WOMEN UNDER NAZI PERSECUTION:

A Primary Source Supplement Based on Documents from the International Tracing Service
The forced labor of concentration camp inmates was an integral part of Nazi Germany’s system of conquest, exploitation, and persecution. The Płaszów camp was built under the authority of the SS (Schutzstaffel, the elite guard of the Nazi state) on the site of two Jewish cemeteries in a southeastern district of Kraków, Poland in 1942. The camp complex contained separate sections for Poles and Jews, who were further separated into men’s and women’s subdivisions. At Płaszów, civilian businessmen, including Oskar Schindler, operated industrial projects and exploited the forced labor of camp inmates. These women are pulling a rail cart filled with stones from the camp quarry past women’s barracks. This photograph was taken sometime in 1943 or 1944, which makes it likely that these women had been selected as able-bodied forced laborers during the liquidation of the Kraków ghetto in March 1943. German authorities murdered over 4,000 Jewish men, women, and children in that action and relocated approximately 2,000 of the able-bodied survivors of the Kraków ghetto to work in Płaszów, where conditions were horrible and prisoners were often summarily shot. Płaszów camp commandant Amon Göth, who was notoriously featured in the film “Schindler’s List,” was tried by the Polish Supreme National Tribunal (Najwyższy Trybunał Narodowy—NTN) and found guilty of membership in a criminal association and for shared intent to commit mass murder. He was hanged on September 13, 1946.

Photo credit: United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, courtesy of Leopold Page Photographic Collection.
WOMEN UNDER NAZI PERSECUTION:
A Primary Source Supplement Based on Documents from the International Tracing Service

A PROJECT OF

UNITED STATES HOLOCAUST MEMORIAL MUSEUM
JACK, JOSEPH AND MORTON MANDEL CENTER FOR ADVANCED HOLOCAUST STUDIES

ITS
International Tracing Service
Service International de Recherches
Internationaler Suchdienst

The Wiener Library
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AND BY EDIE AND DAVID BLITZSTEIN, IN MEMORY OF KURT AND THEA SONNENMARK.
HUNGARIAN JEWISH WOMEN AND CHILDREN WALK TO THE GAS CHAMBERS OF AUSCHWITZ-BIRKENAU SHORTLY AFTER THEIR ARRIVAL. This photograph is one of nearly 200 images depicting the arrival of Hungarian Jews at Auschwitz-Birkenau. Two SS officers who worked in the camp’s photographic laboratory took the pictures in late May or early June 1944 and bound them in an album intended for presentation to the camp commandant. The so-called Auschwitz Album was discovered by former prisoner Lili Jacob (later Zelmanovic Meier) after the war in nearby SS quarters and was later presented as evidence in the Frankfurt Auschwitz trials of 1963-1965. The women and children in this photograph, deported from Subcarpathian Rus (located in wartime Hungary, now Ukraine), walk along barbed wire barricades in front of prisoner barracks on their way to the gas chambers and crematoria. Because the Auschwitz camp complex contained labor camps as well as facilities for industrialized mass murder, SS doctors and camp guards selected able-bodied adults upon their arrival to exploit for forced labor. The elderly, small children, and infants were therefore deemed useless and sent directly to the gas chamber. Many women refused to be separated from their children and chose instead to die with them. Note the women and children pictured above in heavy winter clothing despite the summer weather. Urging Jews to bring their valuables with them also facilitated systematic theft by the Nazis and their collaborators.

Photo credit: Wiener Library
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WHAT IS THE INTERNATIONAL TRACING SERVICE (ITS)?

