

On June 29, 1941, 2,430 Jews from Iaşi were brought to the railway station and packed into freight cars, which were then locked and sealed and the windows boarded over. The prisoners in the train were not given food or water, and the heat and overcrowding were unbearable. After making many stops for removal of the dead bodies, the train arrived at Călăraşi, 63 miles (101 km) southeast of Bucharest—a distance of about 265 miles (428 km) from Iaşi—on July 6, having traveled six days and seven nights. The survivors were billeted in the yard of an army camp and were assisted by the local Jewish community. On August 30, 980 survivors of the original 2,430 were returned to Iaşi.

The dead bodies were thrown out of the train along the tracks at each of the stops. Here, local Romanian farmers rummage among the bodies for clothes and other valuables, including gold teeth.

Guard's revolt against Antonescu and its attempt to seize power (January 21 to 23, 1941).

On the eve of the war against the Soviet Union, Iaşi was an assembly point of Romanian and German army units, and the tension between non-Jews and Jews increased. Pogroms in the city were organized by members of the Romanian Special Intelligence Service, the liaison office with the German army, the heads of the Romanian military and civil authorities in the city, and Romanian and German army units stationed there. Following the circulation of rumors that Jews had signaled to Soviet planes which bombed the city, assaults on the Jews began on the eve of June 28, 1941, with the participation of Romanian and German soldiers, policemen, and many residents. Thousands were killed in their homes and on the streets, and thousands more were arrested by Romanian and German army patrols and brought to police headquarters. In the homes of Christians, crosses and icons appeared, as well as signs reading: "Here live Christians, not Yids."

On June 29, 1941, dubbed "Black Sunday" by the Jews, of the thousands of Jews assembled in the courtyard of the police headquarters, many were shot by Romanian soldiers; 4,330 of the surviving Jews, as well as Jews collected from all parts of the city, were placed in closed cargo vans and crowded into train cars; 2,650 of them suffocated or died of thirst. Many lost their sanity. On July 2, the police reported to Antonescu that more than 8,000 Jews had been killed in the disturbances. The court that tried the Romanian war criminals in 1948 determined that over 10,000 Jews had been murdered in Iaşi.

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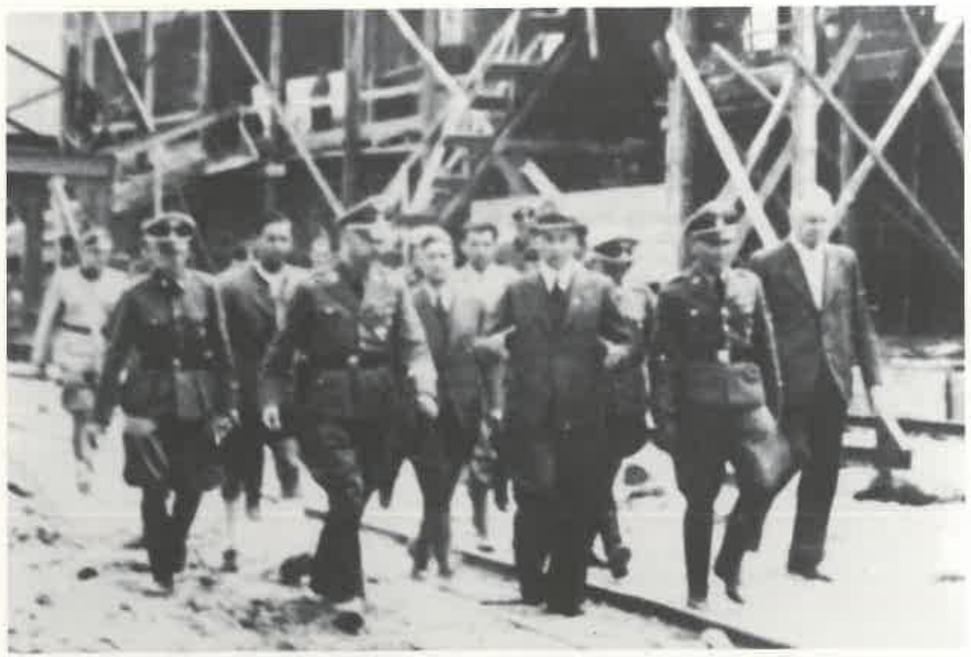
IEQJ. *See* Institut d'Etude des Questions Juives.

IGCR. *See* Intergovernmental Committee on Refugees.

I.G. FARBEN (IGF), German limited company that was a conglomerate of eight leading German chemical manufacturers, including Bayer, Hoechst, and BASF (Badische Anilin- und Sodafabrik), which were the largest such firms in existence at the time. As early as World War I these firms had established a "community of interests" (*Interessengemeinschaft;* hence the initials I.G.), which merged into a single company on December 25, 1925, constituting the largest chemical enterprise in Europe and, indeed, the whole world. Its share capital in 1926 was 1.1 million reichsmarks; its turnover increased from 1.2 million reichsmarks in 1926 to 3.1 billion in 1943. On the German market IGF had a monopoly, and it was the country's largest single exporter. The first chairman of its board was Dr. Karl Bosch, who had previously been the chief executive officer of BASF.

Costly innovations, such as the production of synthetic fuel from coal and of synthetic rubber (Buna) from coal or gasoline, persuaded IGF, at the time the economic crisis came to an end, that the company ought to establish close ties with Hitler. At an early stage Hitler had become aware of the opportunity for Germany to become independent of imports of raw materials, by means of the production processes in IGF's possession. In order to be profitable, the new IGF products needed an assured market, and Hitler indicated that he would be ready to give guarantees for the purchase by the state of these products, in appropriate quantities. At a meeting of leading German industrialists with Hjalmar SCHACHT, Hermann GÖRING, and Heinrich HIMMLER, held on February 20, 1933, IGF contributed 400,000 reichsmarks to the Nazi party, the largest single amount in the total sum of 3 million reichsmarks raised at this meeting by German industrialists for the Nazi party's election campaign. Notwithstanding the presence on the IGF board of several Jewish members, and the fact that even after 1933 Nazi propaganda continued for a time to attack IGF as an example of an international Jewish firm that was exploiting its workers, the contacts between IGF's management and the government became increasingly close, since the products of the great chemical conglomerate were an indispensable element in the Nazi rearmament program.

