Central Europe

WEST GERMANY

The Franco-German treaty for the restoration of the Saar to Germany was signed on October 27, 1956. It provided that the Saar should be politically incorporated into West Germany on January 1, 1957. France was to receive one-third of the Saar's coal production over the next twenty-five years. A separate agreement was signed on the canalization of the Moselle river, the project to be jointly financed by France and West Germany. On November 14, 1956, France returned the Voelklingen steel works to the Roechling industrialist family.

On February 18-20, 1957, the prime ministers and foreign ministers of the six West European states (France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, The Netherlands, and Luxembourg) met in Paris to draft treaties for a common market and an atomic pool in Western Europe. The treaties were ratified by both houses in Bonn in July 1957.

No progress was made on German reunification during the period under review (July 1, 1956, through June 30, 1957). In July 1957 the Western powers and the West German Christian Democratic government reiterated, in a declaration issued at Berlin, their demand for unity on the basis of free elections, with a unified Germany free to choose its alliances. The opposition Social Democratic Party (SPD), believing that the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and German unity were mutually exclusive, proposed unity within a European security system guaranteed by the Soviet Union and the United States, but said that an SPD government would not automatically take West Germany out of NATO. In July 1957 the East German regime suggested unification on a federal basis: all parties in West Germany regarded this as completely unacceptable, since it would involve the perpetuation of the Communist dictatorship in East Germany.

Economic Affairs

West German economic prosperity continued to increase. Thus, in 1956 West German steel and coal production increased by 3,650,000 and 1,851,000 metric tons, respectively, over production in 1955.

The gold and foreign currency reserves of the Bank Deutscher Laender rose during 1956 by DM 5,095 million (nearly $1,200 million); and during the first half of 1957 by DM 2,388 million ($562 million). West German foreign trade surpluses were DM 498 million ($117 million) in the second half of 1956 and DM 645 million ($152 million) the first half of 1957. The Bank's
gold and exchange holdings were DM 20,189 million ($4,750 million) at the end of the first half of 1957, having been DM 14,959 million ($3,519 million) one year earlier. According to Bonn economics ministry figures, West Germany's foreign trade increased 20 per cent during the first half of 1957.

The index of industrial production (1936 = 100) was 229.6 at the end of June 1957, compared with 221 the year before. Total wages were 6.7 per cent higher in June 1957 than the year before, and average incomes rose by 2.8 per cent in June 1957 over June 1956, which had, in turn, shown a rise of 7 per cent over 1955. There were 454,000 unemployed at the end of June 1957, 25,000 fewer than the year before. The Bank Deutscher Laender believed there were no major labor reserves left in West Germany.

The longest strike in postwar Germany ended on February 15, 1957. The shipbuilders of Schleswig-Holstein had been on strike for 114 days. It was the first major break in the remarkably strike-free economy of postwar West Germany.

At the end of January 1957 the Bundestag passed a comprehensive and popular reform of national insurance, described by some as the most complete reform since Bismarck. The new law provided pensions up to $108 per month, based on previous earnings and contributions and the current level of wages.

Industry and banking continued to try to reverse the Allied occupation de-cartelization legislation. The two former giant banking concerns, Dresdner Bank and Deutsche Bank, were reconstituted. In the Ruhr, with the consent of the Schuman Plan Coal and Steel Pool authorities, three new steel and coal combines—including about half the decartelized constituents of the former Vereinigte Stahlwerke—were set up: the Rheinstahl Konzern, August Thyssen Huette, and the Phoenix Rheinrohr AG.

On July 4, 1957, five years after the government had first introduced the draft bill, the Bundestag finally passed the anti-cartel law which was to replace the Allied anti-cartel legislation.

**Domestic Political Affairs**

Domestic politics were dominated by the long shadow of the federal general elections, due in September 1957. Following the split in the Free Democratic Party (FDP), when the majority of the party went into opposition, there was a cabinet reshuffle on October 16, 1956. The new cabinet contained sixteen members of the Christian Democratic Union-Christian Social Union (CDU-CSU), two of the German Party (Deutsche Partei-DP), and two of the pro-government section of the FDP, now named Free Peoples' Party (Freie Volksische Partei—FVP).

Communal elections were held in Lower Saxony, Hesse, and North Rhine Westphalia on October 28, and in Baden-Wuerttemberg, and Rhineland-Palatinate on November 11, 1956. The trend towards the two main parties and away from the smaller groups, especially the right-wing extremists, was again in evidence. In Lower Saxony the Christian Democratic Union-Christian Socialist Union (CDU-CSU) received 20.6 per cent of the votes, the Social Democratic Party (SPD) 38.5 per cent; in Hesse, the CDU-CSU received
21.2 per cent, the SPD 47.4 per cent; in North Rhine Westphalia, the CDU-CSU, 38.1 per cent, the SPD 44.3 per cent; in Baden-Wuerttemberg, the CDU-CSU, 24.1 per cent, the SPD, 32.1 per cent; and in Rhineland-Palatinate, the CDU-CSU, 41.1 per cent, the SPD, 39.5 per cent.

The general election of September 15, 1957, resulted in a victory for the CDU-CSU, who were returned with an increased majority, and a personal triumph for Adenauer. The SPD also increased its representation, gaining over one-third of the seats in the new Bundestag. This made it impossible for the government to obtain, as it could in the previous Bundestag, the two-thirds majority needed for any constitutional amendment without SPD agreement. Most of the smaller parties lost votes, the right-wing radical German Reich Party getting only one per cent. There were 497 seats in the new Bundestag, compared with 487 seats in the old one.

On January 28, 1957, Thomas Dehler, who had taken the Free Democratic Party out of the government coalition, was replaced as party leader by Reinhold Maier, an experienced old-style liberal from Baden-Wuerttemberg, where he was the state premier.

**Political Trials**

There were two major political trials during 1956-57. The Federal Constitutional Court at Karlsruhe ruled on August 17, 1956, that the Communist Party was unconstitutional and ordered its dissolution, under Article 21, paragraph 2 of the constitution. This paragraph read:

> Parties which, by their aims or the conduct of their members, aim at infringing or removing the free democratic basic order or endangering the existence of the Federal Republic, are unconstitutional.

Individuals attempting to carry out Communist Party activities faced a punishment of at least six months' imprisonment for past membership in the party. The paragraph provided for the confiscation of party property, and the banning of party newspapers. Article 21 paragraph 2 had been applied by the Karlsruhe Constitutional Court to ban the right-wing Socialist Reich Party (SRP) on October 23, 1952. (See *American Jewish Year Book, 1954* [Vol. 55], p. 238.)

The court found that the Party's aim was to set up "a Socialist-Communist social order by means of a proletarian revolution and the dictatorship of the proletariat." The Communists had polled 1,360,000 votes in 1949 and 611,000 votes in 1953.

The trial of Otto John took place before the Federal Court at Karlsruhe from November 12 to December 23, 1956. John, formerly head of the Federal Office for the Protection of the Constitution—the secret political police—had left West Berlin for East Berlin on July 20, 1954, and had returned to the West voluntarily on December 12, 1955. He was charged with treason and maintaining treasonable relations. He was found guilty of "treacherous falsification" and "treasonous conspiracy," and sentenced to four years' penal servitude. The court did not believe John's claim that he had been drugged and abducted into East Berlin.
Rearmament

The Bundestag passed the Federal conscription law on July 6, 1956, by a vote of 270 to 166 with 20 abstentions. Public opposition to conscription increased, partly because of reported United States and British plans to scale down their forces. On September 27, 1956, the cabinet announced a conscription period of twelve months instead of the eighteen months originally planned. It was now planned to have 300,000 professional soldiers instead of 250,000 in a total force of 500,000.

Defense Minister Theodor Blank was replaced by Franz Josef Strauss of the CSU, on October 16, 1956. Strauss presented radically revised defense plans in November; his slogan was “quality before quantity,” and he thought West Germany’s obligation was not so much to provide 500,000 men as to provide their fighting equivalent under new conditions. There would be smaller and more mobile units instead of old-fashioned divisions. By the end of 1957 Strauss said he hoped to have three infantry divisions and two armored divisions established, together with one parachute and one Alpine division, both under strength; there would be 120,000 men in all.

A new peace-time code of military justice was introduced into the Bundestag on February 7, 1957. It gave subordinates the right to refuse to obey orders which they believed to be criminal; but it absolved subordinates if they did not recognize the criminal nature of the order. The new code was in part a reflection of the problems posed by the Nuremberg trials. It also reflected the public discussion of problems of conscience involved in the anti-Hitler plot of July 20, 1944.

On April 12, 1957, eighteen of West Germany’s most prominent scientists declared in the Goettingen Declaration that they would refuse to cooperate in any way in the use, production, or testing of nuclear weapons. The signatories, who included Weiner Heisenberg, Otto Hahn, and Max Born, added that they were ready to aid in the peaceful use of atomic energy. The declaration was issued after Chancellor Konrad Adenauer had stated in a press conference on April 4 that the new West German forces would have to have tactical atomic weapons.