The Allied powers established the International Tracing Service (ITS) after World War II to help reunite families separated during the war and to trace missing family members. Millions of pages of captured documentation have been repurposed for tracing, and the ITS has continued to grow as new records, both originals and copies, have been deposited there. For decades, the ITS strove not only to clarify the fates of victims of the Nazis but also to provide survivors and victims’ families with the documentation necessary for indemnification claims. In November 2007, the archive was made accessible to scholars and other researchers, and both tracing and scholarly research continues today onsite at the ITS in Bad Arolsen, Germany, as well as at digital copyholders around the world. The ITS Digital Archive is currently available in Bad Arolsen, Brussels, Jerusalem, London, Luxembourg, Paris, Warsaw, and Washington, DC.

USING THE ITS ARCHIVE TO RESEARCH WOMEN UNDER NAZI PERSECUTION

The digitization of the ITS Archive has opened new potential for research beyond the collections’ original intended purpose of tracing individuals. One can explore themes through indexed attributes, a keyword search function, and optical character recognition digital scanning tools. Such possibilities exist and function only because of digitization, enabling access to original material by place, topic, or even a particular word or terminology.

This primary source supplement, “Women under Nazi Persecution,” illustrates how subjects that span the varied and vast records of the ITS can be mined and culled together in revealing and educational ways. Much of the material is in German and thus it is necessary to start with terms and subject areas as they might be known in the German language of the twentieth century and in the terminology of the 1930s and 1940s. To find materials related to forced sex labor, for example, one must know the 1940s term(s) for so-called prostitutes (the Nazis used such euphemisms to refer to women forced into sex slavery). Entering into the search tool the era’s pejorative German word for prostitute, “Dirne” (etymologically, a female servant), or its related terms “Dirnen,” and “Dirnenhaus,” yields a wealth of documentation on the topic of forced sex labor. “Prostituierte” and other derivations of that word do not. Similarly, to find records regarding abortion, one must use the search term “Schwangerschaftsunterbrechung,” and to find more information about the concentration camp “brothels” in general, the German translation “Bordell” yields many results.

Thus for thematic searches, one should be familiar with the terminology of the time and have some working knowledge about the subject area under investigation. Prepared with information related to the specific sites at which women were interned, for example, a researcher can also peruse sub-collections of materials by camp or prison name (for example, Polte-Magdeburg, as with Document 2). And a search for documents and letters created by women (Document 7) or for women’s names among listings of prisoner effects (Document 3) reveals items that by virtue of their creators’ or owners’ identity and gender have to do with particularly female topics. The scholarly potential of the ITS Archive has grown and multiplied in the few short years of its availability to researchers, and increased access and developing technology indicate that this will continue into the future.
The Nazis oppressed, persecuted, and ultimately sought to annihilate European Jewry and the Roma and Sinti in a quest to strengthen and propagate a superior German “race” and an ideal “Aryan” community. This campaign also included policies to forcibly sterilize and “euthanize” mentally and physically disabled individuals deemed “lives unworthy of life,” unfit to exist within the so-called master race. Slavic peoples resident in the lands that the Nazis conquered and occupied also were considered Untermenschen (subhuman), exploited for forced labor, and murdered en masse. The Nazis targeted their political opponents and members of groups with religious and pacifist views that conflicted with National Socialist ideology, as well as those possessing “asocial” traits considered genetically based and anyone exhibiting social behavior that did not conform to Nazi ideals or requirements.

Although the Nazis targeted both men and women for persecution because of their beliefs, actions, or supposed racial inferiority, they viewed their victims through a gendered lens, a perspective that directly affected their treatment. The centrality of concerns about race and eugenics in Nazi ideology foregrounded women’s biological roles as reproducers in decisions concerning their treatment, both for those deemed to be of biologically “good stock” and those who were not. As German historian Gisela Bock first noted, the Nazi regime was both racist and sexist in that its primary concern with women was their role as mothers.