The FOUR-YEAR PLAN, proposed by Hitler in 1936, which intended to put the entire German industry on a war footing, further enhanced IGF's influence. A member of its board, Carl Krauch, was given a leading position in the organization headed by Göring that had the task of implementing the Four-Year Plan. By this time the company was also adapting itself to the regime's ideological requirements; in 1933 Bosch had still objected—although in vain—to the removal



Heinrich Himmler (front, left), with Walter Dürrfeld and other I.G. Farben representatives, during Himmler's March 1941 inspection of the Auschwitz plant. [YIVO Institute for Jewish Research]

of Jewish scientists from the company and from various scientific institutions, but by 1937 no Jews were left in the IGF executive or on its board of directors. The majority of the board members joined the Nazi party. By means of economic and political blackmail, IGF took over important chemical factories in the areas annexed to the Reich or occupied by it. Bosch resigned his post as chief executive officer in 1935 and was instead elected chairman of the board. His successor as chief executive officer was Hermann Schmitz, a member of the BASF board. After Bosch's death (April 26, 1940), Krauch took his place as board chairman, adding this position to the different posts he held in the Four-Year Plan administration. More than anyone else, Krauch personified the link between private industry and the growing government involvement in economic life during the Nazi period.

In connection with the economic preparations for the forthcoming war against the Soviet Union, the IGF board, with government support, decided to establish an additional Buna works and installations for the production of synthetic fuels. The board decided on AUSCHWITZ, in Upper Silesia, as the place where the new installations were to be located, not only because of its convenient closeness to the railway and to coal mines but, primarily, because the concentration camp then being constructed on the site offered the company up to ten thousand prisoners for work on the construction of the new plant. Board members Otto Ambros and Heinrich Bütefisch were responsible for the Auschwitz plant in their capacity as the officers in charge of Buna and gasoline, respectively. Dr. Walter Dürrfeld became general manager. At first, the plant management protested against the maltreatment of the prisoners working in the plant and their poor physical condition, but Dürrfeld eventually went along with the SS policy, in order to speed up the work. In the middle of 1942

a new section of the concentration camp (Auschwitz-Monowitz) was established, close to the site of the IGF works, to house the prisoners working there and thereby save the time-consuming daily march from and to the main camp. The prisoners' performance, however, never came close to IGF expectations and was always considerably inferior to that of free workers. The Buna production never got started—in part because of the Allied air attacks—and only small quantities of synthetic fuel were actually produced. ZYKLON B gas, used in Auschwitz for the killing of Jews, was a product of DEGESCH, a firm in which IGF had a decisive share.

In the SUBSEQUENT NUREMBERG PROCEEDINGS, which were tried by the Nuremberg Military Tribunals, the United States, as the occupying power, conducted trials against (among others) the top officers of three major industrial concerns—Krupp, Flick, and I.G. Farben. In the IGF trial the accused were the chairman of the board, Carl Krauch, and several of his associates, including Dürrfeld. The major charges were: (1) preparing and waging aggressive war; (2) crimes against humanity, by looting the occupied territories; and (3) enslaving and murdering civil populations, prisoners of war, and prisoners from the occupied territories. All the defendants were acquitted of the first count; nine were found guilty of the second; Krauch, Fritz ter Meer (the board member responsible for the entire Buna production), Ambros, Bütefisch, and Dürrfeld were found guilty of the third. Against the last four defendants, the decisive factor was their role in the construction of the Auschwitz installations. The tribunal did not find the IGF board criminally involved in the poison-gas deliveries made by the DEGESCH company. The sentences imposed on Ambros and Dürrfeld were the most severe (eight years each). By 1951, however, all the IGF officers convicted had been released from prison.

Under Allied Control Council Law No. 9, of November 30, 1945, IGF assets were seized by the Control Council, which in turn handed them over to the four occupying powers, instructing them that installations for the manufacture of war material were to be destroyed, certain plants were to be appropriated as war reparations, and the entire conglomerate was to be broken up. The IGF plants existing in the Soviet zone of occupation were nationalized. In the Western zones, however, no change of ownership took place in the end. Basically, the conglomerate was broken up into its original three major component parts—Bayer, BASF, and Hoechst—whose balance sheet, by the end of the 1950s, already exceeded that of the original IGF. The final IGF Liquidation Act, of January 21, 1955, removed all the remaining restrictions



The Subsequent Nuremberg Proceedings. Trial 6, The I.G. Farben Case, May 8, 1947–July 30, 1948. Fritz ter Meer, the highest-ranking scientist on the I.G. Farben managing board, being sentenced to seven years' imprisonment for his part in the Auschwitz operation.



The Subsequent Nuremberg Proceedings. Carl Krauch, Nazi plenipotentiary for chemical production, who praised the efficiency of the Auschwitz solution of the labor problem, being sentenced.

imposed by the Allies; many of the former top officers of IGF, including Ter Meer and Ambros, were soon again in leading positions in the German chemical industry.

A court of the Federal Republic of Germany in a 1953 decision established the principle that a Jewish prisoner who had been forced to work for IGF in Monowitz had a right to sue the company for compensation. In the wake of this decision and after prolonged negotiations, the residual company—I.G. Farben in Liquidation—agreed to put 27 million deutsche marks at the disposal of the Jewish Material Claims Conference to cover the claims of all Jewish forced laborers and prisoners who had been compelled to work at Monowitz. The payment was described as having been made on a purely voluntary basis and was not to be interpreted as an admission of guilt. IGF did not pay any compensation to non-Jewish forced laborers and prisoners.

[*See also* Forced Labor.]

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IMMIGRATION TO PALESTINE. *See* Aliya Bet; Exodus 1947; HICEM; Mauritius; St. Louis; Struma; Yishuv; Youth Aliya.

IMT. *See* Trials of War Criminals: Nuremberg Trial.

