Mogielnica, (Mogelnitsa, Mogelnitse, Mogelnitza) 39
 Mogilev, (Mohilev, Mohylew, Mohylow, Molev) 51, 54-55, 198, 215t
 Mogilev-Podolski, (Mogilev Podolskiy, Mohilev Podolsk) 51, 54-55, 70-72, 215t
 Mogilev Podolskiy, *see* Mogilev-Podolski
 Mohilev, *see* Mogilev
 Mohilev Podolsk, *see* Mogilev-Podolski
 Mohylew, *see* Mogilev
 Mohylow, *see* Mogilev
 Moldavia, 215t
 Molev, *see* Mogilev
 Mon, 194
 Monaco, *see* Munich
 Monastir, *see* Bitola
 Monor, 188
 Monowice, 93-94. *See also* Auschwitz III (Monowitz)
 Monowitz, *see* Auschwitz III (Monowitz); Monowice
 Mons, 116
 Mont de Marsan, 110
 Montauban, 110
 Montpellier, 110
 Moosbierbaum, 152
 Moravska Ostrava, (Maehrisch Ostrau, Mahrish Ostrau, Morawska Ostrawa, Ostrava) 136t
 Morawska Ostrawa, *see* Moravska Ostrava
 Morchenstern, (Smrzovka) 158
 Morzyczyn, 90
 Moscow, (Moskva) 32, 50, 78-79, 215t
 Moskva, *see* Moscow
 Moson, *see* Mosonmagyaróvár
 Mosonmagyaróvár, (Magyaróvár, Moson) 190
 Moss, 195
 Mostovoi, (Mostovoye) 71, 72b
 Mostovoye, *see* Mostovoi
 Mueggenhahl, 159
 Muehldorf, 146
 Muehlhausen [Buchenwald] 147, 149
 Muehlhausen (Mulhouse) [Natzweiler-Struthof] 112, 115
 Muenchen, *see* Munich
 Mukacevo, *see* Munkacs
 Mukachevo, *see* Munkacs
 Mukaczewo, *see* Munkacs
 Mulhouse, *see* Muehlhausen
 Munchen, *see* Munich
 Munich, (Monaco, Muenchen, Munchen) 20, 24, 99t, 128-129, 146, 215b, 217-219
 Munkacs, (Mukacevo, Mukachevo, Mukaczewo, Munkacz, Munkatsch) 18b-19, 52, 185-188
 Munkacz, *see* Munkacs
 Munkatsch, *see* Munkacs
 Murru, 65
N
 Naarn, 150
 Nablus, 220b
 Nacha Forest, 198
 Nagy Banya, *see* Nagybanya
 Nagy Varad, *see* Oradea
 Nagybanya, (Baia Mare, Nagy Banya) 188
 Nagykanizsa, 185
 Nagyszollo, 188
 Nagyvarad, *see* Oradea
 Naliboki Forest, 198
 Namslau, (Namyslow) 158
 Namur, 116
 Namyslow, *see* Namslau
 Nandorfehvar, *see* Belgrade
 Naples, 170-171, 180-181
 Narev, *see* Narew
 Narew, (Narev) 58
 Naroeh Forest, 198
 Narva, (Narve, Narwa) 65
 Narve, *see* Narva
 Narvik, 195
 Narwa, *see* Narva
 Natzweiler, 113-114
 Natzweiler-Struthof, 106, 112-114, 138-143
 Nauert, 130
 Navahredok, *see* Novogrudok
 Navaredok, *see* Novogrudok
 Nay Sants, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Naya Sandets, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Nazareth, 220b
 Neckarbischofsheim, 115
 Neckarelz, 115
 Neckargartach-Heilbronn, 115
 Neckargerach, 115
 Nefcover, *see* Argenau
 Neisantz, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Neishtat, *see* Neustadt
 Neisse, (Nysa) 158
 Neshviz, *see* Nesvizh
 Nestempehl, 206
 Nesvizh, (Neshviz, Niesviez, Nieswicz, Nishviz, Nyeshvyezsh) 51, 54-55, 200
 Netherlands, 14, 16, 26-27, 33, 104-105, 116-118, 216, 221
 Netzkater, 164
 Neu Rohlau, 155
 Neu Sandez, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Neubrandenburg, 155
 Neudachs, 99b, 205
 Neuengamme, 22, 138-143, 204, 206, 209
 Neufahrwasser, 159, 161
 Neuhammer, 158
 Neukollin, *see* Kolin
 Neumarkt, 146
 Neuruppin, 130
 Neusatz, (Nowa Sol) 158
 Neusohl, *see* Banska Bystrica
 Neustadt, 24; [Auschwitz] 99b, 205
 Neustadt [Buchenwald] 149, 207t
 Neustadt [Ravensbrueck] 155.

Neustadt [Stutthof] 206, 217
 Neustift, 146
 Neustrelitz-Fuerstensee, 155
 Neuville, 113
 Nexon, 106, 112
 Nice, 180b-181, 199
 Nickelswalde, 159, 161, 206
 Nicosia, 220t
 Nieder-Zirking, 150
 Niedergebra, 164
 Niederoderwitz, 158
 Niedersachswerfen, 162, 164
 Niemcza, *see* Nimptsch
 Niesky, 158
 Niesvizh, *see* Nesvizh
 Nieswicz, *see* Nesvizh
 Nimptsch, (Niemcza) 158
 Nindorf, 165
 Ninove, 124
 Nis, 169t, 180b
 Nisch, 140-141, 172-173
 Nishviz, *see* Nesvizh
 Nisk, *see* Nisko
 Niska, *see* Nisko
 Nisko, (Nisk, Niska) 128-129
 Noe, 106-107, 111-112
 Nordhausen, 149, 162, 164
 Northern Bukovina, 31
 Northern Transylvania, 70
 Norway, 14, 32-33, 195, 216, 221
 Novaredok, *see* Novogradok
 Novaya Aleksandriya, *see* Pulawy
 Nove Zamky, *see* Ersekujvar
 Novi Sach, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Novi Sad, (Neusatz, Ujvidek) 172-173
 Novi Sansh, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Novo Minsk, *see* Minsk
 Mazowiecki
 Novogradok, *see* Novogradok
 Novogradok, (Navahredok, Navaredok, Novaredok, Novogradok, Novohorodek, Novogradok, Novohorodok, Novradok,