The Nazis encouraged the procreation of “Aryan” men and women to enhance the quality and quantity of “good racial stock” among Germans. They achieved this with financial incentives (initially paid only to men) and honors and privileges that promoted motherhood and large families. The Nazis preferred such alternatives to women competing within the labor force, particularly as the effects of the Depression lingered. Later, labor shortages caused by the draft of German men into the military forced a turn to the conscription of foreign laborers, which first focused on male workers and the use of POWs. But as the war progressed, increasing numbers of Polish and Soviet women were brought into the Greater German Reich to fill agricultural, domestic, and industrial labor shortages. Considered less subversive and more compliant than men, female forced laborers could be fully exploited with long night work, for example, as they enjoyed neither rights nor employee benefits. Women comprised one-third of foreign forced laborers registered in the Reich by August 1944.

The Nazis brought foreign labor into the wartime Reich while they simultaneously resettled Germans in the East in the name of Lebensraum, a policy beset with contradictions. Transplanted Germans

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2 Ulrich Herbert, Hitler’s Foreign Workers: Enforced Foreign Labor in Germany under the Third Reich (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997), 296.
entered into relationships in the East that resulted in pregnancies, just as foreign laborers of allegedly inferior races who had been deported to work in Germany developed sexual relationships with Germans of “good stock.” In both cases, the resultant pregnancies “corrupted” the German gene pool and created two dilemmas: decreased labor productivity during the latter phase of a female worker’s pregnancy and a need to decide the fate of these “mixed” progeny. The Nazis compelled many forced laborers to abort their pregnancies, a procedure not available to German women. Mothers were forced to surrender children considered to be of “inferior racial stock” to facilities in which they were murdered, often by starvation. If Nazi officials deemed a child to be in possession of enough “good stock,” however, they might be raised as Germans by German foster or adoptive parents but rarely with the permission of their biological mothers from whom they had been taken.

Gender also played a significant role in the experiences of Jewish victims of the Nazis. Historian Judith Baumel has described the particular predicament of Jewish women as a “double jeopardy,” and stressed that while death was similar for men and women, survival was different. Women comprised a disproportionate amount of Jews in ghettos in the Nazi occupied East, where most were confined before their deportation to labor or death camps. Many Jewish men had fled, gone into hiding, or joined the partisans, while women had been more likely to stay behind to tend to young, elderly, or ill family members and thus comprised a majority of those who fell under Nazi domination and were deported to ghettos and concentration camps. In addition, women typically live longer than men and at that time were in the slight majority in the overall population. All of these factors contributed to a greater proportion of women deported to death camps, along with their children. Men were more likely to have been sent to labor camps.

With the exception of a family camp at Auschwitz for Sinti and Roma and one for a select group of Jews in Theresienstadt, the Nazis immediately segregated men and women upon arrival at concentration camps. Age and outward signs of health factored into a Nazi official’s selection of both Jewish men and women either to live (as a slave laborer) or to be murdered upon arrival at a death camp or thereafter during periodic roll calls and inspections, but gender differences also arose in the assessment of one’s physical condition. Traces of brute toughness might advantage a man, for example, while scars or bruising could cause a camp guard to consider a woman injury prone, and thus the same marks might condemn her to the gas chambers. Women of all ages were sent to their deaths more often than men, also because they were more likely to be with and to stay with small children and frail, elderly relatives at the time of selection.

Interestingly, women who survived the initial selection apparently benefited from a somewhat better chance of surviving the poor sanitary conditions and malnutrition prevalent in the death camps. Some social scientists have argued that this was due to women’s domestic skills, their tendencies to form small, family-like support groups, and a proclivity to share scarce resources. Men, in contrast, more often had been socialized to act and to be on their own; but in the system of subordination and oppression found in Nazi concentration camps, resourcefulness and solidarity might well have improved their chances for survival. Differences in the kinds of work assigned to female prisoners and the punishments enacted upon them also provided them better possibilities to endure. The Nazis regarded isolation as an “effective” punitive measure for women, while they deemed food deprivation the best way to “break” men. These factors combined to foster the survival of a majority of Jewish women forced into slave labor, but overall the Nazis murdered more Jewish women than men. Women comprised some 40 percent of Jewish survivors, a


number that corresponded with the percentage of women among the surviving remnant of European Jews in the Displaced Persons (DP) camps set up by the Allies for survivors after the war.\footnote{Baumel, Double Jeopardy, 31f.}