INSTITUT D'ETUDE DES QUESTIONS JUIVES (Institute for the Study of the Jewish Problem; IEQJ), anti-Jewish institution that existed in FRANCE from 1941 to 1943. The IEQJ was founded in May 1941, and financed by the German occupation authorities. Its purpose was to encourage anti-Jewish propaganda under a French label.

The institute, headed first by René Gérard and then by Paul Sézille, engaged in general anti-Jewish propaganda, in promoting the "Aryanization" of French economic and cultural life, and in encouraging the French population to inform on Jews and hand them over to the authorities. Its most significant operation was the exhibition "Le Juif et la France" (The Jew and France), which was housed in the Palais Berlitz and opened on September 5, 1941. Aimed at demonstrating to the public in visual form the destructive and disastrous role that Jews and "Judaizers" had played in French history, the exhibition had widespread success. In Paris alone, five hundred thousand persons attended it, before it moved on to Bordeaux and Nancy. Apart from this, the institute also spent much effort and money on the publication and distribution of anti-Jewish literature, especially the bimonthly *Le Bulletin* and *Le Cahier Jaune,* both modeled on Julius STREICHER's *Der* STÜRMER.

In May 1942 the COMMISSARIAT GÉNÉRAL AUX QUESTIONS JUIVES was entrusted (by Pierre LAVAL) to Louis DARQUIER DE PELLEPOIX, an event implying that closer collaboration with Nazi designs had been adopted by the highest echelons of French officialdom and making the IEQJ superfluous and indeed embarrassing, from the German point of view. In June 1942 the institute's director, Paul Sézille, decided to attach it to Darquier's commissariat. Within its new framework, the institute (renamed the Institut d'Etude des Questions Juives et Ethno-Raciales, or Institute for the Study of Jewish and Ethno-Racial Problems) was headed by Georges Montandon, an anthropologist who tried to uncover Jews by means of physical criteria. The institute was officially inaugurated on February 24, 1943, but, except for Montandon's spurious research, it existed on paper alone, and by July of that year it had disappeared altogether.

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INTERGOVERNMENTAL COMMITTEE ON REFUGEES (IGCR), committee created at the EVIAN CONFERENCE in July 1938 with the intent of solving the growing problem of REFUGEES in Europe. Its first director, George Rublee, an American lawyer, approached the German government to negotiate the orderly transfer of Jews, with their property, in order to facilitate resettlement. In December 1938, Rublee began negotiations with Dr. Hjalmar SCHACHT, president of the Reichsbank. After Schacht's dismissal the following year, Rublee continued negotiations with Helmuth Wohlthat, an official of the Reich Ministry of Economics. The Rublee-Wohlthat plan that emerged envisaged the establishment of a trust fund, based on Jewish property in Germany, to finance the eventual departure of 400,000 Jews from the Reich. The plan also called for the creation of an international corporation, the Coordinating Foundation, to assist in the project. Though most Jewish organizations opposed the plan, labeling it Nazi blackmail, it was supported by President Franklin D. ROOSEVELT and by several prominent Jews.

The Coordinating Foundation was established in July 1939. However, the outbreak of war put an end to its activities. The attempts of the IGCR to find places of refuge, particularly in undeveloped countries, were also unsuccessful. In the first years of the war the IGCR, now directed by Sir Herbert Emerson, ceased to function in all but name. At the BERMUDA CONFERENCE of April 1943, a decision was made to revitalize the IGCR and grant it greater authority and financing. The reorganization of the committee dragged on for months, and the ineffective IGCR played only a minor role in the rescue of refugees.

During the postwar years the IGCR fulfilled an important role in the resettlement of DISPLACED PERSONS. In June 1947 it was disbanded, and its functions were assumed by the International Refugee Organization.

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UGIF. *See* Union Général des Israélites de France.

UJRE. *See* Union des Juifs pour la Résistance et l'Entr'aide.

UKRAINE, Soviet republic in the southwestern USSR. The Ukraine has its origin in Kievan Russia, which existed from the ninth to the thirteenth century. Beginning in 1238, what is now the Ukraine came first under Tatar rule and then under Lithuanian, Polish, and even Turkish rule; it was eventually incorporated into the Russian empire, except for its western part—Galicia and BUKOVINA—which was ruled by the Habsburgs.

Jews lived in Kievan Russia; the Jewish population increased rapidly in the last third of the sixteenth century, by the end of which the Ukraine contained 45 percent of the entire Jewish population of the Polish kingdom. The Jews were artisans and engaged in trade. They also leased estates, villages, and the right to collect taxes from the Polish nobility in the Ukraine, which put them between the oppressing nobility and their subjects, the peasants. This added an economic and social dimension to the existing religious animosity against the Jews. Hatred of the Jews erupted with great force during the Khmelnytsky rebellions (1648–1649) and the Haidamack massacres in the eighteenth century, when tens of thousands of Jews were murdered and entire communities were destroyed.

In the late eighteenth century the Frankist and Hasidic movements developed in the southeastern Ukraine, and they later spread throughout the Ukraine. Most of the Jewish population was then concentrated in the Pale of Settlement in the western Ukraine, living in towns where Jews constituted 50 percent, or even the majority, of the inhabitants. About 3 percent of the Jews were engaged in agriculture. In the second half of the nineteenth century, the Haskalah (Enlightenment) movement made great strides in the Ukraine, as did Ḥibbat Zion (Love of Zion), the forerunner of the Zionist movement. The 1905 revolution stimulated and excited the Jewish community, and many Jews flocked to the revolutionary political parties. The reaction that followed the revolution, however, led to a rise in antisemitism. In World War I it was the Jews of Eastern Galicia who first bore the brunt of the suffering, when the Russian army conquered the area and its Cossack units ran wild against the Jews. In the late summer of 1915 it was the turn of the Jews of the western Ukraine to suffer, when that region became the scene of battles and tens of thousands of Jews fled to the central and eastern Ukraine, or were forced out of their former homes. The February 1917 revolution gave equal rights to the Jews, and in July 1917 national minorities were recognized as having the right to national autonomy. In September 1917 a Ministry for Jewish Affairs was established.