There were protests from several anti-Nazi organizations and newspapers against the decision that Waffen SS officers up to and including the rank of lieutenant colonel could be accepted into the new forces, if they had clearly shown a change of heart. The Frankfurter Nachtausgabe asked on September 9: “Are not people abroad slowly getting goose flesh at the thought of these new allies?” Many letters to the press criticized the decision and said Jewish citizens could not be expected to serve under former SS men. Chancellor Adenauer told a press conference in mid-October 1956 that members of liquidation squads and concentration camp guards would not be allowed to serve. It was reported in October 1956 that former Waffen SS men accepted as of that date totaled thirty-three officers out of 1,300 applicants, five officer cadets, five musicians, 270 noncommissioned officers, and 195 enlisted men.
Attitude to the Third Reich

At the end of August 1956 the Allensbach Institute for Public Opinion Research published the results of a poll taken in May 1954: 47 per cent of those questioned had a poor opinion of Hitler, 24 per cent a good opinion, and the rest neither one nor the other. Large numbers approved of the anti-Hitler resistance in the Third Reich. There was almost universal condemnation of Josef Goebbels and Heinrich Himmler, and a general rejection of Communism and neo-Nazism. In November 1956, a poll among youths between fourteen and eighteen showed that most were quite ignorant of the events of the Nazi era. The periodical Die Zeit on December 6, 1956, sharply criticized the teaching profession for avoiding mention of the Nazi era.

Various associations of returnees and returned prisoners continued to call for the release of remaining war criminals.

On June 28, 1957, the Bundestag permitted medals of the First and Second World Wars to be worn again, but with the swastika removed from the Nazi medals.

The North and West German radios, in Hamburg and Cologne, respectively, broadcast a program in memory of the Kristallnacht anti-Jewish pogroms of November 1938. In Munich a memorial ceremony took place at Stadelheim prison in honor of Hitler's war-time victims, on the spot where Sophie and Hans Scholl, two student resisters, had died. In April 1957 the city of Dortmund held a memorial ceremony at the memorial for Nazi victims; Mayor Keuning called for a struggle against “arbitrariness, egoism, racial ideology and intolerance.” President Theodor Heuss, writing in the June edition of Merkur, called the memory of Hitler a warning signal for Germans.

On October 25, 1956, a Berchtesgaden court officially found that Hitler died by shooting himself at the end of the war. The case had run since 1952.

A number of books dealing with the Third Reich attracted attention. Particularly well received as acute analyses were: Flucht in den Hass, by Eva Reichmann; Die Endlosung, by Gerald Reitlinger (a translation of The Final Solution); Er ist wie Du, by Eleanor Sterling. Other works were H. G. Adler's Theresienstadt and Die Geschichte von Joel Brand.

There were a number of memoirs, some by people who had learned nothing and forgotten nothing since 1945: the first volume of Admiral Erich Raeder's memoirs; an edition of the diaries of Alfred Rosenberg; and Der Preis der Herrlichkeit, by Henriette von Schirach. An Alsatian, Jean Neu-rohr, published Der Mythos des Dritten Reiches.

On July 4, 1957, the Bundestag passed an amending law to Article 131 of the constitution providing another DM 300 million (about $70 million) for expellees, dismissed Nazi officials, professional soldiers, and their dependents. Under Article 131 public authorities had to set aside 20 per cent of their posts for officials who had lost their jobs in 1945. The Frankfurter Allgemeine estimated on February 19, 1957, that 180,000 people had gotten jobs and another 120,000 were waiting for posts under this provision.

The Federal Constitutional Court ruled on February 20, 1957, that Ge-
stapo agents could be excluded from benefits under Article 131. It was not the purpose of the law, the court held, to help those former public officials whose work served primarily to uphold the Nazi regime. The Federal Social Court (Bundessozialgericht) found that pre-war service in Hitler's bodyguard (SS Leibstandarte) did not qualify as military service for pension purposes. (Reported in the Frankfurter Allgemeine, April 6, 1957.)

The Bundestag rejected on October 3, 1956, an SPD motion that no ex-prisoner compensation payments be made to notable supporters of the Nazi rule or to people who had been sentenced to over three years' hard labor after the end of the war. The Bundestag instead extended compensation to men released from war crimes prisons.

In January 1957 it was reported that A. Albrecht, a former high justice official in the Heydrich regime in Czechoslovakia, was an unsuccessful candidate for the post of president of the State Parliament of the Saar. Otto Braeutigam, head of the Bonn Foreign Offices Eastern Affairs department, was returned to his job after an investigation had shown nothing to bar him, according to the government. Braeutigam was suspended in 1956 after documents were published which suggested he had been involved in the extermination of Jews in Eastern Europe. At the end of June 1956, East and West Berlin newspapers published allegations that several former senior SS officers held senior posts in the West Berlin police force. (The papers concerned were the Telegraf in West Berlin, and the BZ am Abend in East Berlin.)

Major General Ernst Remer, former leader of the now banned neo-Nazi Socialist Reich Party (SRP), won his suit against the Federal government for a pension.

Werner Naumann, Goebbels' former state secretary, lost a DM 95,000 ($22,300) suit against the Federal Republic. Naumann claimed that his arrest and the proceedings in 1953 and 1954 had labeled him as a Nazi and cost him a good position. (See American Jewish Year Book, 1954 [Vol. 55] p. 238-43; Vol. 56, p. 361; Vol. 57, p. 374.)

Kassel authorities decided that ex-Gauleiter Hellmuth of Main-Franconia had to pay back the DM 5,160 ($1,200) awarded him as a returned prisoner of war in December 1955; he had returned from imprisonment as a war criminal. (Reported in Tagesspiegel, September 22, 1956.) Friedberg in Bavaria was ordered by a court to pay its former Nazi mayor Franz Schambeck over DM 30,000 ($7,000) in pension payments.

A series of fines were imposed by the West Berlin denazification tribunal: Franz Schlueter, former judge and prosecutor of the Peoples Court, now on the staff of the Federal patents office in Munich, was fined DM 50,000 ($12,000). (Reported in Frankfurter Allgemeine, July 2, 1957.) The tribunal fined Carl Nabersberg, ex-deputy head of the Reich Youth office, DM 6,000 ($1,400) (Telegraf, October 25, 1956); Rudolf Renner, former head of the Gestapo office in Aarhus, Denmark, DM 10,000 ($2,350) (Morgenpost, November 6, 1956); Schulze-Wechsungen, first commandant of the Oranienburg concentration camp, DM 45,000 ($10,500) (Telegraf, September 7, 1956); ex-Waffen SS General Karl Genzken, DM 34,500 (about $8,000)—Genzken appealed and the fine was raised to DM 50,000 ($12,000) (Telegraf, September
War Criminals and Trials for Nazi Crimes

Grand Admiral Karl Doenitz was freed from Spandau prison on the expiration of his ten-year sentence. Walter Funk, former Reich economics minister, was paroled from his life sentence in May 1957 on grounds of health. Baldur von Schirach and Albert Speer (twenty-year sentences) and Rudolf Hess (life) remained in Spandau.

A Nueremberg court sentenced Heinz Mueller, commander of an SS battalion, to four years' imprisonment for having the mayor of a German town shot for trying to raise the white flag on the approach of the American army. The court allowed Mueller mitigating circumstances in that he held a command "for which, as an individual, he was not mature enough." Helmut Bronsegg, a former military police officer, was acquitted on charges of murder—he had three soldiers shot in May and June 1945 for desertion and lack of discipline. The court found, in mitigation, that Bronsegg's world crashed about his ears when the war ended. "It is to be deeply regretted," the court said, "that under the influence of these ideas he committed offences against good order (Ordnungswidrigkeiten)."

The first senate of the Federal Court in Karlsruhe quashed the acquittal of former SS General Max Simon (Sueddeutsche Zeitung, December 7, 1956). Simon had been acquitted by an Ansbach court in October 1955 for the shooting of four civilians who had tried to prevent last-minute resistance to the Americans. Willi Bach, a former interrogation officer at Dachau, was sentenced to six years' hard labor at Munich for maltreatment of prisoners. Rudolf Pinhammer, head of a Nazi execution squad, was sentenced to six years' hard labor at Memmingen for the shooting of two concentration camp prisoners in April 1945.

Edward Lucius was sentenced to four years' imprisonment for his part in shooting Jews in 1942. Lucius told police and the examining magistrate before the trial that he estimated he had shot 5,000 to 6,000 Jews as a member of a Security Service (SD) firing squad. Wolfgang Ilges, a former senior SS officer, was sentenced to four years for aiding and abetting murder in the shooting of 130 Jews, Poles, and Russians at the start of the Russian campaign. Another former senior SS officer, Paul-Werner Hoppe, former commandant of Stutthof concentration camp, was sentenced by a Bochum court of appeal to nine years' hard labor for aiding and abetting murder in several hundred cases.