Nowogrodek, Nowogradok) 51, 54-56, 198
 Novohorodek, *see* Novogradok
 Novohorodok, *see* Novogradok
 Novominsk, *see* Minsk
 Mazowiecki
 Novradok, *see* Novogradok
 Nowy Sacz, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Nowa Sol, *see* Neusalz
 Nowogrodek, *see* Novogradok
 Novogradok, *see* Novogradok
 Nowy Sacz, (Nay Sants, Naya Sandets, Neisantz, Neu Sandez, Novi Sach, Novi Sansh, Novy Sacz, Sandets, Sandz, Sants, Sanz, Tsants, Tzanz) 54-55, 86
 Nuremberg, (Nurnberg, Wohrd) 24, 146, 216
 Nurnberg, *see* Nuremberg
 Nyeshvyezh, *see* Nesvizh
 Nyiregyhaza, 185, 187-188
 Nysa, *see* Neisse

O

Ober Altstadt, 158
 Ober Hohenelbe, 158
 Oberehnheim, 106, 112, 115
 Oberhode, 165
 Obersalzberg, 146
 Obersitz, 161
 Oberstdorf-Birgsau, 146
 Oberwuestegiersdorf, 158
 Obuda, *see* Budapest
 Odenburg, *see* Sopron
 Odess, *see* Odessa
 Odessa, (Odess) 50-51, 54-55, 70-74, 78-79, 215t
 Ofen, *see* Budapest
 Offen, 165
 Ohrdruf, 147, 149, 209
 Okucani, 176
 Okuniev, *see* Okuniew
 Okuniew, (Okuniev, Okuniev) 39
 Okuniev, *see* Okuniew
 Oldendorf, 165
 Olkush, *see* Olkusz
 Olkusz, (Elkush, Olkush) 98
 Olmuetz, *see* Olomouc
 Olmutz, *see* Olomouc
 Olomouc, (Olmuetz, Olmutz) 136t
 Oloron-Sainte-Marie, 110
 Olszanska, 87
 Olsztyn, *see* Allenstein
 Ommen, 117
 Oostende, 116
 Opola, *see* Opole Lubelskie
 Opole, *see* Oppeln
 Opole Lubelski, *see* Opole Lubelskie
 Opole Lubelskie, (Opola, Opole Lubelski) 36, 54-55, 86, 89, 128-129
 Oppeln, *see* Oppeln
 Oppeln, (Opole, Oppeln) 24
 Oradea, (Grosswardein, Nagy Varad, Nagyvarad) 70, 99t, 185-188
 Orahova, 176
 Orange Landing, 122
 Oranienburg, 21, 130, 138-139, 204
 Orbke, 165
 Orin, 110
 Oroshaza, 186b
 Orth, 132
 Orzelek, 90
 Oshmyany, 56
 Oshpetzin, *see* Oswiecim
 Oshpitsin, *see* Oswiecim
 Oshvitsin, *see* Oswiecim
 Oshvitzin, *see* Oswiecim
 Oshvyentsim, *see* Oswiecim
 Osijek, (Esseg, Eszek) 99t, 172-173
 Oslo, 99t, 195, 216
 Osowa, 87
 Ospinzi, *see* Oswiecim
 Osterode, 162. *See also* Osterode am Harz

Osterode am Harz, 164 *See also* Osterode
 Ostra, *see* Ostrog
 Ostraha, *see* Ostrog
 Ostrava, *see* Moravska Ostrava
 Ostre, *see* Ostrog
 Ostrog, (Ostra, Ostraha, Ostre) 200
 Ostrovacka Ada, 172-173
 Ostrow, 80
 Oswiecim, (Auschwitz, Aushvits, Oshpetzin, Oshpitsin, Oshvitsin, Oshvitzin, Oshvyentsim, Ospinzi) 93-94. *See also* Auschwitz
 Oud Leusden, 117
 Oygstova, *see* Augustow
 Ozarkov, *see* Ozorkow
 Ozolciems, 66
 Ozorkov, *see* Ozorkow
 Ozorkow, (Ozarkov, Ozorkov) 42

P

Pabenits, *see* Pabianice
 Pabianice, (Pabenits, Pabjanice, Pabnitz, Pabyanets, Pabyanitse) 42-43
 Pabjanice, *see* Pabianice
 Pabnitz, *see* Pabianice
 Pabyanets, *see* Pabianice
 Pabyanitse, *see* Pabianice
 Pag, 172-173
 Pajeczno, (Payentchno) 42
 Paks, 188
 Palemaonas, 65
 Palermo, 180t
 Palestine, 26-27, 201-202, 218-220t
 Palticeni, *see* Falticeni
 Pancevo, (Pancsova) 172-173
 Pancsova, *see* Pancevo
 Paneriai, *see* Ponary
 Papa, 188
 Parczew Forest, 198
 Pardubice, (Pardubitz) 136t