In the civil war that broke out in the spring of 1918, most of the Ukraine was seized by



the Germans, but after their surrender and withdrawal in November of that year a new government, the so-called Directory, was established, headed by Simon Petliura. By the end of 1919, following the war with Poland, the Bolsheviks gained control of the larger part of the Ukraine; in the 1920 peace treaty the Ukraine became a Soviet republic and part of the USSR, although portions were annexed to Poland (Volhynia and Eastern Galicia) and Romania (Bukovina). The remnants of Petliura's defeated army settled in Poland and western European countries, and by the late 1920s they had organized into paramilitary nationalist groups. The latter engendered the ORHANIZATSYIA UKRAINSKYKH NATSIONALISTIV (Organization of Ukrainian Nationalists), which in the 1930s attracted to its ranks the young generation of Ukrainians in western Europe and in Poland. In the Soviet Ukraine, the forced collectivization of agriculture and the ensuing starvation led to the deaths of millions of people. This was followed by the Stalinist purges, from which the Ukrainian intelligentsia suffered the most. All these events led to strong hatred of the Soviet regime among the Ukrainian population. In September 1939 the western Ukraine (Volhynia and Eastern Galicia) was incorporated into the Soviet Ukraine, followed in June 1940 by Bukovina and BESSARABIA. In 1954 the Soviet Ukraine had an area of 232,000 square miles (600,000 sq km) and a population of forty-two million.

During the civil war, one hundred thousand Jews were murdered in pogroms staged by the Directory units, the White Army under Gen. Anton Denikin, the Poles, and a variety of armed gangs. Many Jews were disabled for life, Jewish property was pillaged and destroyed, and many of the towns and villages in which Jews had lived were totally abandoned.

Under the Bolshevik regime (beginning in the summer of 1918), the Jewish leftist political parties were incorporated into the Communist party as separate factions. After a while, however, the factions were abolished

and the Communist party created its own Jewish department, the Yevsektsiya, which helped liquidate the existing Jewish institutions and organizations.

Most of the Jewish breadwinners in the Ukraine during the 1930s were skilled workers, technically trained members of the intelligentsia, professionals, or office workers. Side by side with a rapid process of assimilation among the Jews, many fell victim to the purges or were thrown out of the party, the diplomatic service, and other fields of employment. The Jews living in the western Ukraine, under Polish rule, and in Romanian-held Bukovina suffered from political and economic discrimination, and from frequent antisemitic outbreaks, which sometimes came close to pogroms. Nevertheless, the Jews in these areas led an intense community life in the cultural and political spheres, with the national Jewish movements and political parties predominating in the latter. In September 1939, the western Ukraine was incorporated into the Soviet Union; before long, its Jewish institutions and organizations were abolished, thousands of Jewish leaders and activists were exiled, and the Jewish economy was completely Sovietized. With its new borders, the Ukraine had a Jewish population of 2.4 million (early 1941).

On June 22, 1941, Germany attacked the Soviet Union, its forces advancing rapidly, and by that October it had conquered the entire Ukrainian republic, except for the Lugansk district. The invading German army was accompanied by Ukrainian nationalist military units (*see* NACHTIGALL BATTALION). Leading public figures in the western Ukraine—including the head of the Uniate church, Archbishop Andrei SHEPTYTSKY, and the heads of the Autocephalous Orthodox Church of the Ukraine—welcomed the Germans as liberators, in the hope of being granted independence. In the eastern Ukraine the Germans were also received warmly. Some of the Soviet prisoners of war who were Ukrainians, as well as young Ukrainian civilians, volunteered for service in auxiliary units of the German army, police, and SS. In late 1943, a Ukrainian SS division was formed as part of the Waffen-SS, made up of volunteers from Eastern Galicia.

EINSATZGRUPPEN C and D, marching in with the German army, installed a regime of terror and mass murder in the Ukraine, executing hundreds of thousands of Jews and tens of thousands of other citizens whom they suspected of being Communists or Soviet officials. Instead of granting independence to the Ukraine, as the Ukrainian nationalists had hoped, the Germans turned the larger part of the region over to the REICHSKOMMISSARIAT UKRAINE civil administration, and put the rest of the eastern Ukraine under a military administration. Eastern Galicia was annexed as a district to the GENERALGOUVERNEMENT. Despite earlier promises, the Germans did not abolish the kolkhozy (collective farms), and extracted tremendous quantities of grain and other foodstuffs and raw materials from the Ukraine, letting the local population starve, especially in the cities. Millions of people were sent on forced labor to the Reich. A large partisan movement was formed under Communist leadership, which operated mostly in the northern, heavily wooded part of the republic. It was in this area that partisan formations saw action, under the command of Sidor KOVPAK, Aleksandr Saburov, Aleksei Fyodorov, Mikhail Naumov, Andrei Melnyk, and others.

In the western Ukraine and in Bukovina, the local population, assisted by the UKRAINISCHE HILFSPOLIZEI (Ukrainian Auxiliary Police), staged pogroms in which thousands of Jews were murdered and much property was pillaged and destroyed; in LVOV, 5,000 Jews were murdered in two of these pogroms. The Einsatzgruppen carried out mass *Aktionen* in such places as LUTSK (where they murdered 2,000 Jews), Ostrog (3,000), and TERNOPOL (5,000).

On the eastern side of the old Polish-Soviet border, the Einsatzgruppen embarked upon the total liquidation of the Jews, with the exception of those in KAMENETS-PODOLSKI (which was incorporated into Generalbezirk Volhynia-Podolia). The extermination proceeded at a rapid pace, following a regular pattern. Immediately after occupation, the German military administration issued a series of decrees, ordering the Jews to wear distinctive badges (*see* BADGE, JEWISH) and to register, setting up Jewish committees (a form of JUDENRAT), confining the Jews to specific streets, and putting them on forced

labor. After a few months the Jews were rounded up and taken to ravines, abandoned quarries, or antitank ditches, where they were killed. The job of rounding up, guarding, and transporting the Jews was in the hands of German and Ukrainian police and, at times, also of rear-echelon German army units, while the killing itself was carried out by the Einsatzgruppen or the SD (Sicherheitsdienst; Security Service). The escorts also murdered Jews who tried to escape en route or who could not keep up with the rest. Also used for the systematic murder were eight GAS VANS; the Jews were crowded into the vans, which were hermetically sealed, the exhaust fumes were piped in, and the victims choked to death while the vans were on the road to the burial pits.