In May 1957 Sepp Dietrich and Michael Lippert were each sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment for crimes in connection with the Blood Purge of June 30, 1934. Dietrich, commander of the Berlin SS guard battalion and later an SS colonel general, was found guilty of shooting six SA leaders on Hitler's orders. Lippert, commander of the SS guard battalion at Dachau, was sentenced for aiding and abetting the shooting of Ernst Roehm, the SA leader. The court rejected the defense plea that an SA putsch had been imminent.
At the time of writing (September 1957), the trial of Professor Karl Clauberg, former SS doctor who had conducted sterilization experiments at Auschwitz and had been repatriated from the Soviet Union at the end of 1955, was being prepared by the Kiel public prosecutor.

In December 1956 the American authorities returned the Landsberg war crimes prison to German administration, retaining under American control one wing with twenty-eight remaining prisoners. The British released their last three prisoners and dissolved the Werl war crimes prison at the end of June 1957.

**Neo-Nazis and Nationalism**

The neo-Nazi groups, though numerous, continued to be electorally insignificant, though right-wing opinion in other parties, especially the Refugee Block and the Free Democrats, was sometimes vociferous. The representative Deutsche Universitaetszeitung wrote in January 1957 that there was a danger of neo-Fascism in the Federal Republic. The threat was not of a revival of historic Nazism, but of a resurgence of former Nazis and the danger that they constituted to democratic institutions. Recurrent attempts to reinterpret recent history were straws in the wind. The official gazette Bayrische Staatszeitung, said in June 1956 there had been about seventy right-wing radical youth organizations in West Germany since the war. Some had disappeared, others split or fused.

Otto Strasser, who split with Hitler to form the Black Front movement in the early Nazi days and was later exiled, now founded the German Social Union at a meeting of 300 people at Miltenberg on June 16, 1956. He claimed to have several thousand adherents. (Strasser flew back to Canada at the end of September 1957.)

The congress of the German Reichs Party (DRP) began in Wiesbaden in September 1956 in a notably quiet and restrained manner; newspapers commented that the DRP was trying to make itself eligible for coalition with more respectable parties for the September 1957 elections. Wilhelm Meinberg was reelected party chairman. Later, party headquarters said the party’s strength had risen during 1956 by 2,500 to over 12,500 members. In May 1957 an extraordinary party congress issued an election program calling for a new Federal government “independent of East and West” and a declaration of German neutrality and direct negotiations between East and West Germany. The party’s coalition negotiations with the Refugee Block (BHE) failed. The BHE party congress at Duesseldorf in April 1957 called for a restoration of the entire Reich, including the Sudetenland and the Memel area, on the theory that the Sudetenland had become German territory by a legally valid treaty, and therefore a German claim was justified in international law. A major right-wing newspaper was the Deutsche Soldatenzeitung, edited by Erich Kernmayr, former Gau press chief in Vienna and now press chief for the ex-Waffen SS organization (HIAG).

Various service unit groups of the Waffen SS held or attempted to hold reunions, and proclaimed their opinions openly. Schaefer, chairman of the HIAG in Schleswig-Holstein told one meeting “I hold the SS medal of
honor. I was a member of the NSDAP [Nazi Party] and the Waffen SS, and I am proud of it."

Opposition to Nazis

Bundestag President Eugen Gerstenmaier, of the Christian Democrats, met a number of prominent former Nazis in February 1957. Goebbels' former state secretary Werner Naumann, former S.S. generals Paul Hausser and Sepp Dietrich, former deputy Reich press chief Helmuth Suendermann, and several others were present. Gerstenmaier told them he accepted their good faith and good will. But this did not mean an automatic right to rehabilitation. "Between us stand many dead; between us stands the guilt of the former National Socialists. . . . You have all made yourselves equally guilty because you did not leave this criminal regime in time."

In June 1956 the Bundesjugendring, the organization of youth groups, warned against the resurgence of Nazi ideas and persons. The same month, 8,000 trade unionists demonstrated at Urach, Wuerttemberg, against a planned congress of Otto Strasser's new party (see p. 293). The congress did not take place. Several publishers, including Suhrkamp and Annedore Leber, appealed to the Frankfurt Book Fair authorities to forestall a repetition of 1955's display of neo-Nazi literature. The publishing houses Plesse and Drueffel were excluded from the fair, which was held in September 1956. The Munich state prosecutor later (December 16, 1956) confiscated five Drueffel-published pamphlets as neo-Nazi literature; a Munich court reversed the confiscation in mid-April 1957. On September 14, 1956, a West Berlin court sentenced a locksmith to one month's prison after he had told a Jewish merchant, "You are one whom Hitler forgot to burn." The Frankfurt court of appeal confirmed a five-month's sentence on Franz Kroner, who had regretted publicly that "not all Jews were gassed in the Third Reich." (Reported in the Allgemeine Wochenzeitung der Juden, December 2, 1956.) A Nuernemberg court sentenced a former SS officer to two week's prison (suspended sentence) and DM 200 (about $50) fine for drinking Hitler's health.

Attitude to Jews

The Allgemeine Zeitung fuer Wuerttemberg published on May 11, 1957, the result of three different polls, taken by three different institutes, which showed that 30 per cent of those questioned held clearly anti-Semitic opinions. A large percentage of university graduates was anti-Semitic. On May 1, 2,000 people took part in a torchlight procession at Salzgitter and laid down wreaths before the Jewish memorial at the cemetery. Several schools contributed to the restoration of graves which were desecrated in this area. The press was almost unanimous in condemning the desecration in the sharpest terms. The Evangelical Synod of Berlin-Brandenburg, sitting in West Berlin, said it had heard of eighty-three cases of desecration of graves or cemeteries and condemned "the old SS spirit."

At the end of July 1956 the Federal court upheld the judgment of a North German court, which had ruled that to call a person a Jew could be
an insult punishable by imprisonment, if the expression was intended to be derogatory.

**Restitution and Indemnification**

During 1956, according to Professor Franz Boehm, a member of the Bundestag, indemnification petitions were dealt with more quickly than money became available to satisfy them. The Federal states had used $260 million during the year for indemnification purposes; during 1957, it was expected that $375 million would be used. Boehm said some states were lagging, but these were now having to pay equalization payments to other states which were getting on more quickly. Hubert Biernat, interior minister of North Rhine Westphalia, said it was hoped to end financial indemnification by 1961; after that only some pensions would remain to be paid. At the beginning of 1957 over 1,125,000 claims were still pending.

In mid-June 1957 Federal Finance Minister Fritz Schaeffer said the indemnification laws would not cost $1,650 million to $1,880 million as had been estimated, but nearer to $4,000 million—$4,240 millions during the next four or five years.

In February 1957 a general meeting of IG Farben dye trust shareholders accepted the settlement of $7,000,000 offered by the trust’s liquidators to former slave-workers employed by the firm; $6,850,000 was to be paid to the Conference on Jewish Material Claims Against Germany and the remainder held for non-Jewish former prisoners.

Local authorities took a number of actions to restore rights or synagogues to Jewish communities. At the end of August 1956 three new synagogues, at Dortmund, Offenbach, and Pasing, Bavaria, were consecrated. On September 27, 1956, the Frankfurt city assembly decided to return to the Jews all former Jewish-owned real property (Liegenschaften), as well as to pay the Jewish community about $750,000 toward further claims under the restitution laws. The Federal and state governments agreed in autumn 1956 that they would be jointly responsible for the upkeep of Jewish cemeteries.

At the beginning of February 1957, State Secretary Alfred Hartmann of the Federal finance ministry declared in the Bundestag that no compensation could be paid to victims of sterilization operations undertaken in accordance with Nazi laws. During a properly carried out operation no bodily damage was done, Hartmann said.

**Jewish Population**

There were no new reliable statistics on the total number of Jews in Germany. The registered membership of the Jewish communities of the Federal Republic of Germany (including Western Berlin) on June 30, 1957, was 17,855, compared to 16,951 on June 30, 1956.1

The age distribution and economic structure of German Jewry underwent considerable changes during 1956-57. The number gainfully employed in-

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1 The figures cited in *American Jewish Year Book, 1957* (Vol. 58), p. 289, related to all of West Germany, and not to the Foehrenwald camp.
The number of Jews in East Germany (the German Democratic Republic) was estimated at 1,000 or less. They lived in eight cities: Leipzig, Dresden, Erfurt, Magdeburg, Halle, Plauen, Schwerin, and Karl-Marx-Stadt (the former Chemnitz). In September 1956, the Jewish community of East Berlin had 1,279 members. Synagogues existed in a few of these cities but there was no rabbi officiating in any of them.