- Pardubitz, *see* Pardubice
 Paris, 32, 78-79, 104t, 106-108, 112, 199, 216, 218-219
 Parnu, 56
 Parschnitz, 158
 Pasieki, 84
 Passau, 146, 152
 Payentchno, *see* Pajeczno
 Pechora, (Peciora, Pecora, Petchora, Potchera) 71
 Peciora, *see* Pechora
 Pecora, *see* Pechora
 Pecs, (Funfkirchen) 185, 188
 Peggau, 152
 Pellheim, 144
 Pelplin, 161
 Pelters, 106, 112, 115
 Penig, 149
 Percha, 208
 Peremyszl, *see* Przemyśl
 Peresyp, 73
 Perg, 150
 Perigueux, 199
 Perpignan, 110
 Pest, *see* Budapest
 Pestfuerdoe, 186b
 Petchora, *see* Pechora
 Peterburg, *see* Leningrad
 Petersdorf, 162
 Petershagen, 159
 Peterswaldau, 158
 Petrikau, *see* Piotrków Trybunalski
 Petrikov, *see* Piotrków Trybunalski
 Petrinieciems, 66
 Petrokow, *see* Piotrków Trybunalski
 Petschur, 65
 Piaseczno, (Piasetchna) 39
 Piasetchna, *see* Piaseczno
 Piaski, (Piesk) 62-63, 100
 Piesk, *see* Piaski
 Pietnoczki, 84
 Pilaia, 178
 Pilev, *see* Pulawy
 Pilgramshain, 156
 Pilica, (Pilitsa, Pilitz, Pilts, Piltz) 200
 Piliscsaba, 190
 Pilitsa, *see* Pilica
 Pilitz, *see* Pilica
 Pilov, *see* Pulawy
 Pilsen, 205. *See also* Plzeň
 Pilts, *see* Pilica
 Piltz, *see* Pilica
 Pinsk, 31, 51, 54-55, 215t
 Piotrkow, *see* Piotrków Trybunalski
 Piotrkow Trybunalski, (Petrikau, Petrikov, Petrokow, Piotrkow, Piotrkow Trybunalski, Piotrkuv, Pyetrkov, Trybunalski) 36, 54-55, 82, 92, 98
 Piotrkow Trybunalski, *see* Piotrków Trybunalski
 Piotrkuv, *see* Piotrków Trybunalski
 Pithiviers, 99t, 106-107, 112
 Plansee, 146
 Plashuv, *see* Plaszków
 Plaszwow, (Plashuv) 45-46, 48, 140-141
 Plati, 178
 Plauen, 207b
 Plawy, 93-94, 99b
 Pleskau, 65
 Plintsk, *see* Plonsk
 Ploiesti, 71
 Plonsk, (Plintsk, Plonsk) 98
 Ploskirow, *see* Proskurov
 Plonsk, *see* Plonsk
 Plzeň, 136t. *See also* Pilsen
 Pocaply, 134
 Pocking-Pine City, 217
 Podgorza, *see* Podgorze
 Podgorze, (Podgorza) 46
 Podkarpatska Rus, *see* Transcarpathian Ukraine
 Podlesina, 84
 Podlyashe, *see* Biała Podlaska
 Podvini, 134
 Poelitz, 161
 Pognitz, 217
 Poitiers, 106-107, 112
 Pokratice, 134
 Poland, 14, 16-17, 31-32, 34, 36, 45, 76, 200, 215-216, 218-219, 221
 Polesie, 84
 Polkau, 156
 Poltava, (Poltawa) 51
 Poltawa, *see* Poltava
 Pomietzschin, 206
 Ponary, (Paneriai) 51, 60
 Ponewesch, 65
 Poniatoŭa, 45, 49, 140-141
 Portugal, 14, 221
 Posen, *see* Poznań
 Potchera, *see* Pechora
 Potsdam, 130, 212
 Poulousat, 199
 Powiercie, 80
 Poznań, (Posen, Pozno) 216
 Pozno, *see* Poznań
 Pozsony, *see* Bratislava
 Praga, 37
 Prague, (Praha) 15, 18b-20, 42, 136t, 204-205, 216
 Praha, *see* Prague
 Prashka, *see* Praszka
 Prashke, *see* Praszka
 Prashki, *see* Praszka
 Praska, *see* Praszka
 Praszka, (Prashka, Prashke, Prashki, Praska) 42
 Praust, 159, 161, 206
 Prawienischken, 65
 Prechacq-Josbaig, 110
 Prechacq-Navarrenx, 110
 Premishla, *see* Przemyśl
 Premisle, *see* Przemyśl
 Prenzlaŭ, 155
 Prerau, 205
 Pressath, 207t
 Pressburg, *see* Bratislava
 Preussisch Stargard, 161
 Prezhemisel, *see* Przemyśl
 Priemhausen, *see* Stargard
 Pripert, 153
 Prittzbach, 144, 208
 Prode, *see* Brody
 Proebbernau, 159, 161
 Proskurov, (Chmelnitski, Chmielnicki, Khmelnitski, Khmelnitskii, Khmelnitskiy, Kiemielszki, Kimlishuk, Ploskirow) 200
 Prostyn, 90
 Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia, 16, 19-20, 33, 128-129, 136, 209
 Prushkov, *see* Pruszków
 Pruszków, (Prushkov) 39
 Pruzana, *see* Pruzhany
 Pruzany, *see* Pruzhany
 Pruzhana, *see* Pruzhany
 Pruzhani, *see* Pruzhany
 Pruzhany, (Pruzana, Pruzany, Pruzhana, Pruzhani, Pruzhene, Pruzin) 54-55, 58, 98
 Pruzhene, *see* Pruzhany
 Pruzin, *see* Pruzhany
 Przemyśl, (Peremyszl, Premishla, Premisle, Prezhemisel, Pshemishel, Pshemishl, Pshemysl) 54-55, 86, 98, 198
 Przeorsk, 84
 Przewioka, 84
 Przybylow, 80, 81
 Pshemishel, *see* Przemyśl
 Pshemishl, *see* Przemyśl
 Pshemysl, *see* Przemyśl
 Pskov, 215t
 Puerschkau, 158
 Pulav, *see* Pulawy
 Pulavi, *see* Pulawy
 Pulavy, *see* Pulawy
 Pulawy, (Novaya Aleksandriya, Pilev, Pilov, Pulav, Pulavi, Pulavy) 45
 Pullhausen, 144
 Purkersdorf, 132

Puspokladany, 186b
 Pustelnik, (Pustelnik Struga) 39
 Pustelnik Struga, *see* Pustelnik
 Putzig, (Jedrzejewo) 161
 Pyetzkow, *see* Piotrkow
 Trybunalski

Q

Quedlinburg, 149, 164

R

Raab, *see* Gyor
 Rab, 99t, 172-173
 Rabinowka, 84
 Raciborz, *see* Ratibor
 Radeberg, 207t
 Radofzell, 146
 Radogoszcz, 43
 Radom, (Rodem) 36, 54-55, 92,
 98, 102, 142
 Rageleje, 194
 Rajsko, 93-94, 99b, 205
 Rakvere, *see* Wesenberg
 Rambau, 159
 Ramla, 220b
 Rappennau, *see* Bad Rappennau
 Rascani, 71
 Rastatt, 115
 Ratibor, (Raciborz) 24, 205
 Ratisbon, *see* Regensburg
 Rauscha, 158
 Rautel, (Reutzel) 71
 Ravensbrueck, 22, 138-143,
 153-155, 209
 Raysha, *see* Rzeszow
 Rayshe, *see* Rzeszow
 Rayvits, *see* Rejowiec
 Rayvitz, *see* Rejowiec
 Rebberlah, 165
 Reblenitz, 71
 Recebedou, 106-107, 111-112
 Rechlin, 155
 Regensburg, (Ratisbon) 207t
 Regenstein, 164
 Reggio, 180t
 Reichenbach, 207t
 Reichshof, *see* Rzeszow