The Jews of ZHITOMIR were the first victims of the systematic murder process; by September 19, 1941, the entire Jewish population of the city, numbering ten thousand, had been killed. On September 29 and 30, two weeks after Kiev was occupied, the city's Jews were brought to the ravine of BABI YAR and murdered there. On October 13, fifteen thousand Jews from DNEPROPETROVSK were murdered. The Jews of KHARKOV were rounded up in mid-December, detained in the sheds of a tractor plant, and from there taken to the Drobitski Yar ravine in early January 1942, to be murdered there. In TRANSNISTRIA, then under Romanian rule, some of the Jews from places that had escaped Einsatzgruppe D were able to survive, as were some of the Jews from Bessarabia



Forced to lie down, a group of Jewish women, children, and babies from the Volhynian village of Mizoch, 23 miles (37.5 km) southwest of Rovno in the Ukrainian SSR, are shot at close range.

and Bukovina, who had been expelled to Transnistria. The Jews of ODESSA, however—some eighty thousand of them—were all killed. Most of the Jews of Volhynia, Kamenets-Podolski, and Eastern Galicia were murdered during 1942 and 1943.

There were many instances of resistance during the liquidation process; tens of thousands of Jews tried to escape, there were uprisings in a number of ghettos (TUCHIN, Lutsk), and armed resistance based in fortified bunkers (BRODY, Vinniki, Yaktorov, Busk, Yavorov, Kuroviche, and ROGATIN). Many of the young people who managed to escape established Jewish fighting units, such as those led by Moshe GILDENMANN (from Korets) and the Lvov poet Jacob Schudrych. Others joined the Soviet partisan movement and fought in the catacombs of Odessa, in the Dnepropetrovsk and Kiev areas, and in the partisan formations led by Kovpak, Saburov, Fyodorov, and others. During the government-organized evacuation of the Ukraine on the eve of the German occupation, 800,000 of the eastern Ukraine's 1.5 million Jews (within the 1939 borders) were evacuated or escaped, as compared with no more than 50,000 Jews from among the 900,000 living in the western Ukraine and Bukovina. The Jews of the TRANSCARPATHIAN UKRAINE, which during the war was under Hungarian rule, were deported to AUSCHWITZ in the summer of 1944, and most of them perished there.

The German defeat at STALINGRAD in early 1943 marked the start of the Ukraine's liberation, which was completed in late August 1944, when the western Ukraine was set free. The Transcarpathian Ukraine and the Crimean peninsula were incorporated into the Ukraine in 1945 and 1954, respectively.

Following the liberation of the Ukraine, many Jews wanted to return to their homes there, but they encountered fierce antisemitism, which in Kiev assumed the dimensions of a pogrom. Many of the survivors therefore chose to settle elsewhere. The surviving remnants of the Jews of the western Ukraine and Bukovina availed themselves of the right of repatriation to Poland or Romania, and soon joined the BERIḤA (organized exodus). Many made their way to Israel between 1945 and 1948.



A memorial erected in 1970 by a local Jewish committee in memory of the Jews killed by the Germans during the Holocaust in the town of Pechera, in Vinnitsa Oblast (district). The Hebrew text reads: "Memorial Stone. Here lie the Jewish dead, brutally killed by the fascist murderers, whose hands are full of blood. Thousands of men, women, and children died for *kiddush ha-Shem* from 1941 to 1945 in the town of Pechera. May the Lord look kindly upon them and avenge the blood of His servants." The Russian text reads: "Reflect, O Man! Thousands of these miserable people did not live to see the victory over the German fascist hangmen and their helpers, who bestially cut short the breath, voice, thoughts, and life of women, children, and old men. Words cannot describe their death. They were your mother, your father, your brothers and sisters. They perished so that you could live in happiness. Do not suffer but fill yourself with hatred, and swear that you will never again allow this to happen. Perpetuate a living memory of them through your descendants. Do Not Forget! This Is Their Testament."

TABLE 1. *Jewish Population in the Ukraine, End of Sixteenth Century to 1959*

YEAR	SIZE	REMARKS
End of sixteenth century	45,000	
1648 census	150,000	On the eve of the 1648–1649 massacres there were actually over 300,000, but many evaded the census
1764 census	258,000	
1847 census	600,000	The real figure was 900,000, but again many evaded the census; also, Eastern Galicia and Bukovina were then under Habsburg rule and their Jewish population was not included
1897 census	1,927,268	Excluding Eastern Galicia and Bukovina
1926 census	1,574,391	Excluding Volhynia and Eastern Galicia (which belonged to Poland) and Bukovina (Romania)
1939 census	1,532,827	As above
Early 1941	2,400,000	Excluding Transcarpathian Ukraine and the Crimea
1959 census	840,314	

The Jewish population in the Ukraine between the end of the sixteenth century and 1959 is shown in Table 1.

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SHMUEL SPECTOR

UKRAINIAN INSURGENT ARMY. *See* Ukrainska Povstanska Armyia.

UKRAINISCHE HILFSPOLIZEI (Ukrainian Auxiliary Police). Ukrainian militia units were set up in the earliest days of the German invasion of the Soviet Union and the occupation of Ukrainian-inhabited areas. The initiative for this step came from the Ukrainian nationalists who accompanied the German forces on their entry into the Ukraine. These units were recruited either as mobile groups (*pokhidni grupy*) or at the initiative of local nationalist activists—in all cases with the full encouragement of the military governors.

As soon as the SD (Sicherheitsdienst; Security Service) had established its offices in the occupied area, it instituted a check on the political reliability of the Ukrainian militia personnel, especially the officers. On July 27, 1941, on Heinrich HIMMLER's orders, the formation of the mobile Ukrainian Auxiliary Police was launched, under the jurisdiction of the SS and German police commanders in the various Kommissariate (subdivisions of the German civil administration). The battalions were housed in police barracks in key places, and were deployed in major police operations such as the drive against the partisans. After the civil administration had been installed in August 1941 in the Galicia district and, throughout September, in the other parts of the German-occupied Ukraine, the militia units were renamed the Ukrainische Hilfspolizei Schutzmannschaft (Ukrainian Auxiliary Police Constabulary), and the individual policeman was generally referred to as a *Schutzmann* (constable). The units were subordinate to the German police and gendarmerie.