Migration

Emigration remained insignificant and considerably below immigration. During the period from July 1, 1956, through June 30, 1957, 511 Jews emigrated from West Germany, while 1,514 new members from abroad joined the Jewish communities. Since many returning Jews did not join the communities, actual Jewish immigration was probably substantially greater than this figure. The returnees came from many countries, but the greatest number were from Israel. Most of the Jewish emigrants who left Germany after 1933 went to the United States and Israel.

Most of the returnees settled in the large cities, usually those where they had formerly lived, and especially Berlin, Hamburg, Frankfurt, Cologne, and Düsseldorf. Thus the addition of 290 newcomers from abroad in the first six months of 1957 gave the Berlin Jewish community a membership of 5,000, as against, 4,625 a year earlier.

While the death rate remained much higher than the birth rate, immigration was so much greater than emigration that the total Jewish population increased substantially. During the period under review 45 Jewish children were born, and 346 Jews died.

Intergroup Relations

There were many signs that opposition to anti-Semitism and racism was not merely a matter of official attitudes. The Rosh Ha-Shanah greetings which the authorities extended to the Jewish community of Germany were accompanied in September 1956 by a pledge from Interior Minister Gerhard Schröder that the Federal government would assume the responsibility for maintaining the almost 1,700 unused Jewish cemeteries in Germany.

On July 3, 1956, Professors Carlo Schmid (Social Democratic Party) and Franz Boehm (Christian Democratic Union) in a public discussion of the question, "May We Forget?", agreed that the German people should never forget the misdeeds of the Nazis. Public and press hailed this event as a significant symptom. Brotherhood Week (March 17-24, 1957) was again observed in a score of cities and by all radio and television stations; President Theodor Heuss opened it with a stirring and soul-searching address to the conscience of the German people.

At the end of September 1956, troops of the new German army (Bundeswehr) voluntarily cleaned the burial ground of the former Belsen concentration camp. Even more impressive was the spontaneous pilgrimage on March
17, 1957, of 2,000 young people from Hamburg to Belsen to honor the memory of Anne Frank, who died there. No other person has caught the imagination of the people, particularly the youth of postwar Germany, as much as the late Anne Frank. Her diary sold well over 300,000 copies in a pocket book edition, and the play based on it was the year's outstanding event on the German stage. On September 29, 1956, it had a simultaneous premiere in about a dozen cities, and soon afterward was shown in practically all German theatres, in large, middle-sized, and small cities. Everywhere the audiences were deeply moved. The younger generation, free of feelings of personal guilt, were even more shocked and appalled than their elders were at the performance.

At the house where Anne Frank was born in 1931 in Frankfurt a plaque was unveiled, and on her birthday, June 12, 1957, a memorial celebration was held in the historic St. Paul's Church there. A huge crowd was addressed by Lord Mayor Werner Bockelmann of Frankfurt, and the leading Catholic writer Eugen Kogon.

The French documentary film on concentration camps, Night and Fog, was distributed beginning in July 1956 by a Federal information agency, and was viewed by attentive students, workers, and others.

Numerous gatherings, conferences, seminars, and similar events were called by youth and students' groups to discuss Jewish and related problems. As far as possible—the small number of Jewish young people often made it difficult—Jewish youngsters and students from Israel participated. In October 1956 young people from both the Western and Eastern sectors of Berlin volunteered to clean up that city's largest Jewish cemetery at Weissensee.

Academic audiences listened in large numbers to Jewish professors and to lectures on Jewish subjects. Beginning in July 1956 impressive audiences assembled in Berlin, Munich, Stuttgart, Darmstadt, and elsewhere to listen to Professor Martin Buber of Jerusalem, who enjoyed tremendous popularity and veneration. Adolf Leschnitzer of New York's City College lectured regularly on the history and civilization of German Jewry at the Free University of Berlin. The Loeb Lectures at Frankfurt's University likewise received much attention and public acclaim.

The artists of the South German radio network at Stuttgart organized a special fund for persecuted artists. Peter Adler, a non-Jewish journalist of Stuttgart, conducted a spectacular campaign in behalf of former German Jews living in Paris in distress. In May 1956 he wrote a radio report, and later one for television, entitled The Forgotten Ones, and spontaneous donations poured in. The Federal Parliament and other authorities also contributed; 3,000,000 German marks (about $750,000) were collected, and a new home for impoverished German Jewish refugees was established in Paris in May 1957.

About one hundred young people, Lutherans and Jews, met at the Evangelical Academy of Iserlohn in October 1956. Out of this gathering there grew a youth group, Three Rings, which organized similar conferences in other parts of the Federal Republic; it planned its own publication to reach a wider public of young people.
Community Organization and Communal Affairs

There were some seventy Jewish communities in West Germany, but only five or six had more than 1,000 members. These communities had achieved a certain degree of stability. The immigration of returnees and other Jews had redressed somewhat the balance of age distribution in postwar German Jewry. There had been a disproportionately large number of elderly persons; the new immigrants were a younger group.

The Jews of Germany were organized in the Zentralrat der Juden in Deutschland (Central Council of Jews in Germany), a voluntary roof organization for the communities and their state associations. It was originally organized on July 19, 1950, mainly to cope with such legal problems as restitution and indemnification. Political and cultural activities had been added to the Zentralrat's tasks in recent years. The annual meeting of the central council took place in Frankfurt on December 16 and 17, 1956. It was charged that there had been irregularities in the elections for the board of the Munich Jewish community, long torn by internal strife (see AMERICAN JEWISH YEAR BOOK, 1956 [Vol. 57], p. 387, and 1957 [Vol. 58], p. 291). The Zentralrat intervened to reestablish orderly conditions within the local communities. Almost all the congregations were headed by democratically elected bodies.

New communal buildings, community centers, and synagogues, were dedicated in numerous communities; the most notable ones were in Frankfurt, Dortmund, Aachen, and Pasing (a suburb of Munich). Cornerstones for such community centers were laid in Trier and Minden, and for a new home for the aged in Neustadt (Palatinate).

To mark the death of former Berlin rabbi, Leo Baeck, on November 2, 1956 (see p. 478), the Zentralrat and the Zentralwohlfahrtsstelle der Juden in Deutschland (ZWSt) called a memorial meeting in Frankfurt's largest synagogue. The German press and radio eulogized the venerated and heroic leader of German Jewry at length. The Zentralrat and ZWSt established an annual Leo Baeck Prize to be awarded to creative scholars or students working in Baeck's spirit.

Jewish Education

With the assistance of the cultural and educational department of the Zentralrat, the Jewish Agency for Palestine, the American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee (JDC), and the CJMCAG, the number of Jewish teachers grew from twenty-one in 1955 to thirty-two in July 1957. A few vacancies remained still unfilled. These teachers, some of whom traveled from one community to another, gave religious instruction in forty-two localities. Of the slightly more than 1,100 Jewish youngsters of school age, about 75 per cent received religious instruction provided by the congregations. A number of teachers came from Israel for extended periods. But the establishment of a generally accepted curriculum, schedule of instruction hours, modern standards and methods of instruction, and textbooks, offered many problems. Regular pedagogic conferences at Frankfurt were held twice during 1956-57, and were
to be continued. The first of a planned series of textbooks were issued by the education department of the Zentralrat.

The Council of Jewish Students met twice, and a number of seminars on Jewish subjects were conducted nationally and regionally. Adult education was fostered through lectures, concerts, and theatre and film performances in numerous community centers. The Zentralrat aided these efforts, as well as the community libraries, with DM 1,776,994 ($42,142) allocated by the CJM-CAG during the calendar year of 1956.

Religious Life

Religious activities were the center of Jewish communal life in Germany. (The communities were traditionally Kultusgemeinden, or Synagogenge­meinden, whose name indicated their religious character.) While synagogues had not been rebuilt in all cities, almost all communities possessed adequate and dignified facilities for the Sabbath, and holiday services were held. Most of the large communities had permanent rabbis. All rabbis joined in a rabbinical conference held on March 19, 1957, to deal with common problems. For the High Holy Days in September 1956 rabbis from abroad augmented the number of those officiating in Germany.

Zionism and Relations with Israel

West Germany delivered huge quantities of reparations goods to Israel and exported other goods; the German press and public maintained a fair attitude to Israel—which became dramatically apparent during the Suez crisis—although official diplomatic relations were not yet established. The Israel government indicated in 1957 that it would be favorably inclined to proposals from the Bonn government for normal diplomatic relations, and it was considered likely that such a move would be made after the German elections of September 15, 1957. However during the period under review (July 1, 1956, through June 30, 1957) there was no official representative of Germany in Israel. Israel's only representatives were the staff of the trade mission in Cologne, headed by Felix Shinnar. Rudolf Kuestermaier was the first representative of the German press agency, DPA, in Israel. During Israel's Sinai campaign of November 1956 (see p. 376), it was suggested in Bonn that reparations deliveries should be suspended, lest West Germany be charged with supplying Israel during the fighting. The government rejected these suggestions and said it would stand by its treaties. In February 1957 it was reported that over one-third of the reparations deliveries due to Israel had already been delivered.