Reichskommissariat Ostland,
 33-35, 56, 89, 128-129,
 198, 200
 Reichskommissariat Ukraine,
 33-35, 198, 200
 Reisha, *see* Rzeszow
 Rejowiec, (Rayvits, Rayvitz,
 Reyovyets, Reyvits) 102
 Rems, 150
 Reutzel, *see* Rautel
 Reval, 65. *See also* Tallinn
 Revel, *see* Tallinn
 Reyovyets, *see* Rejowiec
 Reyvits, *see* Rejowiec
 Rhineland, 17-18t
 Rhodes, (Rhodos) 99t, 169b,
 174-175
 Rhodos, *see* Rhodes
 Riashov, *see* Rzeszow
 Rieben, 161
 Ried, 152
 Riga, (Rige) 31, 50-51, 54-55,
 64, 66-67, 78-79, 215t, 216
 Rige, *see* Riga
 Risha, *see* Rzeszow
 Rivesaltes, 106-107, 112, 140-
 141
 Rodem, *see* Radom
 Rodvig, 194
 Rogatin, (Rohatin, Rohatyn,
 Rotin) 54-55, 86, 200
 Rogozna, 71
 Rogoznica, *see* Gross-Rosen
 Rohatin, *see* Rogatin
 Rohatyn, *see* Rogatin
 Rohnstock, 156
 Rohrdorf, 146
 Romania, 14, 16, 30-33, 70-72,
 170-171, 185-186, 196,
 201, 215t, 216, 218-219,
 221
 Romanow, 80
 Rome, 99t, 170-171, 174-175,
 180-184, 216
 Roosendaal, 117
 Rosenberg, 159, 161
 Rosenheim, 146

Rossia, 164
 Rostock-Schwarzenforst, 155
 Rostov, (Rostov na Donu,
 Rostov On Don, Rostow)
 35, 50-51, 215t
 Rostov na Donu, *see* Rostov
 Rostov On Don, *see* Rostov
 Rostow, *see* Rostov
 Rothau, 113
 Rothschild Hospital, 217
 Rotin, *see* Rogatin
 Rotterdam, 116
 Rottleberode, 164
 Rovne, *see* Rovno
 Rovno, (Rovne, Rowne, Ruvne)
 31, 34-35, 51, 54-55, 198,
 215t
 Rowne, *see* Rovno
 Rozdanik, 176
 Rubashov, *see* Hrubieszow
 Rubeshov, *see* Hrubieszow
 Rubischoff, *see* Hrubieszow
 Rubishov, *see* Hrubieszow
 Rubishoyv, *see* Hrubieszow
 Ruda Pabian, 43
 Ruda Woloska, (Ruda
 Wolowska) 84
 Ruda Wolowska, *see* Ruda
 Woloska
 Ruda Zurawiecka, 84
 Rudolstadt, 147
 Rueckenau, 159
 Ruedigsdorf, 162
 Rumbula, 51, 66
 Rungsted, 194
 Russenschin, 159, 161
 Russia, 215t
 Ruskow, 80
 Ruthenia, *see* Transcarpathian
 Ukraine
 Ruvne, *see* Rovno
 Rytele, *see* Rytele Swieckie
 Rytele Swieckie, (Rytele) 90
 Rzeszow, (Raysha, Rayshe,
 Reichshof, Reisha,
 Riashov, Risha, Zheshov,
 Zheshuv, Zhezhov) 54-55,

86, 98
 Rzuchow, 80

S

Saalfeld, 149
 Saalfelden, 217
 Saar, 17
 Saarbrucken, *see* Saarbruecken
 Saarbruecken, (Saarbrucken,
 Saarland) 24, 215b
 Saarland, *see* Saarbruecken
 Sachsenburg, 21
 Sachsenhausen, 22, 130, 138-
 143, 204-205, 209
 Sachsisch-Bereg, *see*
 Beregszasz
 Sadowna, *see* Sadowne
 Sadowne, (Sadowna) 90
 Safed, 220b
 St. Aegydt, 152
 St. Georgen, 150, 152
 St. Gilgen, 146
 St. Goin, 110
 St. Lambrecht, 152
 St. Michielsgestel, 117
 St. Niklaas, 124
 St. Ottilien, 217
 St. Pantaleon, 150
 St. Petersburg, *see* Leningrad
 St. Valentin, 150, 152
 St. Wolfgang, 146
 Sajmiste, (Semlin, Zemun) 140-
 141, 172-175
 Sakovchizna, *see*
 Szarkowszczyzna
 Salaspils, (Kirchholm) 65
 Salerno, 180
 Saleux, 112
 Salgotarjan, 188
 Saliers, 106, 112
 Salonika, (Saloniki,
 Thessaloniki) 78-79, 99t,
 140-141, 168, 169b, 170-
 175, 178-179, 218-219
 Saloniki, *see* Salonika
 Salos, (Soly) 54-55, 64
 Salza, 162