The Ukrainian Auxiliary Police were equipped with captured Soviet light weapons and wore black uniforms. On some occasions a collective fine was imposed upon the Jews in order to defray the costs of providing the police with uniforms and boots. The senior commanders of these units were Germans. In the first few days of the occupation, Ukrainian police, as an organized group or on an individual basis, participated in pogroms against the Jews, in Lvov, in the cities of Eastern Galicia, and in Volhynia. Later, when Ukrainian police escorted groups of Jews to places of work or were on guard duty in the ghettos, they extorted money from the Jews, harassed them, and frequently shot Jews merely for the sake of killing. When the ghettos were being liquidated, units of the Ukrainian Auxiliary Police took part in *Aktionen*: blockading the ghettos, searching for Jews who had gone into hiding, and hunting those who had escaped. They escorted Jews to their execution in pits and served as the guards surrounding the murder sites, barring access to them. They were known for their brutality and killed many thousands of Jews who could not keep up on the way to the execution sites, or who tried to escape.

In the spring of 1943, Ukrainian police in large numbers deserted with their arms and joined the UKRAINSKA POVSTANSKA ARMYIA (Ukrainian Insurgent Army). Others, especially those who served in the mobile battalions, retreated westward with the German forces, and in the final stage of the war were incorporated into the OSTBATAILLONE or into divisions of the Ukrainian National Army.

SHMUEL SPECTOR

UKRAINSKA POVSTANSKA ARMYIA (Ukrainian Insurgent Army; UPA), military arm of the BANDERA wing of the ORHANIZATSYIA UKRAINSKYKH NATSIONALISTIV (Organization of Ukrainian Nationalists; OUN). In the late summer of 1942, OUN emissaries, headed by Vasyl Sidor, went to Volhynia to organize armed independent Ukrainian formations in the area and found resistance groups that had already sprung up. Among them were the Poliska Sich (Unit of Polesye) units, commanded by Maksim Borovets, whose code name was Taras Bulba. The emissaries sought to unite the groups and consolidate them into a Ukrainian national army; the first unit came into being on October 14, 1942, the date on which the UPA is regarded as having been established. On December 1, 1942, when the Ukrainisches Legion (Ukrainian Legion), which included the NACHTIGALL and Roland units, was disbanded, a group of Ukrainian officers escaped to join the UPA. One of them was Roman Shukhevych, who was appointed commander of the UPA, with the code name Taras Chuprynka. In March 1943, six thousand men of the UKRAINISCHE HILFSPOLIZEI (Ukrainian Auxiliary Police) deserted from their unit in Volhynia, taking their arms with them, and joined the UPA, adding to its strength and speeding up its consolidation. In mid-1943, UPA units began to form in Eastern Galicia, Bukovina, and Ruthenia as well.

In September 1943, the UPA's organization was changed: the military staff of the OUN became the headquarters of the UPA, and Lieutenant Colonel Shukhevych ("General Chuprynka") was appointed its commander. UPA operations were split up into four areas: (a) North: Volhynia and Polesye; (b) West: Eastern Galicia, Bukovina, Ruthenia, and the San River area; (c) and (d) South and East: parts of the Soviet Ukraine in its 1939 borders. Areas (c) and (d) existed as such for a short time only, and were abolished when the Soviet army recaptured the region. UPA units were reorganized in order to improve their tactical and military flexibility and to enable them to operate as an underground. The basic unit was the battalion (*kuren*), consisting of four hundred to eight hundred fighters, which was subdivided into companies (*sotnia*), platoons (*choten*), and squads (*roy*).

Throughout 1943, the UPA fought mostly against the Soviet partisan movement. This reached a climax in the summer of that year, when the Soviet partisan corps, commanded by Gen. Sidor KOVPAK, campaigned in the Carpathian Mountains. In the course of the fighting, UPA units murdered Jews who had taken refuge in the forests and in villages. In March the UPA also embarked upon the mass murder of Poles, first in Volhynia and later in Eastern Galicia. The number of victims among the Poles is estimated at forty thousand.

In the second half of 1944 the UPA began to attack the German army, seizing equipment and capturing soldiers in the rear of Ger-

man combat units. The Germans reacted by launching large-scale raids. On June 15, 1944, a council was established, the Ukrainska Holovna Vyzvolna Rada (Supreme Ukrainian Council of Liberation; UHVR), to serve the UPA as its political and public framework. Stefan Bandera's supporters were in the majority in the UHVR, and at the end of July it signed an agreement with the Germans on a joint struggle against the Soviet Union. The agreement ended the clashes between UPA and German forces, and that August the Germans began supplying the UPA with arms and ammunition, equipment, and training materials. Prior to the German retreat in mid-1944, the UPA controlled central and southern Volhynia and wide areas of Eastern Galicia, such as the Bobrka, Przemyśl, Berezhany, and Rogatin subdistricts.

When the Red Army liberated the western Ukraine (between July 22 and October 3, 1944), the UPA entered into a bitter struggle with the Soviet authorities. At the beginning of 1945, it began an armed conflict with the Polish authorities in the southern part of the Lublin district and in the San River area. Both the Soviets and the Poles had to divert large security forces, as well as military units, to deal with the UPA. UPA forces ambushed and killed Soviet general Nikolai Vatutin, the officer commanding the First Ukrainian Front (March 2, 1944), and Polish general Karol Swierczewski, one of the commanders of the Polish army (March 28, 1947), as well as large numbers of officers, policemen, and civilian officials.

It was not until some time after the end of the war, in the summer of 1947, that the Soviets, Poles, and Czechs coordinated their operations against the UPA and dealt it the decisive blow, in which General Chuprynka (Shukhevych) was killed. By the beginning of 1948, the organization was totally liquidated; most of its men fell in battle, and only a few groups, each numbering several dozen, were able to make their way through Czechoslovakia to the American zone in Germany. The Soviets exiled tens of thousands of Ukrainians and emptied entire villages of their inhabitants; the Poles transferred all the Ukrainians from the San River area and the southern Lublin district into the German areas that it had annexed in the west.