Germany continued to build ships for Israel, among them the passenger liner Theodor Herzl of the ZIM-Shoshan Company, accommodating 550 passengers, and two freighters, the second of which, Har Gilboa, was completed in 1957.

German Jewry steadfastly supported funds serving the upbuilding of Israel. During 1956–57 the Magbit campaign (Palestine Foundation Fund) raised over 500,000 marks (over $125,000), and the Jewish National Fund ex-
tended its network of local committees and raised larger sums than in previous years.

The birthdays of Theodor Herzl and Chaim Nachman Bialik were observed in many communities, as well as the Israel Independence Day.

German tourists began to pour into Israel after the visa requirements were relaxed in the spring of 1957. Eva Beling of Bad Homburg enrolled as a regular student at the Hebrew University; daughter of a well-known anti-Nazi, she had exhibited pro-Zionist interests for a long time.

Social Services

The Zentralwohlfahrtsstelle der Juden in Deutschland (ZWSst), reestablished in 1951 as successor of the organization of the same name that had existed from 1917 to 1938, remained the center of almost all social service functions of German Jewry. It was officially recognized by the Federal government.

Agreements reached in April 1954 with the CJMCAG had made possible the extension of the ZWSst's activities and the establishment of branch offices in Berlin, Munich, and Frankfurt. In 1956 the ZWSst moved its headquarters from Hamburg to Frankfurt. In 1954, about 2,000 Jews had been permanent recipients of the ZWSst's aid (about 10 per cent of the registered Jewish population), while an equal number had received occasional assistance. During 1955 and 1956 the ZWSst had spent more than $1,000,000 (DM 4,600,000). These funds were allocated by the CJMCAG and the JDC. In 1957 as a result of the improved economic situation, the number of relief clients decreased considerably, and the ZWSst was able to shift its emphasis from relief to case work and group work.

The Henrietta Szold Home at Wembach, in the Black Forest, opened on July 1, 1956. This modern and well-equipped vacation home in one of the most attractive parts of South Germany, was able to house 100 persons; it served hundreds of youngsters from West Germany and Berlin in 1956. At the opening ceremonies, all Jewish organizations and Federal and state authorities were represented. The President of the Republic sent his son, Ernst Ludwig Heuss of Loerrach. The home was acquired with funds provided by the JDC, and was maintained by the ZWSst. State governments contributed valuable gifts of furniture and equipment to the home. As the Henrietta Szold Home was not able to furnish vacations for all the eligible children, additional facilities were to be added in 1957. While it was reserved for youngsters during the summer, it was used during the remainder of the year for the care and cure of elderly people. Many conferences and youth seminars were also held at the home.

The fifteen homes for aged people continued to function, and plans were completed for a new one in the Palatinate. It was to be opened early in 1958 at Neustadt, and to house about eighty people.

Youth activities were concentrated in the youth department of the ZWSst headed by Harry Maör (Frankfurt). Youth training courses were sponsored centrally by the ZWSst and the Zentralrat; other such courses were presented regionally in Berlin, Hamburg, Muenster, and Munich.

Since January 1, 1955, the five loan associations (in Berlin, Frankfurt,
Hamburg, Düsseldorf, and Munich) had granted about one thousand loans, amounting to some DM 2,800,000 (about $700,000).

Berlin opened a housing project for thirty-five single persons and couples; this Leo Baeck Wohnheim was so well received that plans for a similar one were made during 1956–57.

Cultural Activities

The Jewish communities offered their members lectures, concerts, and similar cultural events, as well as library facilities. Among the speakers from abroad were Rabbi Joachim Prinz of Newark, N. J., who addressed the communities of Hamburg, Berlin, Frankfurt, and Düsseldorf; Max Brod of Tel Aviv; and Max Beer of New York. These activities were aided by the cultural department of the Zentralrat, which provided ideas and suggestions, materials and funds.

The press and public applauded a festive concert of Jewish liturgical and other songs presented by Max Neumann, a former Frankfurt cantor, three of his Paris colleagues, and the choir, Oratorio de Paris. The concert took place in Frankfurt University and was broadcast over radio and television stations. It was recorded with the support of the Zentralrat.

The Loeb Lectures, established by Frankfurt University with American support, presented Ernst Ludwig Ehrlich (Basel), Hermann Levin Goldschmidt (Zürich), David Daube (Oxford), Rabbi Alexander Altmann (Manchester), Prof. Walter Kaufmann of Princeton University, H. G. Adler (London), Prof. Gershom G. Scholem (Jerusalem), Eric Voegelin of Louisiana State University, and Rabbi Ignaz Maybaum (London).

H. G. Adler's scientific study of the Theresienstadt concentration camp was widely acclaimed; the author prepared a second, enlarged edition.

The celebration of the 100th anniversary of Heinrich Heine's death beginning on February 17, 1956, left a strong impact on the population of Germany. The many new editions of his works sold well.

The actress Elisabeth Bergner made a sensational comeback to the German stage, primarily in Eugene O'Neill's Long Day's Journey into Night. Fritz Kortner of Munich and Ernst Deutsch of Berlin continued to be among the most celebrated stars of the German theatre. Kortner's staging of a new presentation of Goethe's Faust was widely hailed as a revolutionary event.

Personalia

Herbert S. Schoenberg, CJMCAG director for Germany, died on July 3, 1956. A number of high governmental and parliamentary figures paid tribute to his memory. Ewald Allschoff, sixty-two, leader of the Frankfurt Jewish community and the Association of Jewish Communities of the land of Hesse, died on April 29, 1957. Sara Nussbaum, shortly after having become an honorary citizen of her birthplace, Kassel, died there on December 18, 1956, at the age of eighty-eight.

Karl Marx, editor and publisher of the Allgemeine Wochenzeitung der Juden in Deutschland, was honored by many Jewish and non-Jewish person-
alities on his sixtieth birthday in May 1957. Public and literary figures joined in an anthology entitled *Vom Schicksal gepragt*, edited by Marcel W. Gartner, Hans Lamm, and Ernst G. Lowenthal.

President Heuss bestowed the Great Cross of the Federal Order of Merit With Star upon actor Fritz Korner on the occasion of his sixty-fifth birthday; Walter Koppel, Hamburg film producer; Federal Superior Judge Karl Selowsky, on his retirement; and Benno Schuelerin, Munich attorney. The Federal Cross of Merit First Class was given to Siegfried Himberg, president of the Dortmund Jewish community; Jean Mandel, president of the Fürth Jewish community: Dr. Georg Friedländer, Berlin physician, on his eighty-fifth birthday; Max Hirschfeld, president of the Bielefeld Jewish community; Prof. Kurt Marcuse of Berlin; and Joseph Falkenberg, Berlin lawyer. Berlin's Free University honored Prof. Luise Meitner, atomic scientist, with an additional honorary doctorate. Siegmund Weltlinger of Berlin was elected to that city's parliament. The eighty-six-year-old Salli Goldschmidt became the honorary president of Aachen-Düren.

**AUSTRIA**

The second president of the Austrian Republic, the eighty-three-year-old Theodor Koerner, died of a heart attack on January 4, 1957, about five months before the end of his term. Koerner had been elected in May 1951 to succeed Karl Renner, another veteran Social Democratic leader. On May 5, 1957, Adolf Schaerf, chairman of the Socialist Party and for some years Vice Chancellor, was elected to replace Koerner. On May 22, 1957 he took the oath of office. He received 50.2 per cent of the total vote of more than 4,500,000. Professor Wolfgang Denk, supported by the People's Party (Catholic) and the Nazi-tinged Freedom Party, polled 48.0 per cent, while 1.8 per cent of the ballots were voided. Thus the Socialist Party retained the Presidency, although in Parliament and in the coalition cabinet the right-wing People's Party had a slight preponderance. Professor Denk, a well-known surgeon and a nonpolitical figure, was one of the thirteen members of the Vienna Medical School who in 1939 had signed a joint letter denying that the Nazi regime had persecuted scholars in Vienna for political or racial reasons.

Austria sympathized deeply with the efforts of the Hungarian revolutionaries to liberate Hungary from Soviet occupation. Energetic and generous humanitarian action on behalf of Budapest was organized by the Austrian government, which also threw the doors of the country open to the stream of refugees from Hungary. These were courageous acts, since no one could foretell whether the Russian tanks would stop at the Austrian-Hungarian

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2 *Neue Welt*, Vienna, #13/14, May 1957.
border. The United States regarded the danger as sufficiently real to declare on November 6, 1956, that any violation of Austrian sovereignty would be a grave threat to peace. Interior Minister Oscar Helmer denounced the action of the Russian troops in Budapest, and the Austrian government did not hesitate to request the Kremlin to end the bloodshed in Hungary. The allegations of the Soviet Union that Austria had rendered military support to the revolution in Hungary were categorically denied by Chancellor Julius Raab, and Austrian authorities confiscated the issue of the Vienna Communist newspaper referring to these accusations. Mindful of Austria's neutrality pledge when the State Treaty was signed in 1956, the authorities ordered the dissolution of the World Peace Council, a Communist-front organization, while warning refugees to abstain from actions which might endanger Austria's relations with other countries.