- Salzberg, *see* Bochnia
 Salzburg, 24, 146, 217
 Salzschlirf, *see* Bad Salzschlirf
 Salzwedel, 209
 Samer, 112
 Sampeters, 66
 Samso, 194
 San Sabba, 140-141, 172-173, 174-175, 182
 Sanciai, 68
 Sandets, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Sandz, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Sants, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Sanz, *see* Nowy Sacz
 Sarajevo, (Bosna Serai, Serajevo) 99t, 168-169t, 170-171, 174-175
 Sardinia, 170-171, 180-181
 Sargorog, *see* Shargorod
 Sarkeyschina, *see* Szarkowszczyzna
 Sarkeystene, *see* Szarkowszczyzna
 Sarni, *see* Sarny
 Sarny, (Sarni) 198
 Sarvar, 188
 Sassnitz, 206
 Satoraljauihely, (Ujhely) 188
 Satu-Mare, 70, 99t, 185-188
 Schaarbeek, 117
 Schabatz, 140-141, 172-173
 Schatzlar, 158
 Schaulen, *see* Siauliai
 Schavli, *see* Siauliai
 Schelde, 124
 Schichau, 159, 161
 Schierstein, *see* Wiesbaden
 Schippenbeil, (Sepopol) 161
 Schirmeck-Vorbruck, 106, 112, 140-141
 Schlachters, 146
 Schlieben, 155
 Schlier-Redl-Zipf, 152
 Schloss Lind, 152
 Schloss Mittersill, 152
 Schmerblock, 206
 Schoemberg, 115
 Schoenbrunn, 152
 Schoenebeck, 149
 Schoeneweide, 155
 Schoenhorst, 159
 Schoensee, 159
 Schoenwarling, 159
 Schoerzingen, 115
 Schomberg Dautmergen, *see* Dautmergen
 Schoorl, 117
 Schoten, 117
 Schusterkrug, 159, 206
 Schwabing, 146
 Schwaebisch Hall, (Hall) 217
 Schwechat, 132, 152
 Schweidnitz, (Swidnica) 158, 207t
 Schwertberg, 150
 Schwerte, 149
 Schwindratzheim, 115
 Secheslav, *see* Dnepropetrovsk
 Seckerwitz, 156
 Secureni, 71-72t
 Sedan, 104t
 Seefeld, 206
 Semlin, *see* Sajmiste
 Semyatich, *see* Siemiatycze
 Semyaticha, *see* Siemiatycze
 Sennheim, 115
 Sepopol, *see* Schippenbeil
 Septfonds, 106-107, 112
 Seradz, *see* Sieradz
 Serajevo, *see* Sarajevo
 Serbia, 33, 169t, 170-175, 186
 Sernik, *see* Serniki
 Serniki, (Sernik, Serniki Pervyye) 200
 Serniki Pervyye, *see* Serniki
 Servigliano, 172-173
 's-Gravenhage, 117. *See also* Hague, The
 Shanghai, 26-27
 Shargorod, (Sargorog, Sharigrad, Sharigrod, Szarogrod) 71
 Sharigrad, *see* Shargorod
 Sharigrod, *see* Shargorod
 Sharkotsina, *see* Szarkowszczyzna
 Szarkowszczyzna
 Sharkovshchina, *see* Szarkowszczyzna
 Sharkoyshchina, *see* Szarkowszczyzna
 Shaulyai, *see* Siauliai
 Shavl, *see* Siauliai
 Shawli, *see* Siauliai
 Sheradz, *see* Sieradz
 Sheredz, *see* Sieradz
 's-Hertogenbosch, 116. *See also* Herzogenbusch
 Shiaulai, *see* Siauliai
 Shiraduv, *see* Zyrardow
 Shiradz, *see* Sieradz
 Shiroka, 57
 Shitomir, *see* Zhitomir
 Shpikov, *see* Spikov
 Shvintzion, *see* Svencionys
 Shvyentsiani, *see* Svencionys
 Shvyetsiani, *see* Svencionys
 Siauliai, (Schaulen, Schavli, Shaulyai, Shavl, Shawli, Shiaulai, Silaliai, Szawli) 51, 54-56, 64-65, 89
 Sicily, 170-171, 180-181
 Siczslaw, *see* Dnepropetrovsk
 Siemiatycze, (Semyatich, Semyaticha) 58
 Siena, 180t
 Sieradz, (Seradz, Sheradz, Sheredz, Shiradz) 42
 Sighet Marmatiei, 70, 185-188
 Silaliai, *see* Siauliai
 Simferopol, (Symferopol) 35, 50-51, 215t
 Sindhos, 178
 Sisteron, 112
 Sjaelland, 194
 Skalat, (Skalat Sary) 198
 Skalat Sary, *see* Skalat
 Skanor, 194
 Skape, 80
 Skarzysko-Kamienna, (Kamienna) 45, 140-141
 Skazhinetz, 71
 Skernyevits, *see* Skierniewice
 Skidzin, 94
 Skierniewice, (Skernyevits, Skiernivitz) 39
 Skiernivitz, *see* Skierniewice
 Skopje, (Skoplje, Uskub, Uskup) 168-175
 Skoplje, *see* Skopje
 Slobodka [Kovno] 68
 Slobodka [Odessa] 73-74
 Slonim, 51, 54-56
 Slovakia, 16, 19, 30-31, 33, 186, 201, 209
 Sluck, *see* Slutsk
 Slupsk, *see* Stolp
 Slutsk, (Sluck, Slutzk) 56, 198
 Slutzk, *see* Slutsk
 Smolensk, 35, 50-51, 54-55, 215t
 Smrzovka, *see* Morchenstern
 Snekkersten, 194
 Sobibor, 45, 76-77, 83, 87-89, 128-129, 136b, 140-142, 200
 Sobotka, 80
 Sochaczew, (Sochatchev, Sochoczew, Sokhachev) 39
 Sochatchev, *see* Sochaczew
 Sochoczew, *see* Sochaczew
 Soemmerda, 147, 149
 Sofia, (Sofiya) 170-171
 Sofiya, *see* Sofia
 Sokhachev, *see* Sochaczew
 Sokolka, (Sokolke) [Bialystok] 58
 Sokolka [Treblinka] 90
 Sokolke, *see* Sokolka [Bialystok]
 Solbach, 113
 Sollstedt, 164
 Soly, *see* Salos
 Sonneberg, 149
 Sonnenstein, 28
 Sophienwalde, 161
 Sopron, (Odenburg) 185, 186b, 188