Women experienced humiliation and shame differently than men, and especially those religious Jews who had led comparatively sheltered lives. Upon arrival at concentration camps, men and women often were shaved of all body hair while forced to straddle chairs, naked. They endured the examination of their body cavities, as they were searched — mainly by men — for hidden valuables and other illicit materials. The loss of hair and the sexual vulnerability that nudity represented for women, alongside frequent taunting and touching, added to the trauma and shock of arrival at a camp.

In all incarceration and forced labor situations, women were vulnerable to rape and sexual abuse. Some were compelled to trade sexual favors for food or better work details in attempts to increase their chances of survival and that of their immediate social or familial circle. The Nazis established so-called brothels in concentration camps and recruited non-Jewish female prisoners to work in them as forced “prostitutes” for Wehrmacht soldiers, SS officers, and male prisoners. Visits to such “bordellos” served not only as an incentive for productivity or a morale builder for men, but also as a potential “cure” for homosexual prisoners the Nazis wanted to “re-educate” to heterosexuality, lest they waste their potential to breed. Women forced to serve as sex laborers were largely recruited from the Ravensbrück concentration camp, usually with an assurance of release after six months of their “service.” No such promises were kept, nor was the official policy upheld to ensure that only former prostitutes worked in camp brothels. When these women later returned to Ravensbrück, some were infected with venereal diseases and for this reason found themselves selected for deportation to death camps.

Other women and male inmates frequently treated such forced sex workers with derision, condemning them as immoral and promiscuous, both during and after the war.\footnote{Claus Füllberg-Stolberg, Martina Jung, Renate Riebe, and Martina Scheitenberger, eds. Frauen in Konzentrationslagern: Bergen-Belsen; Ravensbrück (Bremen: Edition Temmen, 1994), 10. See also in the same volume, Christa Schulz, “Weibliche Häftlinge aus Ravensbrück in Bordellen der Männerkonzentrationslager,” 135–46.}

Perceptions of women definitively shaped their experiences under Nazi persecution. In the National Socialist view, certain women carried the responsibility for reproducing and perpetuating a \textit{Volksgemeinschaft} (literally, people’s community; a central concept in National Socialist thought regarding the unity of the so-called race of the national-German-Aryan community), while at the same time others were worthy only of slave labor, sexual exploitation, and death. A biological role as a potential or actual mother was very much bound to women’s experiences of persecution under the Nazis, as well as to their own gendered expectations, those of Nazi perpetrators, and those of fellow victims, male and female. Such views shaped expectations of their capacity to work, the punishments they suffered, and the time of their deaths.
MEMO REGARDING THE APPLICATION FOR ABORTION MADE BY POLISH FORCED LABORER BARBARA KOSCIELNIAK

This is an example of a typical memo issued by the Reichskommissar für die Festigung deutschen Volkstums [Reich Commissioner for the Strengthening of German Nationhood] to document a foreign forced laborer’s application for the termination of pregnancy, the decision issued by the responsible authority, and any instruction about carrying out orders. In this case, the expected child of these two specific Polish laborers was deemed to be of good racial stock and therefore the mother’s request for abortion was denied.
MEMO REGARDING THE APPLICATION FOR ABORTION MADE BY POLISH FORCED LABORER BARBARA KOSCIELNIAK

TRANSLATION

Higher SS- and Police Leader
Military District XIII
Representative of the Reich Commissioner for the Strengthening of German Nationhood
Nürnberg, Ernst-vom-Rath-Allee 24

Nürnberg, 15 April 1944
Tel: 44 241

To the
NSDAP-Regional Office of Mainfranken,
Office for the People’s Welfare,
Würzburg,
Fritz Schillinger-Haus.