As a result of Austria's good use of the United States aid granted it after World War II, economic prosperity continued almost unabated during 1956-57, enabling Austria to bear the considerable financial burden imposed on her by the State Treaty. The index of industrial production (1937 = 100) stood at 234.5 in 1956, as compared with 225.3 in 1955. The number of unemployed during April-July 1957 was lower than in the corresponding period of 1956.

Refugees

Of the refugees who passed through Austria in the years after World War II, 257,929 (213,577 ethnic Germans and 44,352 foreign refugees) had been naturalized at the beginning of 1957. Some 117,000 others, or 1.67 per cent of the total Austrian population of nearly 7,000,000, still resided in that country—approximately 20,000 in camps and 97,440 in communities (5th Session of the United Nations Refugee Fund Executive Committee, Press Release #REF/373, June 4, 1957). In addition, hundreds of thousands of others had gone on to new homes in other countries. As a result of the government's program of gradually dismantling camps and resettling refugees in communities, five camps had been closed since 1954, and sixteen more were scheduled for liquidation by the end of 1958 (The New York Times June 6, 1957).

Jewish Community

Including the new Hungarian refugees (see p. 308), the Jewish population of Austria in August 1957 numbered 11,831, as against 10,220 in June 1956.

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8 Christian Science Monitor, Boston, Nov. 12, 1956.
10 An increase in influx of refugees from Yugoslavia in the second half of 1957 was reported by the Austrian minister of the interior; 1,500 arrived in June, 2,600 in July, and 3,500 were expected in August (Austrian Information, #15, Sept. 14, 1957).
These figures included only members of the Gemeinden, or religious community councils, and refugees under American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee (JDC) care. In addition, there were Jewish refugees and Austrian Jews not registered with the Gemeinden and not in contact with Jewish welfare agencies.

TABLE 1
JEWISH POPULATION IN AUSTRIA, 1956-57
(Gemeinden and Camps)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>June, 1956</th>
<th>August, 1957</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gemeinden</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vienna</td>
<td>9,205</td>
<td>9,301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salzburg, Linz, Graz, Innsbruck</td>
<td>822</td>
<td>817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camps (Asten, Glasenbach, Korneuburg, Rothschild, etc.)</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>1,713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>10,220</strong></td>
<td><strong>11,831</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The membership of the most important Gemeinde, that of Vienna, comprising over 90 per cent of the total, remained about the same as in the preceding three years (end 1954, 9,184; end 1955, 9,211; end 1956, 9,274) due to the immigration from Eastern Europe and the repatriation of Austrian Jews.

TABLE 2*
MEMBERSHIP OF THE VIENNA GEMEINDE, 1956, 1957

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1956 (Jan. 1-Aug. 31)</th>
<th>1957</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immigration</td>
<td>601</td>
<td>491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emigration</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New members from Austria b</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resignations</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Births</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deaths</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL INCREASE</strong></td>
<td>676</td>
<td>532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL DECREASE</strong></td>
<td>613</td>
<td>505</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* For respective data for 1952-56, see AJYB, Vol. 58, p. 301.

b Persons converted to Judaism and previously unaffiliated Jews who joined the Gemeinde.

The whole life of the Gemeinden was affected by the influx of Hungarian refugees. The planned transfer of certain aspects of the JDC welfare program to the Gemeinden had to be postponed in Vienna and in Linz; in Salzburg, the transfer had taken place early in 1956. A library and reading room of the Vienna Gemeinde were used by the JDC for interviewing Hungarian refugees. The Gemeinde's children's home at Unter-Oberndorf served as a shelter for refugees. The official Gemeinde building in Vienna became the address for all Jewish refugees. Only after assistance to Hungarian refugees had lost its emergency character were the Gemeinden able to resume their usual functions.

The anticipated income of the Vienna Gemeinde in 1957 was about $200,-
000 (nearly 12 per cent of this was expected from taxation), and expenditures were estimated at some $311,500. The deficit was to be covered by the Conference on Jewish Material Claims Against Germany (CJMCAG) and the JDC.\(^\text{10}\) Remodeling of a Vienna Gemeinde building to provide space for a youth center began in June 1957. During the school year 1956–57 some 350 children in Vienna attended religious classes organized by the Gemeinde. For the first time since 1938, religious classes for Jewish children were introduced in Salzburg.\(^\text{11}\) Vienna also had a Hebrew school and kindergarten (130 pupils), a Talmud Torah (70 pupils), and three other religious schools (100 pupils), all supported by JDC.

The Vienna Gemeinde provided supplementary assistance to 520 persons a month (including 36 non-Austrians), 423 of them aged, unemployable, or unemployed. Its home for the aged and its hospital and clinic cared for 200 persons a month. The JDC gave direct assistance to an average of 540 refugees a month, provided stipends to seven university students, and financed a kosher kitchen which served an average of 282 persons—all this in addition to the program on behalf of Hungarian refugees (see p. 308). The Juedische Spar-und Kredit Genossenschaft, a credit cooperative established under the auspices of JDC in 1949, had made 820 loans amounting to $461,760 from its inception through June 30, 1957.

**Indemnification**

On the theory that their own country had been a victim of German aggression, the Austrian government consistently refused to adopt systematic legislation compensating those who suffered damages under the Nazis. Austria could not completely ignore the injustices committed during the Anschluss when it had been merged with Nazi Germany, but the laws adopted were confined to certain aspects of the problem of indemnification. They could not be compared with the many-sided program in behalf of Nazi victims implemented in Germany.

The *Rahmengesetz* ("General Law") of 1946 and the several *Rueckstellungsgesetze* ("Restitution Laws") based upon it declared void all transfers of assets made under duress, confiscations, etc., and established legal machinery for restitution of traceable property still in possession of the state and private persons. As of September 30, 1957, claims filed under the *Rueckstellungsgesetze* totaled 54,906. Of these, only 5,708 were still pending at the end of October 1956.\(^\text{12}\) The *Opferfuersorgegesetz* ("Law concerning the Welfare of Victims") of 1947 enabled needy refugees or their dependents to apply for allowances for imprisonment or impaired health resulting from Nazi policy. This law was amended several times. The most recent amendment\(^\text{13}\) revised the deadlines and enlarged the group of beneficiaries, adding non-Austrian Nazi victims who had resided in Austria for ten years before March 13, 1938, the date of the Anschluss.

In Article 26 of the State Treaty of 1955, Austria pledged itself to use

\(^{10}\) *Iskult-Presse-Nachrichten*, Vienna, June 30, 1957.

\(^{11}\) *Neue Welt*, Vienna, #3/4, Nov. 1956.

\(^{12}\) *Das Juedische Echo*, Vienna, Jan.-Feb. 1957.

\(^{13}\) 11 *Opferfuersorgenovelle*, published in *Bundesgesetzeblatt*, Mar. 28, 1957.
heirless property of Nazi victims for the benefit of Nazi victims still alive. In March 1957, the Bundestag enacted a law to implement this pledge. The law provided for the establishment of two registration centers, one for heirless property belonging to members of Jewish communities, and a second for the heirless property of all other Nazi victims. The trustees of the registration center for Jewish heirless property appointed by the government on the recommendation of the Gemeinden were: Ludwig Biro (Graz), Rudolf Braun (Vienna), Theodore D. Feder (JDC director in Austria), Charles M. Kapralik (London), Fritz Kreuter (Vienna), Gustav Leitner (Vienna), Emil Maurer (Vienna), and Anton Pick (Vienna). The trustees elected as their chairman Emil Maurer, president of both the Vienna Kultusgemeinde and the Federal Union of the Austrian Gemeinden. The proceeds from the heirless property were to be used to aid Nazi victims.

The Assistance Fund established in 1956 (see American Jewish Year Book, 1957 [Vol. 58], p. 302-03) had, as of June 10, 1957, the deadline for registration of applications with the fund, received 30,000 applications. Of the more than 8,000 applications processed by the fund up to April 10, 1957, 2,430 were approved, and $1,815,385 was transferred to the beneficiaries, i.e., aged or unemployable Nazi victims or their widows residing outside of Austria. The fund was to have at its disposal only about $22,000,000, to be disbursed in eleven yearly installments, and would thus be able to render only modest help.

An agreement in June 1957 between Austria and the German Federal Republic provided for the return of personal assets up to $10,000 to Germans, and for revival of all private Austrian claims against West Germany valid before 1945, such as pensions and bank deposits. German Chancellor Konrad Adenauer, who went to Vienna to sign this agreement, stated that concentration camp inmates who had worked as slave laborers in German war industries were, under the agreement, entitled to payment for their work, since this did not constitute indemnification but back payment of wages.