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SHMUEL SPECTOR

UMSCHLAGPLATZ (transfer point), the area separating the WARSAW ghetto from the Polish part of the city, on the corner of Zamenhof and Niska streets. From this location, hundreds of thousands of Jews were deported to extermination camps and concentration camps—mostly to TREBLINKA—from the Warsaw ghetto between July and September 1942 and January and May 1943.

The Warsaw *Umschlagplatz* (or *Umschlag*, as many referred to it) was, until the mass deportation in the summer of 1942, the only official transit point for the transfer of manufactured goods and commodities to and from the ghetto. It had a railway siding and a special 120-man Transferstelle (Transfer Office), run by the Germans, supervising the movement of individuals and goods through the junction.

When the deportations were launched on July 22, 1942, the place ceased to function as a link between the ghetto and the outside world and became the *Umschlag*, the spot where the deportees from the ghetto were assembled for deportation. SS-Obergruppenführer Karl WOLFF, of Heinrich HIMMLER's staff, was charged with providing a daily train for the deportations from Warsaw. In a letter dated July 28, 1942, Theodor GANZENMÜLLER, the *Staatssekretär* (director general) of the Reich Ministry of Transportation, stated: "Since July 22, a freight train with five thousand Jews has been making its way daily from Warsaw to Treblinka via Malkinia." Next to the *Umschlag* was a courtyard surrounded by a high fence, and in its center was a vacant building that had once served as a hospital. The Jews designated for deportation were rounded up in the streets of the ghetto and marched under guard to the *Umschlag*, where they were kept sitting on the



Jews huddled on the ground at the *Umschlagplatz*, awaiting deportation.



A memorial, dedicated in April 1988, at the site of the *Umschlagplatz* in the Warsaw ghetto. [Geoffrey Wigoder]

along ghetto lines and became the point from which the Luxembourg Jews were deported to the east. The first transport (and the largest, comprising 324 persons) left for Łódź on October 16, 1941. Altogether, 674 persons were deported on eight transports, the last of which left on September 28, 1943. Only 36 persons out of those deported survived; all the rest perished.

Luxembourg became *judenrein* ("cleansed of Jews") except for a few Jews who had gone into hiding or were married to non-Jews. Once the deportations started, the chances of Jews' being saved were poor. The country was small; it had a relatively large German population; the Luxembourgers were indifferent to the fate of the Jews, and while there were few instances of open hostility or informing, neither were there many efforts to hide Jews or otherwise help them, despite the prevailing opposition to the occupying power. The splendid synagogue, dating from 1894, was destroyed in August 1943 by an Italian contractor—according to the Luxembourgers, no local contractor was prepared to take on the job of demolition. With the sizable emigrations and escapes, as well as deportations, finally only a small, leaderless, and mostly aged community was left, spared by the Germans, who presumably assumed that it would die out before long.

Allied forces liberated Luxembourg on September 9, 1944. Of the 3,500 Jews who had been living there in 1939, 1,555 were saved, by fleeing, hiding, or surviving in the camps; 1,945 were murdered, a third in the extermination camps to which they were deported, the rest in the duchy itself or in other occupied countries to which they fled or were deported for extermination. Only a few Jews returned to Luxembourg after the war.

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LVOV (Pol., Lwów; Ger., Lemberg), city in Eastern Galicia, now capital of an oblast (district) in the western part of the Ukrainian SSR. An industrial and cultural center, Lvov was founded in the thirteenth century. From 1772 to 1918 it was under Austrian rule, and in the interwar period it was a provincial capital in independent Poland. The population was 340,000 in 1939, when its Jewish population of 110,000 made it the third largest Jewish community in the country. Active antisemitism was widespread, one reason being that the Poles and the Ukrainians each accused the Jews of helping the other. On the eve of World War II, Jewish Lvov was a center of culture and education and of vigorous political activity by the Orthodox Jews (including Hasidim), Zionists, Bundists, and Communists.

Three weeks after the outbreak of the war, the Soviets entered Lvov and annexed it to the USSR, together with the rest of Eastern Galicia. The Soviet authorities disbanded the community institutions; outlawed political parties; nationalized factories, large holdings, and wholesale businesses; restricted the retail trade; and organized the artisans into cooperative societies. Cultural life, however, remained lively. Some 100,000 Jewish refugees from German-occupied western Poland crowded into the city; in the summer of 1940

LVOV





During the Lvov pogrom of June 30 to July 3, 1941, a Ukrainian rabble rampaged through the city, ravishing, abusing, and murdering Jews. Here, German soldiers film the pogrom.

many of them were expelled to the remote regions of the USSR. Following the German invasion of the Soviet Union on June 22, 1941, about 10,000 Jews escaped from Lvov, together with the Red Army, which was retreating from the city.

On June 30, 1941, the Germans occupied Lvov. The killing of Jews began that same day, committed by Einsatzgruppe C (*see* EINSATZGRUPPEN), German soldiers, Ukrainian nationalists, and plain rabble. The Germans and the Ukrainians spread a rumor that the Jews had taken part in the execution of Ukrainian political prisoners whose bodies had been discovered in the dungeons of the NKVD (the Soviet political police). In four days of rioting, ending on July 3, 1941, four thousand Jews were murdered. On July 8, Jews aged fourteen and over were ordered to wear on their right arm a white badge with a blue Star of David (*see* BADGE, JEWISH). From July 25 to 27 the Ukrainians again went on the rampage, murdering two thousand more Jews. These pogroms became known as the PETLIURA DAYS. At the end of July 1941, a temporary Jewish committee was established, made up of five prominent community leaders. Within a short time the committee was enlarged and became a JUDENRAT (Jewish Council), with Dr. Joseph Parnes as chairman. Throughout the period he was in office, Parnes stood up for the interests of the community. That August, the Jews of Lvov were ordered to pay a ransom of 20 million rubles. Hostages were taken to ensure payment, and were killed even though the money was paid at the appointed time.