Subject: Treatment of foreign female laborers’ children born within the Reich

The Pole Barbara Koscielniak, born 4 March 1918 in Pomicze, resident of Würzburg-Frauenland, Zeppelin-Strasse (Polish Camp), is expecting a child (6th month), the father of which is the Pole Zbigniew Komski, born 22 October 1921 in Przemysl, resident of Würzburg, Eckstrasse (Polish Camp).

The mother’s application to request termination of the pregnancy has not been approved because their offspring is expected to be of good racial stock.

I request that after the child’s birth it be placed in the care of the NSV [Nationalsozialistische Volkswohlfahrt; National Socialist People’s Welfare] for racially valuable children.

Signed
(illegible signature)
SS-Captain
MEMO REGARDING THE APPLICATION FOR ABORTION MADE BY POLISH FORCED LABORER BARBARA KOSCIELNIAK

SUGGESTED APPROACHES TO THIS DOCUMENT

QUESTIONS FOR ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION:

• What is the subject of this memorandum, and how does this topic reflect the doctrines of Nazi racial ideology?

• When and where was this memorandum written? What might the date suggest about the document? Does this indicate anything about the development of Nazi policy?

• Who authored this memo, and what was his or her position in the Third Reich? What can the purpose of the author’s office tell us about this document?

• Why was the case decided as it was? What does this reveal about Nazi concepts of race?

• Consider why this application was rejected and how it might have been answered if the parents had not been deemed to be “of good racial stock.” Who was considered “racially valuable” by the Nazis, and who was not? Does this document reveal inconsistencies within this racial ideology?

FURTHER RESEARCH TOPICS RELATED TO THIS DOCUMENT:

• Nazi reproductive policies in the Reich and in the occupied territories

• The treatment and experiences of female foreign forced laborers in the Third Reich

• Interactions between foreign forced laborers under Nazi oppression

• The children of foreign forced laborers under the Nazis
Pictured at the very center of the group above is Elcia Helga Rechenman (later Elcia Berger), dressed in a gray sweater and dark kerchief, empty-handed with her arms at her sides. Elcia was fourteen years old when this photograph was taken in 1941. The Wehrmacht (the German army) occupied her hometown of Puławy, Poland in mid-September 1939 during the first weeks of the war. When the German authorities declared that Puławy must become Judenfrei (literally, “free of Jews”) that December, they deported the Rechenman family and incarcerated them in the newly-created ghetto for Jews in the nearby town of Dęblin. In 1942, Elcia’s parents and her disabled sister were deported from Dęblin to the killing centers of Sobibor and Treblinka. Elcia and her older sister remained as forced laborers on the large airfield at Dęblin until the camp was liquidated. In July 1944, the Red Army approached and the German authorities transferred Elcia and approximately 1,200 others to work in a munitions factory hundreds of kilometers to the west in Częstochowa. Elcia’s sister was likely among the dozens murdered during the liquidation of the Dęblin labor camp. Advancing Soviet forces liberated Elcia from Częstochowa on January 16, 1945, one day after her eighteenth birthday. After waiting in a Displaced Persons camp in Regensburg, Germany for several years, she immigrated to the United States in 1952. This photograph was donated to the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum by one of Elcia’s children.
OVERVIEW OF BUCHENWALD SUBCAMP POLTE-MAGDEBURG

INMATE POPULATION CHANGES

This document shows changes in the prisoner-worker headcount at the women’s labor camp at Polte-Magdeburg, a subcamp of Buchenwald, over a three-month period (August - November 1944). This camp was established on 14 June 1944 at the Polte-Werke factory and was first administered by the Ravensbrück concentration camp and later fell under the control of the Buchenwald camp system. In September 1944, 60 percent of the women incarcerated there were Soviet civilian laborers, many of whom had previously attempted to escape imprisonment. The Nazis seem to have concentrated them together, first at Ravensbrück and then at Polte-Magdeburg. Many of the other prisoners there had been arrested during the August 1944 Warsaw Uprising.