The unsatisfactory nature of the Austrian indemnification and restitution legislation was called to the attention of Austrian Foreign Minister Leopold Figl and Finance Minister Reinhold Kamitz during their visit to the United States in September 1957 by a delegation of the Committee for Jewish Claims on Austria.

**Intergroup Relations**

"Anyone who sounds out Austrian life can and must perceive many anti-Semitic attitudes, but it is with satisfaction that we are able to take note of the fact that in contemporary Austria neither the Nazis nor the militant anti-Semites have been able to set up strong groups," wrote the organ of the

17 Austrians were not eligible for compensation under the German indemnification legislation. Apparently, former displaced persons naturalized in Austria after 1945 were an exception (**Neue Welt**, May 1957).
HUNGARIAN REFUGEES

majority group in the Community Council of the Vienna Gemeinde.\textsuperscript{19} Anti-Semitic attitudes manifested themselves in publications such as the \textit{Wiener Samstag}, \textit{Wiener Montag}, \textit{Platform}, \textit{Grenzmark}, and \textit{Neue Front}, most of which have been quoted in previous volumes of the \textit{American Jewish Year Book}. An Austrian court fined the editor of the weekly \textit{Nordische Rundschau} for publishing a hate article against Jews\textsuperscript{20} and, the Jew-baiting Hungarian monthly \textit{Ut es Ul}, published by “old” Hungarian refugees in Austria, was suspended by the authorities.\textsuperscript{21} The editor of the news service of the Austrian Gemeinden was fined for comparing \textit{Wiener Montag} with the ill-famed Nazi organ, \textit{Der Stuermer}. Though condemning this comparison, the court nevertheless had to admit that \textit{Montag} was printing anti-Semitic contributions.\textsuperscript{22}

To offset the impression created by the play \textit{Anne Frank}, a contributor to \textit{Neue Front}, official publication of the Nazi-tinged Freedom Party, tried to excuse the Nazis by stressing the mistakes allegedly made by German Jews.\textsuperscript{23}

In this connection, mention should be made of a touching editorial in the Vienna Socialist newspaper \textit{Arbeiter Zeitung} of May 14, 1957, in which the deep meaning of the \textit{Anne Frank} tragedy was elaborated with impressive simplicity.

But the Austrian Jewish community felt as a serious moral blow the amnesty for ex-Nazis enacted by the parliament in March 1957. Similar legislation had been vetoed by the occupation powers in 1952 (see \textit{American Jewish Year Book}, 1954 [Vol. 55], p. 257). The new law removed the political and economic restrictions placed on former Nazis, pardoned war criminals sentenced to terms of less than five years, reinstated dismissed officials, and ordered the return to former owners of identifiable personal property confiscated from Nazis in 1945.

On the whole, the position of the Jews in Austria during 1956–57 remained secure. The Hungarian emergency united the Jewish minority with the rest of the nation in a collective humanitarian action. The political stability, enhanced by the Socialist retention of the highest office of the state, strengthened the feeling of security among the Jewish community, which expected internal peace from the continuation of cooperation between the Socialist and Catholic parties in the government.\textsuperscript{24}

HUNGARIAN REFUGEES

According to the report submitted by the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) to the Eleventh Session of the UN,\textsuperscript{1} an influx of new refugees to Austria began on a considerable scale on October 28, 1956; it passed the 95,000 mark by the end of November, reached almost 150,000 a

\textsuperscript{19} \textit{Neue Welt}, Sept. 1957.
\textsuperscript{20} \textit{Jewish Telegraphic Agency}, Oct. 15, 1957.
\textsuperscript{22} \textit{Jewish Chronicle}, London, Sept. 27, 1957.
\textsuperscript{23} \textit{Iskult-Press-Nachrichten}, May 29, 1957.
\textsuperscript{24} \textit{Neue Welt}, Sept. 1957.
\textsuperscript{1} A/C 3/L 507, Nov. 24, 1956.
month later, and began to lose momentum in January 1957, when some 170,000 were registered in Austria. At the end of January a shift in the flow of Hungarian refugees took place; on January 25 only 65 refugees arrived in Austria, while 699 came to Yugoslavia. By the end of July 1957 a total of 193,973 Hungarian refugees had arrived in Austria and Yugoslavia (174,285 in the former country, and 19,688 in the latter); 159,738 of them either were resettled, or returned to Hungary, or lost refugee status as a result of integration, and 34,235 were still in Austria and Yugoslavia.

**TABLE 1**

**Refugees from Hungary**

(October 28, 1956—Beginning of August, 1957)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arrivals and Departures</th>
<th>Austria As of Aug. 1, 1957</th>
<th>Yugoslavia As of Aug. 3, 1957</th>
<th>Total Number</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arrived</td>
<td>174,285</td>
<td>19,688</td>
<td>193,973</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left</td>
<td>148,496</td>
<td>11,242</td>
<td>159,738</td>
<td>82.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emigrated</td>
<td>143,400</td>
<td>8,082</td>
<td>151,482</td>
<td>78.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repatriated</td>
<td>5,096</td>
<td>2,564</td>
<td>7,660</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated</td>
<td>596</td>
<td>596</td>
<td>1,192</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remained</td>
<td>25,789^</td>
<td>8,446^</td>
<td>34,235</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^ Including some 13,000 in camps. (See UNHCR Ref. Service #3, September 1957.)

^ All in camps. (See Ref. Service #3, September 1957.)

**TABLE 2**

**Emigration of Hungarian Refugees from Austria and Yugoslavia**

(Cumulative figures as of the beginning of August, 1957)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emigrated from Destination</th>
<th>Austria As of Aug. 1, 1957</th>
<th>Yugoslavia As of Aug. 3, 1957</th>
<th>Total Number</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total, All Countries</td>
<td>143,400</td>
<td>8,082</td>
<td>151,482</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe^</td>
<td>71,112</td>
<td>6,603</td>
<td>77,715</td>
<td>51.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>America</td>
<td>59,899</td>
<td>1,310</td>
<td>61,209</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>33,656</td>
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<td>33,791</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>23,128</td>
<td>1,073</td>
<td>24,201</td>
<td>16.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Latin America</td>
<td>3,115</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>3,217</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia and New Zealand</td>
<td>9,202</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9,211</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>8,247</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8,249</td>
<td>5.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>955</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>962</td>
<td>0.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>1,869</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>2,029</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa and Rhodesia^</td>
<td>1,318</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1,318</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
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</table>

^ Including those who subsequently left Europe for resettlement overseas.

^ Rhodesia—6 persons.

It is not surprising that at first the sudden flood of refugees caused overcrowded and imperfect conditions in many of the seventy or so refugee

camps, mostly former military barracks. Only the whole-hearted support of the Austrian population and the response of the international community enabled the Austrian government to cope with the situation. On November 5, 1956, the UNHCR, together with the Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration (ICEM), transmitted to various governments an Austrian request that they grant asylum to Hungarian refugees accumulating in Austria. On November 7 the first movements of Hungarian refugees out of Austria took place. By late November 20,000 departures had been registered, by December 23 there were 75,830, and by January 30, 1957, the total had reached 104,530.

Governments, intergovernmental agencies, and voluntary agencies also rushed help to the Hungarian refugees in Austria. With the consent of the Austrian government, their efforts were coordinated by the office of the UNHCR. The League of Red Cross Societies provided care and maintenance for refugees in the camps, the ICEM took care of documentation and transportation of refugees from Austria, and the voluntary agencies rendered supplementary assistance and supported the efforts of the Red Cross and the ICEM.

The League of Red Cross Societies, at the peak point of its operations in February 1957, provided care and maintenance for more than 35,000 refugees in forty-four camps. In all, some 100,000 refugees passed through its camps. The league brought in some 350 social workers, physicians, nurses, etc., and employed nearly 700 Austrian nationals. It acted directly until June 30, 1957, when the Austrian Red Cross took over, with logistical support from the league. At the end of September 1957 the Red Cross withdrew and turned over its functions in the camps to the Austrian government. For its services on behalf of the Hungarian refugees, the league was awarded the 1957 Nansen Medal by the Nansen Committee, set up in 1954 by the UNHCR.

The ICEM transported 88,000 Hungarian refugees from Austria in November and December 1956, and expected to move a total of 60,300 in 1957.