During the summer of 1941, Jewish property was plundered, the Jews were put on forced labor, synagogues were burned down, and Jewish cemeteries were destroyed. In the fall, the Germans intensifed their demands for Jewish forced labor for road work and for the construction of bridges and military camps. In September a Jewish police force was established, under the Judenrat. Its duties, in the initial period, consisted of keeping order and ensuring cleanliness in the streets



Ukrainian youths molest a Jewish woman during the pogrom of June 30 to July 3, 1941.

inhabited by Jews, confiscating valuables at the behest of the Germans, and escorting persons who were on their way to forced labor. Parnes, the chairman of the Judenrat, was killed by the Germans at the end of October, when he refused to hand over Jews who were to be moved to the JANÓWSKA camp, then being established. His place was taken by Abraham Rotfeld.

On November 8, 1941, the Germans published an order on the establishment of a ghetto, giving the Jews until December 15 to move into the area allocated for this purpose. In the course of the move to the ghetto, five thousand elderly and sick Jews were killed as they were about to cross the bridge on Peltewna Street. The move was not completed by the allotted time, but many thousands of Jews were herded into the Zamarstynów and Kleparów quarters, in which the ghetto was set up. During the winter of 1941–1942, the Germans began sending Jews to labor camps at Laszki Murowane, Hermanów, Vinniki, Jaktorów, Kamionka Strumilowa, and Skole. In February 1942 Abraham Rotfeld died, and the Germans appointed Henryk Landsberg to take his place as Judenrat chairman.

In March 1942, the Judenrat was ordered to prepare lists of Jews who were to be sent to the east, allegedly to work there. A delegation of rabbis appealed to Landsberg to refuse to cooperate with the Germans in preparing the lists and rounding up the people on them. Landsberg refused, claiming that if the Germans themselves were to carry out the deportation, far more people would be killed. In this *Aktion,* which began on March 19 and continued until the end of the month, fifteen thousand Jews were taken to the BEŁŻEC extermination camp.

In the spring of that year, the Jews of Lvov tried to find jobs in factories that performed an essential function for the German economy, hoping thereby to be exempt from future deportations. On July 8, seven thousand Jews who could not produce a certificate of employment were seized by the Germans and deported to the Janówska camp, where they were murdered. A month later, on August 10, the "Large *Aktion*" was launched, lasting until August 23, in the course of which fifty thousand persons were sent to Bełżec. At the beginning of September 1942 Jews who were still living outside the ghetto were herded inside, the ghetto area was greatly reduced, and what remained was sealed off. Landsberg and a group of Judenrat employees, as well as the Jewish policemen, were hanged by the Germans. Eduard Eberson was appointed Judenrat chairman in place of Landsberg.

In November, five thousand to seven thousand "unproductive" persons were removed from the ghetto, some of them to be sent to the Janówska camp and the rest to Bełżec. Toward the end of 1942, the ghetto came to resemble a labor camp. The inhabitants were assigned lodging in buildings according to their place of employment. Those who had no employment card in their possession were hunted down systematically and, when caught, were put to death in groups.

In January 1943 the ghetto officially became a labor camp, a *Julag* (*Judenlager,* or "Jewish camp"). At the beginning of that month, ten thousand Jews were executed, having first been classified as "illegals" because they could show no employment card. On January 30 the Judenrat was disbanded, and most of its members were murdered. An *Oberjude* (chief Jew) was appointed head of the *Julag* to serve as liaison "between the surviving inmates of the ghetto-camp and the authorities." On March 17, fifteen hundred Jews were murdered, most of them in the Piasky area near the city, and at the same time some eight hundred Jews were deported to AUSCHWITZ. In May 1943 the slaughter of the remnant of the community was speeded up. *Selektionen* were made at the places where the Jews were working, and only those classified as "vitally important" were permitted to stay; the rest were killed.

On June 1, 1943, the final *Aktion* was undertaken, to liquidate the ghetto-*Julag*. German and Ukrainian police units surrounded the ghetto and closed every avenue of escape. Additional police units entered the ghetto to round up all the inhabitants. At this point the Germans and their Ukrainian helpers encountered resistance; hand grenades and Molotov cocktails were thrown at them and they were fired on. Nine persons, Germans and Ukrainians, were killed, and twenty were wounded. The Germans did not dare enter the buildings; instead, they blew them up or set them on fire, in order to kill those who were inside or force them to come out of their hiding places and give themselves up.

In the course of liquidating the ghetto, the Germans seized seven thousand Jews, whom they deported to the Janówska camp, where they were soon put to death. In the ghetto area itself about three thousand Jews met their death. The liquidation process came to an end on June 2, 1943, but as late as July, searches were still being made for Jews hiding in the ghetto ruins.

As of mid-1942, and especially in the wake of the "Large *Aktion,*" efforts were made in the ghetto to organize an underground. Groups of young people tried to obtain weapons so as to be able to offer armed resistance. Toward the end of 1942, one such group attempted to escape from the ghetto into the nearby forest, where they planned to set up resistance centers against the Germans and their helpers. The attempt failed, and most of the members of the group were killed en route. Nevertheless, more efforts were made to reach the forests situated in the BRODY area. In one such attempt the vehicle in which one of the groups was traveling was apprehended, and all of its passengers fell into German hands. The driver, a Pole who had undertaken to transport the group to their destination, was suspected of having informed on them to the Germans.

While there was no organized and consolidated resistance movement in the Lvov ghetto, in many instances various forms of action were taken against the Germans and their helpers. Attempts to organize resistance to the Germans were made in one of the Jewish police units. An organized resistance group headed by Tadek Drotorski was active in one of the labor camps, on Czwartakow Street, where hundreds of Jews were employed. When the Germans picked up the group's trail, in March 1943, Drotorski shot and killed a German policeman. An underground news sheet was published in the ghetto by Ha-Shomer ha-Tsa'ir followers and edited by Michael Hofman.

The month of March 1943 witnessed more and more attempts to break out of the *Julag* in order to reach the forest and establish contact with the partisans active in the area. Among those who made such attempts was the Yiddish poet Jacob Schudrych, who succeeded in reaching the forest, only to find his death there.

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