- Soroca, (Soroka, Soroki) 71
 Soroka, *see* Soroca
 Soroki, *see* Soroca
 Sosnovets, *see* Sosnowiec
 Sosnovice, *see* Sosnowiec
 Sosnovits, *see* Sosnowiec
 Sosnovitz, *see* Sosnowiec
 Sosnovyets, *see* Sosnowiec
 Sosnowiec, (Sosnovets,
 Sosnovice, Sosnovits,
 Sosnovitz, Sosnovyets) 36,
 54-55, 98, 200
 Sosnowitz, 99b, 205. *See also*
 Sosnowiec
 Southern Europe, *see* Europe,
 southern
 Soviet Union, 14, 16, 31-33, 35,
 50-51, 215t, 216, 221
 Spaichingen, 115
 Spain, 14, 221
 Spikov, (Shpikov) 71
 Split, 180b, 181
 Srednie, 80
 Stabschlaeger, 153
 Stalingrad, (Tsaritsyn, Tsarizin,
 Volgograd) 32, 35, 50,
 215t
 Stalinograd, *see* Kattowitz
 Stanislau, *see* Stanislawow
 Stanislav, *see* Stanislawow
 Stanislavov, *see* Stanislawow
 Stanislawow, (Ivano Frankovsk,
 Iwano Frankowsk,
 Stanislau, Stanislav,
 Stanislavov, Stanisle,
 Stanislo, Stanislowow) 54-
 55, 86, 198
 Stanisle, *see* Stanislawow
 Stanislo, *see* Stanislawow
 Stanislowow, *see* Stanislawow
 Stanke Dimitrov, *see* Dupnitsa
 Stara Gradiska, 172-173, 176
 Starachowice, (Starakhovits,
 Strachovitza, Verzhbnik,
 Verzhbnik Starakhov,
 Vierzhbinik, Vyerzhbnik,
 Vyerzhbanik, Wierzhbnik,
 Wierzhbnik Starachow) 36,
 45, 98, 140-141
 Starakhovits, *see* Starachowice
 Stargard, (Priemhausen,
 Stargard
 Szczecinski) 155
 Stargard Szczecinski, *see*
 Stargard
 Stari Trg, 172-173
 Starnberg, 208
 Stavanger, 195
 Steegen, 159, 161
 Steinamanger, *see* Szombathely
 Steinfoerde, 153
 Steinort, 159, 161
 Stempeda, 164
 Stephanskirchen, 146
 Stettin, 24. *See also* Szczecin
 Steyr-Muenichholz, 152
 Stockholm, 195
 Stojaciszka, *see* Svencionys
 Stolp, (Slupsk) 161
 Strachovitza, *see* Starachowice
 Straschin, 159, 206
 Strass Somerein, *see*
 Hegyeshalom
 Strasshof, 132
 Straszkwow, 80
 Strausberg, 130
 Stri, *see* Stry
 Stria, *see* Stry
 Struthof, 113-114
 Stry, (Stri, Stria, Stryj, Stryje,
 Stryy) 54-55, 86
 Stryj, *see* Stry
 Stryje, *see* Stry
 Stryy, *see* Stry
 Strzewo, *see* Dirschau
 Stubbekobing, 194
 Stulno, 87
 Stuttgart, (Cannstatt) 24, 128-
 129, 146, 215b, 217
 Stutthof, (Sztutowo) 45, 138-
 142, 159-161, 204, 206,
 209
 Sucha Beskidzka, 98
 Sudetenland, 18b-19, 24
 Suelze, 165
 Suhl, 149
 Sulejowek, 39
 Sutto, 190
 Svenchan, *see* Svencionys
 Svencionys, (Shvintzion,
 Shvyentsiani, Shvyetsiani,
 Stojaciszka, Svenchan,
 Sventsian, Sventsiany,
 Sventzion, Swenziany,
 Swiecziany) 54-55, 64
 Sventsian, *see* Svencionys
 Sventsiany, *see* Svencionys
 Sventzion, *see* Svencionys
 Sweden, 14, 194-195, 221
 Swenziany, *see* Svencionys
 Swidnica, *see* Schweidnitz
 Swiecziany, *see* Svencionys
 Switzerland, 14, 26-27, 221
 Symferopol, *see* Simferopol
 Szarkowszczyzna,
 (Sakovchizna,
 Sarkeyschina,
 Sarkeystsene, Sharkotsina,
 Sharkovshchina,
 Sharkoyschina) 200
 Szarogrod, *see* Shargorod
 Szawle, *see* Siauliai
 Szczecin, 215t, 218-219. *See*
 also Stettin
 Szeged, (Szegedin) 99t, 185-
 186t, 187-188
 Szegedin, *see* Szeged
 Szekeszfehervar, 185, 187-188
 Szentkiralyzabadja, 186b
 Szerokopas, 161
 Szilagy-Falu, 186b
 Szolnok, 186b, 188
 Szombathely, (Steinamanger)
 185, 187-188
 Szony, 190
 Sztutowo, *see* Stutthof
- T**
 Tabor, 136t
 Tallin, *see* Tallinn
 Tallinn, (Reval, Revel, Tallin)
 31, 50-51, 56, 215t
 Talmach, *see* Tlumach
 Talmatch, *see* Tlumach
 Tannhausen, 158
 Tannroda, 147
 Taranto, 170-171, 180t, 202,
 218-219
 Tarbaek, 194
 Tarczyn, (Tartchin) 39
 Tarna, *see* Tarnow
 Tarnopol, (Ternopol) 51, 54-55,
 86, 198
 Tarnov, *see* Tarnow
 Tarnow, (Tarna, Tarnov,
 Tarnuv, Torne, Tornen)
 36, 54-55, 86, 98, 200
 Tarnowka, 80
 Tarnuv, *see* Tarnow
 Tartchin, *see* Tarczyn
 Tartu, (Derpt, Dorpa, Juriew,
 Jurjew, Tur Ev, Yuriev,
 Yuryev) 56. *See also*
 Dorpat
 Tarvisio, 202
 Tata, (Toti, Totis) 190
 Taucha, 149
 Tczew, *see* Dirschau
 Tegernsee, 208
 Tel Aviv, 218-220
 Telegd, (Mezo Telegd,
 Mezotelegd, Tileagd) 186b
 Telz, 56
 Temesvar, *see* Timisoara
 Tenje, 99t, 172-175
 Teplice, *see* Teplitz
 Teplice Sanov, *see* Teplitz
 Teplitz, (Teplice, Teplice
 Sanov, Teplitz Schoenau,
 Teplitz Schonau) 207b
 Teplitz Schoenau, *see* Teplitz
 Teplitz Schonau, *see* Teplitz
 Terezin, 18b-19. *See also*
 Theresienstadt
 Ternberg, 152
 Ternopol, *see* Tarnopol
 Thalheim, 146
 Thansau, 146

- V

- Varshe, *see* Warsaw
 Vartejeni Colonie, *see* Vertujeni
 Vartejenii Sat, *see* Vertujeni
 Vartuzhen, *see* Vertujeni
 Vatican City, 183-184
 Vec, 66
 Vedbaek, 194
 Velodrome d'Hiver, 108
 Velten, 155
 Venice, 180
 Venissieux, 106, 112
 Venlo, 117
 Verona, 182
 Vertujeni, (Kolonie Wertizany,
 Vartejeni Colonie,
 Vartejenii Sat, Vartuzhen,
 Vertuzhen, Vertyuzhani,
 Vertyuzhany) 71-72
 Vertuzhen, *see* Vertujeni
 Vertyuzhani, *see* Vertujeni
 Vertyuzhany, *see* Vertujeni
 Verushev, *see* Wieruszow
 Verzhbnik, *see* Starachowice
 Verzhbnik Starakhov, *see*
 Starachowice
 Veszprem, (Weissbrunn) 186b
 Zezenberg, *see* Wesenberg
 Vienna, (Wien) 15, 20, 24, 42,
 78-79, 128-129, 132-133,
 152, 216-219
 Vierzhbinik, *see* Starachowice
 Vilna, (Vilnia, Vilnius, Vilno,
 Vilnyus, Wilna, Wilno) 31,
 34, 50-51, 54-55, 60-61,
 64-65, 78-79, 89, 128-129,
 198, 200, 215t
 Vilnia, *see* Vilna
 Vilnius, *see* Vilna
 Vilno, *see* Vilna
 Vilnyus, *see* Vilna
 Vilvoorde, 124
 Vinitza, *see* Vinnitsa
 Vinnitsa, (Vinitza, Winnica,
 Winnitsa, Winniza) 51, 54-
 55, 215t
 Virdayn Katan, *see* Kisvarda
 Viroshov, *see* Wieruszow
 Vishegrood, *see* Wyszogrod
 Vishogrod, *see* Wyszogrod
 Vishogrud, *see* Wyszogrod
 Viskit, *see* Wiskitki
 Vitebsk, (Witebsk), 51, 54-55,
 215t
 Vittel, 106-107, 112, 140-141
 Vladova, *see* Wlodawa
 Vlatzlavek, *see* Wloclawek
 Vlodava, *see* Wlodawa
 Vlodavi, *see* Wlodawa
 Vlodeve, *see* Wlodawa
 Vlodova, *see* Wlodawa
 Vlotslavek, *see* Wloclawek
 Vo Eugane, 172-173
 Voecklabruck, 152
 Volgograd, *see* Stalingrad
 Volozhin, (Volozhyn,
 Woloskin, Wolozyn) 51,
 54-56
 Volozhyn, *see* Volozhin
 Vorke, *see* Warka
 Vorna, *see* Varna
 Vorne, *see* Varna
 Vorni, *see* Varna
 Voronezh, (Woronesch,
 Woronez) 215t
 Votslavsk, *see* Wloclawek
 Vught, 117-118, 140-142
 Vurka, *see* Warka
 Vurke, *see* Warka
 Vyershuv, *see* Wieruszow
 Vyerushov, *see* Wieruszow
 Vyerushuv, *see* Wieruszow
 Vyerzbnik, *see* Starachowice
 Vyerzhbanik, *see* Starachowice
 Vygoda, 73