The United States, on November 8, 1956, made available to Hungarian refugees in Austria all the visas remaining under the expiring Refugee Relief Act of 1953. On December 1, 1956, President Dwight D. Eisenhower authorized an additional 15,000 to enter as "parolees" under the McCarran-Walter Immigration Act, and on January 1, 1957, he ordered that the processing of refugees for emergency admission should continue with no specific limits pending Congressional action. In mid-December 1956 United States Vice President Richard M. Nixon went to Austria, as President Eisenhower's personal representative, to study the Hungarian refugee problem. The first group of Hungarian refugees left for the United States on November 20, 1956. The special Camp Kilmer Reception Center, operated by the United States Army, was opened to receive Hungarian refugees, and the President's

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* The ages and skills of Hungarian refugees favored their resettlement. Thus, those who came to the United States were younger than the average immigrants, there were more males, and their general occupational level was higher. . . . Compared with the skills of other recent immigrants, the work skills of the Hungarians are unusually high" (I & N Reporter, Immigration and Naturalization Service, N. Y., July 1957, p. 7.
* Interpreter Releases, Jan. 16, 1957.
Committee for Hungarian Refugee Relief was set up. As of May 1, 1957, the United States Military Air Transport Service had transported 13,120 refugees in 214 flights, the United States Military Sea Transport Service 8,945 on five ocean trips, and the ICEM 9,664 in 133 flights (Report to the President by the President's Committee for Hungarian Refugee Relief, May 14, 1957). Over $40,000,000 was allocated by the United States government to help in the Hungarian emergency. In addition, voluntary agencies raised over $18,000,000 in the United States (Department of State Bulletin, July 8, 1957, and UN Release REF/374, June 4, 1957).8

Most of the Hungarian refugees wanted to be resettled overseas, particularly in the United States. To induce the United States to admit additional escapees from Hungary, Hungarian refugees in camp Siezenheim began a hunger strike which lasted four days and ended on May 10, 1957, after an intervention by Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt, who visited the camp.9

The Hungarian government attempted to induce the refugees to return. It announced a general amnesty to those returning by the end of January 1957,10 and sent a repatriation commission to Vienna. The Austrian government agreed to admit the commission, but stipulated that an Austrian representative and a representative of the office of the UNHCR should be present at the interviews with refugees. Few refugees returned to Hungary.

Still pending in the fall of 1957 was the fate of over 2,000 unaccompanied children among the refugees, about 100 of them under fourteen years of age.11 Hungary insisted on their repatriation, but Austria hesitated, since the true desires of the parents who were still residing in Hungary could not be ascertained.

**Jewish Refugees**

Jewish migrants came to Austria from Eastern European countries; most of them eventually went on to resettle elsewhere. In 1956-57 some 25,000 Polish Jews passed through Vienna on their way to Israel. In the second half of 1956 it became easier to obtain passports in Hungary, and numbers of Jews benefited from this liberalization, either to visit their relatives in Vienna or obtain medical treatment there. In case of need they were taken care of by the Vienna Kultusgemeinde. Barbed-wire fences on the border were dismantled, and interference with those who wished to cross the frontier ceased shortly before the revolution in Budapest. As a result, the stream of Hungarian Jews going to Austria increased towards the end of October 1956; it became a mass movement after November 4, when the Soviet army started its action against the Hungarian uprising.

At first, people came from towns near the border. There were instances—for example, the community of Sopron—in which all the residents of small

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8 Thanks to international financial contributions, "most of the bills incurred by the Austrian government for the Hungarian refugees will be covered by the end of this year," stated the UNHCR at the meeting of the Economic and Social Council on July 24, 1957 (Ref. Service #3, Sept. 1957).
9 Arbeiter Zeitung, May 9, 10, 1957.
Jewish communities appeared in the Austrian reception centers with their rabbi, shochet (ritual slaughterer), and other religious functionaries. Later, escapees from Budapest and other localities in the interior began to arrive; many left their families behind. On November 1, 1956, between 700 and 1,000 Hungarian Jewish refugees were registered with the American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee (JDC); the number increased, within a month, to 4,000, and by mid-January 1957 it had reached 10,400.

The exact number of Jews who escaped from Hungary during and after October-November 1956 was not known. Not all the escapees requested assistance from Jewish organizations, and some, afraid of anti-Semitism, preferred to hide their Jewish identity. JDC registration in Austria of Hungarian refugees who received assistance in one form or another totaled 18,215: 7,085 men, 6,438 women, and 4,742 children. Assuming that they represented 90 to 95 per cent of all Hungarian Jewish refugees, the total Jewish influx to Austria was approximately 20,000. More than 14,300 Hungarian refugees were registered for immigration with the United HIAS Service in mid-March 1957. An attempt to establish the number of Jewish escapees from Hungary by adding the figures on their emigration from Austria to the number of those still remaining in that country would not produce accurate results, since not all Jewish emigration was recorded as such. Many Jews left Austria with the assistance of non-Jewish agencies, and only after their arrival in the country of final resettlement, if at all, did they contact local Jewish agencies. Besides, in the hectic days of November and December 1956, it was impossible to keep an accurate count of the refugees leaving Austria.

As of August 31, 1957, the United HIAS Service had assisted 10,493 persons in emigrating from Austria (4,484 to the United States, 3,173 to Canada, 1,697 to Australia and New Zealand, 614 to Latin America, 520 to Europe, and 5 to other countries). As of August 1, 1957, Israel had admitted 1,869 refugees, and between 2,000 and 2,500 remained in Austria at the end of August 1957. These figures account for only 14,000 to 15,000 of the 18,000 to 20,000 Jews who left Hungary. About 14 per cent of the 135,000 Jews in Hungary, as compared with less than 2 per cent of the general population, emigrated after the October revolution.

Data collected by JDC at the end of November 1956, when 3,200 Jewish refugees had accumulated in Austria, indicated that 55 per cent were males, 19 per cent were children up to sixteen years of age, 42 per cent were between seventeen and thirty-five, 36 per cent between thirty-six and sixty, and 3 per cent over sixty. Of those sixteen years of age and over, 11 per cent were professionals, 21 per cent were white-collar workers, 32 per cent were skilled workers, 22 per cent were unskilled workers, 5 per cent were students, and 9 per cent were housewives.

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12 The number of Hungarian Jewish refugees in Yugoslavia was estimated at about 400 in May 1957.
13 Jewish refugees from Hungary preferred, as countries of resettlement, first the United States, then Canada, and next Australia.
14 Information on arrivals indicates that, in fact, 1,900 Jewish refugees from Hungary arrived in Australia, and more than 1,000 in Latin American countries. The latter figure refers to the first seven months of 1957 only.
15 One hundred forty-three Jewish physicians reached Austria from Hungary (OSE Newsletter, N.Y., March 5, 1957).
In ten weeks, the Jewish population in Austria more than doubled, due to the influx from Hungary. The Jewish agencies faced problems analogous to those that existed after World War II. In November the Vienna Kultusgemeinde, with the support of the JDC, took the responsibility of caring for the new refugees. But when the influx surpassed all expectations, the leadership had to be taken over by the JDC, which increased its staff from 12 to some 100, mobilized workers throughout Europe, enlisted the help of the wives of many employees, and drafted the services of the Austrian Jewish community. The Vienna Kultusgemeinde moved local agencies out of its community building, and put it at the disposal of those interviewing the refugees. Bus services for inland transportation of the refugees were organized, and cars moved daily from the borders to Vienna, Salzburg, Linz, etc., where the newcomers could be accommodated. An additional kitchen was established in Vienna to provide kosher food. The main problem, however, was housing. There was not enough space in the governmental camps, and JDC housed refugees in hotels and private rooms. In the long run this proved too expensive: in the first week of January 1957 the cost of maintaining 7,500 persons in hotels ran to $10,000 a day. In December 1956 an installation in Bad Kreuzen, near Linz, administered by a Norwegian Red Cross team, and in January 1957 another at Korneuburg, near Vienna, supervised by a Swedish Red Cross team, were opened to Jewish refugees, making possible the gradual liquidation of the hotel scheme. Only the large-scale transportation of refugees out of Austria, however, brought the number there down to manageable proportions. The assistance in emigration of refugees from Austria rendered by the United HIAS Service and the Jewish Agency for Palestine was an important factor in this development.

In September 1957 about 1,450 Hungarian Jewish refugees were being assisted by JDC, as against 10,400 nine months before. This included a number who had left Hungary legally, among them a group of Orthodox Jews for whom the Agudat Israel World Organization had secured British immigration visas, and who remained temporarily in Austria. Of these 1,450, only 55 lived in hotels and private rooms; 1,394 lived in various installations: 566 in the all Jewish camp of Korneuburg, 427 in the Asten camp, 46 in the installation of the Vienna Kultusgemeinde, and 355 in several other camps.

There were some anti-Semitic incidents in the camps. Riots broke out in the camps of Siezenheim and Roeder in January 1957; demonstrators charged that Jews were receiving preferential treatment and priority in obtaining United States visas. The Austrian police had to intervene to protect the Jews (The Day-Jewish Morning Journal, N.Y., Jan. 14, 1957, and The New York Times, Jan. 13, 15, 1957). See also Hans Hoft, in World Mental Health, Feb. 1957.