Overview of Buchenwald subcamp Polte-Magdeburg inmate population changes, 4 November 1944, 1.1.5.0/82073731/ITS Digital Archive.
Overview of commando strength to date according to reports accessible

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<th>Date</th>
<th>Events</th>
<th>Names</th>
<th>Prisoner No.</th>
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<td>2 escapees subtracted</td>
<td>Nikiforowa, Wera</td>
<td>33,111</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jefremowa, Walja</td>
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<td>21. 8.</td>
<td>5 escapees subtracted</td>
<td>Kudlik, Tamara</td>
<td>32,813</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Timofejewa, Nina</td>
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<td>Melnikowa, Kowdija</td>
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<td>Kulakowa, Lidia</td>
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<td>Isolowa, Walja</td>
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<td>26. 8.</td>
<td>1 escapee subtracted</td>
<td>Kolonowa, Anna</td>
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<td>Litwinowa, Lina</td>
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<td>Karpenko, Fedosija</td>
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<td>22. 9.</td>
<td>2 recaptured escapees added</td>
<td>Maur, Olga</td>
<td>33,600</td>
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<td>Karpenko, Fedosija</td>
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<td>1 escapee subtracted</td>
<td>Achtyrskaja, Zofia</td>
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<td>Gerasitschkina, Raisa</td>
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<td>Kalinina, Walentina</td>
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<td>Masłowska, Maria</td>
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OVERVIEW OF BUHENVALD SUBCAMP POLTE-MAGDEBURG
INMATE POPULATION CHANGES

SUGGESTED APPROACHES TO THIS DOCUMENT

QUESTIONS FOR ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION:

• Who authored this document, and to whom was it directed? Are there clues that reveal why he or she might have written it?

• Why would the SS administration focus on escapes from the subcamp?

• What might be inferred from the number of prisoner escapes over such a relatively short period of time?

• What does this document suggest about the escapees and their coping mechanisms? What does it suggest about the administration and structure of the camp?

• Note that Olga Maur escaped from the camp with other female forced laborers on two separate occasions. With whom did she escape, and with whom was she recaptured? What might this suggest about these escapees’ survival strategies?

FURTHER RESEARCH TOPICS RELATED TO THIS DOCUMENT:

• The demographics and possibilities of resistance among women in forced labor subcamps and work commandos

• Interactions between prisoners in concentration camps and those in attached and co-located forced labor camps

• Prisoner escape from concentration and labor camps

• Camp administration practices and the monitoring of changes in the inmate population
FEMALE FOREIGN FORCED LABORERS HELD IN THE STADELHEIM PRISON WORK IN A FACTORY OWNED BY THE AGFA CAMERA COMPANY. The economy of Nazi Germany relied on a widespread system of foreign forced labor, as the war placed massive strains on the available workforce. The regime that had promised to purge the nation of foreign elements paradoxically brought some seven and a half million foreign forced laborers to work in the Reich during the war. The Nazis’ hierarchical racial system branded these foreign workers “Inferior Slavs” and determined their living and working conditions. The approximately three million Soviet civilian Ostarbeiter (forced laborers from the East; literally, “eastern workers”) among the forced laborers occupied the lowest positions within this structure, living and working in difficult conditions. These Ostarbeiterinnen (female forced laborers from the East) are working on the assembly line of a munitions factory operated by the civilian business AGFA. The firm was one of several German companies that merged to form IG Farben, the infamous chemical conglomerate that provided Auschwitz camp authorities with the deadly Zyklon-B used to murder Jews in gas chambers. This photograph, taken in May 1943, was presented as evidence in the trial of IG Farben executives after the war. The woman wearing a dress (top left) seems to be a German civilian. Forced laborers often worked side by side with German civilians, but by war’s end forced laborers comprised 60 percent of the work force supporting the war effort.