W
 Waakirchen, 208
 Wadowice, (Vadovits,
 Vadovitse, Vadovitz) 98
 Wagrain, 152
 Walbrzych, *see* Waldenburg
 Waldenburg, (Walbrzych) 158
 Waldersbach, 113
 Walldorf, 115
 Walle, 165
 Wannsee, 130
 Wardboehmen, 165
 Warka, (Varka, Vorke, Vurka,
 Vurke) 39
 Warnemuende, 206
 Warsaw, (Varsava, Varshau,
 Varshe, Warsawa,
 Warschau, Warszawa) 31-
 32, 34-41, 54-55, 78-79,
 92, 98, 102, 128-129, 36b,
 142, 198, 200, 215t, 216
 Warsawa, *see* Warsaw
 Warschau, *see* Warsaw
 Warszawa, *see* Warsaw
 Warta, (Dvart, Dvurt) 39, 42
 Warthegau, 34, 35, 77
 Wartsch, 159
 Wasseraufingen, 115
 Watten, 112
 Wederau, 156
 Weesen, 165
 Weilheim, 146
 Weimar, 147, 149, 207b
 Weiss-See, 146
 Weissbrunn, *see* Veszprem
 Weissenberg, 207t
 Weisswasser, 158
 Weisswasser-Hohenstadt, 158
 Wels, 152, 217
 Wesenberg, (Rakvere,
 Zezenberg) 65
 Wessering, 112, 115
 Wesslinken, 159
 Westerbork, 99t, 117-118, 121-
 123, 140-142, 209
 Western Europe, *see* Europe,
 western
 Westerplatte, 159, 161
 Wetteren, 124
 Wewelsburg, 142, 149
 Weyer, 152
 Wickerode, 164
 Widdernhausen, 165
 Wielun, 42
 Wien, 152. *See also* Vienna
 Wiener Neudorf, 152
 Wiener Neustadt, 24, 152
 Wienergraben, 150
 Wieruszow, (Verushev,
 Viroshov, Vyershuv,
 Vyerushov, Vyerushuv) 42
 Wierzbniak, *see* Starachowice
 Wierzbniak Starachow, *see*
 Starachowice
 Wiesau, 158
 Wiesbaden, (Schierstein) 24
 Wildersbach, 113
 Wilhelmspieckstadt Guben, *see*
 Guben
 Willebroeck, 124
 Wilna, *see* Vilna
 Wilno, *see* Vilna
 Wiltz, 116
 Winnica, *see* Vinnitsa
 Vinnitsa, *see* Vinnitsa
 Winniza, *see* Vinnitsa
 Wiskitki, (Viskit) 39
 Wisnicz Forest, 198
 Witebsk, *see* Vitebsk
 Witten-Annen, 149
 Wittenau, 217
 Wloclawek, (Alt Lesle, Leslau,
 Leslo, Lesluya,
 Vlatzlavek, Vlotslavek,
 Votslavsk) 42
 Wlodawa, (Vladova, Vlodava,
 Vlodavi, Vlodeve,
 Vlodova, Wlodowa) 89
 Wlodowa, *see* Wlodawa
 Wodzislaw, 205
 Woebbelin, 209
 Woffleben, 162, 164
 Wohrd, *see* Nuremberg
 Wolczyny, 87
 Wolfen, 149, 155
 Wolfratshausen, 208
 Wolka-Okraglik, 90
 Woloskin, *see* Volozhin
 Wolozyn, *see* Volozhin
 Wornie, *see* Varna
 Woronesch, *see* Voronezh
 Woronez, *see* Voronezh
 Wotzlaff, 159

Wrieze, 130
 Wroclaw, 215t. *See also*
 Breslau
 Wuestewaltersdorf, 158
 Wuppertal, (Elberfeld,
 Wuppertal Elberfeld) 149,
 216
 Wuppertal Elberfeld, *see*
 Wuppertal
 Wusterhausen, 130
 Wyszkow Forest, 198
 Wyszogrod, (Vishegrad,
 Vishogrod, Vishogrud) 98

Y

Yagestov, *see* Augustow
 Yagistov, *see* Augustow
 Yagustova, *see* Augustow
 Yanina, *see* Ioannina
 Yartchovka, *see* Jarczow
 Yashinovka, *see* Jasionowka
 Yashinovke, *see* Jasionowka
 Yashinowka, *see* Jasionowka
 Yasinya, *see* Korosmezo
 Yedinets, *see* Edineti
 Yedintsy, *see* Edineti
 Yekaterinodar, *see* Krasnodar
 Yekaterinoslav, *see*
 Dnepropetrovsk
 Yendrikhov, *see* Andrychow

Yezhov, *see* Jezow
 Yugoslavia, 14, 16, 32, 168-
 169t, 185-186t, 201, 216,
 221
 Yuriev, *see* Tartu
 Yuryev, *see* Tartu

Z

Zablocie, 46
 Zabrze, *see* Hindenburg
 Zagrab, *see* Zagreb
 Zagreb, (Agram, Zagrab) 99t,
 169t, 170-175, 216
 Zahorany, 134
 Zajecar, 172-173
 Zalaegerszeg, 188
 Zalese, *see* Zalesie
 Zalesie, (Zalese) 87
 Zamosc, (Zamoshch,
 Zamoshtch, Zamoshtsh,
 Zamostie, Zamotch) 54-55,
 86
 Zamoshch, *see* Zamosc
 Zamoshtch, *see* Zamosc
 Zamoshtsh, *see* Zamosc
 Zamostie, *see* Zamosc
 Zamotch, *see* Zamosc
 Zangberg, 146
 Zasavica, 172-173
 Zaslavl, (Izaslaw, Iziaslav,

Zaslaw) 198
 Zaslav, *see* Zaslavl
 Zavertse, *see* Zawiercie
 Zavirtcha, *see* Zawiercie
 Zavyerche, *see* Zawiercie
 Zawadka, 80
 Zawiercie, (Zavertse, Zavirtcha,
 Zavyerche) 98
 Zbereze, 87
 Zdunska Vola, *see* Zdunska
 Wola
 Zdunska Volye, *see* Zdunska
 Wola
 Zdunska Wola, (Dinskivola,
 Zdunska Vola, Zdunska
 Volye, Zdunske Volye) 42
 Zdunske Volye, *see* Zdunska
 Wola
 Zdzarka, 87
 Zeilsheim, 217
 Zelav, *see* Zelow
 Zelow, (Zelav) 42
 Zemun, *see* Sajmiste
 Zeyerniederkampen, 159
 Zeyersvorderkampen, 159
 Zgerzh, *see* Zgierz
 Zgierz, (Zgerzh, Zgyerz) 42-43
 Zgorzelec, *see* Goerlitz
 Zgyerz, *see* Zgierz
 Zheredov, *see* Zyrardow

Zheshov, *see* Rzeszow
 Zheshuv, *see* Rzeszow
 Zhezhov, *see* Rzeszow
 Zhirardov, *see* Zyrardow
 Zhitomir, (Jitomir, Shitomir,
 Zytomierz) 51, 54-55, 215t
 Ziechenau, *see* Ciechanow
 Ziegenhain, 217
 Zielona Gora, *see* Gruenberg
 Zittau, 158
 Zlobek, 87
 Zlochev, *see* Zolochew
 Zlochuv, *see* Zolochew
 Zloczow, *see* Zolochew
 Zlotchev, *see* Zolochew
 Zlotki, 90
 Zolitude, 66
 Zolochew, (Zlochev, Zlochuv,
 Zloczow, Zlotchev) 54-55,
 86
 Zossen, 130
 Zuckau, 206
 Zwickau, 207t
 Zwiggelte, 122
 Zwodau, 155
 Zyrardow, (Shiraduv,
 Zheredov, Zhirardov) 39
 Zytomierz, *see* Zhitomir



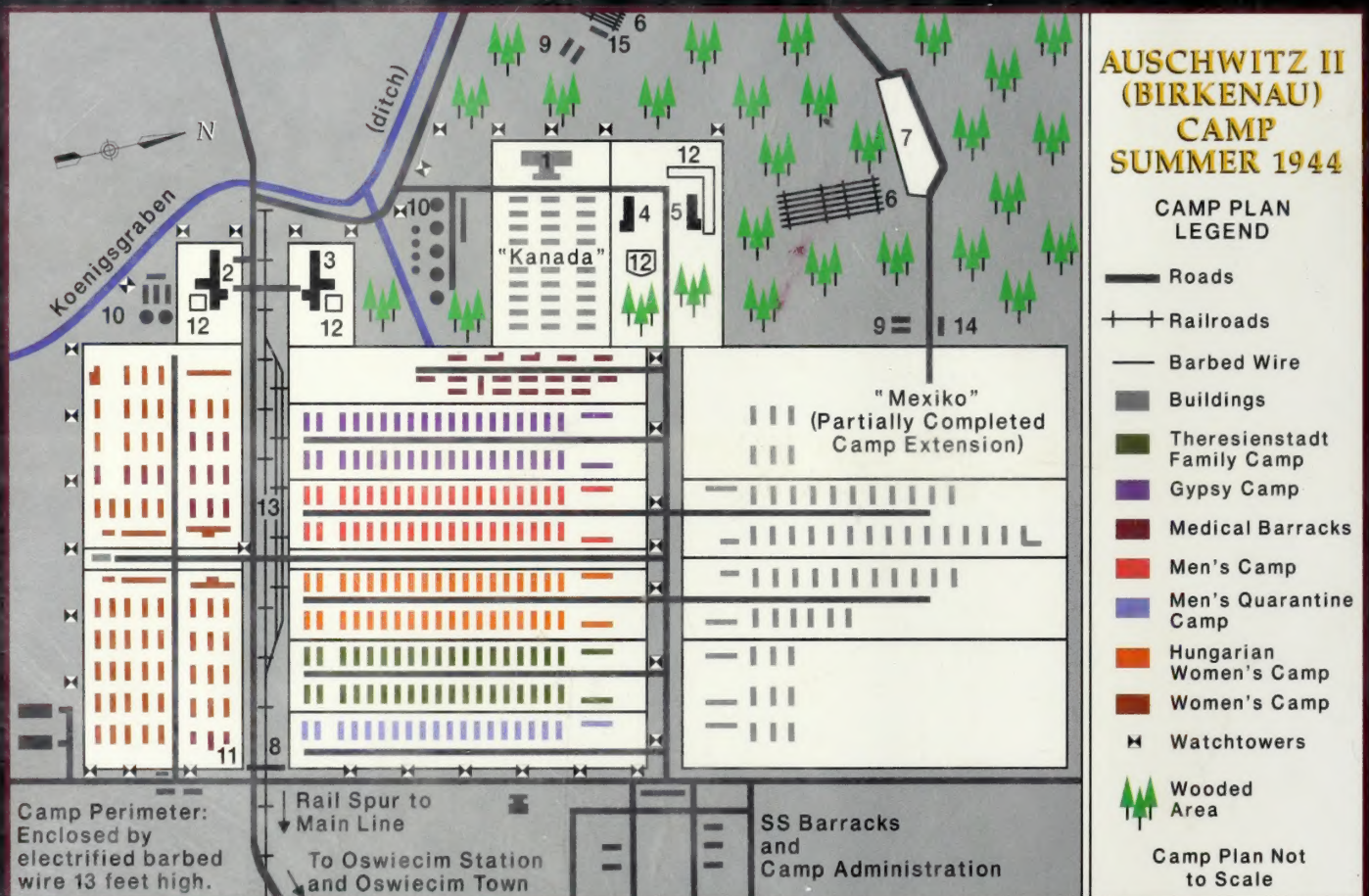
No longer in use

Boston Public Library

Sale of this material benefited the Library

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF THE HOLOCAUST

A VISUAL SURVEY OF THE HOLOCAUST
PRESENTED IN MORE THAN 230 FULL-COLOR MAPS



AUSCHWITZ II
(BIRKENAU)

UNITED STATES
HOLOCAUST MEMORIAL MUSEUM

ISBN 0-02-897451-4



9 780028 974514

90000>