Photo credit: National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, MD.
The International Tracing Service collections include more than paper documents. Within ITS physical holdings one can also explore unclaimed prisoner effects from a number of Nazi concentration camps and prisons.

Soviet forced laborer Alexandra Belezka owned the cosmetic compact pictured here. Belezka had moved through the Nazi camp system from Ravensbrück to Flossenbürg and then to Neuengamme, where she arrived on 18 February 1945.
This cosmetic compact was among her possessions the Nazis claimed and kept with other prisoner effects at Neuengamme.

When ITS employees disassembled Belezka’s compact to take photographs for the digital collection, they found an address written on a scrap of paper hidden under the powder insert. No information is known about this address and no further evidence exists in the ITS archive about Belezka’s fate.
IMAGES OF SOVIET FORCED LABORER
ALEXANDRA BELEZKA’S PERSONAL EFFECTS

SUGGESTED APPROACHES TO THIS DOCUMENT

QUESTIONS FOR ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION:

• Why might Belezka have taken this cosmetic compact with her to a concentration camp?
• Can an object like this reveal anything about the life or character of its owner?
• Why might Belezka have kept an address on the scrap of paper hidden under the powder?
• Why did concentration camp officials collect and save prisoners’ belongings?
• How might a researcher use an object like this in his or her work?

FURTHER RESEARCH TOPICS RELATED TO THIS DOCUMENT:

• Prisoners’ personal effects and other artifacts from the Nazi camp system
• The smuggling and hiding of items prohibited by Nazi authorities
• The various methods of resistance within the camp system
• The practice and preservation of female identity among camp inmates
This document describes the guidelines and regulations for the treatment of female foreign forced laborers who became pregnant during their incarceration and the children resulting from such pregnancies. The author indicated a problem with the imprecise implementation of official procedure and thus the necessity for this second memorandum on the topic to explicitly state the prescribed treatment of these women and the termination (or not) of their pregnancies.
und auf Wunsch der Schwangeren die Schwangerschaft unterbrochen. Zur Erledigung solcher Wünsche soll folgendermaßen verfahren werden:


Der Reichskommissar hat angeordnet, daß die Zustimmung zur Schwangerschaftsunterbrechung bei Ostarbeiterinnen seitens der Dienststelle des Reichskommissars für die Festigung deutschen Volkstums hiermit von vornherein als erteilt in den Fällen gilt, in denen es sich bei dem Erzeuger um einen fremdvölkischen (nicht-germanischen) Mann handelt.

Die Eingliederung der Zustimmung des Höheren SS- und Polizeiführers als Beauftragten des Reichskommissars für die Festigung deutschen Volkstums ist demgemäß nur in den Fällen erforderlich, in denen behauptet wird oder es wahrscheinlich ist, daß es sich bei dem Erzeuger um einen Deutschen oder Angehörigen eines stammesgleichen (germanischen) Volkstums handelt.

Des weiteren ist verfügt, daß diese Anordnungen auch entsprechend auf die Schwangerschaftsunterbrechung bei Polinnen (Schutzangehörig und Staatenlose politischen Vollstums) anzuwenden sind, sofern von diesen ein Antrag auf Unterbrechung der Schwangerschaft gestellt wird.

Jedoch sind die Gutachterstellen für Schwangerschaftsunterbrechung der Ärztekammern bei Polinnen gehalten, die Zustimmung der Höheren SS- und Polizeiführer zur Schwangerschaftsunterbrechung - ohne Rücksicht auf die Volkstumszugehörigkeit des Erzeugers - in den Fällen einschließlich, in denen die Polin nach der Ansicht der Gutachterstelle einen rassistisch guten Eindruck macht. Auch in diesen Fällen ist eine rassische Überprüfung der Schwangeren und des Erzeugers durchzuführen und weiterhin entsprechend zu verfahren.

Heil Hitler!

Reichsstatthalter